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MANUAL OF LIBRARY ECONOMY



W. C. Berwick Sayers
(1882-1960)
Editor from 1920-1950

JAMES DUFF BROWN'S

MANUAL

OF

LIBRARY ECONOMY

SEVENTH EDITION
completely rewritten

by

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ANDRE DEUTSCH
A GRAFTON BOOK
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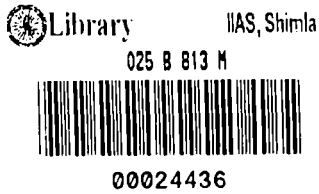
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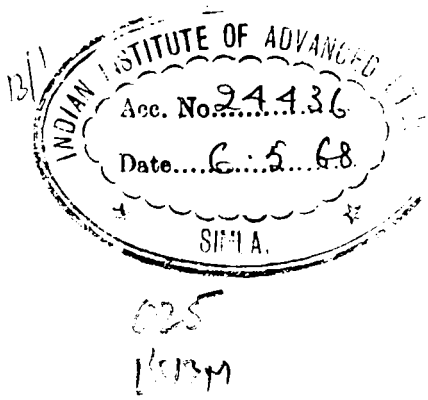
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OF

JAMES DUFF BROWN
(1862-1914)



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R.N.L.

INTRODUCTION

A COMPARISON of this and previous editions is instructive as showing the development of ideas in library practice. When in 1903 James Duff Brown published his *Manual of Library Economy* it was hailed by eager library workers everywhere as the first comprehensive treatise on its subject, with the possible exception of Arnim Graesel's *Grundzüge der Bibliothekslehre* which had appeared at Leipzig thirteen years before and was also available in a French translation by Jules Lande as the *Manuel de Bibliothéconome*, published in Paris in 1897. Even America had no comparable work. Brown was familiar with that admirable book, and the order of his own work bears some resemblance to it, but Graesel was mainly concerned with university and national libraries, and Brown desired to concentrate into one volume what was found to be the most useful methodology of the public library as we Anglo-Saxon people know it; British conditions guided and influenced him, and the grave financial limitations imposed on rate supported libraries are clearly reflected throughout the Manual. The successive editions of the work show the very gradual enlargement that the British attitude of mind towards libraries has undergone; but, be it remarked, most of the modern developments were foreseen and even advocated by Brown. Not a page of the original now remains, but the book was his, and his name will always be associated with it.

'This manual,' said Brown in 1903, 'does not attempt to record all the conventions and traditions of the older librarianship, nor does it pretend to describe all the ideas and methods of modern librarianship. It endeavours to collect and summarise some of the best and most vital methods which have been adopted, and to arrange them in such divisions as may tend to give the book a systematic form, and so place the study of library economy on a more consistent and scientific basis than heretofor. . . .

In a text-book such as this, dealing mainly with broad principles, it has not been thought desirable to notice every detail of library routine work, nor to mention every appliance which has been introduced. To do so thoroughly would extend this manual to many times its present size. Nevertheless, the work gives an adequate view of every department of modern librarianship, and, in addition, provides hundreds of references to periodical and other literature, from which further information may be gathered.'

It is clearly impossible to compass all librarianship in detail in a single work; the very much greater variety of library services since Brown's time would alone make this unrealistic. But it is possible still to give a

practical general account which shall be the groundwork of specialised development.

Hence this new edition will be found to deal with the fundamental practices to which the normal public library conforms. Under every heading whole monographs might be and are written, and this work invites criticism in that attempting to cover a wide field, mere superficiality has resulted. This would be to mistake the aim and execution of the work, which is as much to stimulate study and discussion by the recording of the best and most fruitful practices of current British librarianship as to offer indications as to the literature in which both the underlying principles and alternative methods may be found.

The tendency towards specialisation in such a varied profession as librarianship is strong, and it is at times hard to see the ground common to the widely varying types of libraries, but, underlying every different library is the same basic need for organisation of books and service to readers. No matter for what specialised body of reader the library has been formed, problems of acquisition, arrangement, storage, display and utilisation will arise. These are perennial problems, universal in their manifestation; no true librarian will be likely to find such a work as this entirely irrelevant to his daily work, and the body of trained librarians, greater far than in Brown's time, may well find here some stimulus towards discussion. If this be so, the present editor will be more than satisfied.

It would not be seemly to end this Introduction without some acknowledgement to those who have made this new edition possible. On previous occasions graceful tribute was paid to the lifelong debt owed by the Editor to the 'onlie begetter of this work', James Duff Brown and to those who were his coadjutors, critics and aids, L. Stanley Jast, 'who was always devising something, Arthur W. Lambert, the designer of many library appliances, and William Fortune, the trained librarian who became the business man of the library equipment world.'

To these the present Editor would wish to add firstly the name of that editor himself, W. C. Berwick Sayers. All those who had the privilege of working as part of the Croydon staff will remember the ideals of librarianship which were an integral part of our daily working life. A tradition derived from Brown himself, strengthened by the virile influences of Jast and Savage, culminated in a library service to readers of a peculiarly personal and human nature. If ever a library was to be found truly integrated as part of the community, it was surely there, and a better training ground can hardly be imagined.

Next the thanks of the Editor go to the numerous librarians throughout the world, who have consciously or unconsciously stimulated thought by personal conversations, correspondence or by the printed word. To detail these by name would be impossible; and a general offering of thanks is the only, though inadequate, return that can be made.

Two of my colleagues at the Birmingham School of Librarianship have been particularly generous in their assistance during the preparation of this edition: Graham Jones, M.A., F.L.A., F.L.A.I., who wrote Chapters VIII, IX, XVI and XVII, and E. S. Fox, F.L.A., who collaborated with me in Chapters VII, X and XV. I am most grateful for contributions of such central importance to the book as a whole, representing as they do, in permanent form, the substance of endless discussions and the vital interchange of ideas in which we have so freely joined for the past five years or more. This is, perhaps, the truest form of collaboration and no editor could wish for more. Norman Roberts, B.A.(Econ.), F.L.A., a more recent colleague, has contributed a much-appreciated section in Chapter X from his experience of work with a local history collection; and F. Hughes, F.L.A. valuable information on financial and other matters based on his experience when Librarian of Cannock.

To each and all of these, my sincere thanks.

R. N. L.

Birmingham
Llangollen 1960

CHAPTER I

THE BACKGROUND OF PUBLIC LIBRARIES

IN the United Kingdom today it is generally accepted that public libraries should be provided for all groups of the population wherever they may live and whatever their economic status. Furthermore, as has recently been re-emphasised,[1] this is primarily to be regarded as a responsibility best discharged through units of local government from their own local financial resources. This policy cannot be regarded as the product of any new consideration of public library provision but rather as the generalisation of existing conditions, themselves the consequence of a haphazard application of a variety of policies working within permissive legislation, and it is impossible adequately to understand the present problems of British public libraries without some examination of the historical background.

The traditional attribution of the public library movement to the work of William Ewart,[2] and his associates, who in 1849 procured the appointment of that Select Committee of the House of Commons 'on the best Means of extending the Establishment of Libraries freely open to the Public especially in Large Towns in Great Britain and Ireland', which in 1850 resulted in the first of a series of Acts of Parliament,[3] is now generally considered an over-simplification. Despite the wealth of information as to existing libraries and information as to contemporary ideals provided by the witnesses to the Committee no account was taken of the intellectual motives leading towards the foundation of existing libraries and certainly nothing was to come of the constructive suggestions of William Lovett (answer to Q. 2801) for travelling libraries in rural areas. The resulting legislation in no way suggests that either official or public opinion was ready to accept anything more than the basic permissive powers contained in Ewart's Act.

The result of this superficial legislation was that the development of public libraries for the next seventy years was completely unplanned, sporadic and, until the latter part of the period, highly individual. A brief survey of these motives is, in consequence, desirable to understand the present situation. At the outset, it should be noted that by 1869 only 30 public authorities had adopted the Public Libraries Acts, and 'in no

[1] 'Roberts Report': reaffirmed by the Minister's statement in House of Commons 11.2.60.

[2] Munford. *William Ewart*. 1960. Ewart, as other reforming M.P.s, in relation to their causes, appears curiously uncommitted to the cause of Public Libraries.

[3] For the complete citation see Sanderson. *Public Library Legislation*; essential for the earlier Acts omitted in Hewitt.

place has the Act been adopted without much preparation and enlightenment through the concert of good and determined men. . . .' [J. D. Mullins 1869]. There is every reason to believe that other means were available for supplying reading matter, e.g. Lord J. Manners' private scheme for Post Office workers *c.* 1880, and that the faint enthusiasm of 1849 had exhausted itself. There remained for many years considerable doubts as to the wisdom of encouraging reading habits among the working classes, but it may fairly be said that public libraries were primarily founded independently of government action by men with social consciences, anxious to improve the lot of the working man and his family,[4] offering an alternative to the beer-house.[5] This would be particularly true of the ultra radical reformers (who were not necessarily members of the Trades Societies or able to afford membership of the Mechanics Institutes) such as the non-militant wing of the Chartists. But the anti-drunkenness motive was not by any means confined to the political reformers; appearing continuously in answers given by witnesses to the Select Committee, in many religious contexts and, in perhaps the most celebrated instance, Greenwood's *Public Library Handbook*. Libraries and the reading habit were recognised as potent allies by the temperance reformers throughout the country and their propaganda is full of proposals as well as actual plans for libraries.[6]

Education was, however, not far behind. Early in 1838 the Cirencester Working Men's Association in a printed address boldly said 'let the state then, as it would have good citizens, provide for the education of the rising generation, and, for the adult population, institutions affording the means of rational enjoyment; every district should have its public library, museum, gallery of art, and public walks'. The W.M.A. regularly included libraries in its educational plans, and when in 1842 its successor the National Association acquired permanent premises,[7] a library for both reference and home reading was incorporated.[8]

On more permanent and more ambitious scale were the Mechanics Institutes associated so closely with that great social reformer George Birkbeck. In view of the excellent biography now available, it is superfluous to enlarge on the immense stimulus contributed by Birkbeck and others; it is necessary to note that not all these institutions successfully kept pace with social change; some withered away entirely, some became purely closed society libraries; a very few, as at Hitchin, Newcastle-on-Tyne, survived long enough to inhibit the adoption of the Public Library Acts. In some instances public funds were paid to support

[4] *Vide* in particular the activities of the Working Men's Association 1836–57.

[5] But also, after 1811, the revived Coffee House. Potters Coffee House in Long Acre is credited with *c.*2000 much used volumes (1849).

[6] E.g. 'moral beer-houses'. O'Brien. *A Plea for liberty*. Intro. Herbert Spencer.

[7] No. 242 High Holborn, London.
Joseph Sturge and J. S. Mill both gave support in money or books.

the libraries, but in most instances members' subscriptions were the main source of income.

It was the educational potential of libraries that attracted the attention of men such as Slaney,[9] Brotherton and George Dawson, and it is greatly to their credit that from the beginning they regarded the establishment and maintenance of libraries as non-sectarian, a view strongly endorsed later by the librarian J. D. Mullins. The long-lived interest of the Workers' Educational Association in public libraries was in some ways a continuation of this enthusiasm. During the renewed interest in libraries (1913-1919) caused by the Carnegie benefactions and the Adams Report, the W.E.A., largely inspired by William Temple, actively campaigned for the identification of public libraries with the education services. As far as existing library authorities were concerned they met with no success, but the 1919 Act made the new county library authorities subordinate to the education service.

Opposition to adoption of the Acts there was in plenty, and not merely on financial grounds or from innate apathy. For example, the adoption of the Acts was greatly delayed in the London boroughs of Islington and St. Pancras as late as 1896 and 1897 by carefully engineered opposition from the property owners. A somewhat curious survival of religious opposition shewn in a Birmingham broadside of 1852, 'The Taxed Library' is redolent of the poor quality of so much controversial literature, and perhaps only now important as the revealing symptoms of a long vanished attitude of mind. Competition from existing circulating libraries frequently delayed the adoption of the Acts.[10] For many years public libraries were regarded (sometimes correctly) as essentially provided for the 'working classes' or 'artisans' and were virtually unused by the wealthier members of the community. Some of the early library statistics[11] of the occupations of readers shew quite clearly that it was indeed from the lower artisan rather than the professional classes that libraries drew their support. The separation was no doubt enhanced by the atmosphere of philanthropy and parsimony so characteristic of British local government institutions in that century, and is admirably demonstrated in the writings of Janetta, Duchess of Rutland[12] and, to a lesser degree, is inherent in Miss Sayle's otherwise admirable *How to form a Village Library.*

[9] R. A. Slaney. *Essay on the Beneficial Direction of Rural Expenditure.* 1824.

[10] e.g. Northampton in 1869 'prospect of forming a Library is not very good. Probably it is affected by the existence of several good and cheaply accessible libraries in the town.' Return shewing all the Boroughs . . . that have adopted the Act of 18 and 19 Vict.c.70 . . . [1870.]

[11] Return. Free Libraries Acts. 1876; esp. Forms III and IIIA. cf. the Return of 1884. Later Returns are not so informative. Also the analysis of Staffordshire readers in 1917/18 reprinted in Cd. 9237, p. 8.

[12] Janetta Manners, Duchess of Rutland. Some of the Advantages of easily accessible Reading and Recreation Rooms and Free Libraries. 1885. Encouraging Experiences of Reading and Recreation Rooms. 1886.

The modern public library service may justly be said to have been vitalised by the work of a comparatively few public librarians in the last two decades of the nineteenth century; but the vitality was directed significantly into establishment of routines, training of staff and the perennial struggle against strictly limited funds. The great achievements of this time, the open access lending library, the application of subject classification, the printed catalogues, the Library Association itself, with the Professional Register and examination syllabus, are impressive in themselves, but need to be considered not from the achievements at Finsbury, Peterborough, Croydon, but in the light of the hundreds of library authorities that were so encouraged by the Act of 1892 and by the benefactions of Passmore Edwards, Carnegie and others.

Any survey forces the conclusion that an enormous amount of professional zeal and even talent was misdirected into establishing and running institutions that had already outlived their immediate usefulness. For the structure of society was changing rapidly and fundamentally and it was no time to erect inflexible buildings of a perdurable quality and to enforce methods of library service without enquiry into their purpose or the likely clients.

Such evidence as is available suggests that few public librarians and certainly no committees were thoroughly aware of the importance of the spread of Further Education; of the growth of professional societies, each with education syllabuses, requiring the use of libraries; of the increased dominance of science and technology; of the more precise and higher standards of scholarship expected by the new products of the schools and universities. Some librarians undoubtedly were great bookmen, but the great majority brought no imaginative awareness of this new society to their work.

It is perhaps unfair to place too much blame on these narrowly efficient men, for their employers scarcely elicited the ideals we expect in public servants, but, if progress was to come, it had to come from within the profession, as already suggested, and these pioneers were not helped by the apathy of the many.

Outside help was not wanting. Men such as Albert Mansbridge, William Temple, Professor Adams, the Secretaries of the Carnegie United Kingdom Trust, Hetherington and J. M. Mitchell in particular, were potent forces, but enough remained of the past to call for more than personal action. Looking back, in 1919, the strong Committee on Adult Education, reporting to the Minister of Reconstruction, said 'This partial and unequal development (of public libraries) is probably due to the want of foresight of the original promoters of the movement, who assumed that the institutions would appeal only to the artisan classes of the large centres of population and allowed the legislature to restrict the expenditure of public money to the product of a penny rate. This might have been adequate for the municipal continuation of the

Mechanics' Institute type, but is quite insufficient for the modern public library which is used by all classes, and supplies much wider demands than were originally contemplated.' (Cd. 9237, page 4).

No-one seems to have pointed out that the 1849 Committee considered libraries in 'Large Towns' and that many of the troubles of public libraries stem as much from the ill-advised extension of library powers to even the smallest units as from the inexplicable dominance of the home reading library and the supply of fiction. As time progressed, these problems became more pressing, and with the growing awareness of the inequalities of library provision from place to place, attention began to be focussed on the need to consider the service from a national viewpoint.

By 1920, it was clear that something more than small local lending libraries working in isolation was needed, and that certain exceptions in the quality of the library service were due to special causes that could not universally obtain. There have indeed been notable exceptions in the larger cities such as Glasgow, Liverpool, Manchester, Birmingham, where benefactors had emerged from the commercial and industrial communities to endow such great institutions as the Mitchell, the Picton and William Brown, and Birmingham Reference Libraries. How is it to be accounted for? As with most British institutions of the nineteenth century, though private altruism and public philanthropy found it necessary to seek national support for their cause, yet, such was the persisting dislike of central government interference, no adequate administrative framework had yet been evolved to ensure that private initiative could be combined without loss into the permanent government structure. It is in this background of a society moving from mediaeval forms of government towards a structure capable of sustaining the complex activities of the modern state that the origins and development of the library movement must be seen, and it is only in these terms that the achievements and frustrations of the present service can be given their correct evaluation. The wide variations in library provision so obvious today, and only suspected as late as the 1920-30 period, stem directly not from the inadequate financial provisions, nor from the alleged reading habits in particular areas, but from the accidental impact of personalities. Those libraries were indeed fortunate which had for their benefactors either men of outstanding wealth, combined with a true appreciation of the importance of learning, or, failing wealth, men of sufficient moral calibre, with enthusiasm, to canalise already existing numerous but vague aspirations towards library provision. Much of nineteenth century reformist writing now seems intolerably verbose and flaccid; reports of speeches by such exponents of oratory as Bright and Gladstone make weary reading; but it should be remembered that without the continued support of these men and lesser ones such as George Dawson, public apathy could hardly have been shaken, much less transformed into positive activity. Contem-

porary libraries are still in great need of intelligent support from outstanding public figures.

It was fortunate too that some of the great libraries early attracted a measure of local patriotism; but, more than this, they attracted some notable librarians. Peter Cowell, W. H. K. Wright, J. D. Mullins, to mention but three, are as much among the architects of the Public Library Movement as any of the propagandists or the politicians. After the lapse of half a century and more, it is difficult to assess the contribution of these men, for, with one or two notable exceptions, they wrote little save annual reports or on non-library topics. The most notable exception is probably J. D. Mullins, whose small book *Free Public Libraries and Newsrooms* (1869) was of the very greatest importance in the ensuing decades, being almost the only practical advice available to the newly appointed public librarian or the enthusiastic amateur anxious to establish a library or reading room. Over thirty years were to elapse before J. D. Brown was to issue his *Manual of Library Economy* (1903), and in that interval the general pattern of public library service as it is still known today was largely determined. A profitable comparison can still be made between these two landmarks of library history and the actual achievement of the libraries movement. What does it disclose? First, the unpalatable fact that the basic legislation was not then and is certainly not now implemented to its fullest capacity as it would be were there any strong popular emotion involved. Secondly, leading public librarians have never been lacking in public spirit or in administrative ability, but have sadly lacked a sense of direction as to how those admirable qualities should be used. Thirdly, failing this definition, valuable resources have not and are not being used to the best advantage.

CHAPTER II

THE STATUTORY AUTHORITY

THERE is no single consolidated Act dealing with Public Libraries for any part of the British Isles, and it is necessary to refer to several individual Acts to comprehend the powers and duties of a library authority.

These Acts for England and Wales are:—

1892 55 and 56 Vict.c.53. An Act to consolidate and amend the law relating to Public Libraries.

1893 56 Vict.c.11. An Act to amend the Public Libraries Act 1892.

1898 61 and 62 Vict.c.53. An Act to provide for the Punishment of Offences in Libraries.

1901 1 Edw.7.c.19. The Public Libraries Act, 1901.

1919 9 and 10 Geo.5.c.93. An Act to amend the Public Libraries Acts 1892 to 1901, and to repeal so much of the Museums Act, 1891, as authorizes the provision of Museums in England and Wales.

Under these Acts the following authorities are empowered to provide public libraries:—

1. The Counties
2. The City of London
3. The Metropolitan Boroughs
4. The County Boroughs

and in addition should the following authorities have adopted the Acts and actually expended money on their administration in the year preceding that in which the county adopted the Acts,

5. Boroughs
6. Urban Districts
7. Rural Parishes.

By the 1919 Act, Counties were enabled to adopt the Libraries Acts by a simple vote of the County Council, the resolution specifying the area to which the Acts would apply, excluding those existing library authorities which did not wish to be incorporated into the County system.

Section 1(2) specifies that power of local authorities to adopt the Acts ceases once the county has made its Resolution. Section 3 refers all library powers to the Education Committee of the County Council save the power of raising a rate or of borrowing money. Section 2 makes provision for existing library authorities to rescind their resolution adopting the Acts and by agreement to relinquish to the county. Section

5 makes a similar provision for the county by agreement to rescind its resolution as respecting individual districts and to enable such districts to become independent library authorities.

Considerable use has been made of this power of recent years, and much instructive procedure will be found in the instances of Kent and Gillingham, Hampshire and Aldershot, Warwickshire and Solihull.

Authority already existed under the 1893 Act Section 4 for combination of urban districts, and it has been held that as there is nothing expressed to the contrary, counties may combine with other authorities for specific purposes. The agreement between Cardiganshire and Aberystwyth to administer a joint service would appear to be decisive, especially in view of the ruling by the Minister that in absence of definite mention of counties in the Libraries Acts a county may combine with another authority for library purposes by virtue of the Local Government Act 1933 s.91(1).

Under the Local Government Act 1933, Sections 180, 183 it is possible for the County Council to make a special or differential rate for any part of the county receiving special services, and this has in the past been applied for library purposes, but following the lead of Lancashire and Kent Counties, this system is now largely abandoned, only Cheshire County retaining the system in 1955.

The Public Libraries Acts were adopted for the City of London by simple resolution of the Common Council.

Metropolitan Boroughs were enabled by the London Government Act of 1899 to adopt the Libraries Acts and this power has since been considerably modified and extended by later legislation particularly the consolidating London Government Act (1939) as to their powers to organise 'extension' work. Owing to the prior adoption of the Acts by the City of London and by the Metropolitan Boroughs, there is no area for which the L.C.C. could adopt the Acts under the 1919 Act, s.1.

The remaining authorities, county boroughs, boroughs, urban districts and rural parishes are now either in possession of their own powers as library authorities by virtue of having adopted the Acts previous to 1919, or are no longer able to become independent library authorities owing to adoption by the county. The only urban districts which have not exercised their powers are, in England and Wales, Mountain Ash (Glamorgan) and Newbiggin (Northumberland).

In general, the Public Libraries Acts provide for the authority acting through the Libraries Committee to purchase furniture, fittings, books, newspapers, maps; to purchase land and to erect buildings on the same; to appoint staff to administer the library and to pay salaries. There are also powers to administer the libraries by means of Bye-Laws and Rules and Regulations; to provide that proper accounts of receipts and expenditure are kept, and to ensure that they shall be audited as are other local authority accounts.

No limitation is placed as to expenditure under the Acts, but an authority may resolve for any financial year that the rate to be levied for library purposes shall not exceed a certain amount and this resolution is accordingly operative for the year specified. There is now no specific library rate; payments being made from the general rate fund.

No authority exists for the total rescinding of the Libraries Acts by the local authority having once adopted the powers, though county councils may relinquish their powers as regards given districts to enable a better service to be provided by that district; and urban districts may similarly relinquish to the county; nor on the other hand, is there any specific provision to define minimum expenditure on the library service in any area, the only guidance being the statement of the Master of the Rolls in the Westminster case, that an authority having adopted the Acts is to act as a library authority.

Certain other problems of interpretation and administration arise from the Libraries Acts and have been the subject of legal opinion. These problems may be considered as affecting

i. the financial administration
ii. the library service
iii. the buildings and land.

The financial questions concern liability to Income Tax, especially where there is subsidiary income from occupation of part of the building by a person paying rent; or from charges for admission to lectures. Rule 5 (d) of the Local Authority Agreed Rules between the Inland Revenue and the Institute of Municipal Treasurers and Accountants has been amended to read

1. 'A free library, where the buildings are owned and maintained by a Local Authority under the provisions of the Public Libraries Act. If used *solely* as a free library, is entitled to the relief granted in Rule 1 (e) No. VI, Schedule A, Income Tax Act 1918, to a literary and scientific institution: (Mayor of Manchester v. McAdam, 1896). (The annual value of an officer's quarters is to be retained in charge unless the occupant's total income exclusive of the annual value of the quarters does not amount to £150 per annum);

2. which, although used mainly as a free library, comprises a hall or other rooms used for lectures, plays or other activities, for or in connection with the advancement of art, education, drama, science, music or literature, is entitled to the exemption granted under Section 30, Finance Act, 1921, from tax (i) under Schedule A and (ii) under Schedule D, upon any profits arising from the use of the buildings for the other purposes specified above. (The annual value of any parts of the building which are in the use or enjoyment of a person whose total income from all sources for Income Tax purposes amounts to not less than £150 is to be retained in charge.)'

No express provision is made by the Public Libraries Acts for the exemption of Public Libraries from local rates and for many years it was hoped that public libraries would come within the definition of a 'society instituted for the purposes of art, education . . . literature . . . exclusively', thus qualifying for the certificate of the Registrar of Friendly Societies and so obtain relief. In 1896 (Manchester Corporation v. McAdam) and 1905 (Liverpool v. The West Derby Union) it was decided public libraries were not exempt, and this decision is clearly strengthened by the Rating and Valuation Act 1955. Most public libraries do in fact include a sum for this purpose in their annual estimates.

It was decided in the case of Musgrave and the Dundee Magistrates and Town Council (1897) that 'where accommodation was afforded to a subscription library whose books after being in circulation for one year became the property of the public library . . . the buildings were not used solely for the purposes of the public library, and did not therefore fall within the exemption' [from Income Tax liability].

The charge levied by some authorities for tickets, though not expressly prohibited, would seem clearly contrary to Sect. 11(3) of the 1892 Act, which provides that no charge shall be made for admission to libraries; but it has been held that the practice might be regarded as a guarantee or security against the loss or injury to any book, authorised by bye-laws made under the Public Libraries Act of 1901.

The power to charge fines would appear to derive from the authority to make rules for the conduct of libraries, and so long as the amounts involved are reasonable, the procedure is valid.

As far as the library service is concerned, the main difficulty lies in the power to recover books from defaulting borrowers. In 1949 the Minister of Education considered it wrong to sanction a Bye-Law rendering defaulting borrowers liable to prosecution. Under the general law of Tort all library books, or their value, could be recovered by an action in the County Court for wrongful conversion. The disadvantage of this remedy is that it may be cumbrous and, relative to the value of the book, costly.

With the exception of those authorities which have obtained special provision by virtue of Local Acts of Parliament, it appears that Bye-Laws will enable a criminal prosecution to be undertaken in a Magistrates Court for the recovery of fines, but that to recover books it is necessary to sue in the County Court. It is desirable that the Bye-Laws and the borrower's voucher should be carefully worded and that the charging system should effectively provide evidence of loan to the reader concerned as well as of the non-return of the book.

Provision of lecturers and payment therefore from the library rate has been the subject of much controversy, some authorities meeting such expenses from the proceeds of fines or the sale of books or of waste

paper; other authorities seeking such powers by virtue of a Local Act to expend up to a designated sum per annum as part of the function as a higher education authority. The only clear authority other than this is the London County Council (General Purposes) Act, 1936, s.51, which specifically empowers Metropolitan Borough Councils as library authorities to arrange lectures on educational or other subjects and to charge for admission. There is some reason to think that the Education Act 1944, s.53, might be similarly used by other authorities; employing the Libraries Committee as the agent for such activities in preference to establishing a new committee, though this would not strictly be in accord with the wording of the statute.

By a decision in the case of the Attorney General v. Sunderland Corporation (1876), libraries may be erected on any land vested in a local authority, subject to the consent of the Minister of Health, which power, together with the procedure governing the acquisition and use of land for library purposes is now vested in the Minister of Housing and Local Government acting under the Acquisition of Land (Authorisation Procedure) Act 1946, repealing the provisions of the 1892 Act s.12 and the 1919 Act.

The Westminster case (1924) established that neither land nor buildings acquired for the purposes of the Public Libraries Acts may be disposed of, or their use changed, unless similar or better provision is made for the library.

Endowments of land or trusts comprising funds, held for the purpose of the maintenance of Public Libraries, Museums and Art Galleries are, by the Minister of Education (Transfer of Functions) Order, 1949, s.2(d), transferred to the jurisdiction of that minister who, therefore, will be the authority approving the regulation of such endowments or trusts.

The law relating to libraries in Scotland is confused in so far as it gives rise to two types of authority, the town councils under acts consolidated in 1887, and later emended in 1894, 1899 and by the Local Government Act 1929; and the county councils providing library services under the Education (Scotland) Act, 1918.

This legislation has led to the curious situation in which the counties are not permitted to adopt the Libraries Acts as such, but may organise libraries as part of the educational service not only in the counties but in the burghs. The burghs have furthermore, by the Local Government (Scotland) Act 1929, lost the exemption they formerly enjoyed, from contributing to the cost of the county book service. Some counties, however, compensate to varying degrees for this anomaly of double rating.

The Public Libraries (Scotland) Act 1955 has removed some of the other problems which were peculiar to Scotland; e.g. the limitation of the annual rate and of the amount which may be borrowed for library

purposes by town or county councils. By clause 3 authorities may revoke a previous decision to adopt the Acts so long as adequate services will be provided by a statutory authority; by clause 4 inter-lending powers are extended to include not only books but 'any other library material'.

Much the most interesting provisions are those of clause 2 by which authorities may co-operate for the improvement of their library services and also, with the consent of the Secretary of State for Scotland, contribute towards the expenses of a non-statutory body. From part 3 (a) and (b) of this clause it is clearly intended that all library authorities in Scotland shall agree to contribute by agreement for a specified number of years to the support of the Scottish National Library.

The new Act does nothing to tackle the problem of double rating; but it does offer encouragement for the lesser authorities to relinquish library powers to the larger units, and it is perhaps along these lines, rather than by the individual arrangements hitherto negotiated, that future development lies.

The library legislation for Northern Ireland is basically that enacted for Ireland up to 1920, namely

1855 18 & 19 Vict.c.40. An Act for further promoting the establishment of Free Public Libraries and Museums in Ireland.

1877 40 & 41 Vict.c.15. An Act to amend the Public Libraries (Ireland) Act, 1855.

1894 57 & 58 Vict.c.38. An Act to amend the Public Libraries (Ireland) Acts.

1902 2 Edw.7.c.20. Public Libraries (Ireland) Act.

1911 1 & 2 Geo.5.c.9. An Act to amend the Public Libraries (Ireland) Acts 1855-1902 as respects the provision of Art Galleries in County Boroughs, etc.

1920 10 & 11 Geo.5.c.25. An Act to amend section eight of the Public Libraries (Ireland) Act, 1855, and for other purposes incidental thereto.

1924 14 & 15 Geo.5.c.10. Libraries Act (N.I.).

1946 10 & 11 Geo.6.c.19. Public Health and Local Government (Administrative Provisions) Act.

Under this last Act the limitation on the library rate was removed and s.8 of the 1855 Act emended to read 'The amount of the rate to be levied for the purposes of this Act shall in any year be assessed raised collected and levied—(a) in any borough, in the same manner as the borough rate; (b) in any town, in the same manner as the town rate'.

Bye-laws are operative under the Act of 1902, s.8(i); an Act which also applies the terms of the Libraries Offences Act 1898 to Northern Ireland.

Future development was envisaged in the report *Educational Reconstruction in N. Ireland* 1944 (Cmd.226 N.I.Govt.) and in the Report of the Departmental Committee on libraries in Northern Ireland 1929

[Cmd.101 (N.I.)]. This latter is chiefly concerned with the establishment of a state library; co-operation of authorities; relinquishment of powers by lesser units; and the problems of financial support from the government. Legislation, other than removal of the rate limitation as above, is, however, yet to come.

CHAPTER III

THE LIBRARY AUTHORITY: THE COMMITTEE: BYE-LAWS, RULES AND REGULATIONS

THE administration of the Public Libraries Acts (1892-1919) is effected by all local authorities, save County Councils, for the whole or part of their area through a committee of their elected members as prescribed by the Act of 1892. By virtue of the 1919 Act s.3 the Counties refer their library functions to a sub-committee of the Education Committee; and now, other authorities, by the Local Government Act 1933 s.85(1) and the London Government Act 1939 s.59, delegate their library powers to a committee not necessarily a specifically libraries committee (the Section 15(3) of the 1892 Act being repealed except for the City of London). Thus in 1953 the Borough of Halifax is recorded as having abolished the existing Libraries and Museums Committee and transferred the powers to a sub-committee of the General Purposes Committee (*Library World* Nov. 1953).

Joint Committees, as in the Cardigan County and Aberystwyth Joint Library, may be established under the Local Government Act 1933 s.91.

Delegation to a committee may often imply that its functions are only to make recommendations unless the council has, in the resolution constituting the committee, given express authority to take executive action; nor can a committee to whom powers have been delegated, themselves delegate to a sub-committee. In the case of Bungary v. Wellingborough U.D.C., 1903 (67 J.P.Jo.304, 38 Digest 227, 585), an action for damages for personal injuries caused by the alleged negligence of the librarian, it was held that the committee only became delegates of the powers under the Libraries Acts, and the Council cannot avoid liability.

The extent of delegation is at the discretion of the authority and will be defined in the appropriate resolution establishing the committee, but the powers of raising a rate and of borrowing money are explicitly reserved to the authority itself and may not be transferred. A resolution of delegation may be general in terms, e.g. 'To carry into effect the provisions of the Public Libraries Acts' or it may be specific and detail the precise powers which the committee is to exercise. On this resolution depends whether the committee is an executive, or a reporting committee. The general resolution above would give rise to an executive committee with complete powers save as to raising a rate or borrowing money. Reservations in the resolution often affect the appointment of the senior staff and the erection of buildings.

As regards larger libraries it is desirable to specify an amount beyond which no revenue expenditure may be incurred without reference to the finance committee, but the resolution of the council as to the whole amount to be expended on library purposes in conformity with submitted estimates may make this limitation unnecessary. The Chief Officer is usually permitted expenditure up to £75 subject to report to the Committee; items in excess of this amount being subject to Committee approval. Large expenditure, e.g. in excess of perhaps £500, is usually subject to the approval of the Finance Committee and of Council. It is usually held that books are to be regarded as individual items and if the total bill does not exceed the local limitation consent of the Council is not required. Capital expenditure is carefully controlled by the Finance Committee and the Council, and may also be subject to approval at national government level.

The Standing Orders or Bye-laws regulating the conduct of public library committees are usually similar to those of other local authority committees except in so far as the powers are defined by the resolution establishing the Committee.

Further limitations in this resolution result in a second category, often called a 'reporting committee', which is obliged to make report of its actions at specified times, and to make recommendations on matters reserved by the authority; particularly financial matters which will have to be referred to the Finance Committee for approval.

Another category has to receive approval from the authority for all actions, though it is usual to except the purchase of books and administrative stores. Accounts will be approved by the Finance Committee.

Committees thus vary greatly in their powers; they may indeed in any year have their terms of reference amended by resolution of the Council; and no clear line of distinction can be drawn between the three categories cited. It would appear however, that the first type of committee cited above is the most generally favoured.

Membership of the Committee[1] is governed by the Local Government Act, 1933, and need not be confined to elected members of the council. Under the Public Libraries Act 1919, the Education Committee [of a County or County Borough] may delegate, subject to any directions of the council, '. . . all or any of those powers to a sub-committee consisting either in whole or in part of members of the education committee.' Up to one-third of the members may by law be co-opted, and though the Public Libraries Committee Report 1927 (Cmd.2868) did not doubt the value of such co-opted members, many local authorities are now altering their Standing Orders to exclude such additions to the committee. The reasons against non-elected members serving on committees are clear enough: lack of responsibility to the electorate, non-representa-

[1] For County District or Local Advisory Committees see Chapter on County Libraries.

tion in the Council, possible political implications; but the advantages for a body such as a libraries committee are peculiarly great. Appeal may be made to men or women of ability who are not otherwise willing to serve on a public committee, and persons of genuine interest or enthusiasm may thus assist the general policy of the libraries, especially in Book Selection Sub-Committees.

Section 94 of the 1933 Act provides that a person shall not be disqualified from being a member of *inter alia* 'a committee appointed under Sect. 15 of the Public Libraries Act 1892 by reason of his being a teacher or holding any other office in a school or college which is aided, provided or maintained by the local authority appointing the committee.'

A member of a joint committee appointed by combined boroughs or UDCs need not be a member of any of the combining authorities.

There is no statutory requirement as to the number of meetings of a libraries committee, but the usual practice is to hold monthly meetings, and owing to the nature of the work, there must be constant contact with the librarian through sub-committees or by means of the chairman.

Statutory provisions relating to meetings of local authority committees are contained in L.G.A. 1933 3rd Sch. Pt. V, and local regulations in the Standing Orders of the authority.

The Committee, when appointed, elects its own Chairman, Vice-Chairman, and constitutes its own sub-committees for such purposes as it thinks proper, e.g. Management, Accounts, Books, depending on the size of the authority.

A chairman should be elected annually by the Committee and should invariably be a council member, for he is the natural representative of the committee on the council and its principal spokesman and advocate both there and with the general public. It is fitting that the vice-chairman be a co-opted member if such are permitted. The library movement owes much to chairmen of committees who have held office sufficiently long to acquire thorough knowledge of the work, and who have been able to pursue sound and consistent policies. Some indeed have become known to wider circles in the profession and have been welcome contributors to Conference sessions.

As the full committee meets only at monthly or longer intervals the chairman usually exerts certain powers, e.g. he may authorise the purchase of urgently needed books, the execution of repairs, and such action as is necessary to maintain the service, these actions being on the recommendation and with the concurrence of the librarian and being reported to the committee at the next meeting. In the absence of the chairman, the vice-chairman will act similarly.

The Libraries Committee should determine how many members shall form a quorum; perhaps three is a suitable number. It should have its own clerk, who will be designated in Standing Orders as the Town Clerk or some similar officer. In practice it is usual for a Minute Clerk

from the appropriate department to attend for this purpose, and for a proportionate charge for his services to be made on the Libraries Department.

Powers and duties of the committee are determined to a great extent by the statutes, by the resolution of delegation and the Standing Orders, but certain broad principles may be observed in the interests of administrative efficiency.

The chief of these is that the committee is concerned rather with library policy than with library administration; with what shall be done rather than with how it shall be done. The planning, arrangement, staff duties and methods of a library are technical matters, and many libraries are stultified by well-meant and conscientious interference in details of this character by library committees, although it is quite clear that legally the committee can so interfere if it desires. The committee has certainly the right, and it is its duty, to expect the results of its policy to be visibly effective in the library service, but it would be well-advised to confide the means of obtaining those results to its librarian who has been trained especially for this work.

Within these principles the duties of a committee cover:

1. general oversight of buildings, staff and the work of the various departments of the library;
2. compilation and revision of public rules and regulations;
3. regular checking of accounts and expenditure;
4. regular meetings on fixed dates;
5. knowledge of the relevant legislation.

Committee procedure is similar to that of other public or business committees. An agenda paper which may be sent with the notice summoning the meeting is prepared in due time before the date of the meeting, setting out the order of business, somewhat as follows:—

i. Minutes of the previous meeting and matters arising therefrom.
ii. Reports of sub-committees, if any.
iii. Librarian's Report covering work done since the last meeting; book issue figures with comparable figures from previous years, receipts, special events.
iv. Special business of the meeting (e.g. new projects, deputations).
v. Requisitions (requests for authority to order goods, furniture and other articles or work not of merely routine character).
vi. Correspondence.
vii. Any other business.

The sub-committees, e.g. Books, Accounts, have previously met at regular intervals, and will have business to report: other sub-committees have less heavy duties, and consequently meet less frequently. The chairman and the librarian will consult together and agree as to the business on the agenda, thus enabling the conduct of the meeting to be in the hands of the chairman and allow the librarian to refrain from interven-



Plate No. 1.

Johannesburg Central Library. *Dominant in position, commanding in style, this building of* 1935 *wears its architectural conformism well.*



Plate No. 2.

Publicity for no more than the cost of interior lighting: Vancouver Main Library by night.

tion unless invited. The chairman must, however, be fully briefed in all matters likely to arise from Minutes and from the current Agenda.

The Minutes of the meeting should be brief and business-like in their wording. Usually in two parts, the 'printed minutes' of matters deemed proper for presentation to the council, and the 'written minutes' of domestic administrative concerns within the delegated powers.

It is important to have a list of members present, the accurate text of resolutions passed, and a precise statement of instructions and decisions. The names of proposers and seconders of motions are not always recorded, as findings of the committee are regarded as being those of the whole body.

Though the librarian is frequently called the Clerk to the committee, the meetings are in fact reported by minute clerks from the office of the Town Clerk, transcribed, agreed by the chairman and librarian, and then formally prepared for permanent record.

The Committee, being responsible for the administration of the library service, must give the necessary authority to ensure the most advantageous use of the library and its contents; to prevent abuse, and to protect buildings, books and furniture. This is achieved by the formulation of Rules and Regulations dealing with administrative matters such as hours of opening, admission to the libraries, conditions of borrowing books and fines. Such rules must necessarily be in consonance with the general law, and are not in themselves legally enforceable without the support of Bye-laws approved by the Minister of Education.

The general tendency is to make all such Rules and Regulations as simple as possible, and it is instructive to compare current examples with those of fifty years ago. Formerly, for example, persons under eighteen years of age were not permitted to use the libraries, and though there are still some authorities which specify an age limit of fourteen years, it is much more usual to leave the librarian freedom to admit any child subject to discretionary powers. This complete freedom is naturally only really effective where sound children's libraries are provided as separate departments, and should not apply to departments such as the Reference Library or the Reading Rooms. With the more general provision of attractive buildings and other public amenities there no longer seem to be the 'noisy incursions of irresponsible youngsters, who are wont to stray into public places out of sheer devilment, or accident, or excess of curiosity' that were formerly observed; although a disheartening experience in a children's library in one of our large cities has been recorded against this optimism. If an active uniformed attendant is clearly in evidence there is seldom such trouble with the most high spirited youngsters as to warrant restricting the majority who will appreciate the privilege of using the libraries.

The regulations concerning the borrowing of books need some careful consideration in so far as they have close connection with the good will

of the public towards the library. As prescribed by law, all residents in the area, whether householders, their families, lodgers or tenants; persons employed in the area; or non-resident scholars and students, are entitled to borrow books freely, and all that has to be decided is how many books may be borrowed, and for how long a period. Modern practice tends increasingly to depart from limiting the number and kind of tickets, and the very minimum of formality should be required for registration as a borrower. The main consideration which should be emphasised strongly, is that any such form of registration should be in the nature of a contract binding the reader to observe the rules and regulations of the library, thus enabling, if necessary, legal proceedings to be taken against him for recovery of fines and overdue books. The practice of requiring the signature of a ratepayer as guarantor seems a needless and indeed ineffective precaution.[2] Non-resident readers are governed by a special procedure in that they are required to pay a deposit and/or subscription to the library, but are otherwise bound by the same rules and regulations as other readers.

No fewer than eight 'antiquated and needless restrictions' were cited in the previous edition of this Manual as examples of bad practice, and as many still exist, they are here repeated:

1. The illegal charge for tickets or vouchers for registration.
2. Requiring more than three days' notice before issuing a reader's ticket.
3. Limiting the time for reading books to less than fourteen days.
4. Refusing to renew books by post card, letter, telephone or messenger, and requiring that actual books shall be brought back for redating.
5. Impositions of fines of vexatious amount.
6. Refusing to exchange books on the same day as that on which they are borrowed.
7. Allowing only one volume of a work on one ticket at a time.
8. Restricting the number of books which a reference reader may have at one time.

There seems no reason to insist, as is still done occasionally, on the production of a reader's ticket before allowing admission to the library.

It may also be added here that during the emergency of 1939-45 many libraries were obliged to reduce their hours of opening severely, especially in the evenings. There seems no justification for the wide variation in hours of opening that is prevalent throughout the country. Social conditions change rapidly, and though there is perhaps no need for the extended hours formerly so general, it should be remembered, especially in Reference Libraries, that the library service is for all, and that many readers may be debarred entry if the library closes at 7 p.m.

[2] If such a guarantee is sought, the voucher must state the limit of liability, up to £2, or require a deposit in lieu.

or on Saturdays. Generalisation is unwise, but there does seem a clear case for impartial examination of this problem, as also of holiday and Sunday opening.

Similarly the period of loan calls for re-consideration and with it the amount of fines and the whole problem of recovery of overdue books.

Rules and Regulations are not in themselves enforceable at law, though there have been exceptions in connection with damage to library property and lost books. Legal proceedings are usually taken by virtue of Bye-Laws made with the approval of the Minister of Education, under the Act of 1901 and the Local Government Act 1933. New Model Bye-Laws issued by the Minister were published in the *L.A.R.* Feb. 1960, and are reproduced herewith, together with a form of repeal for existing Bye-laws.

MINISTRY OF EDUCATION

BYE-LAWS
made under
Section 3 of the Public Libraries Act, 1901,
by the
. . . . .

1. In these Bye-laws the following words and expressions have the meanings hereby assigned to them:

(*a*) 'The Library Authority' means the . . .

(*b*) 'Library' means any public library [museum or art gallery] for the time being belonging to or under the control of the Library Authority by virtue of the Public Libraries Acts, 1892 to 1919.

(*c*) 'The Librarian' means the person appointed as such by the Library Authority or, in his absence, any other person authorized by the Library Authority to act on his behalf.

(*d*) 'Book' includes any and every book, newspaper, magazine, periodical, pamphlet, picture, print, photograph, engraving, etching, deed, map, chart, plan, gramophone record, music score and any other article of a like nature forming part of the contents of the Library.

2. A person shall not engage in audible conversation in any reading room in the library, after having been requested not to do so by an officer or servant of the Library Authority.

3. A person shall not wilfully obstruct any officer or servant of the Library Authority in the execution of his duty or wilfully disturb, interrupt or annoy any other person in the proper use of the library.

4. A person shall not cause or allow any dog or other animal belonging to him or under his control to enter or remain in the library, or bring into any part of the library a wheeled vehicle or conveyance other than a [hand-propelled] invalid chair.

5. A person other than an officer or servant of the Library Authority shall not enter or remain in any part of the library not set apart for the use of the public.

6. A person shall not smoke or strike a light in any part of the library.

7. A person shall not carelessly or negligently soil, tear, cut, deface, damage, injure, or destroy any book forming part of the contents of the library.

8. A person other than an officer or servant of the Library Authority shall not affix or post any bill, placard or notice to or upon any part of the library.

9. A person who is offensively unclean in person or in dress, or who is suffering from an offensive disease, shall not enter or use the library.

10. A person shall not lie on the benches, chairs, tables or floor of the library.

11. A person shall not partake of refreshment in the library.

12. A person shall not give a false name or address for the purpose of entering any part of the library or obtaining any privilege therefrom.

13. A person shall not make a tracing of any portion of a book without the permission of the Librarian.

14. A person other than an officer or servant of the Library Authority shall not, unless duly authorized, take any book from any lending or home-reading department of the library.

15. A person other than an officer or servant of the Library Authority shall not take any book from any reference department or reading room of the library.

16. (i) A person having the charge or possession of any book belonging to the Library Authority shall deliver it up to [that Authority] [the Librarian] within [seven days] of the service upon him by that Authority of a notice requiring him so to do.

(ii) For the purposes of this bye-law, a notice may be served upon any person by delivering it to him, or by leaving it at his usual or last known place of residence, or by sending it in a registered letter addressed to him at that place.

17. Every person who shall offend against any of the foregoing bye-laws shall be liable for every such offence to a fine not exceeding the sum of . . .

18. Every person who shall commit any offence against the Libraries Offences Act, 1898, or against any of the foregoing bye-laws may be excluded or removed from the library by any officer or servant of the Library Authority in any one of the several cases hereinafter specified, that is to say—

(i) Where the offence is committed within the view of such officer or servant and the name and residence of the person committing the offence are unknown to and cannot readily be ascertained by such officer or servant.

(ii) Where the offence is committed within the view of such officer or servant and from the nature of such offence or from any other fact of which such officer or servant may have knowledge or of which he may be credibly informed there may be reasonable ground for belief that the continuance in the library of the person committing the offence may result in another offence against the Act or against the bye-laws or that the exclusion or removal of such person from the library is otherwise necessary as a security for the proper use and regulation thereof.

19. *From and after the date on which these bye-laws shall come into operation, the bye-laws relating to libraries which were made by the* [*the Local Government Board*] [*the Minister of Health*] [*the Board of Education*] *on the day of and were confirmed by* [*the Minister of Education*] *on the day of shall be repealed.*

A framed copy of the Bye-laws should be hung in a prominent position.

Copies of the Rules and Regulations should be available to all readers on registration. In general, this, with tactful supervision by the staff, is all that is needful to secure order and seemly conduct in the library. The mass of penal and prohibitory notices that was so characteristic of the older library is now quite superfluous, especially in a pleasant, cheerful building which generates respect for the institution and concurrently, good behaviour.

Save in the Reference Library, silence is no longer insisted upon, and some librarians are relenting in the matter of smoking. Clearly the general attitude is conditioned by the social consciousness of the users of the library, and without such co-operation the utmost vigilance of the staff will fail to enforce regulations. Staff should, too, always remember the library is in existence for public use and enjoyment: vexatious and old-fashioned restrictions should be abolished where possible, and only such regulations enforced as are necessary to prevent a minority becoming a nuisance to others. Suggestions as to model Rules and Regulations have been published by the Library Association (*L.A.R.* Aug. 1953) and are reproduced here.

DRAFT PUBLIC LIBRARY REGULATIONS

GENERAL

In the construction of these Regulations:

(*a*) 'Library authority' means the ..... Council of ..... (or its Public Libraries Committee), being the Authority for administering the Public Libraries Acts within the said .....

(*b*) 'Library' includes any and every Library, and the several rooms, offices, passages, staircases, entrances and exits forming part thereof and adjacent thereto, established by the Library Authority under the provisions of the Public Libraries Acts, 1892-1919 or any statutory modification thereof.

(*c*) 'Book' includes any and every book, periodical, newspaper, pamphlet, music score, gramophone record, picture, print, photograph, map, chart, plan, film, slide, manuscript, or any other article of a like nature, forming part of the contents of the library, whether or not the property of the Library.

(*d*) 'Registered Reader' or 'Reader' means a person to whom a reader's ticket has been issued in accordance with these Regulations, or who produces a current reader's ticket issued by any Library Authority in Great Britain and Northern Ireland. The expression 'Reader', unless the context otherwise requires, also includes a person who enters the Reference Library or Reading Room.

(*e*) 'Borrower' means a person, society, group, association, college or school to whom a gramophone record library ticket has been issued in accordance with these Regulations.

(*f*) 'Librarian' means the ..... Librarian or his duly authorized representative.

2. The Librarian shall have the general charge of the Library, and shall be responsible for the safe custody of the books and all other property belonging thereto.

3. The Library shall be open on such days and during such hours as the Library Authority may from time to time determine.

4. A person shall not engage in audible conversation in any part of the Library to the annoyance of any other person.

5. A person shall not partake of refreshment, sleep or commit any nuisance in the Library.

6. A person shall not smoke, strike a light or spit in any part of the Library set apart for the use of the public.

7. A person shall not cause or allow any animal belonging to him or under his control to enter or remain in the Library.

8. A person shall not bring into any part of the Library any wheeled vehicle

or conveyance without the permission of the Librarian or his duly authorized representative.

9. A person who is offensively unclean in person or dress, shall not enter or use the Library.

10. The Librarian shall have power to refuse books or deny the use of the Library to any person who appears to be intoxicated or who neglects or refuses to comply with these Regulations. This regulation also applies to any person who in case of notifiable or infectious disease uses a library in any way contrary to the provisions of Sections 148 and 155 of the Public Health Act, 1936, and Section 203 of the Public Health (London) Act, 1936, in addition to any other penalties which such a person may incur.

LENDING LIBRARY

11. Subject to their completing and signing the appropriate form provided for applicants for readers' tickets, books may be borrowed for home reading by the following persons:

(*a*) Any ratepayer or registered elector of the .....

(*b*) Any resident over 15 years of age, or non-resident over 15 years of age employed in the ....., on the recommendation of a ratepayer, registered elector, or employer.

(c) Any person over 15 years of age not resident or employed in the ...., but attending an educational institution therein, on the recommendation of the Principal or his authorized representative.

(*d*) Any child of compulsory school age resident in the ..... or attending an educational institution therein, on the recommendation of a parent, guardian or teacher of the school attended.

12. Books may also be borrowed by any person presenting a current reader's ticket issued by any public library authority in Great Britain and Northern Ireland, or, by persons not eligible in Section 11 above, on payment of a subscription of ..... per annum. Books so borrowed are issued at the pleasure of the Library Authority on the terms of the Regulations in force for the time being and the issue of books to such persons is terminable at any time without notice.

13. All tickets (except those of persons paying an annual subscription) shall remain in force for ..... year(s) from the date of issue, unless previously surrendered or cancelled.

14. Applications for tickets shall be made on the forms provided for the purpose and the signing of the form will be regarded as an assent to the Regulations in force for the time being. Tickets are not transferable and changes of address must be notified immediately to the Librarian. ..... tickets will be issued to each reader; additional tickets for works other than fiction will be issued on application and at the discretion of the Librarian. A ticket must be produced and left at the Library whenever a book is borrowed.

15. Readers will be held responsible for any books which may be borrowed on their tickets. Readers leaving the ..... or ceasing to use the Library shall return all tickets to the Librarian for cancellation. The loss of a ticket shall be notified immediately to the Librarian. Lost tickets will be replaced on payment of ..... for each ticket. Notwithstanding such replacement the reader will be held responsible for any book borrowed on the original ticket.

16. Only registered readers shall have the right of access to the Lending Library for the purpose of borrowing books but their representatives or others may be admitted at the discretion of the Librarian. Cases, baskets and similar articles must be left with the attendant if required and no person shall bring into the Lending Library any article which in the opinion of the Librarian is prejudicial to the service or to the convenience of other readers.

17. The time allowed for reading a book is ..... days, excluding the day of

issue. Provided, however, that if a book is not required by another reader the time may be extended for a further period of ..... days from the date on which notice to this effect is given, either personally, in writing or by telephone, to the Librarian. A Reader retaining a book beyond ..... days unless an extension has been granted, shall pay ..... for the first week or part of a week and ..... per ..... thereafter until the book is returned. Postage and other expense incurred in endeavouring to secure the return of books shall be paid for by the Reader on whose ticket the book is borrowed. Any liabilities incurred by a reader in the over-retention of books must be discharged before any other book is issued. Habitual over-retention of books may lead to the suspension or cancellation of tickets by the Library Authority.

18. Returned books must be delivered to the Librarian at the proper desk or counter or by post. If any book is lost or on examination is found to have sustained any damage, the reader may be required to pay the cost of the replacement of the book, or at the discretion of the Librarian to compensate the Library Authority for the damage or loss sustained. Books found to be damaged when presented for issue must be reported otherwise the Reader may be held responsible for such damage. Neglect to pay for any loss, damage or non-return of books shall be a debt due from the Reader and recoverable at law at the discretion of the Library Authority.

19. Any book in the stock of the Library will be reserved for a Reader on completion of the appropriate form and payment of the cost of notification that the book is available. No such book will be retained for more than ..... days after the notification has been posted.

REFERENCE LIBRARY AND READING ROOM

20. Any person over the age of 15 and such others as the Librarian may permit, may enter the Reference Library or Reading Room. Entry into the Reference Library or Reading Room shall be deemed to be an assent to the Regulations in force for the time being.

21. Except as provided for below, books must not be removed from the Reference Library. Readers will be held responsible for books issued to or consulted by them, and for any loss or damage such books may sustain. If required by the Librarian, application for books should be made on a specified form.

22. In special circumstances the Librarian may at his discretion permit certain books to be borrowed from the Reference Library for a limited period. The decision of the Librarian in such cases shall be final.

23. A person shall not make a tracing of any portion of any book without the permission of the Librarian.

24. No newspaper, periodical, year book or directory shall be retained by any reader for more than ..... minutes after an application for the same has been made to the Librarian by any other reader. A reader is not entitled to retain any periodical or book other than those he is actually using or to use the Reference Library or Reading Room for the sole purpose of reading any periodical or book other than that provided by the Library Authority.

GRAMOPHONE RECORD LIBRARY

25. On signing the appropriate form, any rate-payer or registered elector of the ..... may borrow gramophone records, but the Library Authority reserve to themselves the right to refuse any application for registration as a borrower or to cancel any registration at any time at their absolute discretion.

26. Any society, group, association, college or school in the ..... may borrow gramophone records for corporate use provided that the appropriate form be signed by such officers as the Librarian shall decide or by the Principal

of the educational establishment. Such signatories shall be held personally responsible to the Library Authority for the safe custody and return of records borrowed.

27. Gramophone records will be issued only on production of the appropriate gramophone record library ticket, which shall be valid for ..... year(s). ..... records or a complete work or ..... Long Playing records or a complete work may be borrowed at any one time, but the Librarian shall have absolute discretion as to the number of records to be lent to any borrower.

28. Records may be borrowed for ..... days excluding the day of issue. This period may be extended for a further period of ..... days, provided the records are not required by another borrower, and that they are presented to the Librarian for re-issue. A borrower retaining a record beyond ..... days, unless an extension has been granted, shall pay ..... per ..... until the record is returned. Habitual over-retention of records may lead to the suspension or cancellation of gramophone record library tickets.

29. Any record or work will be reserved for a Borrower on completion of the appropriate form and payment of cost of notification that the record is available. No record or work will be reserved for more than ..... days after the notification has been posted.

30. A borrower shall be responsible for the care of all records issued to him between the time of issue and the time of return to the Library, and shall defray the cost of replacing any lost, damaged or broken record. Any damaged or broken record must be returned to the Librarian. The borrower should examine records at the time of loan and report any damage or blemish to the Librarian. The borrower will be held responsible for any damage not so reported. Records shall be examined in the presence of the borrower on return.

31. No charge shall be made for admittance to any performance of loaned records without the previous consent of the Librarian. The use of any record which is the property of the Library Authority shall not confer upon the borrower any right or licence in respect of copyright or public performance. Any borrower proposing to use such records for public performance shall inform the Librarian beforehand, and give a written undertaking indemnifying the Library Authority against any claim which may be made against them on this account in respect of any record borrowed from the Library.

32. Borrowers are required to give an undertaking:

(*a*) That the reproducer to be used is in good order and is of an appropriate type for the record which is to be played.

(*b*) That suitable needles will be used and when once inserted will not be turned round in the needle chuck or holder.

(*c*) That where steel needles of single-playing type are used, each point will be used once only.

(*d*) That where semi-permanent needles are used care will be taken that needles are in good condition, and such needles will not be used for more than 10-20 sides (where a sound-box or pick-up is in use), or 25-35 times for light weight pick-up needles.

(*e*) That where sapphire needles are used they will be of good quality and reputable manufacture.

(*f*) That the record will be handled by the edge, not finger marked on the surface and will be brushed before and after playing.

(*g*) That the record will be transported to and from the Library in a suitable carrier.

33. Failure to comply with these Regulations shall be deemed sufficient reason to cause the suspension or cancellation of a Gramophone Record Library ticket. Any such Borrower shall have the right of appeal to the Library Authority whose decision shall be final.

Notes on Rules 17 and 19. Renewal and reservation of books is generally subject to the popularity of the book in question. With more generous book funds, libraries have been able to duplicate titles fairly freely, but this is no satisfactory solution in the case of best sellers and of standard books required by students, both of which categories attract concentrated demand for expensive titles. The problem was acute during the war years and immediately after, and librarians had frequently to make large scale restrictions, e.g. on the reservation of any fiction or by limiting the number of reservations made by any one reader. It appears that the problem is largely one of protecting the majority of users against a potential abuse, and preventing the public library being used as a cheap substitute for the commercial circulating libraries.

Renewal of books offers similar problems in that students will frequently monopolise certain standard books for a whole academic year if so permitted. Clearly this is antagonistic to the spirit of the public library, and measures should be taken to counter such selfishness, perhaps by limiting the number of renewals to two per original issue.

The amount charged for books kept beyond the stipulated time causes much trouble especially in view of the changed value of money since 1945. Fines of one penny are somewhat derisory in the post-war world, but the fundamental question is rather to decide what purpose is served by such levies. Opinion differs sharply; one authority in fact charges no fines and appears not to suffer inconvenience, whilst others raise the fines to a quite penal level. It is clear that revenue from fines ought not to be regarded, as it sometimes is, as being a useful supplementary addition to the library income. The issue is one of social education and responsibility, and libraries should meantime be prepared to face the cost of collecting overdue books as being part of the administrative overheads. Attempts have been made, e.g. at Coventry, to legalise the imposition and collection of fines by local legislation. This seems unnecessary, for powers do exist, but in many libraries the extra financial burden of overdue collection is a serious matter, and a series of prosecutions might well have a salutory effect. No librarian who has investigated the cost of overdue book collection will regard it as financially profitable. It is, however, an essential service.

No. 10. An older Regulation concerning Infectious Diseases, as the Public Health Acts clearly implied that libraries should not lend books that had been in infected houses. Modern medical opinion[3] seems however definitely against the theory that books can carry disease, and practice varies throughout this country. Some authorities take no action with regard to such books, others rely on the Public Health Department to collect books where notifiable diseases occur and, having disinfected them, to return the books to the library. Damage done need not be great, and public anxiety may be alleviated.

[3] See *L.A.R.* April 1950 LII: 4, 112–115.

Readers should always be notified of their release from quarantine if this precautionary action is taken.

No. 16. Access to the Lending Library. A rule redolent of the past (cf. previous Rule 26). Modern libraries without formal counters might find it difficult to enforce, and the second sentence is clearly no longer applicable in the small counters of most recently furnished departments.

As observed previously, mere display of prohibitory and cautionary notices is of little practical value save in destroying the general appearance of the library. A far more effective way of gaining the necessary public pride in the library is to insist on high standards of cleaning, lighting and ventilation. Modern decorative schemes also help to generate public interest.

Good staff supervision and the occasional patrol by a smart uniformed attendant are safeguards against other abuses. It is very true that no regulations can be successfully implemented without general public assent to their justice and without systematic impartial application by the staff.

CHAPTER IV

LIBRARIAN AND STAFF

THE library service to the community is given in many ways: government, university, public, industrial, society and research libraries, and, to a growing extent, libraries in the schools, all play their part in a nation-wide network. This service is concerned with the active collection, recording and utilisation of all manner of material records, and, consequently, finds room for the most diverse personalities, qualifications and abilities. Love of books, desirable as it is in itself, is by no means the only desideratum; and the most extensive knowledge of books will fail to be entirely satisfactory if combined with an unpleasing or inefficient personality. Nor does undue emphasis on the business and administrative aspects of the library organisations make the complete librarian. In truth, he must be a complex of business acumen, organising ability and sound literary education. Above all, he must be a positive personality, able to recognise the best in others and to see that the service benefits by the high standards he sets for himself and for his staff.

The Library Association in September 1959 published suggestions for nomenclature of all Public Library Staff, but subsequent reactions among members showed only too clearly the complexities due to local circumstances. It appears unlikely that general agreement will be reached, and a compromise set of terms has been used in the following discussion of duties and responsibilities. For the sake of clarity, practice in a large organisation has been taken as the basis, but the reader will easily see how, in smaller units, functions are combined and wide variations inevitably arise.

The general classification of municipal public library staff[1] is as follows, though only in the largest systems will all the activities here designated actually be carried on by separate officers:

[1] Within the County Libraries, the designation will cover:

County Librarian
Deputy County Librarian
Cataloguer
Assistants in Charge of Students Section
Drama Collection
Schools Library Service
Regional Branch Librarian
Mobile Librarian
Junior Library Assistants
Clerical Staff: typists
Manual Staff: drivers, cleaners

PROFESSIONAL STAFF

Chief Librarian
Deputy Chief Librarian
Chief Assistant (or perhaps Superintendent of Branch Libraries)
Reference Librarian
Personnel Officer (or Assistant responsible for Staff matters, including Training)
Lending Librarian
Librarians-in-Charge of Departments, i.e.
  Branch Libraries
  Special Department Libraries, e.g. Commercial, Technical, Fine Arts, Music Libraries
  Children's Libraries
  Cataloguing and Book Accessions
  Hospital Libraries
  Deposit Libraries, e.g. Evening Centres, Temporary Centres
Senior Assistant Librarians
Assistant Librarians

CLERICAL AND ADMINISTRATIVE STAFF

Typists and other clerical or administrative staff, including Telephonists and the Photo-copying Department

Manual Workers
Bookbinders
Printers
Engineers
Stokers
Gardeners
Janitors
Porters
Transport Drivers
Caretakers
Cleaners

An average organisation will perhaps comprise of these a Librarian, Deputy Librarian, Reference Librarian, Lending Librarian, Branch Librarians, Senior and Assistant Librarians, a Children's Librarian, typist staff, caretaker and cleaning staff. The whole of the professional staff should be trained librarians (or those in process of qualifying) and all departments should be in the charge of qualified Fellows of the Library Association. Additional qualifications, such as an academic degree, may well be considered appropriate in the larger reference libraries and in the specialised subject departments.

Librarians have from the beginnings of the profession stressed the fundamental importance of recruiting staff with a good educational background and of ensuring adequate training in library routine after appointment, but it is only since 1946 that full-time release for the period of one academic year, in order to study for the Library Association qualifications, has been generally possible.

More than twenty years earlier, a School of Librarianship had been

established at the University of London for the training of graduates, but the numbers were never sufficiently large to make a great impact on the public library system as a whole. It is an encouraging sign that about three hundred library assistants each year now pass through the full-time Library Schools for the Registration Examination alone, and there is a perceptible body of opinion in favour of a system that would permit of a longer release, enabling a genuine educational course to be given in place of the present teaching to a particular examination. Even with the present restricted scope (and how immeasurably greater is this than that of solitary private study formerly universal), a steady stream of assistants is flowing into the profession conscious as perhaps never before of the history, significance and techniques of librarianship. The result is bound to be of fundamental importance in shaping the trends of librarianship in the very near future; it is excellent that the average student at the Schools is of such good calibre.

The Chief Librarian is the officer responsible to the authority for the executive management of the library. The adjective is not properly used for small libraries, although it frequently is used. His qualifications in a great library include all those indicated above: they differ in matters of culture little from those of the librarian of a small one; but he faces an entirely different set of conditions, the management of many departments, a large staff and immense and varied demands both in the library and in the community. Primarily, he is an administrator and an educationalist and he should be able to make a public speech, to conduct meetings of any kind and have a strong sense of systematic organisation. He should, of course, rank equally in all social and official matters with his fellow public officers and in his own department be supreme.

His duties are implied by his office. His authority—committee, board or council—is responsible for the policy to be pursued and he for the manner in which it is done. He advises that authority and brings before it recommendations which build up its policy, but, having done that, the acceptance or otherwise of these recommendations is theirs; nor should he feel personal injury at non-acceptance. He selects, although he may not always appoint, his staff; in most modern towns, the council has an establishment committee by whom appointments are made; these, however, usually act upon the advice of the Library Committee, which, in turn, is advised by its librarian. He is responsible for staff duties and their performance; for library buildings, stock and equipment; for recommendations as to, or actual decisions upon, book-purchase and withdrawals and the maintenance of the stock; and for the services to readers. In short, the whole management is entrusted to him, with such conditioning circumstances as the authority uses for its whole work. He is the officer of his committee and to and through them makes his reports.

Beyond this generalised account of the librarian's function, it appears

to be unnecessary to specify particular duties. The main requirement is system, in order that he may cover the whole of his responsibilities without undue nervous and physical strain. Usually, he is free to choose his hours, but wisely has definite times when he is available; indeed, the common experience is that librarians are inclined to spend too many hours at their desks and to lose those social and other contacts which are necessary to the full discharge of library duties. There should be set times (within reason) for every task; letters at a certain hour, and appointments should be made so that he has a definite time each day to himself in which to prepare future developments of the service as well as assessing the present. One of his chief abilities is to delegate responsibility for certain departments and various special routine activities to his chosen assistants and to avoid immersion in details; for no chief librarian, or other librarian-in-charge, can do everything himself, but he should not usually require his staff to do what he is unable to do himself. This last requirement is, of course, qualified. Obviously, he is the administrator who may employ specialists in the many arts and sciences in which he cannot be expert himself, but which concern every large library; but he will acquire a working understanding, even of these. To take an example: a librarian may not have the manual skill to bind books, but he ought to know the characteristic qualities of every material and process. James Duff Brown summarised his qualifications as experience in a classified library, wide knowledge of English and foreign bibliography and literature, knowledge of leading systems of classification and cataloguing, experience in staff management, knowledge of modern library systems, binding, book-buying, issue charging, stock maintenance, knowledge of periodical literature and its display for readers and the ability to make a useful public speech, tact, courtesy and, in short, good personality; or, more briefly still, a knowledge of the whole field covered by this *Manual* and wide social and literary knowledge. As for staff management, his aim must be to assemble a really competent staff and then to use it so that it can develop all its serviceable qualities industriously and happily; this is his chief privilege and his most difficult task.

A few librarians—fortunately they grow fewer—are provided with a residence, flat or house, which is part of the library building. If this is so and it is made a charge upon the librarian's salary it should be valued at the most reasonable rent at which he could obtain a home elsewhere. This practice is, however, wholly undesirable; it is in the interests of the health and efficiency of the librarian that he should be able to get away entirely from library premises, with the inevitable intrusions upon his leisure for which they afford opportunity, when a fair day's work has been done.

That the librarian must maintain relations with his professional associates is obvious, and, as already assumed, he should be allowed facili-

ties, including expenses, for attending conferences and engaging in work on the committees of the Library Association and similar relevant bodies. It is asserted, too, and the Kenyon Report supports, that in all local functions he must attend on equal terms with other departmental heads; this courtesy should be extended to him in the counties, where a bad tradition has made him nominally a merely sectional officer. It seems unnecessary to say that a librarian should always, in precedence of any other officer, attend the meetings of his own committee, but it is desirable to affirm this elementary fact, as in one or two cases a clerk to the authority has succeeded in excluding him. Ultimately, it is the librarian who initiates business in a well-conducted system, subject to the agreement of the chairman and the advice on legal matters and council directions of the County or Town Clerk, although he is not responsible for the conclusions reached by the committee.

According to his influence and social ability, the librarian will make contacts with all local non-political and non-sectarian societies and organisations, as, through these, wider understanding and better use of the libraries may be brought about. In many towns and even counties he is regarded as the centre and leader of all those literary, art, musical and similar societies which are often outside the official education system. In some, he is the chairman and, occasionally, though this is rarely desirable, secretary of one or more of these organisations. As for his personal social life, he should contrive to have leisure for the occupations of home and of his circle that every reasonable professional life should afford. Although most contracts of service stipulate that he shall give the whole of his time to his office, this merely means that he must not—without the agreement of his authority—engage in any other office of profit, not that he is to be on call for twenty-four hours daily.

The method of appointing a chief librarian and, to a great extent, his staff, follows on conventional patterns. It is usual to invite candidates by public advertisement. Some authorities require this to be done, in obedience to their Standing Orders, even when they have a member of staff available whom they desire to appoint. The terms of an advertisement are simple; they cover the salary, the age—usually not over forty-five, even for principal and senior posts—and the date by which the application is to be received and invariably should limit the applicants to 'persons who are Fellows (for smaller posts Fellows or Associates) of the Library Association who have had practical experience as members of the staff of a library'. This phrase may not deter non-librarians from applying, but it will exclude them from the select list of candidates. The columns of *The Times*, *The Times Literary Supplement*, *The Library Association Record* and *The Municipal Journal* give many examples of advertisements which, for librarians as for others, follow a general pattern in requiring three testimonials, forbidding canvassing, and other common details. Contemporary practice is increasingly requiring sub-

mission of names of referees rather than testimonials, especially for the more junior posts. Some committees follow the commendable practice of sending a deputation to interview the candidate in his own library, which will be able to gauge his real experience and effectiveness far better thus than from many pages of writing. Forms of application should be designed with care, not only to yield the basic personal details, but to allow expression of individuality. Personal details will include age, marital status, education, places and dates of training and of practical experience. Some committees are interested to know of relations with the people the applicant serves, with schools, local societies, with his own professional organisations and what he himself may have contributed to library literature or apparatus. A useful practice is to leave space in which the candidate may add supplementary supporting details at his discretion.

The appointment is made after a personal interview. This is the most important part of the affair, as many librarians now appear to possess almost identical paper qualifications, and, as a rule, it is personality, plus professional experience, which determines the choice. The chairman usually asks a few questions based on the form of application and perhaps raises some topics of general interest to assess personality. In the best cases, the candidate will be asked to make a statement, thus furnishing him with a chance to display his powers, and, at the invitation of the chairman, other members of the committee will in turn ask questions. When all questions have been asked, the candidate may be invited to raise queries of his own, and the chairman will answer. The candidate then retires, and in turn the remainder of those summoned for interview (the 'short list') will be called. Finally, the committee deliberates, agrees on a candidate, who is then brought back to the committee room and invited to accept the post. Various formalities follow—the payment of expenses to the unsuccessful; for the successful, checking of professional papers and arrangement for medical examination, date of taking up appointment, and, perhaps, formal introduction to various officials. Every candidate is entitled to a letter advising him of the result of his application, and in the event of his non-success, it is a mere courtesy to tell him the name of his successful rival. This essential politeness is overlooked too often nowadays.

A few of the older authorities had contributing pension insurance schemes to furnish their officers with a sum of money in lieu of pension at retiring age; some of them survive, but these have usually been merged or adjusted to the Local Government Pensions Schemes. Other personal insurances that cover public librarians are a Fidelity Insurance which is paid for by the authority and protects it from any defalcation by the librarian. It is usually arranged by the Treasurer and like all other insurances forms part of the town's (or county's) general system of insurance.



Plate No. 3.

Vancouver Main Library. *Cool and precise by day, this loses nothing beside its commercial setting.*

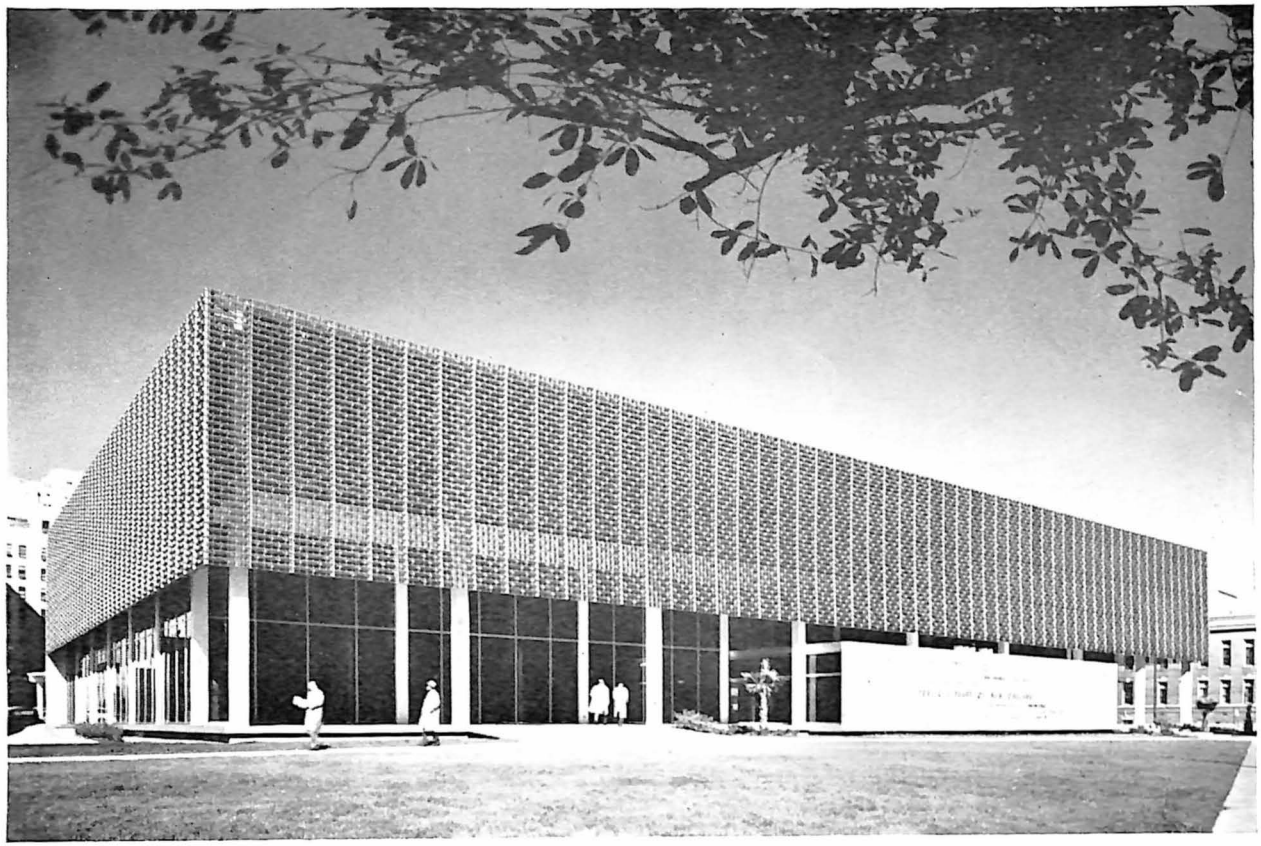


Plate No. 4.

New Orleans Main Library. *Against the thrusting skyline of an expanding city, the architect emphasizes calm horizontal lines; fastidious detail in the window grilles.*

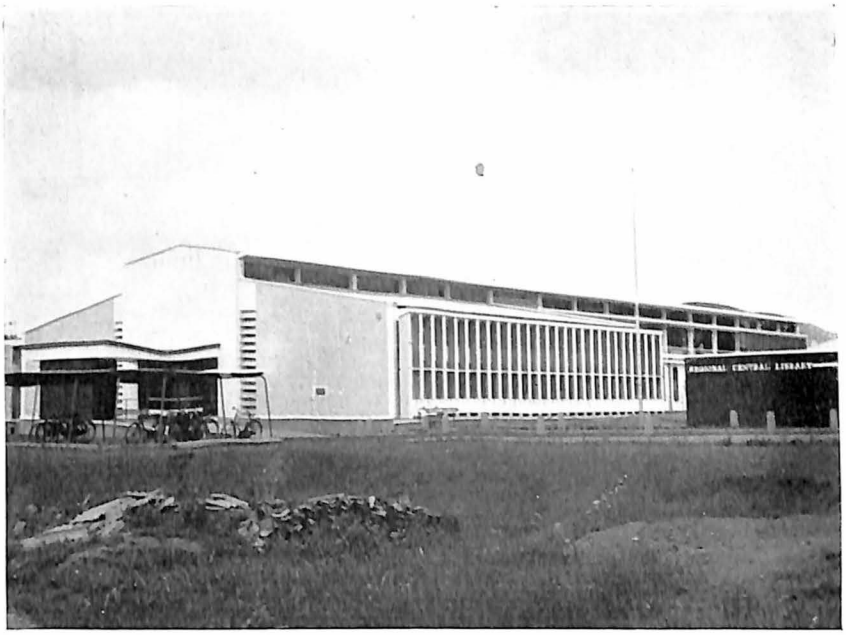


Plate No. 5.

Civic architecture of a new Continent: Eastern Region Central Library, Enugu, Nigeria. *Regional administrative centre, and public library for Enugu.*

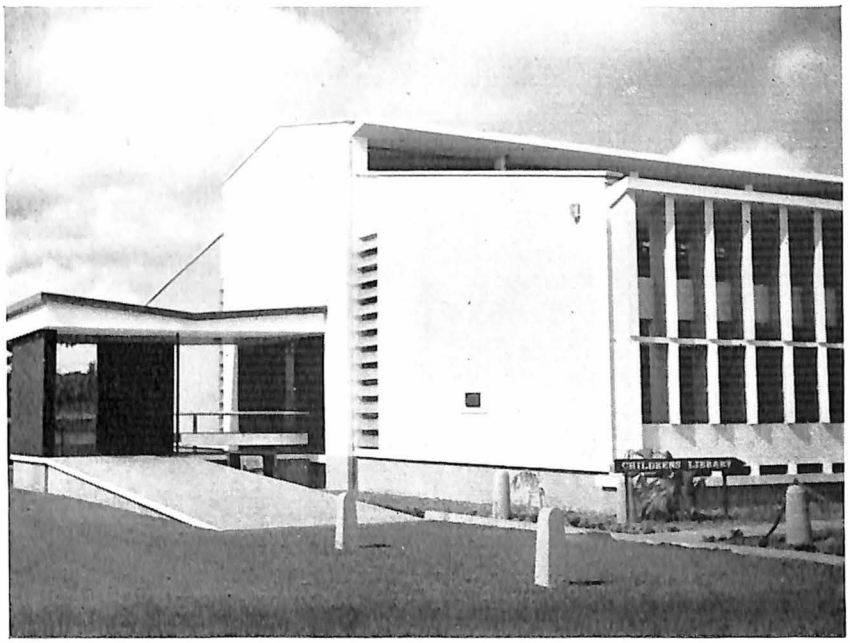


Plate No. 6.

Detail of Eastern Region Central Library, Enugu. *Upswept portico balances low pitched roof: bare sunlit walls, the deeply shadowed window line.*



Plate No. 7.

Accra Library, Ghana Library Service. *Reference and lending library one above the other: at rear, an octagonal block housing administration and extension services.*

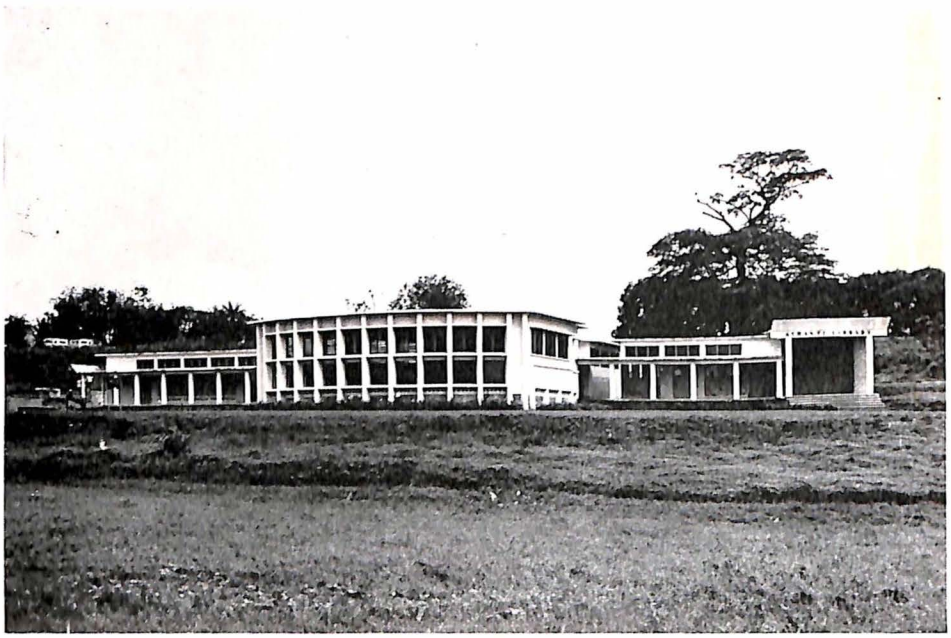


Plate No. 8.

Ashanti Regional Library, Kumasi, Ghana. (1954). *A pioneer library building of the new Africa, practical as Swiss, disciplined as German architecture.*

At present, local government officers, including librarians, are subject to the Local Government Superannuation Acts, 1937, of which there are two, one for England and Wales, and the other for Scotland. They resemble an earlier Act, that of 1922, the first general Act, but have sound amendments. In them, the officer becomes eligible to enter the scheme at the age of eighteen, and makes a contribution from his pay of six per cent; the age of retirement is sixty, if the service has extended for forty years and the officer desires retirement, and is compulsory at sixty-five. Service beyond that age may be extended if it is in the public interest, but only for one year at a time. The pension is calculated for contributory service at $\frac{1}{60}$th for each year, and at $\frac{1}{120}$th for each year of non-contributory service. The authority has power to pay the full pension ($\frac{1}{60}$th) for non-contributory service and sometimes does. The scheme permits an officer who changes into the service of another local authority to transfer his pension rights, and it is usual to recognise the whole length of his service, after the age of eighteen, as one service, although he may successively serve several authorities. There is a further provision that an officer may allow up to one-third of his pension to remain in the hands of the Treasurer, to provide a pension for his wife in the event of her surviving him.

There is incumbent on every profession an etiquette as between its members. A few, perhaps obvious, points should be indicated. It is not permissible to discuss adversely the work of any member with a layman. It is not permissible to make comparisons, especially in public reports, between the work of one's own library and that of another to the detriment of the other. It is not permissible to accept personal gifts or favours from any trader who supplies goods to the library. When a librarian, at the request of a non-librarian member of a community other than his own, furnishes information concerning his library, which may be used in connection with the library of that community, he is bound in courtesy to send a copy of the information to the librarian who may be affected. Should a librarian issue a questionnaire, he should send a copy of its results to the librarians whom he has asked to answer it.

A librarian is the servant, in a position of trust, of his authority; he should carry out its instructions to the best of his powers, even when he disagrees with them. He has a right to expect loyalty from his staff, and he is bound to give loyalty and encouragement for good work and complete impartiality in return. Testimonials in support of his staff or other persons in search of employment must be true in fact and in spirit. Many librarians prefer not to issue open general testimonials suitable for various occasions, but to write individual supporting letters for each application. It is one of the advantages of the practice of requiring names of referees rather than actual testimonials that the persons so named can, if called upon, write in complete confidence to the enquiring employer. All these points the professional librarian accepts as commonplace.

The Deputy Librarian is the principal assistant to a Chief. The name formerly implied the first assistant in a large system, but now has replaced assistant librarian, chief assistant (see below) and the more common term, sub-librarian, as the officer in all libraries next to the Chief. In small libraries, it is sometimes the case that a Fellow of the Library Association cannot be afforded, but only a chartered librarian should ever be appointed to this important position. The mere fact that he becomes acting chief librarian on every absence of his principal is sufficient reason.

The duties of a deputy officer normally comprise the whole administration of the library system under the chief librarian, the general supervision of every department and the direction of the duties of the whole staff. It is therefore clear that his technical training must in general be as sound and catholic as that of his chief; and, in addition to this quality, he should possess initiative, disciplinary powers, discretion and loyalty to his chief and to the existing system. In detail, his duties will vary according to the size of the system; in small libraries, he will be merely the superior assistant, taking part in every operation (except the purely routine processes, which may be performed by juniors); in somewhat larger libraries, he may arrange the hours and duties of the staff and superintend them, and check all cataloguing and classification. In the largest libraries, his work is almost purely administrative.

The conditions of the appointment of a deputy librarian are somewhat difficult to describe, owing to the divergences we have named. He usually, but not always, works similar hours to the remainder of the staff; has his own office, or, at any rate, private desk; and is usually invested with considerable authority. It should be the aim of the Chief Librarian to make this office a worthy one—and to see that only worthy persons occupy it. A good deputy gives tone to the whole staff, as he comes into more intimate contact with it than does the Chief Librarian.

The Superintendent (Inspector) of Branches acts as a liaison officer between the Chief Librarian and the Branch Librarians in systems where there are many branch libraries. He must be qualified to assess the work of each library and to co-ordinate the whole branch system, to ensure adequate deployment of staff, examine into the performance of the assistants, judge their capacity and training, bring out the initiative of branch librarians and assistants and advise as to the books required in particular localities; in general, to make the units of the system smooth-working parts of a homogeneous whole. The largest systems may well find it useful to amalgamate responsibility for staff matters—recruitment, training, allocation—to a Senior Assistant (Staff Officer). It is probable that a capable superintendent is an economy of some consequence in a large system. Few libraries, however, with less than a dozen branches possess such an officer, his duties usually in other cases falling upon the Chief or Deputy Librarians. In some libraries, this officer is

called the Chief Assistant, but the name is loosely used, as obviously if there is a deputy librarian he is, in fact, the chief assistant. In most large libraries, the principal assistant under the Deputy is the Reference Librarian.

Of the major departments, that which is most exacting is probably the Reference Library, and the officer in charge here must be a librarian of the first order and is easily at the head of this grade. He must be a person of considerable bibliographical acquirements in addition to being possessor of a complete library training, genuine education and good public personality. His work lies with enquirers, research workers and similar readers who require skilled assistance. He is, in addition, responsible for training his junior staff in this most vital work.

The modern Reference Library tends towards specialisation of services and employs librarians with a variety of types of training and experience to take charge of the separate departments. These are, in fact, developments of appropriate aspects of the Reference Library and often combine lending and reference services. In this specialisation, larger libraries have separate departments devoted to a single branch of knowledge—as Commerce, Technology, Art, Literature, Music and so on through several parts of the classification. In charge of each of these there should desirably be a librarian who has specialised in the subject involved. In this direction, the public library compares with the university and the industrial libraries. It is clear here, also, that the work requires a high type of education, training and personality.

The Librarian in charge of the Lending Library (which may combine general supervision of *all* home-reading libraries in the system) is very much in the public view in so far as this part of the service is the one by which libraries are too often judged. He must therefore be a man well experienced in assessing public reading tastes; in the acquisition and exploitation of suitable book stock. He must have sufficient strength of character and personality to control a department whose work fluctuates in volume very considerably and which imposes severe strains especially on the younger staff. No busy lending library can function smoothly without constant tactful supervision by this expert in public relations. Added to these personal qualities should be a sound cultural education and the ability to recognise the validity of all kinds of reading tastes. He should be accessible to those of the public who wish to discuss their reading.

In this work, and especially in the more routine aspects (e.g. reservation and suggestion of books) he is often assisted by a Readers' Adviser, whose job is to explain the library facilities to readers and perhaps to suggest possible new literary fields to those who need such advice. If it is the case that counter duties or other routine work prevent the normal staff establishment from helping the incoming reader beyond receiving his books, it is probable that the Readers' Adviser is a very useful addi-

tion. Similarly if it is the only means of ensuring that a competent person is available for this fundamental work, then the appointment must be made. It seems particularly unfortunate that routine work should bar, at the very point of personal contact with the reader, any further progress. This is true for both the staff and reader. All staff should either be qualified or be in process of qualifying as librarians, by which is meant persons competent to direct readers to the books they require and to explain in full the facilities available. Routine matters should be adjusted to meet this.

Branch librarians are responsible under the Chief Librarian for the whole service in a given area. Their duties are to conduct a library according to the prevailing library policy of the county or town, to arrange and supervise the work of their staffs and to forward their training; to make all possible contacts with suitable persons and societies in their area in order to exploit the department to the utmost in the public interest. Such librarians-in-charge represent the Chief Librarian and his whole activities and policy in a part of his area, and the service throughout is assessed by their work. In quality, every branch librarian should be a potential chief librarian; if he is not, he is wrongly placed.

The librarian-in-charge of work for young people, the Children's Librarian, requires special personal qualifications. It is agreed, in general, that work with children may be done by men with success, but is probably best done by women. Liking for children is common amongst women and is an elementary qualification, but only that. Recruits must be carefully chosen for character, disciplinary powers and good general training before they specialise. Many women find the field too narrow, as it removes them from the more general, wider interest of the book-world; others feel the strain of handling children to be too great. The position contemplated is that of the librarian who conducts all the libraries for children in a town or county. She must have considerable administrative ability and initiative and must be able to make the necessary contacts with schools and with parents. For her and for the children's librarians who work under her the best training is probably that of the ordinary library course to which is added child psychology and children's literature and bibliography. Her work must never become remote or isolated from other library work, and her success is gauged by the number of trained readers she is able to pass on to the adult libraries. Probably there is no branch of our service for which it is more difficult to recruit really successful workers.

Much time is spent in every library in the cataloguing (which includes the classing) of books and other material. Such work requires system, scholarship, a sound knowledge of reference books and accuracy. The Cataloguer, therefore, ranks with the higher officers of the library and he is regarded as at least the equal, for salary purposes, of a librarian-in-charge and, in large systems, holds an even higher place.

The general staff members are graded according to the amount of responsibility borne by them. Assistants who are second to a librarian-in-charge and have professional qualifications are called senior assistants. Those so called have usually the care of some special section of library work and supervise the work of juniors.

Juniors are assistants who are qualified by education to enter for the examinations of the Library Association. In America, in the best instances, they are high school 'graduates' or have reached university degree standard and have spent in addition one or even two years at a library school. The profession is gradually recognising such an ideal, but at the time of writing the majority of juniors are boys or girls straight from schools, who work while they prepare in their spare time for the examinations. Depending to some extent on local policies, but certainly in conformity with the Joint National Council conditions of service, all libraries will make arrangements for study within the hours of the time-sheet. Juniors must be selected with the utmost care, as at least half of the applicants prove to be unfitted for library service, and the sooner this is discovered and acted upon the better. The process is most usefully operated in those progressive systems which organise 'in-service' training in routine and make regular provision for professional training at Library Schools when merit has been discovered.

The clerical staff is recruited from school leavers who, for personal or other reasons, are content not to progress towards certification. They should, however, be allowed to proceed to it if they have the necessary qualities; libraries need the best workers more than they need mutually exclusive divisions of them. Clerks are therefore best recruited, as are library assistants, into the General Division of the National Charter; that is, in public libraries, but a similar policy would be suitable for all libraries. By this means, they are assured a reasonable standard of adult life. Every encouragement should be given to them to secure one of the marketable skills, such as shorthand, typing or book-keeping, so that they may, if they desire, go later into the commercial world. Many prefer to remain, and libraries owe much to their faithful and, indeed, indispensable work. The offices which are usually held by clerical workers are: (1) Typists. Of these, the leading one is the Chief Librarian's Secretary, who should be competent to be his receptionist, make his engagements and undertake his correspondence, but should have such tact that he/she never usurps the authority of the senior librarians. Only a well-educated and highly trained person can succeed in such a post with its demands for accuracy, business sense, complete discretion and fidelity. Such persons are not common and are greatly valued by their employers. The modern library uses other clerical assistants as, if it is successful, it has quite a large correspondence. Some, therefore, must be shorthand typists, but in the cataloguing and order departments copy typists are more usually employed. (2) Order and Acquisitions

Department Clerks. These require business training, as the department undertakes such matters as supplies, stores, stationery, binding orders and printing, and is often related to the work of (3) the Accounts' Clerk, who collects and verifies all accounts and renders them for payment. (4) Telephonists (in large systems).

The workmen of various kinds that are required will differ again according to the system. In the large library in America there is an engineer staff and a number of occupations are involved in maintaining the buildings and grounds, their repairs as well as their routine cleaning, heating, lighting and ventilation. Many have their own binderies with professional binders, their own printing sections and so on. A very few libraries have here so elaborate an organisation. The library buildings for repair and structural maintenance come under the works department or its equivalent, of the council; a number have their own binderies, as, for example, at Bristol, and it is the common practice for printing to be included in the contract of the council's general printing. The maintenance staff, in most libraries, consists of caretakers, cleaners and janitors and sometimes drivers and messengers are also employed. Whatever men are employed, their hours of work and pay are according to the findings of national or regional industrial councils. Good men, who can carry out routines punctually and effectively without becoming 'official' with the public, are valuable servants. There should be enough of them to keep libraries in perfect cleanliness and attractiveness; they should have prescribed schedules of tasks, duties and privileges; and one or more should always be available for patrol and constable duties. They should all be provided with appropriate uniforms.

The hours that librarians work are now governed by national agreement. For all save the chief librarian and deputy, these hours are 38 per week, together with paid holidays of duration according to salary scale. Libraries must be open when the public can use them conveniently, and these hours for a large part of the population, indeed nearly all who work, are not within the ordinary business hours from 9 a.m. to 5 or 6 p.m. Possibly, if a lending department keeps open for two hours after ordinary shop-closing hours, it will serve all who wish to use the library. Reference libraries may be required to open to later hours, as many students work at night and need a library to do so, and in the congested house conditions of today may need it now more than ever. Librarians must face the fact that public needs and desires must precede their own and they cannot work, as they so often lament is the case, the same hours as do men in ordinary occupations. The main difficulty is not the number of hours worked by the staff but the arrangement of these hours and this is closely related to the number of staff that the library can afford or is able to recruit.

Qualifications for entry into the profession will depend to a great

degree on the particular branch in which the intending librarian is chiefly interested. Graduates, especially with science degrees, are in steady demand from industrial, special and government libraries, and there is a clear tendency, especially in the larger public libraries, to offer charge of the more specialised departments to suitable graduates who also obtain professional qualifications.

The greatest number of entrants to the profession, however, is recruited direct from the schools, and the Library Association has established as a minimum requirement for entry to its examinations the possession of a General Certificate of Education with five passes at Ordinary (England) or Lower (Scotland) level, or one pass at Advanced (England) or Higher (Scotland) and three at Ordinary or Lower level. One of the passes must be in English Language (England) or English (Scotland) and, for later admission to the Registration Examination, a foreign language is necessary. For fuller details, including the exemptions allowed by virtue of alternative qualifications, see *Students Handbook*, published annually by the Library Association.

Librarians have in many areas found that, owing to the differential between local government and commercial or industrial salaries, recruitment of staff having even these qualifications is not easy, and there is a growing movement towards designation of posts in the library service as 'professional' and 'non-professional', the latter being filled by persons of lower educational attainments or those who were unwilling to pursue their studies after leaving school. The difficulties, especially in the smaller library, of such classification of staff are many, and it may be doubted if a hard and fast division of duties is in the best interests of the profession. Certainly, it would be most invidious if able persons were discouraged from the profession through an artificial educational barrier, but it is important that those who are willing to train should have due recognition of their self-discipline. Promotions should be made with this in mind, thus placing a premium on the development of personality and discouraging the fatal attitude of waiting for the retirement of seniors to bring automatic advancement.

All librarians will of course be members of their professional association and support its activities. The Library Association has, since its foundation in 1877, (Royal Charter 1898) done much to advance the interests of the profession, and, being the responsible body, is concerned not only with the maintenance of the Register of Chartered Librarians, but also with their representation in matters of collective bargaining. The examination system of the Association is organised in three stages, the First Professional, the Registration and the Final Examinations, covering the technical subjects Classification, Cataloguing, Bibliography, Book Selection, Reference Work, Library Organisation and Administration and Literary History. Specialised alternative papers are available for students who desire to emphasise particular interests. Examina-

tions are held twice a year in London and at various provincial centres; details being available in the *Library Association Year Book* and the *Students Handbook*. The qualifications Associate of the Library Association and Fellow of the Library Association are granted after the Registration and Final Examinations respectively, subject to certain additional qualifications. Designation as A.L.A. or F.L.A. constitutes a 'chartered' librarian.

It is important to notice that the Library Association itself is not a teaching body, although it exercises an active interest in the maintenance of standards of educational training, both in the full-time Schools and in the various part-time facilities. More directly concerned with these latter is the Association of Assistant Librarians, (founded 1895) now a section of the Library Association, offering a special medium for expressing the views and the interests of the more junior members of the profession. By tradition, the A.A.L. concerns itself greatly with education and encouraging the facilities for education. Great credit is due to those members who have given much time and hard work to the establishment of an excellent system of correspondence courses and to the provision of part-time lectures at institutions of further education throughout the country. The limiting factors to professional education are today difficulties of access to sources rather than lack of facilities for study.

It may fairly be claimed that over a period of years the Library Association qualifications have risen in standard to a level at which they command the respect of employers, and on the maintenance of this exacting standard depends to no small degree the employment prospects of the members.

The Library Association is not, however, solely concerned with educational matters. It represents British librarianship as a whole and participates in the activities of many other bodies. Annual statements of these activities are presented in the Annual Report of the Library Association. It is to be hoped that increased representation of the Association will be possible at the important international conferences of bodies such as I.F.L.A., F.I.D. and Unesco. Librarianship is greatly enhanced by appreciation of work in other countries, and the stimulating influence of international contacts should be much more wide than at present.

The good librarian is not content to leave his staff to procure their own qualifications by their own efforts. All progressive systems have to-day either regular plans for release of staff to attend full-time Schools or schemes for part-time release to attend lectures in preparation for the examinations, or what is known as 'in-service training'. Under this latter scheme, more or less elaborated, lies the principle that new recruits should be given opportunity to view the library system as a whole by spending a short period of instruction in each section before ultimate

allocation to a more permanent post. During this period, the new-comer may have formal instruction in methodology, ideals of the service, the purpose of various routines and the background of local government. At the end of perhaps six weeks a report should be made by him on his experiences to the librarian, who will also have reports of his conduct and aptitudes. On this evidence, it will be possible to allocate staff with a good idea of their capabilities and also to take measures to supplement where necessary their latent abilities by further training. Much frustration is thus avoided, and harmonious staff relations more likely to be encouraged.

Annual assessment reports are now required by the Establishment Committee in a special form laid down for local government officers. This form is not entirely suitable for use in the library department, and lacks flexibility in its categories, but it represents a genuinely useful attempt to improve staff efficiency, for on the return may depend the award of increments or up-grading of salary.

Staff libraries of professional literature, payment for tuition or of examination fees, grants for full-time attendance at a Library School, are all facilities now offered to a greater or less extent, by local authorities seeking to implement the general improved standard of local government desired by the Whitley Council.

The number of staff employed by the library is determined by local resources and by the standard of service desired by the authority. It is necessary clearly to distinguish between libraries which are merely book distributing agencies and those which aim to give a full service to all types of readers and to exert a positive influence in the community. These latter systems require not only more staff, but also a higher proportion of qualified and educated assistants. One of the most disheartening aspects of the local government service is the consequential attraction of the best qualified personnel into larger units and the ready acceptance by many of the smaller units of a narrow idea of the library service and of its potentialities.

Statistics presented by the Library Association (January 1960) indicate that the staff to population ratio still ranges widely down to 1:18,333, though median figures suggest 1:3,652 (the median for all population groups) as well within the reach of all authorities. The Library Association recommends that 40% of public library staff should be qualified and graded in A.P.T. grades or above. (*L.A.R.* January 1960). From the same source, we learn that of the 14,127 persons employed in 514 libraries making returns, 4,048 were, in fact, graded A.P.T. I-V and a further 198 in the J.N.C. 'Lettered' Grades. 48.5% of these A.P.T. graded posts are above A.P.T. II. The total of graded staff over the country is 31.8%.

In the draft 'Standards of Public Library Service' presented to I.F.L.A. in 1956 it was held that 'it is usually sufficient to employ one

member of staff (in addition to the chief librarian) for each 3,000 of population in the community served . . .' This was, however, only for an *average* system and would have to be increased where the proportion of service points to population was high.

How far authorities are prepared to go in recognition of the worth of the libraries to the community must surely depend on the effectiveness of the service rather than on vague claims as to responsibility or of volume of work. The most successful argument will necessarily be public support. For instance, support from the influential commercial-industrial element, following specialised technical services, could be effective rather than reliance on massive fiction circulation statistics.

Division of staff functions into 'professional' and 'non-professional' jobs seems then impracticable of definition or implementation in the majority of libraries. Any job that can be justified as having a place in library routine will be found on examination to partake of the 'professional' element, and, although in larger libraries an increasing number of posts of specialist responsibility are obviously defined as 'professional', the very fact that the library tends to function through comparatively small service units entails a continuance of the 'general' assistant, competent for any task he or she is called upon to undertake.

With this in mind, all routine should be planned, recorded and made known to every member of the staff. Time-sheets should be made prominent, changes of duties from whatever cause, clearly notified to the persons concerned. Daily routine tasks should be controlled by a work-book or diary maintained in each department by the senior staff and submitted daily to the deputy or Chief Librarian. In this book will be entered the names of staff on duty, their hours, the duties they will perform and some indication of what in fact is achieved. This diary is complemented by the Staff Instructions Book; a record, preferably in loose-leaf form, of policy decisions and of the method by which duties are to be performed, written in full, helpful detail to enable every assistant to comprehend the tasks he has to perform. Heads of sections and particularly deputy and Chief Librarians will find it essential to orderly despatch of business that they should keep not only what may be called 'routine' diaries—that is, records relating directly to the administration of the library—but also 'official' diaries, wherein are carefully noted such items as the dates of committees, of public engagements, of appointments and visitors. These diaries depend, in the instance of a Chief Librarian, to a great extent on the competence of his secretary, who will have the responsibility of entering all the items as arising and must ensure that the programme is a practicable one and that nothing vital is omitted.

The library assistant trains through work, and the importance of regular, punctual habits, of neatness and general efficiency of conduct can hardly be over-emphasised. It is of the greatest importance that a

strong sense of responsibility to the service should be encouraged in every assistant, so that instructions may be loyally and willingly carried out and that a high standard of work may be done. Much clearly depends on the leadership of the senior staff and their competence in allocating work fairly, in giving credit where due, in ascertaining that instructions are correctly understood and that due experience of all the departments comes the way of each assistant.

All staff should be meticulously careful in following instructions as to notification of absence due to sickness and in submitting the essential medical certificates.

Few libraries have adequate accommodation for administration rooms, and fewer still for the staff when off duty. The trying hours worked by most assistants make it necessary for them frequently to have meals on the premises and, whilst only very large libraries can emulate the provision made by Manchester, all should have at least one pleasant room with basic equipment for light meals. Needless to say, with mixed staff, suitable cloakroom and lavatory accommodation must be made—the provisions of the Factories Acts enforce a much more rigorous standard for bindery and similar staff, with which it is necessary to comply.

Staff should be encouraged to form organisations for social activities and for discussion of library matters. These Staff Guilds or Associations, as they were frequently called, formerly supplied much of the education facilities that are now provided officially, and some of them have long and interesting histories. The social type still seems very popular and there can be few more pleasant events than an annual gathering, at which both past and present members of the library staff attend. Staff magazines, especially in county libraries, do much to foster a feeling of unity, especially if actively supported by the Chief Librarian and edited by an assistant who is able, discreet and yet vigorous.

CHAPTER V

ADMINISTRATIVE CONTROL: STATISTICS AND REPORTS: FINANCE AND AUDIT: ANNUAL REPORT

CONSTRUCTIVE administration of any organisation must depend on the soundness of policy formation and of the decisions taken as to the method of execution. It is for the senior personnel to assist the principal officer in both functions, though the ultimate responsibility is his, and, as heads of departments they will be the essential sources of information as to the conduct of the organisation, on whom the principal has to rely. To reduce the mass of information to comparable form and to ensure objectivity is one of the major functions of statistical returns. These should not be confused with administrative forms which are designed to ensure consistency of routine work and to act, in some measure, as a substitute for staff judgment. Such forms appear currently in the appropriate place in the body of this work, and it is only useful here to add that their construction and design is a matter calling for considerable skill if the desired result is to be gained and if the service which should benefit is not to be subordinated to the work of 'form-filling'. Particularly it should be noted that as all vital organisations are in constant change, forms need continued critical appraisal to avoid obsolescence and the consequential waste of time. The most important single instrument in this control is the Chief Librarian's Instructions or similarly named document, through which he periodically makes known his decision on administration, routine and staff management. These Instructions usually become the Staff Instruction Book, a permanent reference book of routine practices and standards.

Statistical returns from departments have this much in common with the administrative forms, but as they are also valued for comparison over a period of years it is important that their component elements be not too frequently changed.

The ultimate aims of these returns are the control of current services and their evaluation. Returns recording the physical volume of work are easy enough—interpretation is not—e.g. in Lending Libraries, mere record of the number of books loaned *per diem* or in a given number of hours, can be used to compute the number of staff needed at a library, at what hours they are most in demand, the number of books required at that library and the hours which it should be open. A further breakdown of these figures into types of book in demand would be of great

value to the book purchasing department. Can it be done by the counting of fiction and of non-fiction according to the main classification classes? Such a count is conventional, but hardly meets the requirements of true statistics in that the basic elements of the compilation are suspect, i.e. books are borrowed from a selection made by the librarian according to his financial means from the books published on the subject, and are, on any day, merely those left by other readers, and may vary widely in attractiveness to the reader. Nor does mere count of numbers in any way compare with the value of the loan of a book. Similar reasoning will apply equally to the Reference Library.

A more valid record would be a return of the number of books on loan on selected days in the year taken in conjunction with the number of readers actually using the library. Similarly, a routine could be evolved for computing the use of books by relating the number of books on selected subjects in stock with those on the shelves at given dates, and also the age and number of times such books had been issued. From this it would be possible to assess subject demand reasonably accurately as also the value of the stock. The list of topics investigated should, however, be fair and balanced. The mere fact that 'issues' in given categories or in particular libraries rise or fall annually may have little immediate significance if taken as an isolated piece of evidence. Far too many variable factors are concerned, and judgment of a library from figures without first hand investigation is most unwise.

It seems quite probable that Reference Library use can only be measured in terms of volume of transactions and used therefore only to compute staff, accommodation and times of opening. Evaluation of use seems impracticable in these terms.

Other parts of the library service in which statistical returns are needed are the book acquisition section, cataloguing, processing, binding departments; also the financial transactions, either in connection with book purchase or in the service departments.

Weekly returns of the number of books passing through the various acquisition departments are highly desirable as indicating the adequacy of the staff to control the volume of work, and, if examined critically, may lead to important changes in routine practice or even economies in staff. The larger the system, the more difficult it is to make such changes, but in the interest of efficiency, action may have to be taken, and it is then that the validity of statistical returns becomes of prime importance. Thus the introduction of centralised book purchasing, cataloguing and classifying and the subscription to *British National Bibliography* cards may offer a most far reaching economy in the services of the trained staff. It may speed up book acquisition and revise general competence of service; all advantages, but they will only be effective if all the consequential costs and effects on the library organisation as a whole can be measured and foreseen. A decision can only be taken after accurate

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To..... ....19.....

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Item	Author	Title	Publisher	No. of Copies	Price £	s.	d.	Allocation
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2								
3								
4								
5								
25								

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Librarian

Order No. P.L. Books

To be quoted on all Invoices, etc. No. .....

Fig. 1. Combined Order and Accession Sheet. *By using order and item number* (7839/3) *a ready-made charging symbol is provided.*

measurement of the costs of routine processes in all the libraries and figures should therefore be readily available on which to estimate costs of all the departments concerned. This is particularly true of the real salary costs in terms of hours spent on particular routines. These costs will perhaps rank especially high in the decision taken on the problem cited above, but underlie most attempts at use of machines, e.g. photo-charging for lending libraries, or offset-litho printing for catalogue cards.

A useful principle to apply when designing routine forms is that of plural use, i.e. can the same form be made to serve several purposes. One application of this is to be seen in the use of the duplicate invoice system for book ordering (Fig. 1).

Here, the top copy can go to the bookseller as order, return as invoice, be marked against the carbon copy retained as record in the library and sent to the Treasurer for payment and retention in his records. The library copy provides permanent record of purchase, allocation and if needed, disposal of each title, together with reference symbol in the form of the serial number and the number of each copy. This reference symbol can be used for identifying a book in charging systems.

It seems quite superfluous today to attempt the elaborate analysis of readers' ages, occupation, marital status and the like. Rarely completed with accuracy and seldom used, the required information seems irrelevant to a modern library. If information as to reading tastes is required, there are various national reader surveys compiled by professional statisticians that might be of use. An alternative, greatly to be preferred, is to encourage staff-reader relations so as to test current local reactions regularly yet informally.

Basic returns required by the librarian will, then, comprise (i) stock accessions, analysed in a form that will give a picture of the relation to the totals published and also its deployment within the system, (ii) the progress of processing work, (iii) details of stock management, i.e. revision of stock, discards, (iv) circulation records, (v) financial receipts (from the service departments), (vi) number of readers using the libraries.

Most of these records are needed weekly, and a suitable report form must therefore be drawn up for use at branch libraries and, indeed, all service departments. The administration departments will report differently, e.g. on the position of cataloguing, book purchase, stationery orders, and this will probably best be done as separate departmental returns.

The librarian will require monthly cumulations of the reports for submission to the committee, and to form the basis of his Annual Report. Before proceeding to this some consideration of financial records is needed.

The general financial records of the library will be kept in the form required by the Treasurer of the authority and his department, but the

..... PUBLIC LIBRARIES.

NORTH BRANCH.—REPORT.

Date.....

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9		Total.
Lending Issues												
Reference Issues												

Receipts from Fines

„ „ Catalogues, etc.

Books asked for

Books wanted from Central

Supplies wanted

Callers and occurrences

Signed.....

Fig. 2. Branch Library Report. *Basic, relatively uninformative.*

Month: September 1960. Library Issues.

Date	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Illustrations.	Lantern Slides.	Blank I. (Other Material).	Blank II. (Other Material).	Total.	D. Average.	Remarks
1																	
2																	
3																	
4																	
5																	
etc.																	

Fig. 3. Issue Analysis Sheet. *Uninformative. More helpful groupings would be: 0, 1-2, 3, 5-6, 7, 78, 4 + 8, 9, 92, Fiction, and stated types of material, e.g. gramophone records, micro-reproductions, art reproductions.*



Plate No. 9.

English interior: Frecheville Branch Library, Derbyshire County. *Sensible furnishings: shelves of various heights: effective use of window recess. 'In' counter unsuited for a standing assistant?*



Plate No. 10.

Derbyshire County: Chaddesden Children's Library. *Heavy lateral emphasis of the joists suggests room division. Clear wall space under far window would have given variety, provided pleasant browsing corner.*



Plate No. 11.

The American Memorial Library, Berlin. *Traditional in outline, windows and ceilings suggest scholarly calm in this greatest of post-war European libraries.*

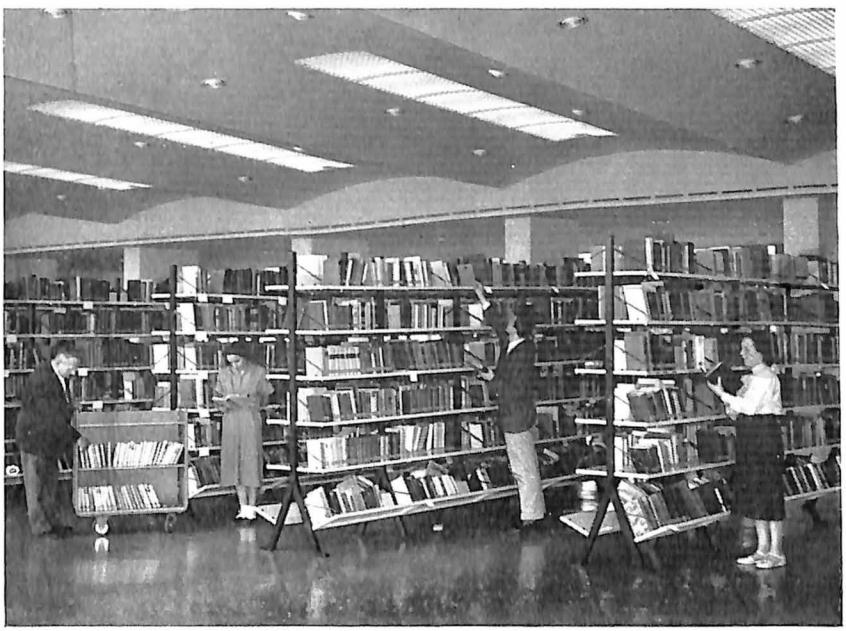


Plate No. 12.

Detail of shelving, American Memorial Library, Berlin. *Spare and athletic, this displays bookstock to maximum effect, enforces meticulous cleanliness.*



Plate No. 13.

Droitwich Branch Library, Worcestershire County. *A friendly smaller library of the thirties, with curtains and alcoving before these became common practice.*

librarian will need to keep certain information himself. This will be largely related to the actual analysis of current expenditure and receipts, and will be the essential element required for compiling Annual Estimates.

The importance of these derives from the fact that the most effective control of the library service by the local authority is financial, and as by law, expenditure on local services has to be provided for by rates levied on properties for fixed periods without the accumulation of surpluses to build up large reserve funds, it follows that all spending departments must very carefully plan their requirements, and the authority must approve these, in order to maintain an efficient financial management. All local authorities which have power to raise rates for particular services must retain this right, i.e. it is not possible to delegate the power to raise a rate from the council to a committee.

It is normal for the estimates of income and expenditure to be prepared by departments about three to four months previous to the end of the financial year (March 31), and these figures, which will be related to previous expenditure, to rising costs, and to developments in service, will be presented by the librarian in turn to the chairman of his committee, to the committee as a whole and then to the Finance Committee of the authority. Should agreement be reached at all these stages, the estimates will be incorporated in the general statement of the financial requirements of the authority and presented to the council for approval. If this is obtained, then, subject to the local Financial Regulations, the committee may sanction expenditure on items as required. All expenditure must have explicit committee approval before it may be legally incurred, though delegation of approval of items under certain amounts is common.

Estimates for expenditure are usually complete details of all categories, e.g. costs of heating, lighting, fuel, furniture, repairs and maintenance, books, salaries; though the actual extent of the detail may vary according to the routine practices of the library. Thus, a highly centralised book acquisition cataloguing section serving all the libraries would render detailed book fund allocations to each branch unnecessary unless the authority so desired.

The form of estimates is given in detail in Appendix 1. It will be noted that each item has a reference number for identification and for the coding of invoices when expenditure is made.

The various columns refer to previous years estimates and the actual realisation (the current year being computed with the aid of returns from the Finance Department). The first column is based on the Revised Estimate for the Current Year, having in mind increased costs and potential developments. All the Expenditure will have deducted the Income from Fines, Hire of Rooms and any other source; the balance will be that required from the General Rate Fund.

Estimated expenditure, especially on development projects, must be realistic, for it will have to be justified to several critical bodies, and this will in turn imply the gathering of accurate information from other departments who may execute repairs, decorations, or even erect buildings. Similarly the cost of a new service such as the change to Photocharging or a new Mobile Library must be accurately given.

It will be noted that some authorities have their own centralised departments for purchasing a wide range of items and not merely stationery, but office equipment and sometimes furniture will come under this arrangement. Detailed calculations of the cost of such items will in this case be obtained from the departments.

Once the Estimates have been finally approved, expenditure may only be incurred up to the amounts indicated, though in emergency Supplementary Estimates may be allowed to cover genuinely unforseeable demands such as caused by salary increments, rises in cost of fuel. Unexpended monies on one account may not be transferred to another without committee approval.

The Annual Estimates will be perhaps the most important transaction of the year for the librarian, for they are the only means by which his committee can obtain the finance and approval to embark on improvements or developments of the service. It follows that the librarian must work in close consultation with at least his chairman and must above all be realistic in his appreciation of what is possible in any one year. So much needs to be done in most library systems and there seems so little time available, that patience is often strained when faced with the lack of vision shewn by many authorities. All successful services have, however, been developed over long periods of time, and, with careful planning, sufficient improvements can almost always be made in even the most mediocre system to start to convince authority that more changes would be worth financing.

The Public Libraries Acts 1892-1919 and the Local Government Acts of 1933 and 1958 require that accounts be kept of all income and expenditure and that such accounts be subject to audit. Further guidance to local authorities was given by the Ministry of Housing and Local Government by Circular No. 4/59 in which the authority of the Council and the Finance Committee over all expenditure is carefully affirmed, as is the need for continued supervision of expenditure during the year. The Circular envisages the introduction of modern methods of accounting and their periodic review to ensure that the requirements of modern government service continue to be served. Within these general principles considerable freedom is left to the authority to set up its financial organisation, and this is usually laid down in local Standing Orders and Financial Regulations.

This being the case, the financial records of the Libraries Department will be completely controlled by the Finance Department and only

NEW BOOKS

LIBRARIES	C			R			A			N			S			T			Q			TOTAL		
Estimate	900			500			450			400			400			450			500			3600		
August 9 . . Jones	12	10	0	8	11	0	7	3	6	0	18	0	9	6	6	4	0	0	2	0	0	44	9	0
September 1 . etc.																								

Fig. 4. Branch Expenditure Analysis. *Still recorded in ledger form in many libraries, such analytical figures can be obtained more swiftly in authorities using machine accounting by employing library code numbers drawn up in conformity with the I.M.T.A. classification and arranging for the Treasurer to supply returns of expenditure when requested.*

such internal departmental records will be needed as serve a particular purpose in assisting the librarian to control expenditure and to record receipts. Where authorities have introduced punched card accounting into the Finance Department information may readily be obtained at regular intervals to cover details of expenditure to date under each item of the estimates. Not only totals but breakdown details of items may be supplied to explain the totals involved. This is such an obvious economy that any librarian will gladly avail himself of the opportunity to abandon internal financial records.

If however these are still needed, the important record will be an Expenditure Analysis Ledger into which are entered under appropriate heads, all the items in the Annual Estimates together with the amount of the vote. Then as expenditure is made, entries are made citing date, order number and amount—e.g. under Books there might well be a separate record for the expenditure for each Branch and perhaps a cumulation of the amounts spent at each supplier.

Receipts are usually recorded in either a General Receipt Book, of which the carbon copy records the nature and amount concerned, or, for Fines and similar small amounts in a special Receipts Ledger shewing the analysis of each day's receipts, cumulated so as to produce weekly, monthly and annual totals.

All these records are compiled with the object of ensuring against fraud and embezzlement and for the information of those concerned with expenditure. A careful control over the records and accounts is exercised not merely through the practice of requiring the signature of committee members to orders, and by the limitations imposed by the Financial Regulations, but also by the system of Audit.

This control is exercised by means of two of several possible methods, i.e. Internal Audit by the Finance Department of the authority which is a continuous process of examination of the operations of the departments of the authority by qualified auditors from the Finance Department; supplemented by either District Audit (compulsory on all authorities save county boroughs and the non-county boroughs with certain limitations) or 'elective audit' or 'professional audit'. District Audit is performed by auditors appointed by the Ministry of Housing and Local Government (Local Government Act 1933) who function annually, and who are obliged not only to answer public objections if required, but also to report for consideration by the authority.

Extensive powers are given to these auditors to check the validity of expenditure and to surcharge upon the person concerned the amount by which the authority is made wrongly responsible. Authorities are tending increasingly to adopt District Audit, but it is still possible for the same authorities annually to choose 'elective auditors' (two in number) plus one appointed by the mayor (the mayor's auditor). This system is governed by the Local Government Act 1933, s.237, and has an alterna-

tive specified in s.239 of that Act, whereby the authority may choose to have 'professional audit'; that is, an outside firm of auditors will be appointed to the position for a given period and provided with all the necessary powers to inspect documents. The power of surcharging is not given either under 'professional audit' or 'elective audit' systems.

It is important that library records and routines are planned to satisfy the accounting requirements of the auditors of whatever kind, and it is clear that the sanction of the chief auditor (or financial officer) will have to be obtained for all changes which involve money or the properties of the authority. This will cover matters such as the book accession method, the charging system, fines receipts, special services such as photostat supply, gramophone libraries, picture lending schemes and petty cash expenditure. Many apparently labour saving routines, particularly those concerning charging systems, have had to be abandoned owing to the strictness of auditors' requirements, and it should always be recalled, when planning reform of records, that an auditor may well require to follow through the life history of an individual book, and will only be satisfied if the records show reasonable control at all stages. It is particularly important to ensure that Petty Cash Expenditure is not only controlled by entry on the correct form but is also supported by the

Petty Cash Voucher

Date	Notice of Expenditure	£	s.	d.
8 Nov. 1960	Fare to London .		4	–

Signed: *John Jones*

Certified correct,
G. J. Brown,
Chief Librarian.

Fig. 5. Petty Cash Voucher

necessary receipts (if possible) and does not include items which should feature under other items in the Estimates. Books, for example, should not be thus purchased; and careful watch should be maintained to ensure that the permissible amounts for this type of expenditure (perhaps not exceeding £1 per item) are not exceeded.

The whole work of the library is summarised in the Annual Report,

which, though officially made to the Library Authority, is by way of being a direct piece of publicity for the library service. Previous to the war libraries entered into innocent competition with each other to publish attractively printed, well-written and illustrated reports, and today we may look forward once more to receiving exciting material from libraries well-known in this respect, and welcome novelties in exposition. A further discussion of this publicity value will be found in Chapter XX. Some authorities do not print separate library reports, but incorporate them in council minutes. The majority of libraries do, however, publish their annual report in two parts, one a report on the work of the library, relatively informal and designed to be read, and the second a statistical summary in the form suggested by the Library Association for comparison on a national basis.

The required details are listed herewith, by courtesy of the Library Association.

Statistics for the Year Ended .....
(in the form prescribed by the Library Association)

General

1. Population (civilian), Registrar General's latest estimate
2. Product of 1d. Rate
3. Amount of library rate in the £
4. Total expenditure on library service per inhabitant (i.e. Total expenditure (Item 27) divided by population (Item 1)) .....
5. Number of (*a*) separate library buildings .....
   (*b*) delivery and deposit stations, etc. .....
   (*c*) school libraries (departments) .....
6. Number of staff (*a*) Librarians and Assistants (men) .....
   (women) .....
   (*b*) Typists and clerks .....
   (*c*) Caretakers and porters .....
   (*d*) Cleaners .....
   (*e*) Binding staff .....
   Total number of staff ——

Income and Expenditure:

Income	£	% of total income
7. From library rate	.....	.....
8. From library receipts (fines, catalogues, etc.)	.....	.....
9. From local education authority funds (school libraries, etc.)	.....	.....
10. From other sources (specified)	.....	.....
11. Total income		

Expenditure	£	% of total expenditure
12. Books, pamphlets and prints	.....	.....
13. Bookbinding and repairing (including wages)	.....	.....
14. Newspapers and periodicals	.....	.....
15. Library Fittings and Furniture	.....	.....
16. Printing, Stationery, Office Requisites	.....	.....
17. Salaries of librarian and assistants (including insurance and superannuation)	.....	.....
18. Lectures	.....	.....
19. Rent	.....	.....
20. Loan charges	.....	.....
21. Rates and Taxes	.....	.....
22. Upkeep of buildings	.....	.....
23. Maintenance of Library Van (Mobile Library)	.....	.....
24. Heating, Lighting and Cleaning	.....	.....
25. Wages of manual staff, including insurance, etc.		
26. Miscellaneous		
27. Total expenditure		

Stock

	Lending				Reference		
	Adult		Children		Adult	Children	Total
	Fiction	Non-fiction	Fiction	Non-fiction			
28. Number of volumes at beginning of year							
29. Number withdrawn during year							
30. Additions during year							
31. Total volumes at end of year							
32. Volumes per head of population							

33. Other materials: (*a*) Illustrations .....
(*b*) Prints and pictures .....
(*c*) Local prints and pictures .....
(*d*) Manuscripts .....
(*e*) Lantern slides .....
(*f*) Gramophone records .....
(*g*) Other .....

Issues	Fiction	Non-fiction	Total	Daily Average
34. Adult lending library				
35. Children's lending library				
36. Lending library issues (34, 35) per head of population				
37. Books (34, 35) on loan on selected date, e.g. first Monday in Feb.				
Total				
38. Reference library (recorded)				
39. Reference library (estimated)				
40. Children's reference or reading room				
41. Total book issues (34, 35, 38, 40)				
42. Illustration and Other Material (33)				
43. School libraries				
44. Total book issues (41 and 43)				
45. Book issues (41) per head of population				
46. Book issues (41) per head of staff: excluding staff employed exclusively on school library or other external work (i.e. Total issues (Item 41) divided by staff (total of Items 6(*a*) and 6(*b*)).				

Registered Readers

47. Number of registered readers

	Adults	Children	Total .....
48. Percentage of readers to population			
49. Number of supplementary tickets held			
50. Total number of readers' tickets			
51. Period for which readers' tickets are valid			

School Libraries

(Statistics relating to children's libraries in schools or elsewhere which are maintained wholly or mainly from Local Education Authority or School Funds and are administered by the Public Library Authority.)

52. Number of school departments served .....
53. Number of school libraries staff .....
54. Income: (*a*) From Education Authority .....
    (*b*) From other sources .....
55. Expenditure: (*a*) Books .....
    (*b*) Binding .....
    (*c*) Salaries .....
    (*d*) Other .....
56. Total Stock .....
57. Total Issues .....
58. Approximate number of children served .....

Explanatory Notes

Item 5(*c*). This heading is for use when help is given by the Local Education Authority, but if the cost of the School Libraries is wholly or mainly borne by the Education Authority the details should be entered separately under the section 'School Libraries' (items 52-58 inclusive).

Item 8. Library Receipts.
- Fines.
- Catalogues.
- Tickets.
- Reserved books.
- Lost and damaged books.
- Wastepaper and periodicals.
- Hire of Lecture Hall.
- Advertising on book marks.

Item 9. See note for item 5(*c*) above.

Item 16. Expenditure.
- Printing, etc.
  - (All general printing, including catalogues, bulletins, etc.)
  - Stationery and office requisites, typewriters, etc.
  - Postage stamps.
  - Telephones.

Item 23. Expenditure.
- Lighting, Heating and Cleaning.
  - Lighting and heating.
  - Cleaning materials.
  - Uniform clothing.
  - Workmen's compensation accident insurance.
  - Medical attention under sick pay scheme.

Item 26. Expenditure.
- Miscellaneous.
  - Candidates' expenses—appointments.
  - Stamp duty on contracts.
  - Cinema licence.
  - Gratuities.
  - Carriage.
  - Fares.
  - Exhibitions.
  - Delegates' fees and expenses—conferences.
  - Subscriptions—Library Association, etc.
  - (Many subscriptions to Societies are paid to obtain publications and might be considered as book expenditure (Item 12).)

Explanatory Notes—continued.

Items 34-35. Issues.

Lending Library.

Books should be issued for a period of two weeks. All staff and special issues, including those under the Regional Scheme should be counted fortnightly.

Item 37. Issues.

Reference Library.

The total should be ascertained by an accurate count taken on four days during the year, one day in each quarter and reduced to a daily average.

Item 43. See note for Item 5(*c*) above.

CHAPTER VI

THE NATIONAL CENTRAL LIBRARY AND LIBRARY CO-OPERATION

THE local origin and development of public libraries has necessarily meant that the provision of books and allied material varies according to local resources and initiative. The public library service is not a national one, nor is there any national policy for its development or for the acquisition of its bookstocks. Ideally, the country would be served in such a way that no reader need be handicapped in his serious reading by mere accident of residence, and distance from the great centres of population would constitute no disadvantage to his studies. This, of course, is a dream, and fundamental re-organisation of the existing public library structure would be necessary to achieve even a satisfactory standard of provision in areas which are already nominally covered by a library service. In addition, the discovery of a solution to the problem of cheap and speedy communication of library materials is still awaited: mechanical aids such as Telex, closed-circuit television and photo-copying are mere superficial palliatives. Failing other means, British librarians have voluntarily organised themselves into an elaborate system of co-operation, which, with all its shortcomings, is unique in its range, is unparalleled in local government and has few rivals in other countries. Adequate use of this co-operation system is fundamental to successful library service and the system repays careful examination, both in its origins and current developments.

As recently as 1916, Dr. Albert Mansbridge, founder of the Workers Educational Association and a pioneer of adult education, founded the Central Library for Students with the purpose of supplying books to individual adult class students in areas where they were without adequate library service, at no cost other than postage, and also to provide sets of books to adult classes such as those promoted by Dr. Mansbridge's own efforts. Voluntary contributions and gifts of books supported the Library, but, from the first, its importance was recognised by the Carnegie United Kingdom Trust, who became its main supporters. By 1930, the Library had widened its scope and received government recognition, and, as a result of the recommendation of the Royal Commission on National Museums and Galleries, was reconstituted in 1931 as the National Central Library under Royal Charter from King George V. The Carnegie Trustees at this time made perhaps their greatest single contribution to British librarianship by purchasing a large building in Malet Place, conveniently located near the British

Museum and the University of London, and now occupied partly by the National Central Library itself and partly by the headquarters of the Library Association.

The ideal of the Library has expanded considerably since 1916 and now embraces the following services: that to the isolated student and to organised adult classes: the provision of a library of those books which are required by students, but which individual libraries do not stock owing to the small demand, specialised nature or high cost: and, above all, the extensive scheme of inter-library loans operated through the 'Outlier Libraries' and the Regional Library Systems. In addition, a bureau of bibliographical information has developed within the Library to give subject guidance or to help students in the choice of books. This last service, and the proved desirability of forming centralised catalogues of the holdings of libraries, attracted the first grant-in-aid of £3000 from H.M. Treasury in 1930. It should be noted that the grant was confined to the supply of bibliographical information, and that the cost of the lending service was met by the Carnegie Trust and by contributions by libraries, private subscribers and from certain charitable trusts. At the present time, the grant has been increased to £52,000, and, in general, subscriptions from libraries have themselves risen considerably. It may be commented that the Roberts Committee Report considered that the libraries were bearing an insufficient proportion of the cost of these services.

The Library today consists of large book-stores, a union catalogue department, offices for the Librarian and his staff, the bibliographical bureau, the adult classes department and the British National Book Centre. The Library does not loan books to readers on personal application, but works through their local or other library. Despite the war-time loss of more than half of the bookstock, the current collections of the Library amount to 165,600, exclusive of the publications of learned societies and periodicals. By recent policy decisions, purchase will be increasingly confined to foreign and out-of-print books.

The catalogues housed at the National Central Library are as follows: the National Union Catalogue, compiled from duplicate entries supplied by Regions, which have themselves made union catalogues; the Outlier Union Catalogue of books and periodicals compiled from entries sent by the Outlier Libraries (some 297 libraries, mainly non-public and specialist institutions which co-operate with the national inter-lending scheme, with some protective reservations) and from entries from universities and other sources; the Bureau of American Bibliography, which, founded in 1938, centres round the complete copy of the Library of Congress Author Catalog; the Union Catalogue of Russian Books and Periodicals; the Union Catalogue of German War-time Books and Periodicals, 1939-1949. Also housed in the building are the South-Eastern Regional Bureau Catalogue and the London Union Catalogue.

The National Union Catalogue, now on sheaf catalogue slips, is (1961) to be copied on to cards by xerography, and amalgamated with the Outlier Union Catalogue already on cards. The resultant National Union Catalogue will comprise above 12 million entries, and is being financed over a period of years by a 50% Treasury Grant.

On the recommendation of the Joint Standing Committee on Co-operation of the Association of University Teachers, certain libraries have undertaken to purchase 'background literature' within certain periods of years. As early as 1954, thirteen libraries had entered the scheme and had co-operated in acquiring 825 books published before 1800, and some fifty libraries had reported existing holdings to the extent of about 12,000 items, these being marked, where appropriate, in copies of the Short Title Catalogue and in Wing's continuation.

A welcome feature of post-war years has been the revival of international loans, which, as agreed with the International Federation of Library Associations, are necessarily channelled through national library agencies, such as the National Central Library. This scheme, which functions with greatest efficiency in countries where there are adequate union catalogues or an efficient scheme for circularising wants lists, negotiated in 1960 3,494 loans to 53 countries and 1,871 loans from 29 countries.

The internal organisation of inter-lending in this country is founded on nine regional systems, including the London Metropolitan Borough libraries, which have a semi-independent scheme. The aim of these systems, which date from 1931, was to remove the burden of inter-lending, where possible, from the national to the local level, and to make more practicable the compilation of union catalogues. In practice, considerable variation has arisen between the regions; in Yorkshire, for example, it is held that, as the bulk of the books are to be found in three or four large city libraries, it is unnecessary to have a union catalogue and a zonal system of circularising these libraries is in operation, thus saving the main expense of the scheme. Recent recommendations have all been in favour of compiling a Yorkshire Union Catalogue as soon as finances allow.

The Regional Bureaux are financed by subscriptions from their constituent libraries based on size, and balances are struck annually between loans and requests to determine postage payments. The offices of the Bureaux are usually housed together with their union catalogues in the largest library of the region, for example, that of the West Midlands Region is housed in the Birmingham Central Library. Applications for loans are made only through member libraries, on specified standard forms, to the Bureau, and the Bureau checks location in the Union Catalogue, forwards the request to the library concerned, and if the book is available, this library then posts direct to the requesting library. Attempts are being made to devise standard packings for use

in inter-library lending, in order to diminish physical damage to the book in transit, but, to the present, there has been only limited success. This is an admirably simple system, which works with economy and a high percentage of efficiency, so long as (1) the catalogues are properly maintained, (2) libraries do not use borrowing rights as a means of economising on what should be reasonable book purchase, (3) proper bibliographic checking of applications is performed at the originating library.

In practice, none of these requirements has been consistently fulfilled, and the war-time emergency finally struck at the Union Catalogues by making it impossible to do the essential maintenance work. Arrears of these and post-war years have never been entirely liquidated. By 1952, the time was ripe for an investigation, which was carried out by Mr. R. Vollans, and, though his conclusions were not entirely adopted, considerable changes are now being made in the inter-lending system.

Each Region is now envisaged as being collectively responsible for covering the current production of British books since 1 January, 1959. In addition, each Region will undertake complete 'subject specialisation' in one main class of the Dewey Decimal Classification: thus, the West Midlands Region has been allocated Class 5 and therein purchases all books listed in the *British National Bibliography*, as well as attempting coverage of periodicals. Accessions and omissions are reviewed from time to time by the Committee of the Bureau. Applications for older books, subject to a downward price limit, will continue to go as necessary to the National Central Library, as will requests for foreign language books and international loans. Each Region, it is hoped, will bring up to date the Union Catalogue, which is still considered the most economical means of locating material.

The functions of the National Central Library will become increasingly those of a bibliographic centre co-ordinating the work of the Regions; maintaining links with what are known as 'Outlier Libraries' (specialist libraries who will lend through the National Central Library, but are obliged, in some measure, to restrict their participation); organising international loans; maintaining the Union Catalogue of Russian Literature, the American Catalog and general subject literature enquiries; in addition, certain residual functions such as the Adult Classes Books Loans Scheme. The National Central Library book purchasing policy is to be modified in view of the growing standards of public libraries acquisitions.[1] Within the financial limitations of the Library book fund, it will now be possible to give more attention to the purchase of important foreign material, often hitherto only available in university libraries; government publications; the proceedings and publications of learned societies. Until the full establishment of the National Lending Library for Science and Technology, it

[1] *Library Association Record*, August, 1960.

BRITISH IRON AND STEEL FEDERATION
Steel: fact & fiction. London, British Iron & Steel Federation, gratis. Apr 1959. 20*p*. 4*plates, map, tables*. 24½*cm*. *Sd*.
(B59-8090)

338.47672—IRON & STEEL MANUFACTURES

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39	40
41	42	43	44	45	46	47	48	49	50	51	52	53	54	55	56	57	58	59	60
61	62	63	64	65	66	67	68	69	70	71	72	73	74	75	76	77	78	79	80
81	82	83	84	85	86	87	88	89	90	91	92	93	94	95	96	97	98	99	100

Fig. 6. Sheaf Catalogue Slip. *Provided by B.N.B. for use in Regional Library Bureaux.*

is not proposed to purchase specialist scientific and technological material.

This change of emphasis effectively focusses attention on the essential problems of a national library service based on voluntary co-operation, but having no effective control over additions to resources, their distribution or ultimate fate. It is increasingly clear that any scheme hoping to make maximum use of national library expenditure on books and other forms of recorded knowledge must very carefully define the type of service it envisages. Further, it is surely essential that constituent members of a scheme should either already each be pursuing acquisition policies that do not all cover the same range of titles, or else will be prepared to modify their policies to extend the total range of acquisitions. The urgency of this is seen when book acquisition policies since 1950 are considered. Libraries are certainly buying more books, but frequently not so much a greater number of titles as newer and therefore more expensive books, with a strong emphasis on new fiction. Additionally, titles do not stay so long in stock (with a most unfortunate effect on the R.L.B. Union Catalogues) and are therefore likely to cause more applications to the Bureaux which will meet with less success. If the policy of reducing binding costs in favour of complete discard with little prospect of later replacement is to spread, the next generation of readers will be confronted with a most serious dearth of mid-twentieth century titles.

Logically, there should follow a scheme for co-operation both in purchasing and in discard, whilst, ideally, there should be additionally a store for older material of diminishing use, which it is not practicable to shelve in popular home reading libraries. Such national policy has not yet been realised, but various elements have come into being since 1946 in the form of, first, Local, and now Regional Subject Specialisation Schemes. The essence of these is that libraries, either in a designated area or, better, those constituting a regional scheme based on existing Regional Bureaux, should mutually allocate the classes of the Dewey Decimal Classification, sometimes in quite small sub-divisions, to match the resources of the particular library, and, within these allocations, each library should purchase all books currently appearing in the *British National Bibliography*. This purchase should be in addition to normal book purchases of the library. Books falling within these allocated class numbers should not be discarded from the library concerned. The total additional cost to a given library need not be very great, especially if related to the valuable increase in the library resources of the area. Some schemes put an upward limitation on purchase price; no scheme extends beyond current British publications; and retrospective collection is usually achieved by distribution of discarded copies to the appropriate collecting library.

In conjunction with the national scheme for the Regional Library



Plate No. 14.

Junior Library, Droitwich, Worcestershire. *Contrast junior furnishings in Cincinnati Main library, and comments in Chapter VIII.*

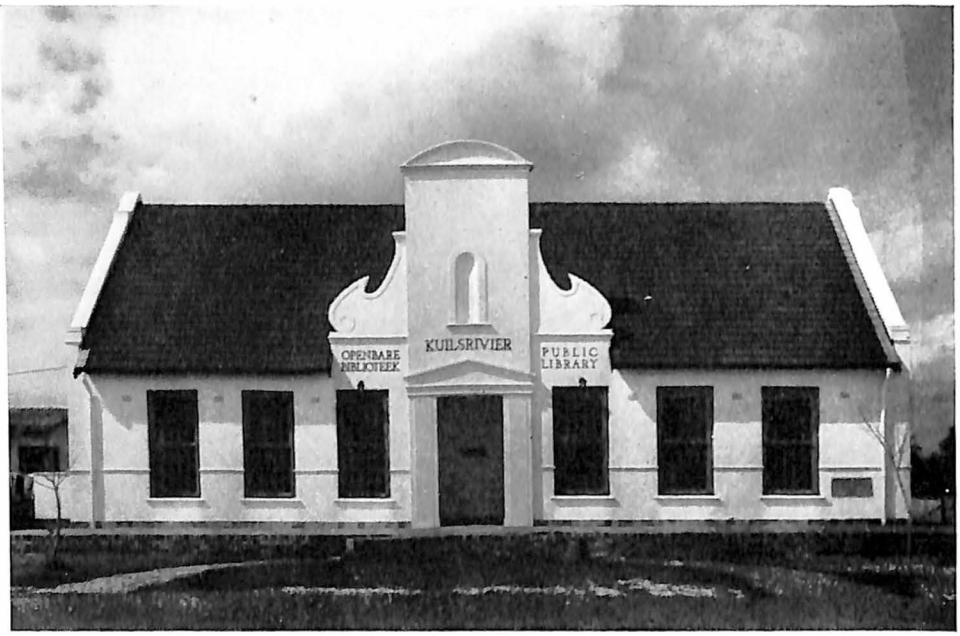


Plate No. 15.

Kuilsriver Library, Cape Province, South Africa. *If not 'like a library' yet severely simple.*



Plate No. 16.

Hollyhedge Branch Library, Manchester. *Deep windows, inviting the interested gaze of the passer by, replace the vigilant supervision once considered necessary in radially planned libraries.*



Plate No. 17.

Main Library, Cincinnati and Hamilton County. *Alternate levels of public and stack floors, the latter with blind façades, provide bold architectural effect. Perhaps the finest American Library to date.*



Plate No. 18.

Rare Book Room, Cincinnati and Hamilton County Main Library. *Note the long windows shielded from direct sun by louvres. See Pl.* 17.

Bureaux mentioned previously, there can be little doubt that in a few years time there will be comprehensive coverage in public libraries of current British publications.

The Metropolitan Boroughs of London have two co-operation schemes, one for nineteenth and early twentieth century fiction, and the other to cover non-fiction in the usual subject specialisation connotation. Both these schemes have a well-developed system of storage for the appropriate collections by individual libraries as accommodation offers. Thus, the expenses of a central co-operative store have been avoided, for the present, only to remain as a problem for the immediate future.

So far as the non-popularised books of science and technology are concerned, the National Lending Library for Science and Technology will provide a central store, but access to these resources will only be through certain specifically approved libraries. For the literature of the humanities and social sciences, there are apparently no plans.

To supplement alleged shortcomings in existing co-operation schemes, a number of supplementary arrangements have been evolved in various parts of the country. Frequently a part of the reference library service, a number of them have been considered in that connection. The essential features of all these schemes are the utilisation, through the public library staff services, of *all* local resources, but particularly in the scientific and technological branches of knowledge, where the users are so conscious of the importance of literature searching. No central catalogue need be kept, though communication by telephone is of vital importance. Material is frequently exchanged by messenger.

The general absence of financial costing in these schemes is significant; the library being assumed to absorb the cost of staff time, telephone calls, necessary postage, and to refer all such 'unseen' expenditure to 'service to industry'. This may well be legitimate, especially as it is in this direction that the library service so often fails.

A model of this effective co-operation has been given by the Sheffield Inter-change Organisation, (SINTO) which unites the resources of the Sheffield City Library Technical and Commercial Library with primarily the local specialised libraries of the iron and steel industry. Careful attention is given to the coverage of, for example, foreign technical literature, especially periodicals, and an essential feature of this scheme is that the Library serves as a locating and interchanging agency to members. The scheme is only open to member firms who can offer a certain minimum of bibliographical resources. Considerable work is done by the library staff in literature searching and some valuable lists on highly specialised technical subjects have been published. The results of the scheme have been recognised as of national importance and the Library has become internationally known as a clearing house for this particular technological knowledge.

As emphasised elsewhere, these schemes can only be effectively organised if there are sufficient trained staff and adequate bookstock available; the gravest handicap of any co-operation scheme being the low grade bibliographical work performed at originating libraries. Despite the constant reminders from the Bureaux and the National Central Library, and the printed handbooks of instruction circulated by most of the Regions, far too many libraries have an utterly inadequate set of those common bibliographical tools which should be the basis of stock management and assistance to readers. A recent survey in one area showed an almost complete absence of any reputable guide to current scientific literature.

In the light of these comments, it is rather strange to find librarians active in the compilation and publication of location lists of resources in special subjects within given areas. Typical subjects for these lists are directories, periodicals, special collections. In themselves, these lists have undoubtedly brought to light much that was hitherto unknown, but the time is now ripe for more systematic co-ordination of these pioneer enterprises, showing, as they do, an impressive awareness among librarians of the need to organise stock and resources on a more than individual local basis. An astonishing poverty of resources has been revealed side by side with unexpected riches; the steady bias of public libraries to the non-scientific book has been shown up remorselessly and, to the thoughtful observer, the essential wastefulness of the present purchasing policies is all too apparent.

Over the inter-lending systems of the country loom many unanswered questions; how much do they cost; what, in fact, is the material which is inter-changed; how frequently do libraries fail to purchase, but apply for loan; do the schemes deserve public support and are they worthy of more? To these questions there can only be certain logical conclusions; greater public confidence in the public library service must be inspired by fuller co-operation between libraries, by the improved use of book trade and other bibliographies for stock acquisition, by the systematic training of staff in the recognition of the non-comprehensive character of books on their own library shelves. By such means, it will be possible to realise the publicised statement that the national library resources are fully available to all at every public library service point in the country.

CHAPTER VII

COUNTY LIBRARIES

UNTIL 1915 no systematic attempt had been made to study or to grapple with the problem of the supply of books to rural areas and their scattered populations throughout the United Kingdom. Parish libraries, to which long overdue attention has now been given, may be largely ignored on the score that their contents were semi-scholarly in type, and the books were usually available to the clergy only. Private enthusiasm had already attempted to establish libraries, for example, circulating collections of books in several counties, notably Kirkwood of Minto (1699, 1702), Brown in E. Lothian (1817), the Union of Lancashire and Cheshire Institutes (1847), the Yorkshire Union of Educational Institutes (1854) and the Dorset Book Lending Association (1907). Of more significance perhaps were the Coats' of Paisley scheme to serve the Highlands and Hebrides, and that of Sir Charles Seeley in the Isle of Wight; the former scheme having at one time no fewer than 150 deposit libraries ranging from 300-600 volumes, in circulation. In all these schemes there is the common factor of private enthusiasm and philanthropy, those libraries which survived the longest being those which were able to create sufficient local support to supply the voluntary organisation and subsidy when the original founders died.

No such schemes could or can, however, assure continuity or provide the standards that are expected from the rate maintained service, and, although the problem of the rural reader had been considered as early as 1849, nothing substantial comparable to the municipal library service had emerged, despite the fact that the Public Libraries Act of 1892 clearly permitted co-operation of authorities for library purposes, the only way in which the low rate income of the country areas could be effectively used. In 1915 some 76 parishes had libraries working under the Public Libraries Acts, but scrutiny of Professor Adams's Report shows clearly how utterly inadequate these and other rural libraries were in fact: no fewer than 108 institutions having an individual total income of less than £100 per annum.

The obvious authorities to establish rural libraries were the county councils, which already frequently supported libraries, e.g. the voluntary scheme in Dorset, by virtue of the powers given under the Education Acts to promote adult education, but the county councils themselves were not specifically empowered to adopt the Libraries Acts in 1892. It is due to the initiative of the Carnegie United Kingdom Trust that the problem was first surveyed by Professor Adams, whose *Report on Library Provision and Policy* (1915) constitutes a landmark in the history

of the library movement. Acting on his recommendations, the Trust invited certain county councils through their Education Committees, as well as certain towns well placed in regard to surrounding rural districts, to accept grants to extend, without waiting for legislation, the rural library service by the establishment of (i) a central library from which books could be distributed at regular intervals and from which there should be supervision of the whole area, (ii) village libraries, usually in a school with the schoolmaster as voluntary librarian, to consist of a permanent collection of important reference and standard books, together with a circulating library which would be changed at normally three monthly intervals. The areas chosen were Staffordshire County, Worksop (Notts.), as a town centre among villages, and a scheme organised from the Trust Headquarters at Dunfermline to deal with the outlying islands of Scotland and to reinforce the Coats' libraries. The Trustees further sought to encourage parishes and other small authorities to use their powers of combination to provide a library service, but their efforts in this direction, though backed with the promise of grants, met with little success. Indeed from the trenchant language of J. M. Mitchell's *Report* . . . in 1924, it is clear that the solution of the library problem for semi-rural areas and small towns was not to be found thus, but by the relinquishment of their powers to the county. It should be noted that the Adams report strongly emphasised the educational function of libraries, and the fundamental importance of voluntary helpers in the organisation of the service. The Carnegie Trustees not only made these initial grants for foundation and maintenance of libraries but continued for a number of years after the 1919 Act to encourage councils by the award of initial capital grants to adopt the Libraries Acts and to improve services. Well might the Trustees in their 1949 report take pride in recording 'the establishment (of the rural library service) has been the largest enterprise to which the Trustees have yet set their hands, accounting as it does for total grant expenditure of well over half a million pounds.'

The provisions of the 1919 Act differ materially from previous legislation in that the county authority has to refer its library functions to the Education Committee and, perhaps more important from the administrative angle, could not supersede existing library authorities save by the cumbersome procedure of voluntary individual agreement. It is also significant that local authorities could request to have their independence restored and to become library authorities. Many have in fact done so, and the profession follows with keen interest the experiments of these smaller authorities in running efficient libraries.

During the decades following the 1919 Act all counties adopted the Acts, and a gradual extension of the somewhat primitive service envisaged by Professor Adams came about. In the annual reports from the libraries from 1920 onwards there may be discerned certain definite

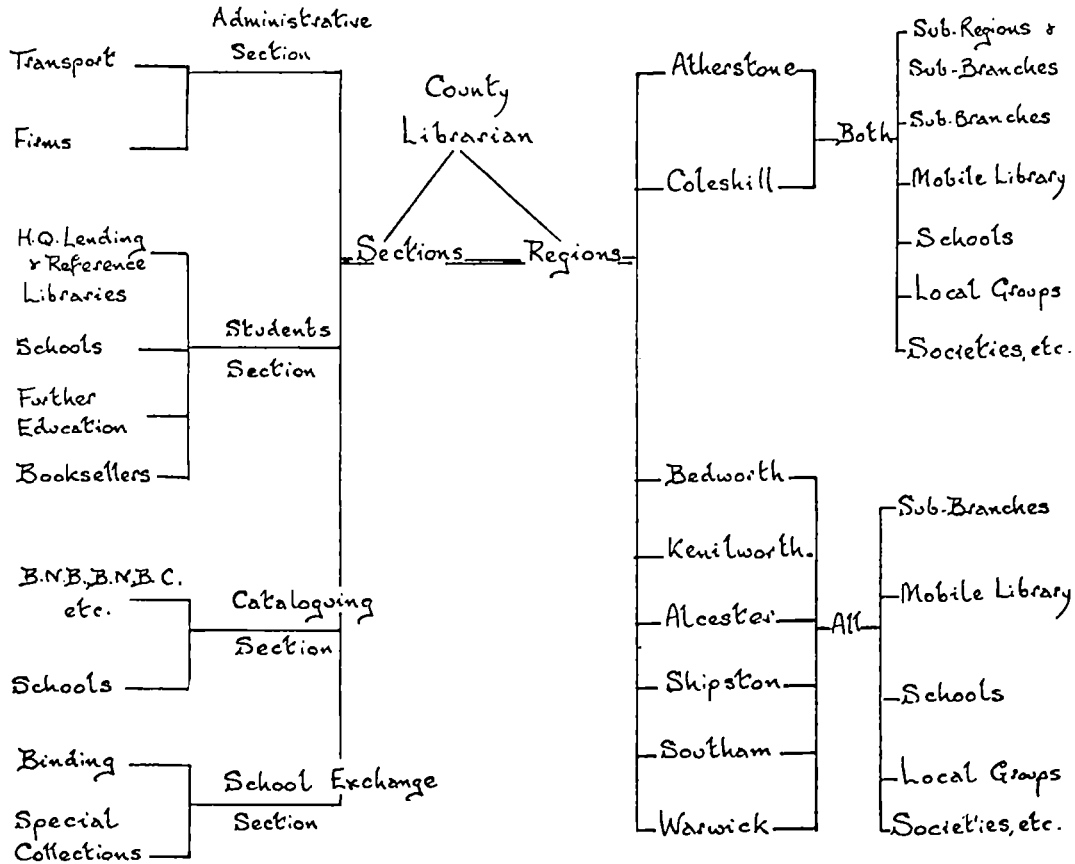


Fig. 7. The administrative structure of a regionalised County Library system.

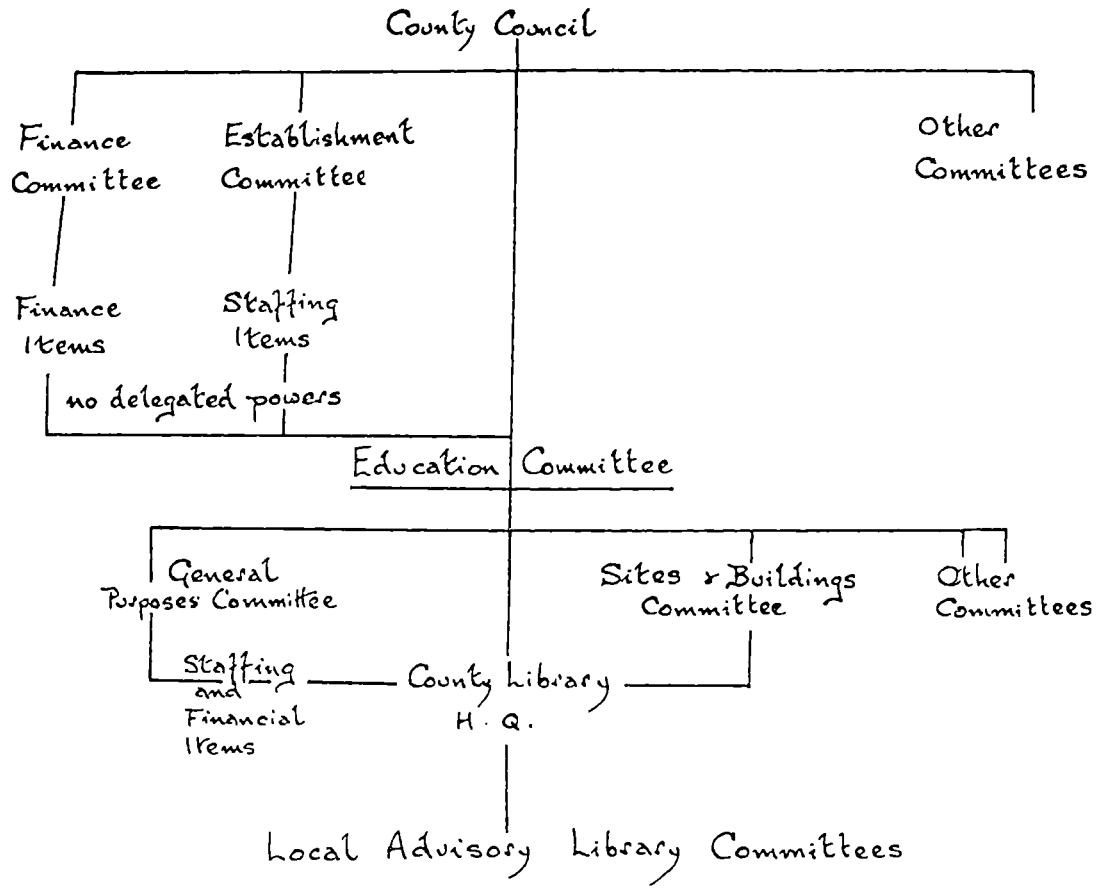


Fig. 8. *The committee structure in a County Library System.*

tendencies which have combined to create the great county library service of today, which, though it has not developed uniformly over the whole country has, as the County Library Section *Statistical and Policy Survey* 1951 shows, a vitality and sense of mission that augurs well for future expansion.

The findings of the Roberts Committee are particularly important in respect of county libraries. During the coming decade the County Library Committee will probably become a main committee of the County Council; the County Librarian be designated as a 'Chief Officer' and perhaps the rationalisation of county library areas will be effected. This process of rationalisation would mean that local authorities having, usually, a population of 50,000 or over would be able to make application to exercise library powers, if they are not already doing so. The county libraries might also, in the interests of improved administration and service, become responsible for the provision of a library service in areas which had previously been small independent library authorities.

A COUNTY LIBRARY SYSTEM[1]

The original conception of a county library was that of a well-stocked and staffed county library headquarters servicing a network of village centres, the latter run by voluntary workers. Within 15 years major changes took place; the establishment of full-time branch libraries (a building used solely for library purposes and open for not less than 30 hours a week) in centres of larger population (over 4,000) under the control of a chartered librarian; part-time branches (open more than 15 hours per week, serving a population of about 1,000–4,000); and the Mobile Library replacing the village centre in the provision of a library service to communities of less than one thousand. The size and nature of the county may make it expedient for the area to be divided into self-contained regions, each with its branch libraries, part-time branch libraries, mobile libraries and village centres—where they remain. It should be noted that a number of county librarians feel that there will always be a need for the village centre in their county library areas owing to geographical, climatological and social considerations.

Today the county libraries of this country are in varying stages of development—development which is limited by local circumstances. Consequently any observations on organisation and functions of sections remain general statements which must be adapted and amplified to meet those local conditions.

The organisation of a typical 'developed' county system will usually consist of the following departments.

[1] Terminology is as defined in '*County Library Terms and Definitions.*' (Library Association, County Libraries Section. 1948), Osborne, E. *and* Sharr, F. A., *County Library practice* 1950, and in *L.A.R.* 62 (8) pp. 261-2.

The *Headquarters*, which may be located in an existing library area (an administrative anomaly springing from the 1919 Act), but is almost always near to the County Administrative Offices in the County Town. Functionally the Headquarters operates as the administrative centre from which the County Librarian works. Here will be located the general pool of books on which the service points draw; the organisation for purchase, recording and distribution of stock; the Students Section dealing, often through the post, with enquiries for more serious reading or individual requests; a lending library (possibly quite small) open to county readers as distinct from those resident in the authority wherein the County Headquarters is located; a reference library with appropriate specialised departments, e.g. Technical Library, Agricultural Library; and possibly a mobile library or libraries serving all or part of the county. Specialist services such as Schools and College Libraries, Adult Classes Department, Drama and Choral Collections, Gramophone Record Collection, Visual Aids Collection, will usually be administered through the County Library Headquarters. *Regional Branch Libraries* began as an attempt to decentralise the county library administration. Today 'regionalisation' is in operation in many of the larger county library systems. It should be emphasised that not all county library areas are suitable for administration on a regional basis. The Regional Branch Library will usually be the central service point of an area of the county having sufficient population to warrant an enhanced book provision (more than, that is, village centre provision), but unable to form a self-sufficient library authority. By definition the Regional Branch will have freedom in the fields of book selection and purchase and of administration. The Regional Branch Librarian will report only to the County Librarian on major items and events which may effect policy, but the County Librarian will remain reponsible for the administration of the county as a whole.

The establishment of the Region will be preceded by a complete survey of the administrative county library area, following which an attempt will be made to divide the county into natural 'regions' which the local population has developed by custom and usage. Great care must be taken in this stage of the planning, as the local population of an area pays little or no attention to local government boundaries—their movements and habits are activated by lines of communication and the situation of market towns.

The Regional Branch Library will, usually, be situated in the centre or focal point of the region. This will tend to be a market town well served by roads and public transport. Opinions differ over the optimum size of the town, figures between 3,000 and 20,000 having been cited. However, the over-riding factor is the geographical situation of the town. It has been found that the largest town in a region is not necessarily the best site for a Regional Branch Library.

In addition to the normal branch library functions the Regional Branch will provide a mobile library service for its area, a postal borrowing service and maintain the stocks of branches, sub-branches and any village centres left in its region. In short, the Regional Branch Library will do all that an autonomous authority may do, but will also administer library service to areas beyond the immediate local government area in which it is situated, and will be able to rely on the greater resources of the County Headquarters for books, staff and finance. Now that county library book stocks are becoming increasingly strong the advantages of the Regional Branch are clear. An adequately planned and executed Regional Branch Library will render library service in the best sense over a comparatively large geographical area having a scattered population and a relatively low rate product without undue loss of local administrative responsibility.

County Branch (or District) Libraries are found in both 'regionalised' and 'non-regionalised' county library systems. They may be (i) full-time (open at least 30 hours per week) in areas of about 5,000 population and over, or (ii) part-time (open less than 30 hours per week) in areas of less than 5,000 population.

The full-time branch (or district) library should be under the charge of a qualified librarian. The number of subordinate staff will depend on the size of the library, but there should be at least one other full-time member, preferably in process of qualifying as a librarian.

The part-time branch will be staffed, as a rule, by qualified or partially qualified staff from a Regional Branch or full-time Branch Library. In some cases staff may be recruited locally to serve at part-time branch libraries.

Local Library Committees will usually be formed to maintain local interest in the library service and to act as a forum for local suggestions and complaints. The committee will have very little executive power, possibly authorisation of expenditure of £50 p.a. on minor items of equipment, the appointment of junior staff, but will forward resolutions requiring administrative action to the County Library Sub-Committee. Its advice will be of great value in connection with the location and hours of opening of local centres, on the route of the mobile library and on book selection.

The Director of Education, County Librarian and Clerk to the local authority concerned will be 'ex-officio' members of the local library committee; and the Branch Librarian will act as clerk.

In 1947 the Surrey County Library Authority commenced a policy of planned decentralisation and delegation of powers to the 18 County District Councils.

The County Library Authority maintain overall control, but such matters as estimates, book selection, maintenance of building and appointment of junior members of staff are delegated to the County

District Councils. The appointment of the 'Borough' or 'District' Librarian is made by the County Library Authority on the nomination of the County District Authority. Nominations are made from a short list of candidates agreed upon by the County Library Authority and the County District Authority.

This scheme would appear to be one which has been devised to meet the particular problems encountered in Surrey—large new dormitory areas, old established market towns and a surprising amount of unspoiled countryside. Nevertheless, it is an important scheme and one admires the direct and comprehensive manner in which it has been formulated. It is to be hoped that the principles will not go unnoticed when future legislation is being drafted.

The Village Centre was intended to be the backbone of the original county library service, as envisaged by Professor Adams and other early planners. The village centre consists of a small collection of books often in a box which can be locked. The box offers both a safe storage place (for often it will be deposited in a room which is used for other purposes, e.g. village hall, school-room) and a convenient method by which books may be transported in bulk. The boxes from each centre should be changed at frequent intervals, possibly every eight weeks, and the service will be supplemented by the postal services of the County Library Headquarters. The village centre will be staffed in the main by voluntary assistants, consequently the standard of service will vary greatly. The success of the village centre depends on the calibre of the voluntary staff; the numbers of books available from the Headquarters; the frequency of change of stock; and the conditions of opening. With the availability of transport the majority of village centres have now been replaced by a mobile library service which brings trained staff and a large collection of books to the service point. A small number of county libraries have retained an occasional village centre for a special local reason.

Mobile Libraries are almost entirely post-war developments from the pre-war Exhibition and Display vans used by county libraries for servicing schools and village centres. As early as the mid 1920s a mobile library service run by the librarian with the aid of a motor-cycle is reported from Denbighshire.

Each county would appear to have special requirements as to size and book stock (ranging from 1,000 to 3,000 volumes), and a basic design for a mobile library that would encourage manufacturers to lower costs seems unrealistic in this country. Commercial firms in the U.S.A., perhaps by reason of the greater market potential, do advertise a wide variety of designs for 'bookmobiles'.[1]

It has been demonstrated that a van costing about £3,000 can serve approximately 11,000 people, and that its mechanical life is perhaps of

[1] See Appendix 2 for detailed specifications of a Mobile and a Trailer Library.

the order of ten years or upwards. Vehicles especially designed for the requirements of the purchasing authority are of course much the most satisfactory, but there are to be seen interesting examples of converted vans which contrive to give a service of a more restricted nature. Such conversions usually suffer from the lack of height and of proper access for the readers, and the principle of the mobile library service should not be judged from them. Heating may be done by electricity, or by calor gas, or if the area is not too inclement as to climate, by convection from the engine as in motor coaches. Nearly all staff who serve on mobile libraries complain of the cold and prefer a local source of heat rather than convection, as the engine seldom runs long enough to generate adequate heat. Lighting is by electricity either using strip lights, or, as in Lancashire County vans, by fluorescent light. The power is from batteries; though experiments have been made in supplying power points, at the scheduled stops, to which the circuit might be connected. A minor problem is of keeping the books on the shelves during travelling, but this is solved either by tilting back the shelves at a sufficient angle or, in a more primitive style, by stretching covered wire springs across the shelves. The van may be driven by the library staff (though this will tend to increase the problem of recruitment) or by a specially engaged driver who will also be responsible for the servicing of the vehicle when not on its scheduled journeys. In either case provision must be made for the usual library routines of circulation work. The service lends itself to a more informal approach than in municipal libraries, but records must be kept of loans and particulars of requests. Provision should be made for a small counter for the actual issuing of books and a small cupboard for reserved and damaged books.

The advantages of having a trained librarian bringing a collection of perhaps 2,500 books for even a brief visit once a week or fortnight, to remote districts of the country, are clear. If the way has been prepared by the County Librarian personally surveying the routes to be traversed, and adequate notice has been given of the new service, it is hard to see how failure can arise. With effective selection of books and competent staff to promote the request service, the brevity of the stops need be no reproach to the mobile library. Books are frequently issued against a 'family' ticket and a great deal of discretion is allowed in the number of books taken by a reader. Fines are not usually levied in mobile libraries.

Some county libraries, notably Staffordshire, have evolved a trailer or caravan library. Such a library is similar to a conventional mobile library except that it is towed to a site and left there for a specified period—possibly one day or longer. Such a scheme permits a great saving in drivers and vehicles as well as providing a semi-permanent type of service in a populous area.

The problems of supplying books to relatively small units of population, often with voluntary untrained staff will tend to make much of the

routine so familiar to municipal librarians impracticable or unnecessary. Thus a locations list must be maintained at Headquarters and is of more importance with a stock that is always moving from centre to centre than is the union catalogue, though that too must be kept. Such a list may take the form of a file of cards similar to the normal charging card, carrying the identity of the book, details of its history in the library and grouped in any appropriate order under the name of the current location. This location index, being housed at Headquarters, will form the essential link between the invoice or order book and the actual physical book, thus satisfying audit requirements.

When a high proportion of the work has to be done by voluntary staff it is necessary to reduce the routine requirements to simple forms. This can bring its own difficulties in train but it is hard to see what alternative exists if book issues, for example, are to be counted. Certain basic forms for ensuring reasonable returns of issues, requisitions for books, etc. are here illustrated, and are, as may be expected, largely self-explanatory.

Some of the most important work of the County Library service is still done by post, and most librarians will agree on the value of the *Students Section*. This is to some extent the counterpart of the municipal reference library and was fundamental to the original plans for a rural service. Today it seems as if some counties are indeed developing reference libraries from the Students Sections. Inevitably growth will be slow, for reference collections are costly to form, and much valuable material is no longer obtainable, but, especially in the field of local history, some really useful collections exist, and very strong demand has been proved, for example, for sets of the Victoria County History, in the larger schools, often to the embarrassment of the county library stock.

In respect of its *Services to Schools* the County Library, because of its links with the education committee, will be a far more integral part of the education system than will be the case in municipal libraries.

The County Library will have the duty of maintaining and servicing collections of books in most schools. The collections will be in the form of class and school libraries.

There will also be co-operation in such ventures as 'Book Weeks', courses for Teacher librarians and exhibitions. Many counties carry out an extensive range of these activities but particular mention should be made of the work done in Nottinghamshire and Staffordshire.

A number of county libraries are in process of establishing '*County Technical Library Services*'. In these counties an intensive special collection is being built up either at the County Library Headquarters or in the libraries of Technical Colleges in the county area. These collections are in some cases supplemented by periodical indexing services and by a staff of Technical Information Officers who establish contact with local industry and commerce.

Branch .....

WARWICKSHIRE COUNTY LIBRARY

Author .....

Title .....

Publisher ..... *Date Published* ..... *Price* .....

Request from ..... *Name*

..... *Address*

.....

If this book is not available:—

(*a*) *Please send a similar one on the same subject.*

(*b*) *Please borrow from another Library. I am willing to pay postage.* (*Not for fiction*).

Please delete whichever line does not apply.

Borrower's Name .....

Fig. 9. Borrower's Request Form.

WARWICKSHIRE COUNTY LIBRARY

The Butts
Warwick

Gramophone Records

Title: No. of Records:

I undertake responsibility of this/these record(s) whilst on loan to me, and to return it/them in good order. I confirm that I have a long-playing record reproducer, of which the stylus is in good condition. I agree to replace the record(s) should it/they be damaged whilst in my possession.

I also certify that I have received the above record(s) in good condition.

Signature..... Date.....

Fig. 10. Gramophone Library Loan Record.

WARWICKSHIRE COUNTY LIBRARY

.....SCHOOL

Suggestions for the next collection to be delivered on..... will be welcomed and should be entered on this sheet, *to be returned at least a week before the exchange is due.* Any books available at the time will be included in the collection.

Individual books, which are specially requested, should be written on the requisition slip as before.

AUTHORS	TITLES	SUBJECTS

Fig. 11. County Library Schools Service Book Requisitions Slip.

WARWICKSHIRE COUNTY LIBRARY

The Butts . Warwick

SCHOOL

DATE OF NEXT EXCHANGE

APPROXIMATE TIME OF ARRIVAL

Please return enclosed acknowledgement card

CHECKING. Please check your books as soon as possible after they are delivered with the red cards provided and notify me immediately if there are any discrepancies. It would also assist us if a list of books retained from your present collection could be returned with the boxes. This may well make it unnecessary to write to you again about books not returned. Red cards for books retained or temporarily mislaid should be kept. Those for books lost should be returned.

PACKING. Special care should be taken when packing the books for return. The top layer of books must not be higher than the sides of the box, otherwise the lid will not shut easily and serious damage will be caused. Any books which will not go into the box should be made into a parcel and clearly labelled.

SELECTION OF BOOKS. If you wish to visit Warwick to choose books, will you please do so at least a week before the date when the exchange is due to take place.

H. D. BUDGE

County Librarian

Fig. 12. County Library Schools Service Instruction for Exchange.

Examples of counties operating County Technical Library Services are Hertfordshire, Lancashire and Northamptonshire. Many more counties have appointed County Technical Librarians and are engaged in building up such a service.

Special collections, reflecting the individual industries, interests and activities of an area are now to be found in most county libraries.

The administrative economy of having all the county educational library services in one organisation under the County Librarian (responsible through his committee to the Education Committee) is obvious; also the value of making maximum use of the specialised book stocks within the County Colleges. It remains to be seen whether the requirements of the public lending library service and of the college library service are really compatible.

Perhaps one of the most interesting and, in the context of the Roberts Committee Report, significant of the post-war developments in the county library field has been the establishment of '*Joint Libraries*'. Joint libraries are to be found in the counties of Cardiganshire and Westmorland, both being established in 1948. The Cardiganshire Joint Library consists of the Aberystwyth Public Library and the Cardiganshire County Library. The Kendal-Westmorland Library Scheme, as it is called, comprises the Kendal Public Library and the Westmorland County Library. The former scheme, established by consent of the Minister of Education under the Local Government Act, 1933, s.91, is administered through a committee composed of equal numbers of representatives of each authority.

The advantages of a joint library system are obvious—larger book fund, larger bookstock, a better staff structure, a more efficient and economical library service. Less obvious is the independence, strength and importance of the joint '*ad hoc*' committee which administers the library service. The County Librarian gains also enhanced status as a chief officer with direct access to his committee.

RESCISSION OF POWER

A number of areas with rapidly increasing population but within county library systems have exerted pressure on the County Council to rescind its powers and allow the smaller authority to adopt the Public Libraries Acts. These local authorities, usually Urban District Councils or Boroughs developing as 'dormitory areas', are required to reach an agreement with the County Council in respect of the existing library stock and buildings. This agreement must be approved by the Minister of Education and be followed by a formal minute of the County Council rescinding its library powers as far as that district is concerned; and by minutes of the new authority formally adopting the Public Libraries Acts 1892-1919 and establishing a committee to implement the same.



Plate No. 19.

Garden corner of Cincinnati Main Library. *Flowers, water, books: a fitting juxtaposition in any city.*



Plate No. 20.

Junior Library, Cincinnati. *How often in European libraries is the architect allowed to feature clear restful wall surfaces?*



Plate No. 21.

Sheffield Central Library, 1935. *As architecture, in the monumental local government tradition: as planning, perhaps the best British library to date.*



Plate No. 22.

Woodseats Branch, Sheffield. *Modern style building designed to afford maximum wall and window space in relation to floor area.*

CHAPTER VIII

THE PUBLIC LIBRARY: SITING, PLANNING, BUILDING, EQUIPPING

I

THE public library, like Poor Man's Lawyers, Citizen's Advice Bureaux, Welfare Food Centres and many other agencies, provides a social service: and, like them, in order to exert maximum effect, it requires a site both central and prominent. In Britain, before World War II, all such bodies, where they existed, competed almost blindly for central premises one with another and all against private business: no central control or co-ordination existed other than the local council's right to withhold financial sanction for any project of one of its committees, and the council itself had no over-riding power to acquire suitable sites other than by purchase from a willing owner. With the Town and Country Planning Act of 1947, all this was changed: county and county borough planning committees were established, responsible for drawing up development plans allocating a definite future role for every area on the plan—residential, industrial, commercial and other—and every new building project required approval as conforming with the plan adopted. Thus, the background to library planning in Britain since 1947 differs considerably from that in Eire, the Commonwealth countries or most of the American States. The freedom open to library committees is somewhat less than of old: but the area within which sites can be chosen is at least likely to be fitting and prominent not, as was often the case, up a side street or outside the trading centre. Even if buildings as commanding as those of Liverpool and Birmingham do not recur, there should not again be a Glasgow, a Halifax or a Westminster.

Within the zone designated for public and administrative buildings, there may still exist a good number of possible sites, exhibiting considerable range in desirability: so that it is hardly academic to consider briefly guiding principles of selection. These have altered little over the years. Every librarian, when the question of future sites is first considered, in his intitial memorandum to the planning officer, will stress points little different from those made by the chief reporting to a town council eighty years ago. Stated abstractly, these are: convenience and accessibility; prominence; appropriateness of the environment; practicability.

The history of library planning in Britain, as in every other country, is crowded with examples of buildings which violate one, several or all of these demands—the central library on several narrow storeys on a

steep hill out of town; the central library placed just at the mouth of a dingy, residential side street off the main road north; that occupying a sizeable site in a midland town, adequate in shape, prominent in

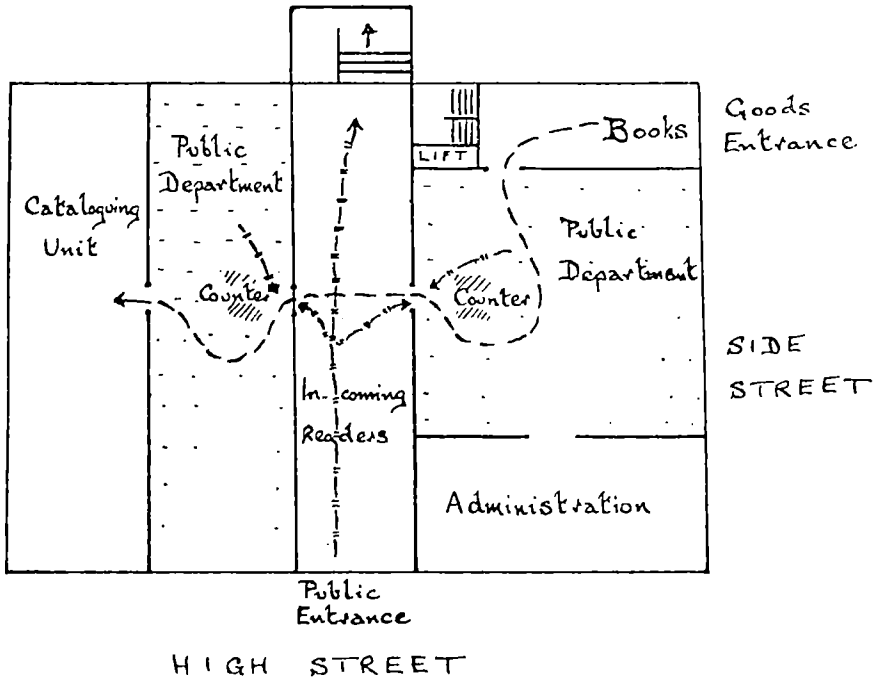


Fig. 13. Traffic flow in adapted premises. *Typical traffic flow in central library fifty years old. Originally, incoming books were moved directly by lift to the first floor cataloguing staff, while the ground floor was devoted wholly to public departments, since partitioned to give additional working space. Neither department communicates directly with stack areas and staff quarters at basement level. In its time, this was, nevertheless, one of the best library buildings of the day, winning easily an architectural competition against some remarkably silly designs, several of which placed the noisiest of all departments, the junior library, deep within the building, and one of which had no High Street entrance at all.*

position, covering half a block and with three road frontages—yet off-centre, and, with massive perversity, facing towards the neighbouring town! No doubt the reason for these failures was economic, but they were also failures of perception. Central libraries must be easy of access, prominent in relation to the buildings around them, workable in size and shape, and amid fitting surroundings; every point has its force over the years, and its warning examples.[1]

[1] This may not mean quite the same to every town: Edinburgh, a capital city, chose to place its library in the literary and academic milieu of George IV Bridge. Yet one cannot help thinking that a site at the junction of Princes Street, Leith Street and North Bridge, where both Woolworths and the General Post Office preferred to be, would have been altogether more effective: so similar on analysis are the needs of libraries and businesses, so unvarying the traditional precepts of library siting.

How far must these points be insisted on in practice, against economic, political and other pressures tending to impose compromise solutions? Even among librarians, a fundamental difference of opinion here becomes apparent. Some point out that students, research workers and others, who must willy-nilly have access to books, will frequent libraries no matter where they are sited, arguing that the degree of use made of a library depends on the community itself, being remarkably consistent over the country at large and little affected by the placing of buildings. Others insist that it is the common man, neither reader nor student in any regular sense, who loses by the ill-sited library: the man or woman wanting a fact, a formula, a method, a legal clause in the course of work or daily life, and connecting this not at all with his very literary conception of a public library. Only a dominant building, bold in style and commanding in position, seen by every visitor to the town centre, and remembered for what it is, can, according to this view, exert its full influence on the community. Amongst the latter should be numbered E. A. Savage, who in his *Librarian and his committee* sets out clearly the guiding factors of planning in Britain under pre-1947 conditions. Statistically, it may be that in terms of books issued there would in some ideal test be little to prove the latter view: a public opinion survey, on the other hand, might produce markedly different results.

Despite the static nature of thinking about library siting, there is some indication that many central libraries of the near future will differ from those of the past in position, no less than in appearance. Some may not, in fact, be central libraries at all. The city centres of many large European towns within a few decades—skirted by ring roads, laced with covered walks and precincts—seem likely to lack those clear nodal points found in the simpler patterns of smaller towns, where public buildings have normally been placed. In the suburban areas around larger British cities, even in the '20s and '30s, new library authorities were created serving dormitory areas without clearly defined business and shopping centres. As Dublin in the '80s rejected a central library in favour of several sizeable branches within an inner ring, and the newer Greater London library authorities adopted a similar policy in the 1930s, so a planned scattering rather than concentration of stock may be the motif of library provision at the turn of the century. This may perhaps take the form of those subject branches suggested in recent years by E. A. Savage and found in embryo in such recent buildings as Philadelphia's Mercantile Library Branch.

A further decisive influence is certainly likely to be found in the factor of cost. Even at the beginning of the century great libraries in Britain and the United States were considering the use of low cost storage space outside the expensive central areas. By the 1930s, Liverpool was housing its branch administration in premises separate from the central library, while by the re-planning of the bombed Plymouth Central Library in

the 'fifties what was once an economic necessity had been erected into a firm doctrine—public departments and central site handsomely planned, administration and storage cheaply but adequately housed in out-of-centre buildings. A contrary point of view would argue that since shop and office premises can always be leased profitably for commercial use in large cities, the obvious step is for libraries, art galleries and similar public services to be planned as integral parts of great blocks housing many different users, allowing further space for expansion as leases expire and, meanwhile, producing an appreciable return on outlay. In either case, the pressure of land values seems likely to force libraries further upwards, on more floor levels, than any previous edition of this *Manual* has envisaged.

2

Up to 1940, the typical central library everywhere provided for these functions:—circulation; information service; administration; and, in many cases, for a fourth, for book storage. In Britain, and to some extent in the Commonwealth countries also, traditionally a sharp distinction is made between the first and second of these by departmental organisation: thus, in Leicester and Westminster, separate buildings provide reference and lending services. Little provision was made before 1900 for the third, since it was easy for the librarian or his deputy, seated in the public rooms of this time, to overlook the work of their staff: an arrangement found in both public and academic libraries. Traditionally also, the reference library was placed on the first floor, while the closed-stack lending department, with no tables or reading space, was near the main ground floor entrance. Older buildings, such as Cardiff, Leeds, Birmingham, Edinburgh, commonly show this stratification.[2]

In the alterations since made to such buildings can be seen something of the radical re-thinking necessitated by changing contemporary use of the library. Between the wars, it was recognised that many 'reference' users want above all a quick answer, business enquirers in particular: and that, conversely, the lending library borrower who is not in search of fact nevertheless appreciates quiet and comfortable surroundings in which to look through books and periodicals for some little while. Thus a good deal of juggling with existing premises has taken place, Sheffield and Hull opening civic information bureaux in ground floor rooms, Edinburgh and Birmingham providing small enquiry counters offering certain quick reference and directional information in main entrance halls, and most libraries enlarging their circulation departments. Even in a country with more than its share of old and inadequate buildings, the changing concepts of departmental organisation are very evident.

Thus, before any site can be considered, basic questions of policy

[2] Since Britain possesses an unusually extensive range of old buildings, no attempt is made here to include overseas examples.

must be decided. Certainly more will obtrude before the librarian can submit to the architect his brief setting out requirements for a building on the site finally chosen.[3] These include:—Functions to be housed in the library: Total size of building (number of floors and overall floor area): Public departments to be provided and the area of each: General relationship of all departments and allocation of departments to the various floors. Fortunately, it is not difficult for the administrator to compute roughly the size of building which will be needed. He has experience of existing premises as a starting point, he can obtain comparative figures from similar libraries with recent buildings, and he can get some help from professional literature. For small libraries, a recent UNESCO publication suggests a total floor area of from ·25 to ·5 square feet per capita, taking available population figures, while the broader VSC formula of Wheeler and Githens gives

$$\text{Total floor area in sq. ft.} = \frac{\text{Total bookstock}}{10} + (\text{readers' seats} \times 40) + \frac{\text{Total annual circulation}}{40}$$

this formula having the advantage of considerable flexibility, since volumes, seats and circulation per capita can be based on the national standards adopted in any country, rather than laid down dogmatically.[4] Administration space, not separately listed, is provided for by the unusually low figures adopted for books, seats and circulation per square foot.

Faced with the re-planning of an old municipal library, the administrator, in Britain at least, is more likely to hesitate over questions of organisation than of space; in particular, whether to retain a long-standing separation of information and lending services. Despite over

[3] An actual example of such a brief for county library headquarters is given in Appendix 3.

[4] Fifty years ago the author of this *Manual* evolved simple and effective formula for calculating lending and reference library accommodation under contemporary conditions. His lending library formula took the hourly average of borrowers present in the library and allowed an additional safety margin of 50%, i.e. Maximum number of persons expected at any time $\simeq$

$$\frac{\text{annual issue}}{\text{Days open} \times \text{hours open}} \times \frac{3}{2}$$

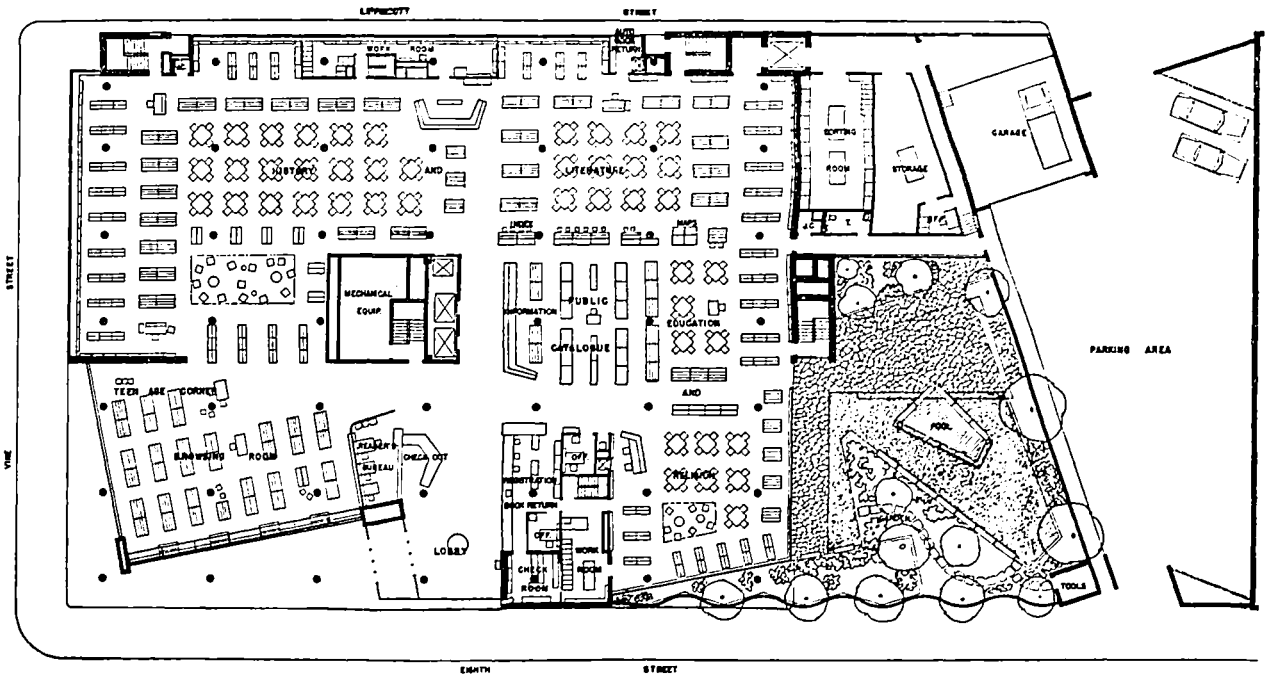
and assumed 25 square feet per person. In reference library planning, Brown laid it down as an observed factor that ·25% of the local population use the average reference department daily—a figure which, since the photoelectric cell is not common, few libraries can contradict with authority. Allowing a safety margin of 100%, reference accommodation required $\simeq$

$$\frac{\text{Daily total of users}}{\text{Hours open}} \times 2 \times 25 \text{ square feet.}$$

In large cities, it seems very unlikely that Brown's ·25% has grown yet to ·4%. Reference should also be made here to 'How big should a library be?' *in Public library buildings*; The Library Association (London) 1960.

thirty years experience, a number of librarians are, in their own words, 'not quite happy' about the merging in one unit of reference work, prolonged study and research, and quick circulation, laying stress on the continuing problems of noise control and supervision. The familiar advantages of subject organisation—greater concentration of stock and more economic deployment of it, better information service and greater bibliographical expertise, improved consumer relationships—are discussed elsewhere. But the question is not so much now whether to departmentalise or not: it is, more fundamentally, whether to go on trying to distinguish between the materials of information and loan services. Thirty years ago, the forward-looking planner thought normally in terms of a building containing X separate subject departments, supported by a residual general reference collection and a popular library, such as the Los Angeles Public Library. He will probably envisage today a great open library at street level containing the majority of the library's book materials, arranged in subject order, loan and reference, with staff desks covering each of the main subject groups, but no permanent partitions dividing the floor space, and no rigid departmental separation. This trend, glimpsed in the Baltimore Central Library of the thirties and embodied strikingly in the American Memorial Library, Berlin, may not be uninfluenced by the prevailing hostility in educational circles to excessive specialisation: it is certainly also affected by technical advances in the use of light partitioning and acoustic materials. Grouped close to the entrance in such a plan are registration, issue and general enquiry desks, together with lifts and stairs: on the first floor, according to the size and nature of the library, may be such distinct services as the local history library, music and drama collections, with reception rooms for visiting parties, while here or above—perhaps separated by a floor or more of stack space—acquisitions, administration and other offices may be placed. The result may resemble a large store more than a traditional library: it should certainly not suffer by comparison. For the effect of the plan is to make the great proportion of its resources quickly and easily accessible to the person looking over the central concourse, containing displays, current reading and browsing space, to the subject groups across the great floor space.

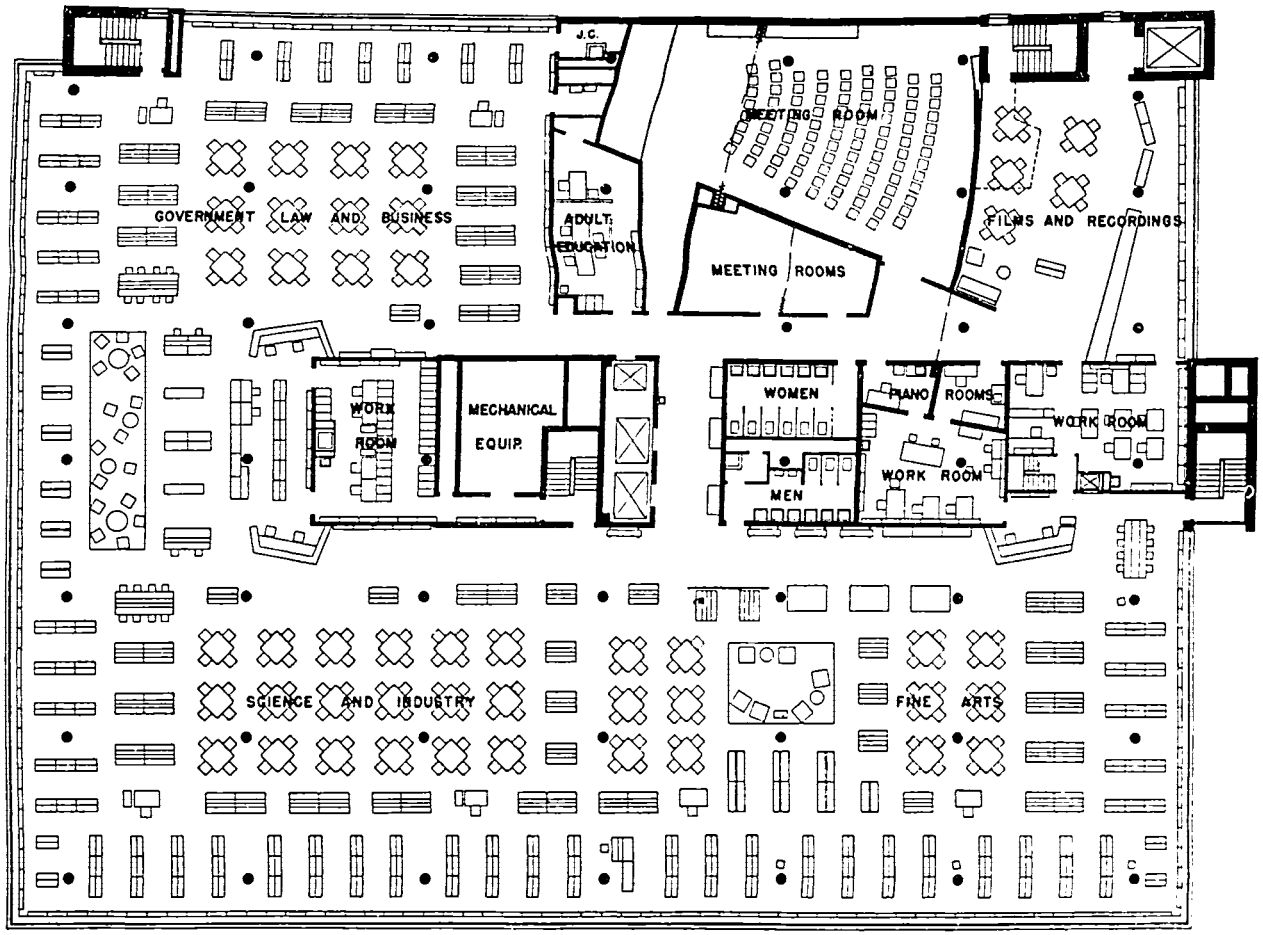
On the other hand, just as in the 1930s, the era of the subject library, when traditionally departmented buildings were planned for more than one Commonwealth town—Sheffield, Johannesburg, Manchester—so in the phase of the 'open library', conventional departmentation with reference and lending sections can be found even beneath a modern exterior—as in the Holborn Central Library, almost contemporary with Vancouver's subject departmented main library. In such buildings, the architect is at least on familiar ground, working on a surer basis in assessing the spatial requirements for each department, and concentrating on well-established maxims of library planning. These include



Cincinnati Public Library — Woodie Garber & Associates; Samuel Hannaford & Sons } Associated Architects — First Floor Plan

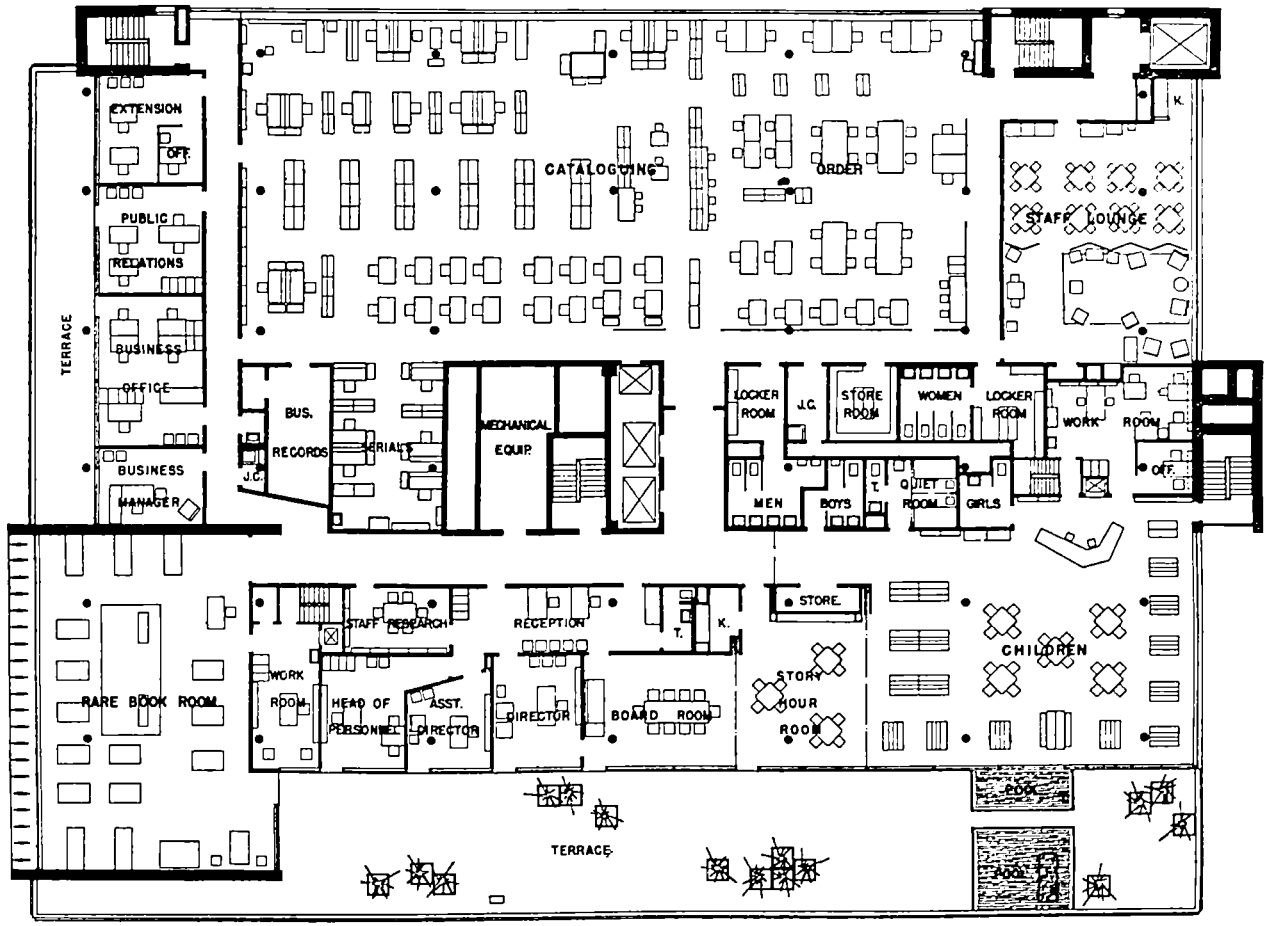
Fig. 14.

Figs. 14-16. Cincinnati and Hamilton County Library.
Main Library. *An open-plan library organised into Subject Departments. Parking space; Auto-Book return; Garden; Browsing Room and glass frontage to side-walks; on* 3rd *Floor, the Children's Department, Administration Areas; the Rare Book Room and its dominant window shields. See also Plates* 17-20, 49, 62, *App.* 3.



Second Floor

Fig. 15.



Third Floor
Fig. 16.

1. Public, goods and staff entrances to be separate. Separate public entrances for adults, children and those attending evening lectures, meetings, etc., without using the book collection.
2. Public departments to be on one level as far as possible.
3. Book lifts at point of goods entry and wherever desirable to link service points and stack vertically.
4. Like departments—public and non-public—to be grouped together, so as to obviate staff traffic through public rooms on internal business and reduce noise.
5. Segregation of traffic streams in public areas, so as to avoid crossing at focal points, such as entrances to departments.
6. Books and other materials to move through the building, as far as possible, in straight lines.
7. Close correlation of staff working area and service counters, so as to supply a ready reserve of staff for emergencies.
8. Reserve stock distributed so as to be quickly accessible from each public department.

Amongst British libraries of the 1930s, depite the ponderous exterior common in public buildings of the time, Sheffield Central still offers excellent examples of practical planning, in notable contrast to buildings from architects of great reputation, both at that time and subsequently.

A poor building, failing to observe points such as those listed above, is usually an irritant to good temper, morale, efficiency and health: a really bad building is a constant drain on current funds. Through half a dozen insidious headings in the annual estimates, in lighting, wages, cleaning, sick pay, heating, alterations and repairs, it makes itself felt. For adequacy in a building covers more than size: it includes working conditions pleasant enough for some forty hours a week to be spent in them harmoniously, helpful co-ordination of parts one with another, and sufficient mechanical equipment to use human effort economically. It is cheaper to send a message to the stack by pneumatic tube than in person: cheaper to serve the book by lift than by page. It is also less frustrating to the staff concerned.

In style and decor, every user of libraries in the older countries, even the scholar from the historic universities, is accustomed now to the bare, clean facades and taut vigour of modern buildings: those who are not at least accept calmly the opulence of modern stores. The standards learned in the larger world are not abandoned when entering a library. In structure, decoration and detail, the library has to compete with the best met elsewhere. There are always those in European countries who will affect to prefer shabby buildings, antiquated fittings, mean sites, and who will regret the passing of any old order. This is a forbearance to which libraries are not entitled. A good book collection demands satisfactory housing. Those who visit government offices and police stations do so from necessity: yet architecturally, these are amongst the most

interesting of modern buildings. He who frequents the 'arsenal of a democratic culture' should find it the pleasantest building of his acquaintance, and this need involve little more than good planning, adequate materials, competent handling of colour, and awareness of the standards prevailing outside libraries.

Little which could be said of the planning of modern department stores is irrelevant to the planning of urban library buildings. Both must be able to attract attention against the dynamic backcloth of city life, and must therefore be in keeping with current styles. A great department store, whose interior evokes the 1930s, is fighting a losing battle: a library of 1935 is more dated than one of 1735. The facade of a large building, no less than the public floors, must be capable of complete change within thirty years, using new materials and new decorative concepts. With the non-load-bearing curtain walling of the present, this offers no technical difficulty, nor should it be disproportionately expensive, as a completely new building would be—so expensive that even prosperous firms hesitate to undertake it. Within the building, the structural columns of the steel frame represent the only fixed and unalterable elements in the disposition of floor space: and the pattern of these can be varied to the needs of the building in question. The module, the standard basic rectangle formed within any four load-bearing columns, can be chosen so as to correspond with a given set of measurements: with multiples of a 3-foot unit of shelving, of a standard office cubicle, or of a store counter. Careful choice of a satisfactory module for the needs of the building prevents what is sometimes even now seen, a counter bisected by a 3-foot wide structural column, which effectively prevents supervision by the assistant concerned. Perhaps no size is equally applicable to all types of library: but the chief advocate of modular planning in later years inclined to favour a 27-foot square.

The smaller, traditionally built library, without steel framing, is obviously far less adaptable, having an expectation of life of perhaps 80 to 100 years in the context of local politics. It is therefore as well to provide generously at the start for window spaces at street level, illuminated display cases, and other points of interest in the facade. It is safe to predict that no fewer of these will be wanted in the future, and, in any event, they could be blocked up with ease. Similarly, public departments which seem at first overlarge can house extra staff desks or temporarily be partitioned off: but rooms designed to the dimensions of offices and workrooms can seldom be converted altogether satisfactorily for public use. The fact that no-one can foresee precisely future wants need not stultify present planning.

How much can be done with older buildings, given an adequate site, a plain street frontage, and a free hand in structural alterations, hardly needs emphasising in Britain. Alterations may make attractive libraries. They do not often, however, make efficient libraries. Yet, over three

decades, Edinburgh, Leeds and Liverpool have modified existing buildings very successfully so as to provide subject departments, while New York's reference library bears comparison with many later structures. In the dark vistas of the average European city, a smoke-blackened exterior need be no drawback: a street frontage which indicates clearly the function of the building, and an adequate interior are more than many libraries of the '20s and '30s possess. Some smaller British libraries exhibit also a notably imaginative use of floor space—Burton-on-Trent fitting subject departments into a narrow old building, Nuneaton separating popular and students' libraries on different floors. But the success of such adaptations is often bought dearly by the dislocation of the library's administration functions.

3

The primary function of the typical branch library is still to lend books, not to give information, to store reserve bookstocks, or to house administration. In plan, the average smaller branch is a rectangle: and the allocation of interior floor space becomes a matter of fitting into this space the three constituents of the average branch: junior circulation, adult circulation, browsing. By placing the entrance asymmetrically in the larger wall, dividing it into lengths roughly in the ratio 1:2, a workable division into adult and junior on either side of the common control counter can be achieved, while, by giving the wall over to deep windows flanked by reading tables, protracted browsing and quick book selection at the shelves are effectively separated. One end of the rectangle can be given to staff quarters and toilets, or for the sake of architectural variety, these may be placed at rightangles to the library, giving an L- or mirror L-shape to the plan. For a building with a generous road frontage, Hollyhedge Branch, Manchester, illustrates admirably the essentials of this design.

Despite its greater number of rooms, many a larger municipal branch differs little in organisation from the small. If the definition of a reference library is that it has at least 3,000 volumes, special indices and a specialising assistant, then the collections found at some large branches certainly are not that: nor should they so be designated, given an adequate central information service and communications system. Study rooms there may be, giving further point to the familiar argument that any library needs space for quiet, undisturbed reading. Newspapers and periodicals, on the other hand, bringing in an older stratum of the community, can be displayed in the lending section. This itself, in urban areas, may be housed on more than one level, in mezzanines or galleries. Metropolitan branches, in particular, on restricted sites, must accept a division of functions—junior, adult, and study rooms, each perhaps on a different floor—unknown in rural libraries. Examples are Fountainbridge Branch,

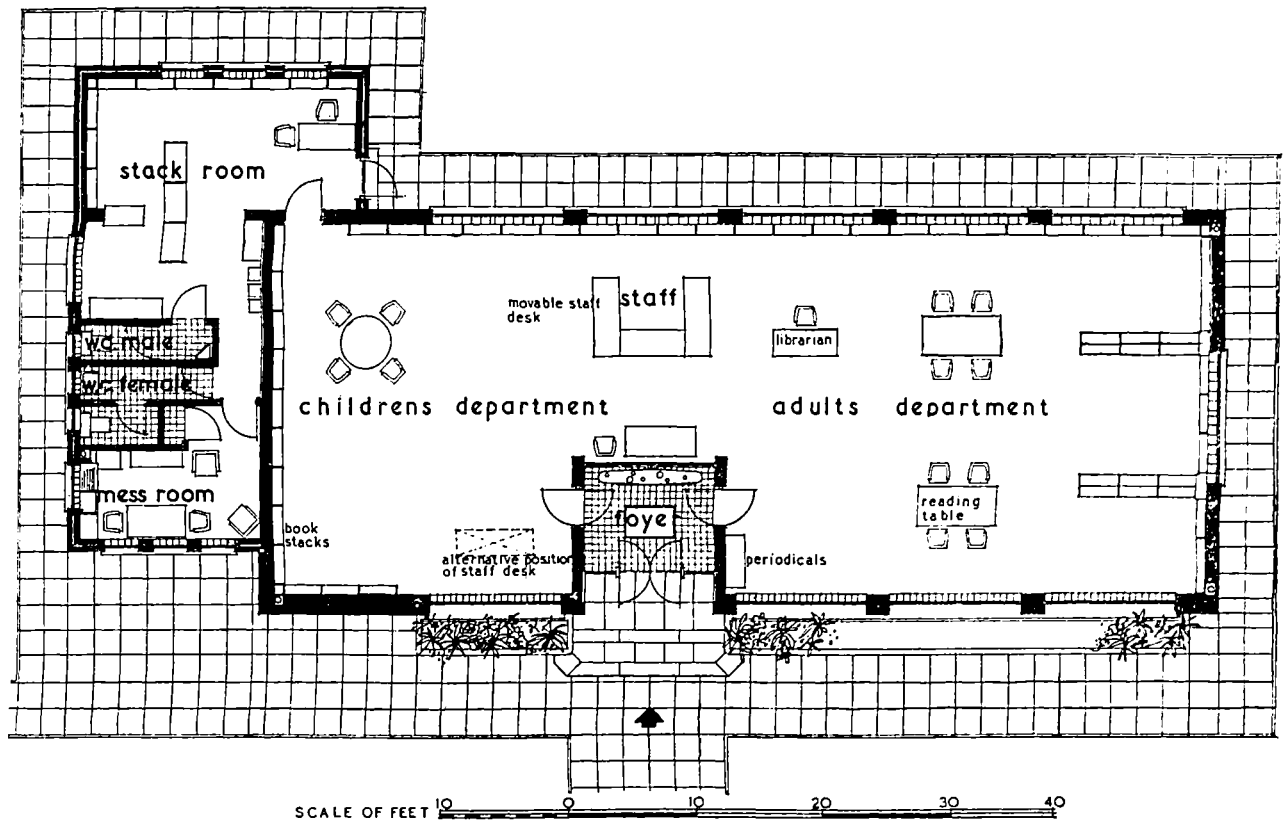


Fig. 17. Hollyhedge Branch, Manchester. *An open-plan library with no fixed staff desk. Note the extensive window areas* (*see pl.* 16).

Edinburgh, and New York's similar, almost contemporary, 135th Street Branch. Yet, in each case, the total floor space wanted, expressed as a ratio to population served by the library, is roughly the same. New York's post-war branch policy, envisaging branches for 50,000 population and above, laid down an area of ·25 square feet per person, a figure found also in present-day large British branches.

Two factors tend to qualify the generalisation that branches are primarily lending libraries: the use of surplus branch space for housing limited book reserves,—thus more than one London library houses its special subject reserve stock in a larger branch,—and the decentralisation

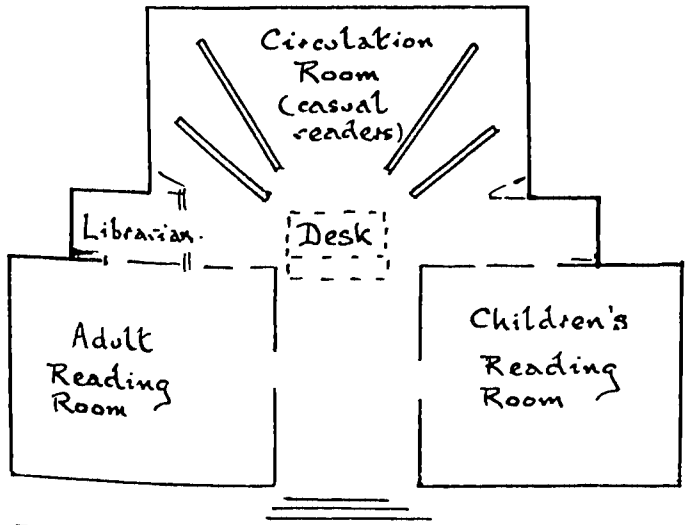


Fig. 18. *A Conventional Branch Library plan. Present children's reading room was probably once a newsroom.*

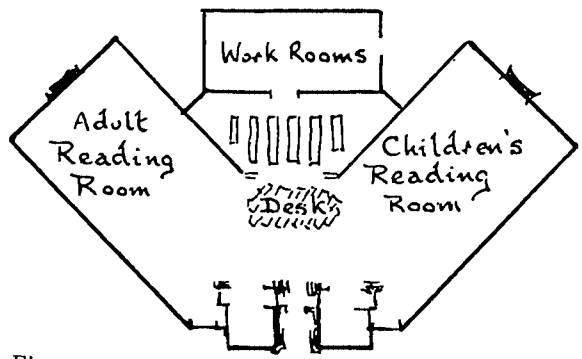


Fig. 19. *Branch Library plan suitable for a growing population. The building may be erected in stages, and the present stack/workroom areas converted into a large lending library when needed.*

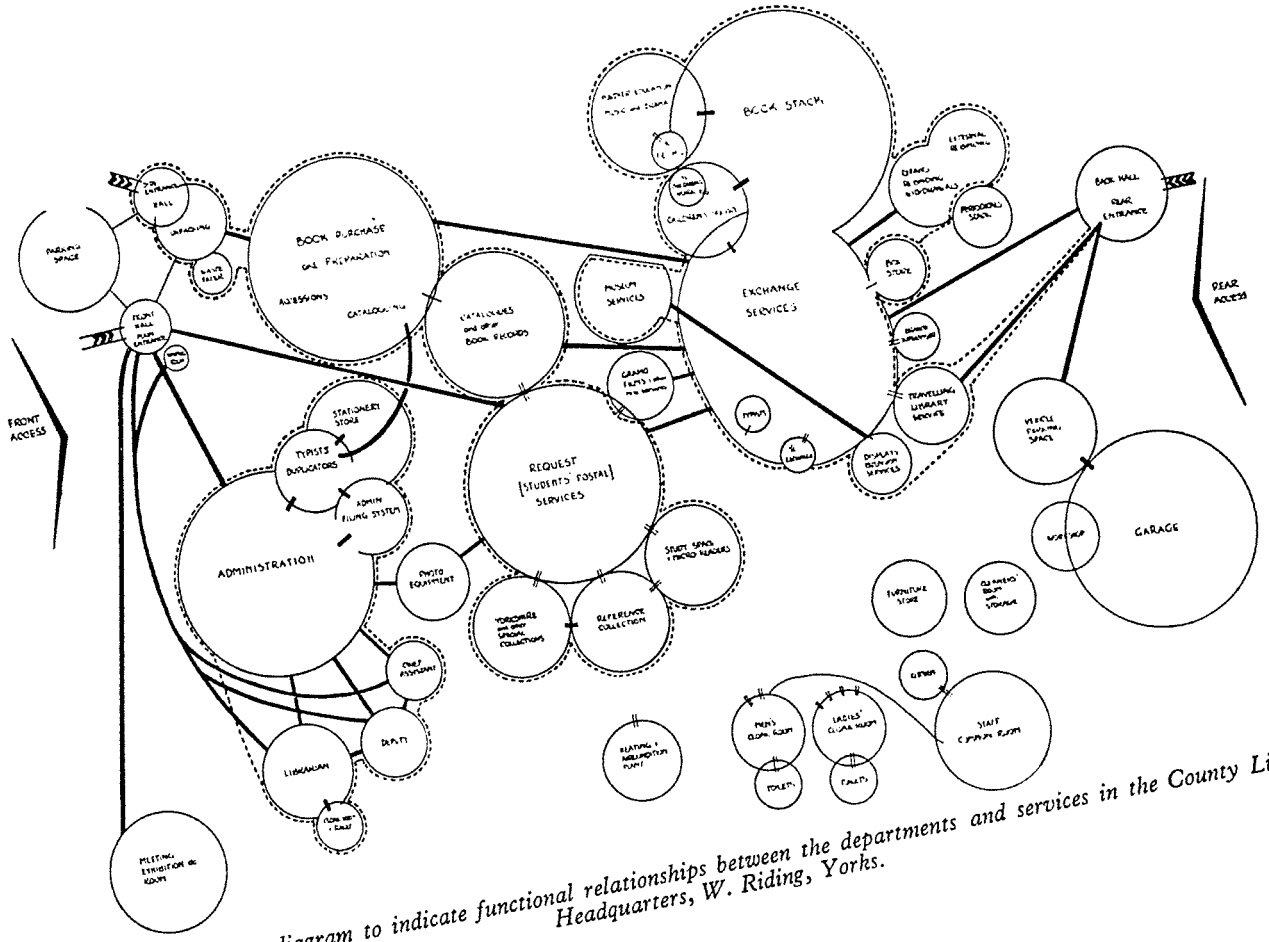


Fig. 20. Flow diagram to indicate functional relationships between the departments and services in the County Libra
Headquarters, W. Riding, Yorks.

from overcrowded main libraries of such self-contained units as binderies, branch administration sections, and official records. For the planner, a critical point is whether the two sections, public and non-public, are operated by the same staff, or with separate staff complements. In the one case, both parts of the building will be grouped around common entrances and passage-ways: in the other, each will be designed to function independently, with but one staff communicating door between them, and only staff rest rooms and toilets in common. Increasingly, the second type of branch comes to resemble the headquarters building of a county library, in the British context, or of the library co-operatives or regional libraries of more than one Commonwealth country.

The floor space required for all such buildings of the latter kind, apart from that allocated to the local branch library and other public departments, may include any or all of the following:— office space, workrooms, despatch rooms, garaging for mobile libraries and book storage.

A further possible addition consists of small lecture and demonstration rooms for inservice staff training schemes and for the reception of visiting school or other parties. Outside the United States, the large public assembly halls, once thought desirable, are not now common.

Much the same principles apply in relating these elements one to another as with the departments of urban central libraries considered above. Tentatively, in computing floor space required, the VSC formula can be used: but, given a reasonable picture of staffing and work totals over the next twenty years, it is more realistic to work outwards from the given components of the building, evolving a composite total. This will assume, amongst other things, that a chief executive's office is of some 300 square feet, that other administrative staff, given separate rooms, (branch superintendent, controller of youth services, etc.) require 150 square feet each, that each junior clerical worker needs a minimum of 50 square feet (but that headquarters offices, where each is responsible for equipment such as duplicators, addressing machines and photo-copiers, must have much more), and that, though people can be packed into a lecture room at the rate of one to every five square feet, more space is needed for demonstrations and practical sessions.[5]

4

The client, not the architect, is responsible for framing outline requirements for a new building. The architect is a technical consultant, employed to turn the general requirements of the client into specific

[5] *See also* 'How much Office Space is Required' *in* Robichaud: *Selecting, Planning and Managing Office Space.*

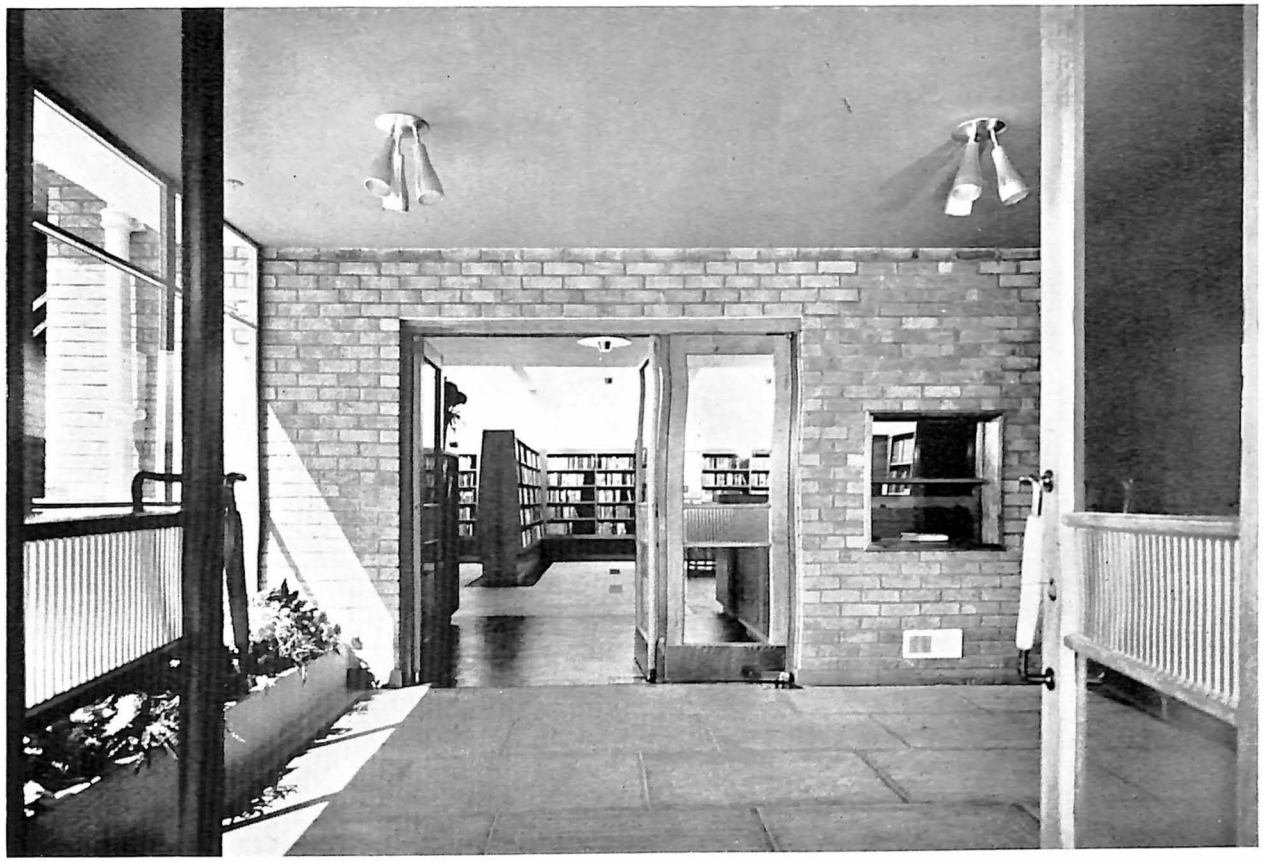


Plate No. 23.

Woodseats Branch, Sheffield. *The modern concept of the entrance to a popular library.*

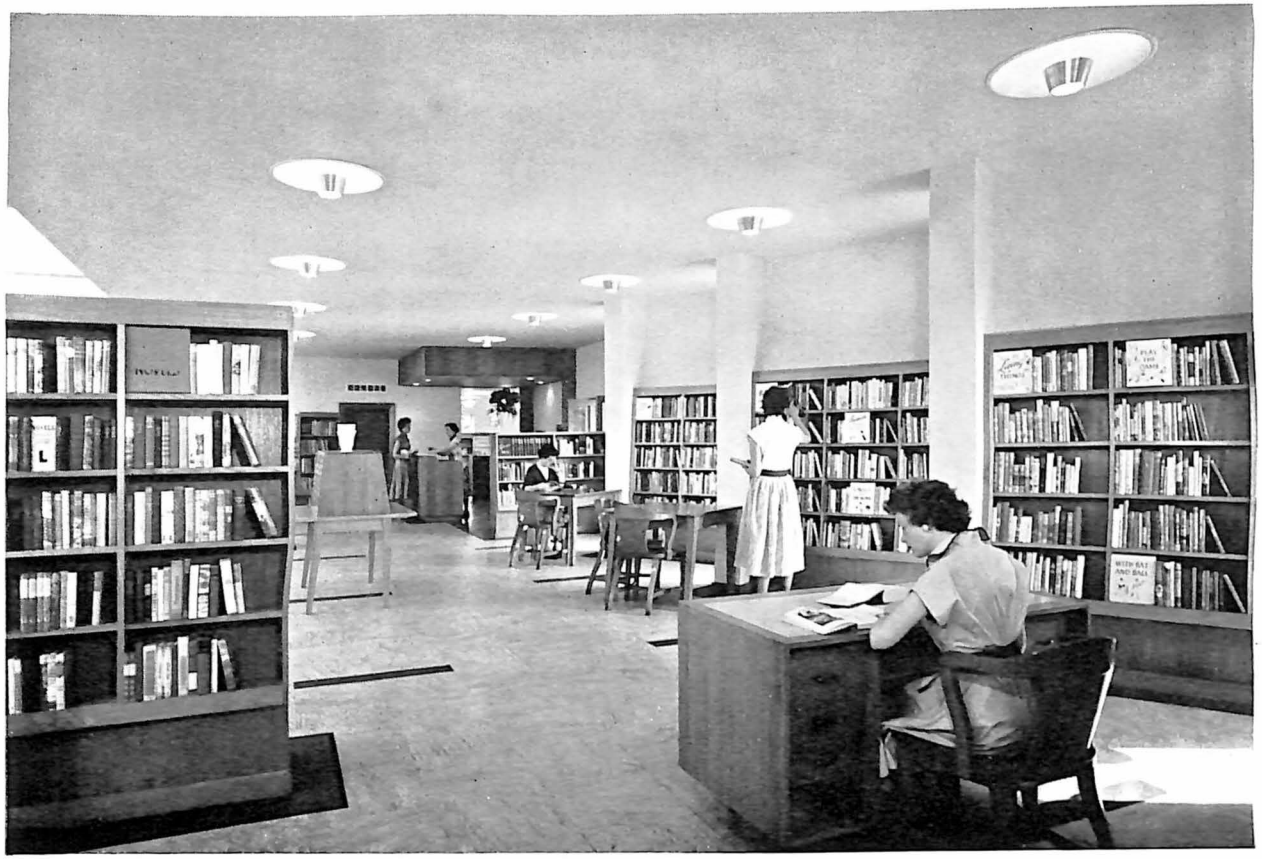


Plate No. 24.
Woodseats Branch, Sheffield. *Saw-edge arrangement of windows and shelving units ensures good lighting, avoids monotony.*

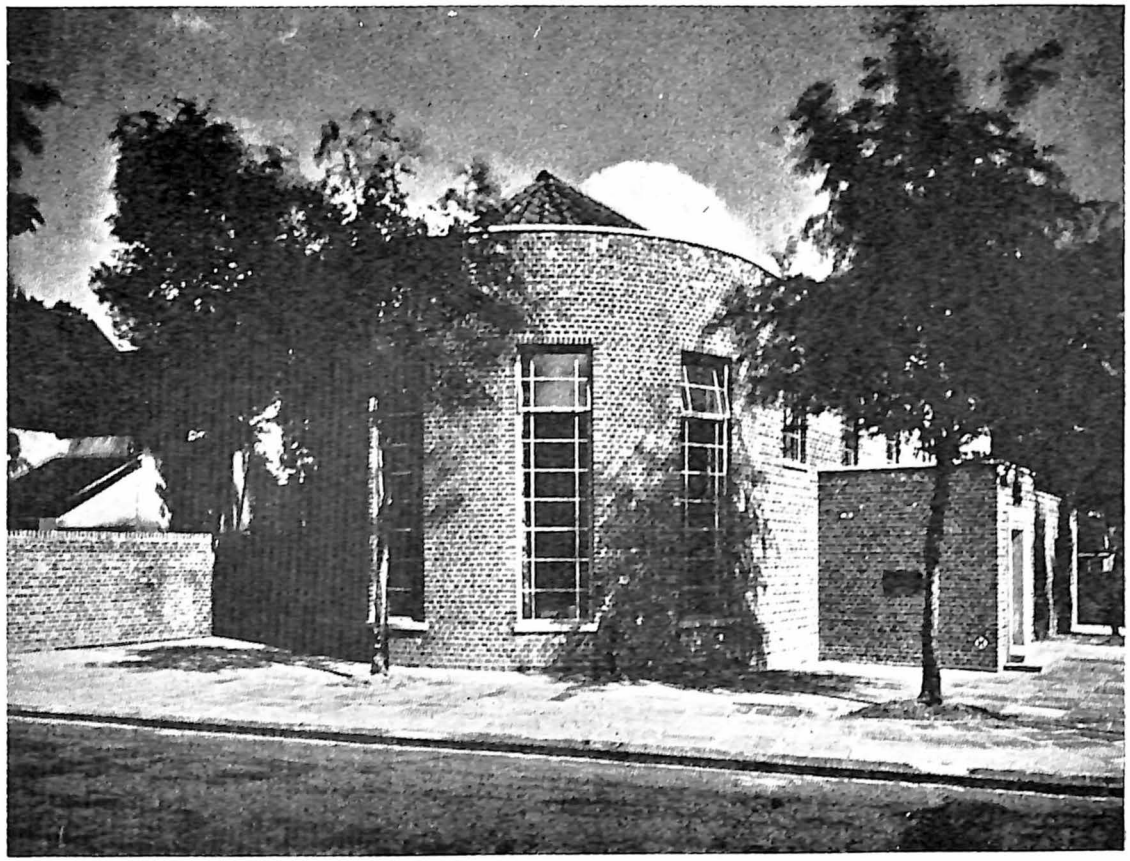


Plate No. 25.

Belsize Park Branch, Hampstead (London). '*Civilized, intimate, architecture*', *according to informed opinion in the thirties, this building wears its years well.*

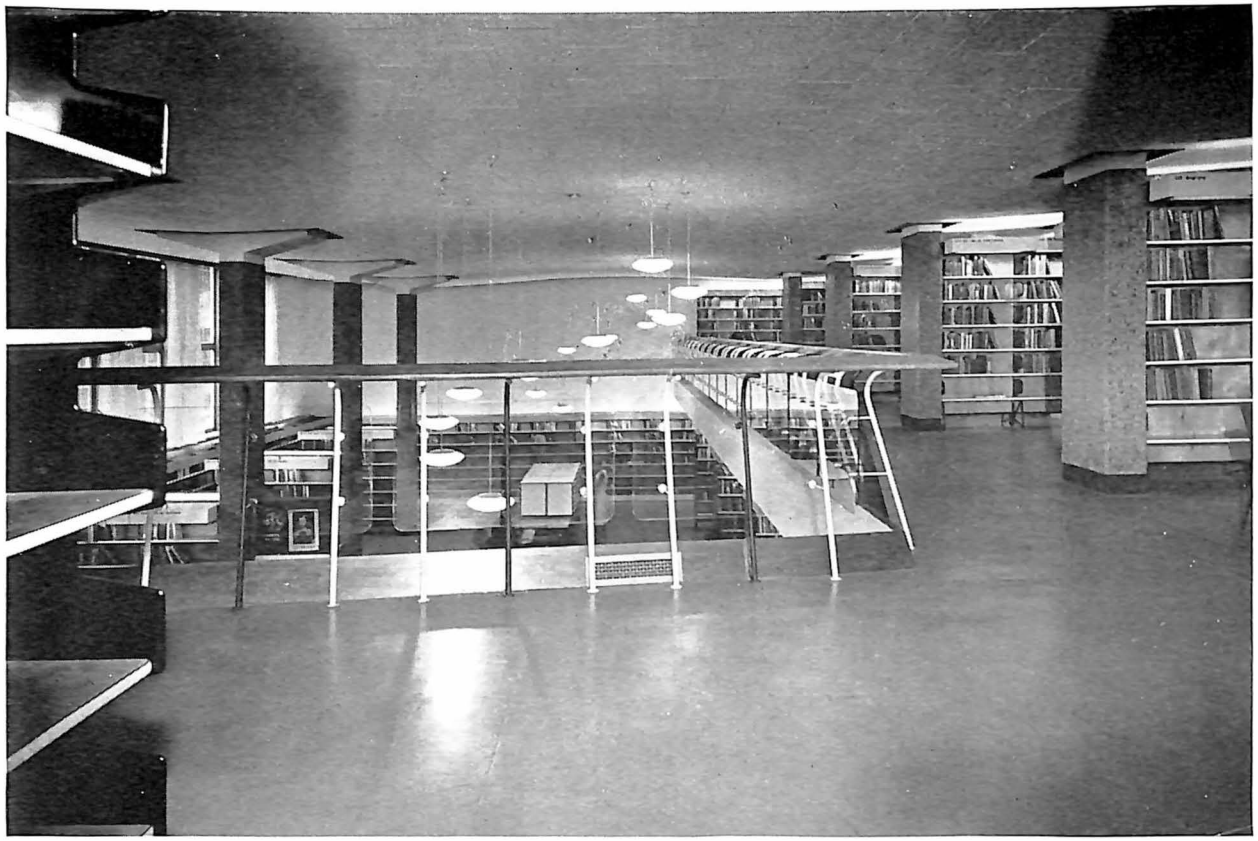


Plate No. 26.

Holborn Public Library. *Interior of the lending library from the mezzanine floor.*

materials, quantities and processes:[6] and, so rapidly does the building industry change, it is ill-advised as well as tactless, for the client, after a glance through an obsolescent text-book, to offer to instruct the architect as to flooring materials, heating systems or other building details current at any time. Too often, some preconception or a prejudice from earlier years on the part of the client does in fact determine details of this kind.

Air Conditioning. No-one who knows the industrial cities of Europe and has any feeling for books can doubt the value of air conditioning in larger buildings, while its necessity in warmer climates is open to no question. Though no cost studies exist, it seems fairly certain also that in the worst zones of manufacturing towns, with a deposit of solid matter per square mile amounting to tons each year, as in Sheffield's Attercliff Valley, staff time saved in routine cleaning and dusting can be substantial. Yet in Britain, at least, definite resistance to air conditioning is met with commonly. It is said that air conditioning causes catarrh and general respiratory discomforts: a suggestion which finds little support in medical literature, although there is a suggestion that abrupt changes from the open air to an artificial atmosphere may be harmful. Attention has also been paid in recent years to the electrical characteristics of air, while no doubt many air conditioning systems in practice operate inefficiently, producing abnormally low levels of humidity. Yet can anyone really believe that these ill-substantiated misgivings weigh so much in the long run as the fact that air conditioning schemes may add 30 to 40 per cent to the cost of a new building?

Heating. A few libraries, mostly branches, employ 'direct' heating, using electric or gas radiators or even coal fires, largely for the sake of atmosphere in junior story hour rooms and similar points: elsewhere, indirect heating, circulating hot water from one central point throughout the building, is almost universal. Oil is certainly the commonest fuel in new buildings. Commonly said, but apparently nowhere decisively proved, to be of all solid fuels the most efficient from the point of view of combustion, the cleanliness, labour-saving qualities and ease of handling of oil may compensate for its price. In branches, by contrast, gas and electricity have the advantage of requiring no fuel storage space, and negligible staff attention. In Britain, thermostatically controlled gas-fired hot water systems are common in contemporary branch building, using panel-type heaters. In many countries, electric heating, also used with thermostatic control, can be provided more cheaply in public buildings than in private by the thermal storage method of drawing current at preferential rates during off-peak periods.

The positioning of the heating unit admits of wide variety. There

[6] The fact that the architect is himself often a member of the staff of the local authority does not invalidate this relationship. It certainly increases the chances of close co-operation between the two sides.

seems little, however, to commend ceiling panels, or those mounted high up in the walls, leaving, even in relatively pure atmospheres, smudge trails where hot air moves upward from the panel. Underfloor heating is efficient, save in so far as maintenance work needs to be done after a lapse of years, with the replacement of electrical elements. Electrical tubular heating can alternatively take the form of flat metal skirting, suitable for incorporation beneath wall shelving, while heating panels of any kind, mounted between units of wall shelving, provide a very desirable break in otherwise unrelieved expanses.

Light and Colour. It is a common plea that planning should consider not merely artificial lighting but the total lighting effect, natural and artificial, together with colour schemes throughout the building. In his Viipuri Library, Alvar Aalto designed perhaps the ideal reading room for a single storey building, without windows, but with 57 circular skylights of prismatic design so as to illuminate the room evenly and without shadow. In the average older building of deep cross-section and several storeys, in contrast, natural lighting amounts to no more than a central light well and high windows, with centrally placed lay lights on the ground floor. In large buildings designed at the present time, the permanent artificial supplementary lighting of interiors gives absolute control of lighting effect, reduces ceiling heights and lowers initial building costs by the more compact structure obtained. It is, in fact, even claimed, in studies in which the Building Research Station in Great Britain has been associated, to produce annual savings in maintenance outweighing the costs of current used. Given such ceiling heights, the longstanding controversy as to local or general artificial lighting seems resolved in favour of good general lighting, with a minimum of supplementary provision for exacting work points such as issue counters. The often-debated question of former years concerning types of fitting, disappeared with the general acceptance of filament lighting in stacks, where current is wanted for short periods only and warm fluorescent fittings in reading and work rooms.

The printed page is white or near white. As every reader's eye strays from this at intervals, the surrounding surfaces, floors, walls, and other areas of the room must be broadly comparable in colour if strain is to be avoided in adjusting the eye to this change. Equally, these surfaces should be matt to avoid glare. It seems undeniable, then, that the dark wood fittings found in many libraries are undesirable from this point of view, and that the ideal desk top would be of a very light grey or biscuit colour, matt finish, painted wood, lino or plastic. Wall surfaces of white, light grey, yellow or cream, with bookshelves in similar but warmer shades, provide the restful background essential for reading rooms, while rooms with highly individual requirements, staff rest rooms or interviewing rooms, call for special schemes.

Flooring. The base for all flooring in modern buildings is concrete,

which is cold, and may in basements, despite water-proofing admixes, be damp: so that a suitable covering is required for every department. This may be supplied in sheet form, as tiles or, with some materials, laid in liquid form.

The different parts of public buildings have markedly different flooring requirements. In corridors and around public counters, hard-wearing qualities are pre-eminent; in reading rooms, silence and aesthetic appeal; in staff rooms, warmth; in storage areas, the ability to withstand heavy loads. Planning would be simpler if one flooring material satisfied all these points, was cheap, unaffected by water or cigarette burns, non-slip, and needed no special cleaning materials. In practice, terrazzo is almost invariably found in halls and stairs, cork or hardwood blocks in older reading rooms, lino or rubber in staff quarters. Like oak shelving, cork and oak blocks are excellent in quality, expensive in price, and uncompromising aesthetically, wearing to a rich golden brown. Fortunately, the vinyl floor coverings of recent years, sheet or tile, have added a new range of colours to the designer's palette, and promise a fair span of life in return for reasonable cost.

5

Standard equipment designed for business purposes is, for the most part, cheaper than the equipment produced for the limited market of libraries. Thus, tables, desks and chairs manufactured by the recognised office and school furnishing companies often prove more economical and essentially little different from those obtained from library supply firms: nor will they always, or even usually, be less satisfactory. Far too many older libraries are burdened with the solid furnishings of forty or more years ago, too massive to wear out, in appearance too dated to be anything but an aesthetic liability. Current practice in public authorities as in business assumes in many fields lower initial costs, shorter expectation of life, and readier replacement in keeping with changing taste.

Of library as of office furnishings it is true to say that they have evolved over the years with surprisingly little research into their suitability for the human figure at work, or, indeed, for the human figure itself. The standard height of tables and desks (2′ 6″), of chairs (1′ 6″), the minimum individual table top for the student (2′ × 3′) have been accepted unquestioningly: little attempt has been made—save in the double-sided reading desk designed by J. D. Brown—to provide space for the pencils, files, handbags, glucose sweets and other equipment of a student at work. Yet anthropometric investigation, involving statistical enquiry into the human figure at given ages, has already had its effect on school furniture, and the issue of British

Standard 2639:1955 gives useful pointers for junior library design.[7] A second criticism of European library fittings is that they have until now done less to make the branch or lending library an attractive place in which to linger than the modern American library, where low, casual reading benches and dwarf stacks, together with the usual easy chairs and coffee tables, contrive to define separate areas with an illusion of privacy, while allowing free movement about the room and clear oversight across it. An encouraging British development towards this ideal may be seen in the new Plymouth Central Library.

Shelving in the lending library and shelving for storage purposes are obviously different things. In the latter, where low cost is the objective, or where the shelving may later be required for other purposes than book storage, effective use can be made of the slotted angle steel parts supplied for industrial users by many firms, this being quickly bolted together meccano-like and easily dismantled if necessary by the staff. In a permanent stack, the recognised library suppliers will install conventional shelving with either bracket or panel type ends to a deck height of 7′ 6″, with 4′ 4″ between centres, thus allowing galleries and mezzanines in rooms of 15′ minimum ceiling height, in addition to closed stack space.[8]

If desired, the shelves can be removed from any tier and a table fitment substituted, providing carrels or staff work points within the stack. Allowing for range and main aisles and stairs between stack levels, according to the cubook formula,[9] each square foot of stack should house 15 cubooks. In fact, saving inches here and there, and packing books in tightly, the reserve stack of the average public library system, consisting of fairly uniformly sized books, houses a good deal more than this, in contrast with university or special libraries. In the latter, space may be further economised by microreproductions, by roller shelving, or by hinged shelves swinging out from either side of fixed central ranges, separated by 3′ plus gangways. Both of these devices are usually unsuitable for the floors of older buildings.

In lending library shelving, the fewer book levels per tier, the less likelihood of crowding round the shelves at busy periods. Shelving design, normally executed in wood, takes account of four factors: the maximum height desired,—say, 6′ in adult libraries—the depth of fascia board for guiding—never less than 6″, and more in proportion to

[7] In a library standardising junior furnishings in two sizes, the inference of this points to half with table height of 22″ and chair seat of 13″; half with tables 27″ and chair seats, 15″.

[8] Under the fire protection clauses of the model byelaws issued by the Ministry of Housing and Local Government, it seems unlikely that the many-decked stack built as its own support, structurally unconnected with the curtain walling surrounding it, and with metal deck flooring, will again be permitted by local authorities in Britain.

[9] The cubook formula assumes that the average stack contains 86% octavos, 13% quartos and 1% folios.

the dimensions of the room; the average book sizes found in the library concerned; and the distance considered desirable between floor and lowest shelf. Thus, a subject library might assume a recessed base 10″ high, an oversize shelf of 15″, four levels of average non-fiction, each of 10½″, including the thickness of the shelf, and a fascia board of 7″, or 6′ 2″ overall. Fiction shelving, by contrast, needs no more than 9″ clear at each level.

In Edinburgh's Fountainbridge Branch, the wasted space beneath the bottom shelf was occupied by cupboards containing two further shelves for repairs and books in reserve, each double-sided shelving unit being no more than 6′ 3″ or two 3′ shelves in length, so that, with little trouble, any case in the library could be moved to fresh positions: large book trolleys of special design, parked in one corner of the room, and containing thousands of volumes, provided an additional reserve. The modern European practice of using tilted shelving or roller mounted tubular steel framing carries this to its logical extreme of giving absolute flexibility in the division of floor space. Similarly, in most libraries, dwarf island cases, two shelves long, are useful for housing reference books or occasional displays, separating reading tables into alcoves with a maximum of privacy, while allowing supervision over them, or simply providing a useful surface for resting a heavy book when every place is taken.

The average periodical coverpage is designed so as to attract and interest: it is, moreover, familiar to the majority of interested readers. Logically, this cover should face the reader in any periodicals rack, and any arrangement which presents to the enquirer instead the gilt-lettered spine of a periodical case is perverse, both in forgoing the display possibilities of the original cover and in heavily disguising a familiar friend. If the case is of perspex, and stands flat against the wall, this is much better; but a subject library needs no more than a simple wall rack containing five levels of periodicals, each held by a panel of laminated glass 10″ high, tilted slightly forward, without individual covers. Similar racks containing two levels of magazines, either with glass panels or wooden or metal retaining bars, can be designed to stand on bookcases or catalogue cabinets. A popular European pattern of wall rack employs individual rests for each title, standing out at 90° to the wall, the rest being mirror L in cross section and tilting about 15° from the vertical: cupboard space up to about 2′ 6″ height gives space for superseded issues.[10] The well-known moveable units introduced in Britain by B. M. Headicar, employ a tilted shelf holding current issues, hinged at the top so as to reveal, when lifted, earlier issues on a flat shelf beneath.

Wood, the traditional material for all library furnishings, is still a strong contender. Oak, particularly light or medium, conveys a pleasantly academic air, and commands general respect: beech is popular in homes

[10] *See* Mevissen. Büchereibau, p. 234.

and schools, mahogany, recovered from its period of disgrace, is again fashionable and more attractive than of old, and there are many African and other woods of which little experience in libraries is available, e.g. sapele, tola, afromosia and many more. On the other hand, there is also a lively interest in painted soft wood, this being more adaptable from the point of view of lighting and colour requirements, cheaper initially, and refreshingly attractive when repainted regularly. The appearance of any unfamiliar wood, its cost, whether it is likely to warp or to bend under stress—the administrator buying timber will want to be satisfied on all these points, remembering that the treatment by the supplier is involved no less than the inherent properties of the wood. There may also be situations, as in fitting out older premises, in which it is necessary to treat new timber with a pentachlorophenol or similar preservative. In Britain, the services of the Timber Development Association and the British Wood Preservation Association are freely available to any enquirer in problems of this kind.

Steel, so widely used in office furnishings, and so long supplied in sombre green, now in light greys, greens and other rarer tints, has strength on its side, is not subject to insect attacks and will resist rust if specifically treated for this. It is, on the other hand, costlier, heavier, starker in appearance—in keeping with a science library—and unsuitable for amateur modifications. In general use, steel has come quite often to be replaced by plastic, timber by fibreboard. In libraries, as elsewhere, formica counter and table tops are familiar and, hard, pleasant, and easily cleaned, this seems likely to be the fore-runner of a family of plastics suitable for much wider library use. Such materials should allow specially moulded pieces—the lip on the edge of mobile library shelving, for instance—to be produced inexpensively and easily. The value of the fibreboards in libraries lies in the cheapness and the rapidity with which an untrained person can produce a display stand, staff desks and other pieces of equipment on a simple timber frame, these serving their purpose for a few years and being replaced when necessary by similar structures of improved design. In the lending library, particularly, such materials have provided fresh weapons in the struggle against that worst enemy in a society both fiercely acquisitive and competitive, dullness.

CHAPTER IX

THE LENDING FUNCTION

1. DEFINITION AND PURPOSE

Unobtrusive and taken very much for granted, two principles underlie most of the thinking about libraries done in democratic countries for a century and more past: that public institutions should be freely open to the public, and that their users should be free to borrow most of their contents. In England, despite the Warrington Free Library and a few others, libraries generally did not take the turning chosen by the British Museum and the older agencies of conservation: nor did they follow those larger European municipal institutions paying only grudging attention to circulation services and preferring instead to accumulate their more useful materials at one central point in single copies, to be seen on the premises only. There have been exceptions: but it is generally assumed that the fewer limitations placed on the citizen's right to borrow, the better, for his assertion of this right is not likely to be indiscriminate. His natural disinclination to carry away elephant folios or even bound volumes of periodicals means that the smaller shorter book is typically most in demand, and makes it unnecessary to designate much beyond essential quick reference books and key bibliographies as reference copies: why, then, labour the obvious by allocating good lending material to reference use, and aggravate the crowded state of most reference rooms? In the smaller library above all, why weaken the slender resources of lending stock by trying to swell the numbers of an insignificant reference collection?

A good deal of natural disagreement on the other hand arises in discussing the ideal disposition of circulation materials—through a 'lending library', or through subject departments: through big or small branches, through travelling libraries or by postal service from a central store. The variable factors involved, which make such discussions so tortuous, include the size of the local readership, the range of their interests, the cost of maintaining each kind of service, and the individual librarian's conception of an open shelf collection. There is little enough resemblance between the service given through each of these media. It is a basic principle of most public library work that the reader should be able to find at least an introductory book on the shelves in any common subject field—in dressmaking, Russian or cost accountancy—a principle which is violated of necessity by every travelling library and smaller branch. The larger urban central lending libraries of the nineteen thirties at their best possessed the nucleus of a useful special library

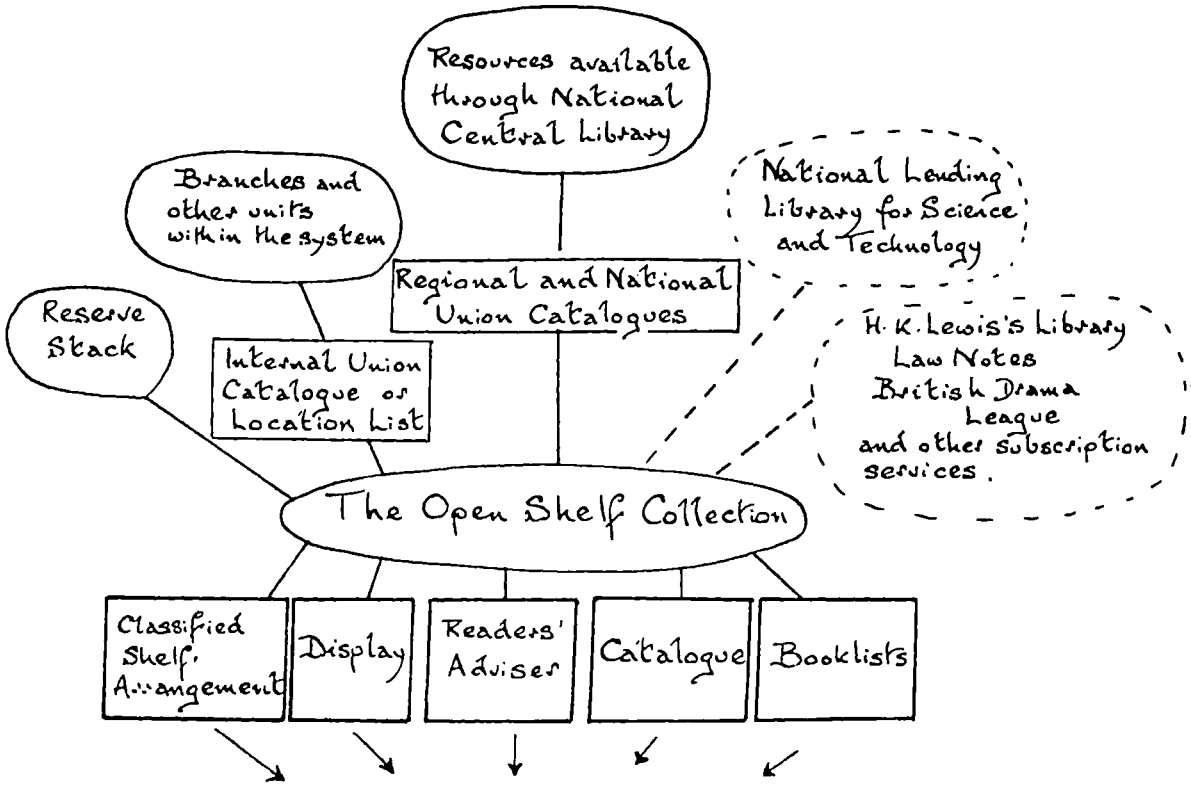


Fig. 21. The National Library structure.

collection in each major subject field—at least, in so far as current English language publishing in book form extended. In our own time in these same libraries the best of these volumes have in fact been turned over to subject departments, together with older titles of classic significance, periodicals from the stacks and quick reference material, these departments collectively going a long way towards fulfilling E. A. Savage's celebrated dictum,—that Edinburgh should have a central lending library of 450,000 volumes—or its equivalent. What scope remains for the lending library itself, in the highly departmentalised systems which America developed yesterday and Europe is adopting today, seems doubtful. A restricted rôle only: as a collection of recent publications, perhaps, like the Bluecoats Library, Liverpool, or as a collection of more popular titles, as in Manchester. The circulation function itself, as essential as ever, is fulfilled for the most part elsewhere, at least as efficiently.

Entangled also with questions of size and organisation are the library's outer relationships. Here two tacit assumptions made by the average intelligent reader are more relevant than most professional dogmas. The first is that the lending departments of the library *are* the library: for it is well known that other departments which he cannot see or could not easily visit are largely ignored. The second is that all libraries are essentially one, and that for his purposes the barriers between one local authority and another have no significance. To him his own branch or mobile is merely an outpost of that national library service of which library publicity has made so much, a point through which naturally the volume borrowed from a northern university, a German municipal library or an industrial research establishment on the Great West Road can be handed to him. If the reader's thinking is significantly ahead here of that of public authorities, apt still to attach great importance to questions of boundaries, the implication of his assumption is nevertheless clear.

It follows, if what has been said so far is correct, that the functions of the typical lending library are twofold: (1) to order its own materials so as to secure maximum use of the library, and (2) to serve, irrespective of its own possessions, as the local outlet to the reader of the 'national library service', and thus of the larger world of print. Under the first heading fall display, assistance to readers, and the various internal services available: under the second, the ancillary bibliographical equipment supporting the lending library. Finally, questions of routine and equipment must be considered briefly.

2. INTERNAL FUNCTIONS

Books—good sound products of commercial presses—certainly form the major part of the average lending library anywhere: and in Europe at least, sound recordings, art reproductions, and audio visuals generally

do not play much part yet. Nor in the average lending library do pamphlets, maps or periodicals: though there may in an English library be a few Ordnance Survey folded sheet maps, and a few bedraggled issues of popular magazines laid out for circulation. As for the latter, if it is not possible to do a thing neatly and with style, it is probably better not to do it at all. Compared with a special library it is, then, an arbitrarily limited collection which is available on the shelves of the average lending department: yet it may gain in force by being pared down to essentials: by the ruthless elimination of the out of date edition, the ageing textbook losing its place to newer competitors, the chatty book of a decade ago, the competent but one-sided trade publication. In the research library, all these have their contribution to make: each to the specialist yields something not found elsewhere. In a lending library, the titles of central importance in each subject—authoritative, up to date, comprehensive—should stand out with compelling force. Every librarian and every specialist knows how limited is the number of really worthwhile titles in any field. There are for instance countless cheap British poultry-keeping books: there are four of major status, and even these arrange themselves neatly in order of increasing price and fulness. Nothing in the slighter books adds usefully to these four: yet once the buyer has gone beyond them, there can in logic be no stopping point until all the current gossipy poultry literature is acquired. Since one title is so like another, there is no good reason for rejecting any fresh request. Quantitatively, this will certainly fill the shelves and provide alternative titles when shelf stock has run low: it adds nothing to the strength of the collection, wastes money, and leaves slender funds for buying the three guinea standard American work which some enthusiast is encouraged to suggest, and equally slender grounds for rejecting it.

But a lending library is not merely a collection of whittled down subject libraries: it houses also the literature of imagination, and those books which have no strong factual value but which interpret, analyse, arouse curiosity, challenge or excite. Some are old, others recent: many are forgotten, most are readable to the average person. Robert Sinclair's *Metropolitan Man*, Cobbett, Giedion's *Mechanization Takes Command*, Margaret Leigh's *Spade among the Rushes* in an English library fall within this group. Novels of strong subject or local interest should abound: and no section of the average lending library's stock contains a greater proportion of neglected material or needs more revision. Every library should have, if not on the open shelves, at least in reserve, a comprehensive collection of even the secondary authors of its national literature. The subject guides to fiction—in English, Baker, Nield, Lenrow, Cotton and Glencross—are essential if this aspect of the stock is to be emphasised, as is the segregation of novels of subject interest for at least temporary periods. Thus it is important that such books should

be marked clearly when first put into circulation, for later identification of their contents rather than for shelf arrangement.

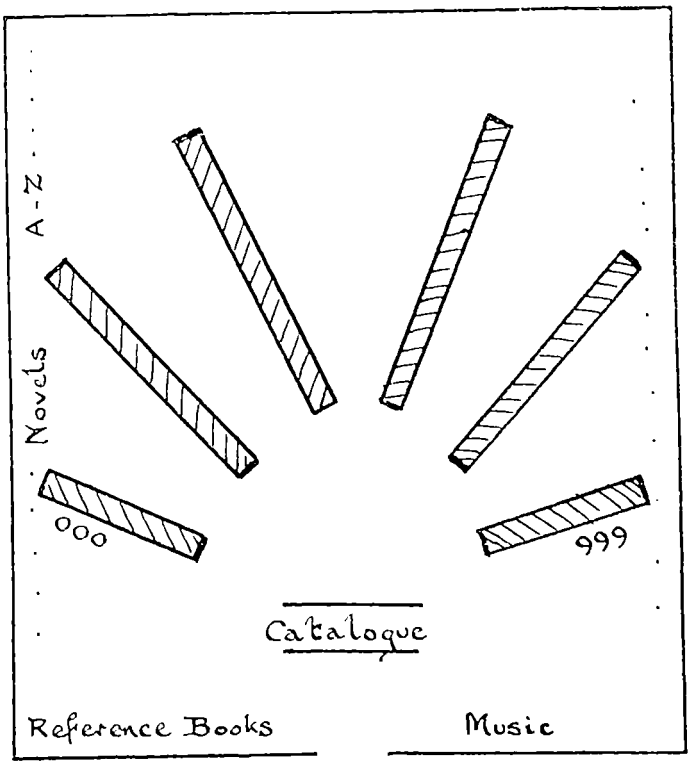


Fig. 22. Typical lending library layout up to about 1930. Shelf ends facing the entrance provide the most useful points for display, but encourage crowding, while the corners of the room are almost useless. To the reader browsing round the fiction shelves, subject literature is largely invisible.

Evidently, for finding an 'interesting' book of this kind traditional cataloguing and classification are virtually useless: evidently also, personal staff assistance could go only a limited way. Here display enters in—the segregation of groups of such books for short periods, their highlighting at suitable points and labelling. Perhaps no activity is more useful in lending libraries, based as it is on two assumptions: (1) that most readers are desperately in need of suggestion as to what book to read next, (2) that set reading habits are too often the sign of the closed mind which could benefit from stimulus, provocation and challenge. Unfortunately, no aspect of lending library work is more frequently bungled. Displays in obscure corners of the library: display without adequate lettering and art work: display of unreadable books, or of practically the entire shelf collection at a given class number, so that the reader gains nothing and learns nothing from their bodily removal

across the library floor: displays on wearily familiar topics:— these common faults seem scarcely to need comment, yet can be seen anywhere. There is hardly a fashion shop of any size in the average town which does not find outlet for the artistic talent of its brighter staff in much this kind of work: yet, despite the pioneering work done in Edinburgh 40 years ago, the average British public library is still in the stage of the retail tobacconist. The one explanation which can be given for this is that too few possess the stock to provide interesting and varied display materials.[1]

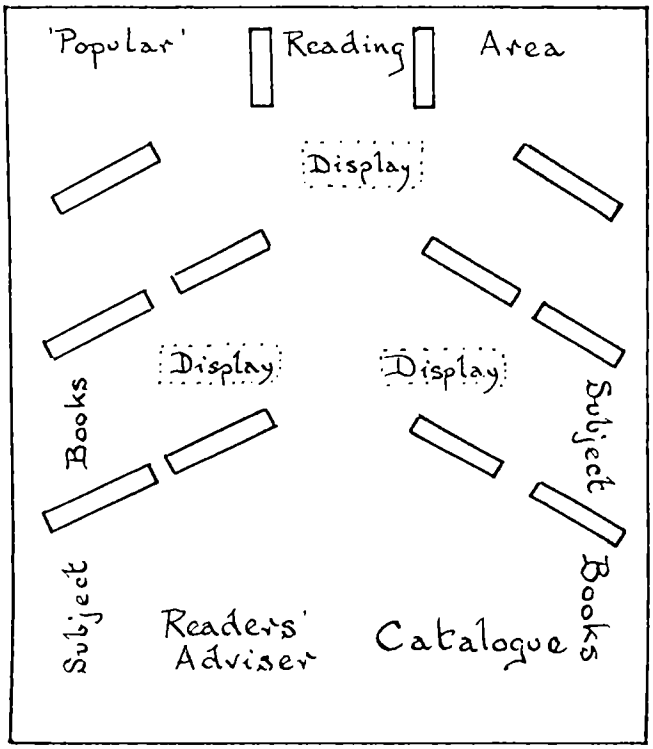


Fig. 23. A practicable improvement using low movable shelving units, designed to emphasize display and browsing areas.

Whenever it is attempted, obviously display should not push at open doors, giving prominence to subjects or books already in demand: nor should it simply reproduce the shelf order: its essence is unexpected collocation, novels with non-fiction, biography with subject works, illustrated books beside texts, cuttings, pamphlets and other unconventional material brought into relation with the traditional book-stock. Small island display stands designed to carry a poster on one

[1] An informal but highly successful display corner appears in Plate 65.

panel, a few books up to quarto size laid open for the sake of their illustrations, and a shelf of others standing spine outwards are the ideal: ordinary double-sided shelving, even if provided with narrow end cases, lacks impact. The placing of these stands should be at key points in the library, where people will see them in passing, but where there is room to linger, space to sit down and browse a little, and reasonable peace to read for longer periods. Every few months the placing of display stands needs to be altered, while individual displays should last not longer than a fortnight. The larger library system is thus able to plan its displays and posters well in advance, circulating exhibits used from branch to branch, and if necessary sending special collections to reinforce the stock of libraries in which displays are to be mounted—the best concrete evidence to the user of a small branch of the resources of the system as a whole: for what catalogue or brochure can have as much effect as three shelves of first-rate books where normally the reader sees but half a dozen secondary titles!

Physically, the great mass of lending library books should be scrupulously clean and attractive. The book with a loose casing, the book several times re-classified and bearing the scars on spine and endpapers, the faded indecipherable cover, may be well enough in the stacks of the great repositories: it should be the pride of a lending library that whatever is displayed is beyond criticism on the score of appearance. Perhaps public library books are now never as bad as in Arnold Bennett's phrase —a 'palimpsest of filth'. But too many books perfectly clean and sound, yet faded and uninteresting, stand on the shelves of too many libraries: the slender rectangle of neutral tint which they present to the reader will never attract any but the incorrigible browser to look inside them. An essential part of the routine of staff tidying lending library shelves each morning is the consistent weeding out of the book just becoming faded, the torn casing, the dustcover now tattered and soiled. These, when removed, should be divided tentatively into discards, binding, repair and recover sequence: and an adequate follow-up routine day by day should be ready to assimilate books thus set aside.

Since dust wrappers became a decorative feature, most libraries have made some use of them on the shelves both to protect the book and to interest the reader and with the advent of plastic jackets the dust wrapper itself has had a protective covering, making its life perhaps as long as that of the book. In some libraries, as at Bristol, a highly efficient routine using a laminating machine for affixing the jacket to the cellulose acetate coating, has been integrated with home bindery work, giving a jacketed life of some thirty issues and a further career, cleaned, strengthened and with jacket removed, of perhaps twelve to twenty issues for a cost of under one shilling. Consumer reaction in European countries is usually approving, finding libraries as alert to the aesthetic potentialities of their contents as the couturière or the chemist. For shelf display this

implies that jacketed books should not exceed some 40% of shelf stock: contrast and intermingling avoid the monotony of the old twopenny circulating libraries, where every grubby ageing novel stood clothed in bright paper covers.

In the smallest service points such as the mobile library the whole stock will in fact be renewed regularly by bulk exchanges with the central reserve: thus the condition of stock will be maintained while its numerical limitations will be compensated for by a planned influx of newly published titles and titles of earlier date not previously seen at this point. With little attempt to preserve any theoretical representation of main classes or balance of subjects the collection assumes increasingly the character of a random display, a beginning from which a more conscious reading pattern may develop. Here the provision of bibliographical suggestion through the various kinds of booklist—those for instance issued in Britain by the National Book League—becomes of critical importance, as does the influence of staff contact.

The rôle of staff assistance in exploiting lending library stock is altogether more debatable than anything touched upon so far, even though the jobs which the staff may be called on to do are well known. These include:—

giving simple directional guidance ('Where are the books on Scandinavia?'):
interpretation of catalogue and classification to the perplexed reader:
help in choosing the most suitable book on some named subject:
suggesting planned courses of reading:
giving information about suggestion, reservation and other services:
taking requests for such services:
general introduction of new readers to the use of the library.

Every administrator insists that these services are available in his library. They are, nevertheless, in most libraries singularly inconspicuous: and it seems hardly helpful to argue 'They [the public] can always ask'. In law, it is a maxim that justice should not only be done but be seen to be done: and it is surely no less necessary in libraries that competent staff assistance should be *shown* clearly to be available, by something more than a notice. To most people, a definite point where enquiries can be made, a particular counter or even a separate room, is infinitely preferable, implying as it does staff specialising in such work. Thus, the readers' adviser system, generally thought to have been introduced by New York in 1929, has been accepted with qualifications by a fair number of European libraries, and the adviser's desk—too often left empty while carrying out some routine job thrust on him—carries proudly the adviser's name in many towns. In the great central lending libraries for many years two, three or more advisers have sat at custom built desks housing bibliographies and quick reference books: but it can be plausibly argued that the less equipment surrounding the assist-

ant the better—that the most approachable adviser is a floor walker of the old kind. This is the case of those who oppose the formal advisory system, pointing out that the youngest junior returning books to the shelves, rather than an older official, is often stopped about his business by the shy or uneducated person with some query or request.

A little optimistically, it is still argued sometimes that 'Every librarian is a readers' adviser'. The truth is that every staff member will receive queries: a few can handle them adequately. In the typical county branch in Britain, no specialising adviser confronts the reader: but so far from an untrained junior satisfying the latter's enquiry, this is in many cases dealt with by the professional staff at Headquarters Requests Section. Between 'adviser' and enquirer there is no contact. Yet, with adequate tools and time to spare, the query can be handled at least as satisfactorily as by a harrassed adviser in an urban branch. It is even possible to argue that in most urban libraries the principal merit of the adviser is administrative, in co-ordinating the various services—enquiry, suggestion, reservation, branch exchange, inter-loan—otherwise carried on by half a dozen different persons.

Less controversy attaches to these services in themselves, with one exception: the reservation system. From the reader's point of view, since he will not normally visit the library more often than once a fortnight, and may call time after time when some title he wants is on loan, it is reasonable to expect the library to set the book aside for him on request, and for him to pay the cost of postal notification (since so much time can be wasted in trying to contact individuals over the 'phone in any large organisation, it seems hardly worth offering this as a regular service). The difficulties are purely administrative: long waiting lists accumulate for recently published books, most frequently for the non-fiction best seller, which involve a delay of a year or more before the last comer can have his turn: and, though larger libraries may buy an extra copy for every six reservations, to shorten the waiting period, such duplication of a book possibly destined to be forgotten in six months' time is very disproportionate. Arguing perhaps on the analogy that railway companies do not allow seats to be booked on excursion trains, a number of libraries disclaim any intention of helping the reader in the scramble for the latest best seller, seeking some rule sufficiently comprehensive to exclude such books from the reservation service. Some have always refused to reserve fiction, but fiction is never the main trouble. Others reserve only books a year or more old—a simple system, at least; while in Britain, Coventry and other libraries some years ago announced their decision to reserve only 'students' books', an ambiguous class open to very different interpretation by different persons.

On practical grounds, these limitations may be convenient: but it can be argued against this that the reservation service in itself is an essential part of library work, and that, if a book is worth buying, it should be

included in that service. Why, after all, should the reader be penalised if the book he wants is wanted also by five or by fifty other persons? The intelligent reader can often profit from—and must in fact, if he is to keep abreast of events, often study—thoroughly bad books. That libraries must avoid stigmatising such books as bad only weakens their case. Here, as so often, in a debate ostensibly over differing concepts of service, library size and finances obtrude. The only conclusion generally acceptable is perhaps that public libraries in the older countries might gain from seeking a clearer line of demarcation between their province and that of the best organised commercial subscription libraries.

3. EXTERNAL RELATIONS

Good as the loan collection may be, the second principal function of every lending library must be to serve as the local outlet for such national library services as the country possesses—to link the reader with the greater world of print conserved in libraries elsewhere, and thus, with that immense totality of learning and imagination which alone can give libraries their significance. It is in this additional dimension that the difference between public and subscription libraries becomes apparent, however effective the latter may be in supplying current publications. Discarding its purchases mechanically after a lapse of months, unconcerned with the out of the way title, the subscription library provides no more than the common literature of the day. Through the public lending lending library, by contrast, come the paperbacked German monograph of 1949 on the design of elevators, the standard English herbal of 1730, the forgotten American thesis of 1928 on a minor French dramatist: and it matters little in the short run whence they come, so long as they are available in good time to the person who wants them. Without this the independent public library would have no place in modern society: but it is not in practice a service which is open to an uninitiated reader in an ill-equipped library.

Scattered amongst hundreds of autonomous units, the book resources of Britain, as of most older countries, are available for inter-lending only to the library which can supply accurate details of what is wanted. Thus an essential part of lending library service depends on the possession of major bibliographies—on the library's having at least titles such as the *British National Bibliography*, *London Library Catalogue* and *Subject Index*, *Cumulative Book Index* and *Subject Index to Periodicals*. Without these and other recognised subject and author lists, the resources of any nation's libraries are useless to the small library: and this itself will contrive to limit the kind of demand made on such a library by the observant user.

In the average library system, such bibliographies exist in single copies in the main library only, distributed between Acquisitions and Reference sections: in a few, Belfast and Western Australia amongst



Plate No. 27.

Holborn Public Library. *Reference Library. Note the use of light plastic surfaces and the arrangement of individual reading desks.*

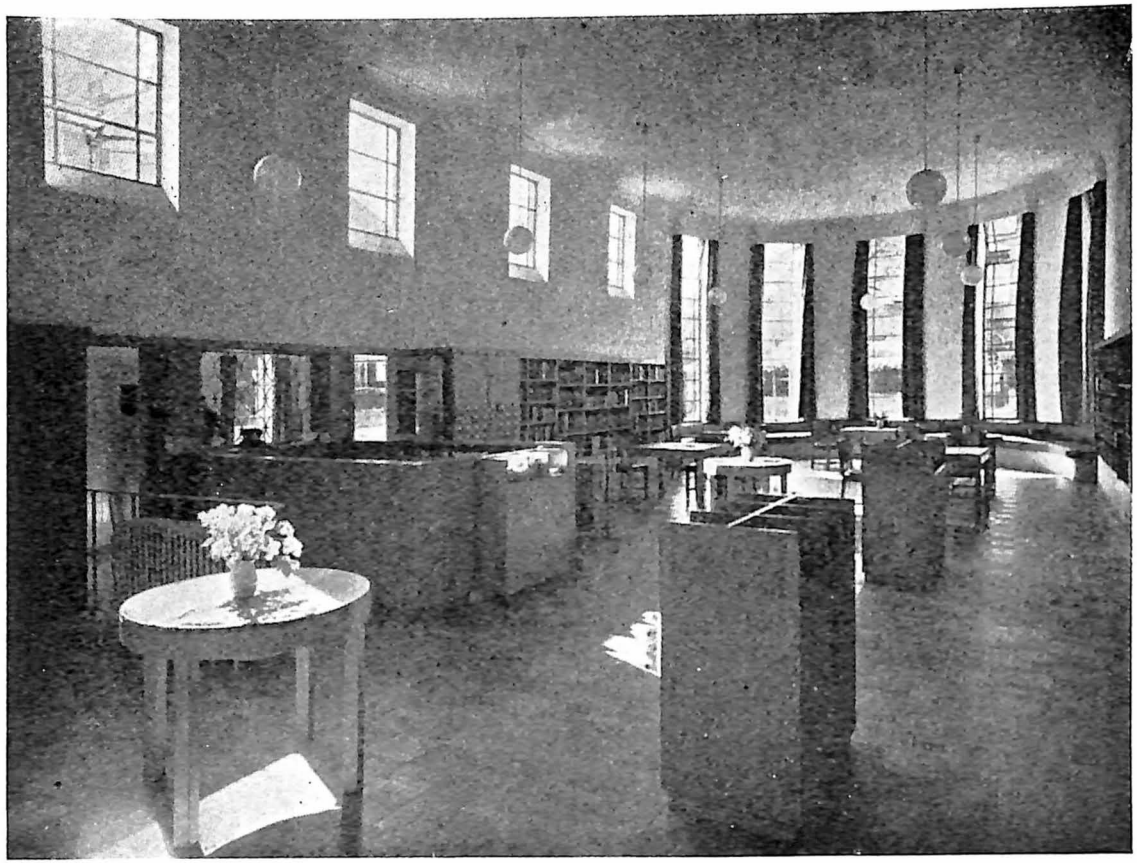


Plate No. 28.

Interior, Belsize Park Branch, Hampstead. *Justifiably admired for its exterior, this seems nevertheless to have a hunched, intensive counter, monotonous clerestory windows.*



Plate No. 29.

Record Library, New Orleans.

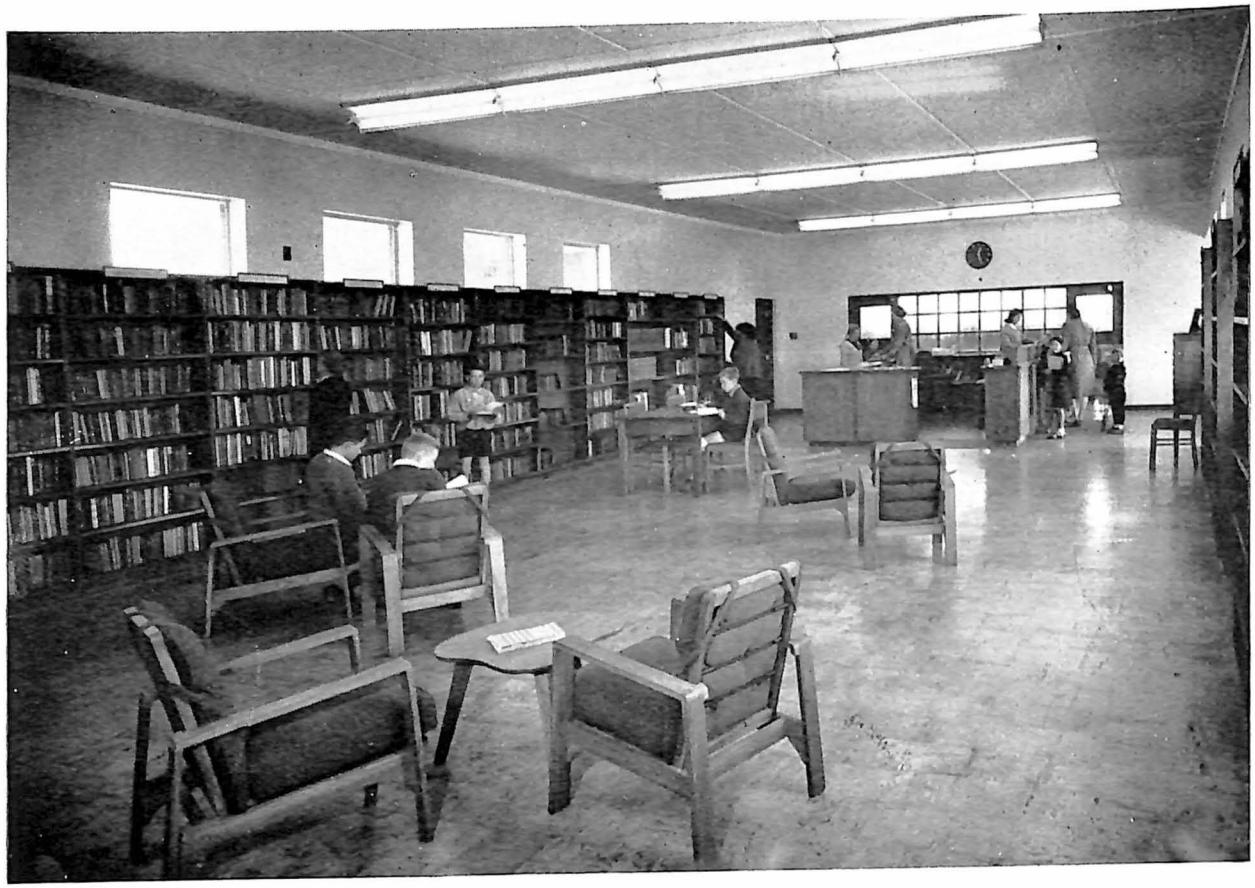


Plate No. 30.

Johannesburg City Library. *Children's Library, cf. pls.* 14 *and* 20.

them, the Bibliographical Department functions as a separate unit of central importance. In British county libraries this section in some form or other has always played a major rôle. The query which in a town would be taken by the enquirer to the reference department in the form 'Information on the use of polythene piping for water supply', is sent by the often untrained staff at remote county service points to Headquarters as 'a book wanted on plastic piping', and, failing anything in stock suitable for loan, must be translated by way of bibliographies into a style acceptable for bureau application: a good illustration of the artificiality of any attempt to distinguish rigidly between reference and lending work.

If inter-lending services are to be used to good effect, they must obviously be publicised consistently and successfully. As a problem of publicity, library co-operation falls into the category of those invisible services which must be made concrete by every means possible. Marked enquiry counters for external loans; posters; displays; explanatory leaflets; the supply of unusual items to the press—which is normally astonished to learn that books should be sent from Leningrad to Wimbledon, or by Manchester to Lagos—all help. It may have been expedient only a few years ago for libraries to be as reticent about such services as banks about overdrafts. Today, common sense suggests that it is absurd for libraries to take pride in accumulating credit balances of loans outstripping their borrowings. The more use a library attracts, the more it will naturally borrow.

4. ROUTINES, RULES, METHODS

(1) Though the business of joining a library is much less elaborate than formerly, it is planned carefully in the efficient library. The reader who is to be enrolled should find a clearly marked point where his preliminary enquiry can be dealt with, and should not be involved in the stream of people returning books. Ideally, a counter outside the lending and subject libraries, as at Edinburgh, deals with this business, or marked points in the main control counter, as at Sheffield: and from here the reader can be referred to advisory staff in the public departments. In systems departmentalised by subject, there is much to be said for centralising registration at one point which can handle all initial enquiries.

Commonly, every new reader is still asked to complete a registration form, which contains a general agreement to observe the rules and regulations in force, and which has a space for guarantor's signature if the applicant does not have an address which can be verified from the electoral register or in some other satisfactory way. This may or may not be worded at length as a legal contract: it does not often contain much other information. The statement of occupation, age and reading interests still sometimes required, though potentially valuable for any

survey of reading tastes, is in fact seldom used for this. Statistics may sometimes be wanted of readers in different wards, or holding different kinds of ticket: thus face- or edge-punched cards designed for machine or hand sorting have been used by various libraries. At the other extreme, abolishing a routine rather than expensively mechanising it, more than one very efficient system simply asks the reader to sign a borrower's ticket, if the Browne system is in force, and thus saves time, stationery, filing and copying. Since every so often the reader's address needs re-checking, especially in Metropolitan cities with a shifting population, his tickets will bear a date, e.g. one year from their first issue, when counter staff must verify again the information given there.

These few moments of the reader's first encounter with the library are in many ways decisive. Not only may they leave him with a resentment against it lasting over years, if mishandled: they can succeed or fail lamentably in making him an informed and co-operative user, aware both of his rights and his obligations as a member of the library. Thus, to take one obvious point, if the registration form used contains a clause 'I agree to abide by the rules and regulations, which I have read', it seems very desirable that he should in fact have been offered these regulations in black and white—preferably in the form of a booklet setting out not only the negative aspects—rules and penalties—but positive features—library addresses and departments, opening hours, services available. He should indeed be asked to read through those negative aspects before signing his card. Admittedly, he is not entering into a hire purchase agreement or buying a house: but if the library lays stress on the legal validity of the contract implied by membership, it must play fair by the

---

No.....

PUBLIC LIBRARY, STRATFORD-UPON-AVON

I ..... of .....

being a Burgess of Stratford-upon-Avon in terms of Rule 13 hereby make application to the Public Library Committee for a Borrower's Ticket entitling me to borrow Books from the Lending Library; and I hereby undertake to replace or pay the value of any book which shall be lost or in any way injured by me. I also further undertake to pay all fines and all expenses incurred in recovering the said Book, in accordance with the Rules and Regulations, to which, in all respects, I hereby bind myself.

Date.....

..... No.....

PUBLIC LIBRARY, STRATFORD-UPON-AVON

Give I, ...
name
in full of.....

hereby make application to the Stratford-upon-Avon Public Library Committee for a Borrower's Ticket, entitling me to borrow Books from the Lending Library in accordance with the rules and regulations thereof, with which I hereby undertake to comply, and I submit on the other side the guarantee which I have obtained.

Date.....19

Signed.....

(*over*)

GUARANTOR'S VOUCHER

The applicant must obtain the following voucher, signed by a Burgess, as a guarantee.

I, the undersigned, being a Burgess of the Borough of Stratford-upon-Avon, on terms of Rule 14, declare that I believe this applicant to be a person to whom books may be safely entrusted for perusal; and I hereby undertake to replace, or pay the value of, any book to the amount of £2, which shall be lost or in any way injured by the said Borrower; I also undertake to pay all fines and expenses in recovering the said book.

Name .....

Address .....

Date.....19 (*over*)

Figs. 24, 25, 26. Membership Form. *Note* (1) *borrower's number.* (2) *different forms for burgesses and non-burgesses.* (3) *the 'legal contract' wording. Contrast Dagenham's single terse form.*

other party. So perfunctorily is registration done in many libraries that the reader is in a strong position if he claims later to have been inadequately informed of the limitations and penalties attached to the service. Since length of loan, hours of opening and charges to the reader bulk large in this heading, the rightness of the rules adopted is also in question.

(2) The best opening hours for lending libraries are certainly not those for reference service: not are they at all uniform. A branch in a local shopping and entertainments centre may be busy all day: one in a residential suburb may be deserted until the evening; while all libraries in central positions are busier in the lunch hour and at the end of the working day than at other times. In urban libraries, opening hours are commonly based on the desire to give service for as long as possible: thus in Britain 9 a.m. to 8 p.m. or 9 a.m. to 7 p.m. are common times. This is not the approach of commercial radio or television, requiring extensive research before deciding optimum times for reaching a given audience: nor that of the O and M expert, concerned primarily with cost per unit of service. On an economic basis, the extended hours kept in many branches could hardly be justified. Whatever the hours adopted, the letterbox deposit system of allowing books to be left while the library is closed should be used: perhaps also an automatic tape recording system similar to that used by wholesale distributors to deal with telephone orders received after office hours. Thus the person who calls too early or too late for the library to be open can renew books taken out and avoid a further call, or can record any request to be dealt with when the staff return.

(3) How long does a reader take over his book? The practised novel reader consumes a book or more an evening; someone else will spend a winter on *War and Peace*, while a student may want a textbook throughout his year's course. In many special libraries, no set borrowing period exists, but every book is subject to recall if wanted. In public libraries, a short fixed period is useful for reminding the reader that someone else also wants his turn: but it should be long enough to allow a busy man to get through a thick volume. The traditional fortnight is unrealistic: the month usual for inter-library borrowings is infinitely better; some libraries compromise at three weeks. Renewal postcards prominent on the issue counter help the person who finds the standard period inadequate, as do specially arranged periods for those travelling.

(4) Beyond this fixed period, in most libraries the reader is fined. In England it is sometimes argued that fines are illegal: more to the point, in some respects they are definitely undesirable. It is unfortunate that they sometimes penalise the serious reader: it is deplorable that the person fined comes often to regard this not as a penalty but as a payment conferring positive rights to borrow for a longer period, analagous to a major subscription in a circulating library. Regrettably, the revenue from fines comes to be regarded by authority often as a convenient

source of income, free from the political hazards of the annual budget, so that detached discussion of their merits is almost impossible: while, on the other hand, persons of distinction and public standing display remarkable heat when disputing threepences and sixpences. Finally, it may be argued that the fine seems often less effective in bringing books back than the reminder notice, and that the most effective reminder of all is that threatening legal proceedings. In Britain, county libraries commonly for many years charged no fines: special libraries generally do not; and at least one British municipal library never has done.

On the other hand, it is argued that a system of fines has a useful practical value in encouraging the ordinary reader rather than the incorrigible offender to return his book as soon as possible, and therefore allowing other people a fair share: that the fact of there being a penalty exerts a considerable general influence, even though individuals may incur that penalty lightly. Certainly some sanction seems very desirable, the question is whether an infliction on the pocket is the right sanction. A confirmed drunkard, if fines have proved useless, may be barred from entering a public house: the suspension of library borrowing rights for a fixed period may be less severe, but it is equally deserved in so far as the offender's action has deprived others of the use of books.

If fines are the policy of the library, the offender has a right to a receipt: this may be done by the old system of tear-off fine rolls, each roll for a different value, e.g. 3d. and 1s. 0d., or by a desk top model of the bus conductor's machine, either using a series of preprinted rolls or adjustable so as to print various sums as required on a blank roll. Such machines fall within much the same price range as typewriters, trade names including Ticket Issuing Machines, Automaticket, and others. On the other hand, by the fines box method the reader himself places the exact sum in a sealed box—change being available at the counter—and will no more expect a receipt than when dropping coins in the collecting box on every snack bar counter: but a written receipt can be given if required.

(5) Every hire-purchase firm experiences a constant percentage of customers who neither complete the payments agreed nor in all probability intended to do so in the first place. Every library, similarly, meets borrowers who will neither return books overdue nor, should the library somehow obtain their return, pay the fines thus incurred. The causes of this seem various: in some, a hatred for authority; in others, a frightened inability to fulfil practical commitments involving dates, times or specified amounts; in others again, a cheerful indifference towards contractual relationships. In every case, the library's first concern must be to get hold of its own property. The borrower must be traced to his address, seen personally and plainly told the legal consequences of failure now to return the books or pay for their replacement.

As neither professional nor sub-professional trained staff is particularly suited in age or background for this, a familiar figure in the largest libraries is the officer specialising in this task: ideally, a man newly retired from the police or armed forces, still young and energetic enough, and with a good deal of experience of the area. Since in metropolitan areas, quite apart from unreturned lending library books, direct theft from open shelf collections generally may run at 3% of stock annually, this member of staff—sometimes styled security officer—may also be responsible for work comparable with that of the Stores Detective.

5. LOAN RECORDS

Unlike closed-stack reference departments, few lending libraries maintain records which will show the amount or the kind of reading done by any individual: the function of their loan records is instead to show what books are out while they are on loan and no longer, and to whom issued. If it is efficient, the 'charging' system used will do this while allowing rapid service to the borrower without any backlog of work to be cleared up in quiet periods, involving a minimum of preparatory routine such as with stock or reader records, and costing as little as possible in plant and stationery. By these standards the charging systems commonly used are hardly efficient.

Until Westminster City libraries challenged this assumption in 1954, it had been taken for granted that every book borrowed from a library should be recorded with author and title, the name of the borrower and date due. The Westminster system, being based instead on the statistical probability that most readers will be honest and return their books, is so radically different that it deserves discussion first. It supplies the reader not with X tickets but with X tokens, one of which must be surrendered each time a book is borrowed: no details of the book itself are recorded at all. Should the borrower on coming next time claim that he has no book out but has lost his token, he is charged a round sum—originally set at 10s. 0d.—for each token replaced. As the book which he has thus in effect stolen from the library may be worth seven or eight times this, it is clear that the system can be effective only if the majority of borrowers are (1) honest, (2) careful with their tokens. It is obvious also that in this respect different communities and different age groups present markedly different statistical patterns.

Traditional issue methods normally involve either written records of two groups of facts—the one concerning the book, the other the borrower—which may be set down once for all by the library, or copied afresh by the reader each time the book is taken, or they use code forms of these, such as book and reader numbers. These records may be kept in the accidental order of issue, saving sorting and filing, or re-arranged into an artificial order, by author, classification or accession, so facilita-

ting searching for any particular title. A variable factor encountered here is clearly the amount of such searching done and the importance attached to it. Two common charging systems are too well known to need detailed description—the Browne pocket and ticket system, and the one slip university method, in which the slip is completed by the reader and filed under author, its top edge being coloured or marked in some other way so as to distinguish clearly different days or weeks of borrowing and indicate overdues quickly, while the slips can be refiled temporarily in borrower order so as to write return or renewal reminders. Three systems can, however, profitably be compared briefly: the token method, photocharging, and the older three-slip university method.

The principal point of charging systems in the past has been to locate a particular book quickly when required. Token charging simply does not do this, assuming that if the book does not turn up within a reasonable period—say a week—another copy will be bought or borrowed. Photocharging records all its data in the arbitrary order in which the books are taken out, like the ledger charging system of which it is essentially a mechanised form: in other words, it is virtually useless when searching for a particular book, while the three slip method, taking two carbon copies from the slip completed by the borrower, provides a record of the book filed under author, under date due and under borrower. It is thus well equipped also to answer the second main question asked of charging systems: what books are due on a given day, or week? So is photocharging, more laboriously: the gaps in the numbering of transaction cards for books returned due on a given day show those still outstanding, while titles and names can be ascertained on referring to the corresponding numbers in the microfilm for that date. Again the token system has no answer. Its great merit lies instead in the drastic saving of staff time possible with it: and if to authority it seems to provide insufficient control over an expensive bookstock, one other point certainly commends it—the absence of costly equipment subject to mechanical failure. A third demand made by some libraries on any charging system—that it limit the number of books issued to any reader, and so allow control over the use made of the stock—is certainly fulfilled effectively by token charging, as it is by the Browne method. But it may be said that in most countries public libraries have passed the stage at which it was necessary to ration the issue of lending library books, and in all but small libraries this requirement is out of date.

Where Browne charging has been abandoned this seems, surprisingly, to have been more often because of delays found at peak periods than because of the disproportionate amount of staff time absorbed in book preparation, sorting and filing. Yet useful expedients in dealing with rush periods are well known—the divided issue, separating overdue books from current loans, or split according to readers' surnames, and

the delayed discharge, using temporary numbered pockets and cards. Nor does the discharge rate in libraries seem excessively slow if compared with service in banks or booking offices at busy times. Given sufficient staff on duty and adequately designed equipment, in most respects the Browne system remains a strong contender, having even converted one British university library. In contrast, the initial cost of photocharging and punched card machines acts as a deterrent to change: yet it is a potent argument for the former that even if no more than one assistant can be removed from the lending complement as a result, the machine will have paid for itself within two years. The disqualifying feature of punched card machines to date for charging purposes lies in their inability to handle anything but numbers. Thus books must be translated into stock numbers, readers into borrowers' numbers and loans into transaction numbers: each involving the maintenance of special records in orders solely required for charging purposes. In a re-organisation supposed to reduce the volume of work to be done, this hardly seems progress in the right direction.

The last words on lending libraries should not be on routine. For in lending libraries—rather than subject departments, with their bread and butter studies—the work of the schools, of the colleges and of the formal machinery of education is carried on. Silently, disinterestedly, without regard for narrow definitions of what may or may not be educational, they work: and gradually their bookstocks, catholic and comprehensive, make their unique contribution to producing not only more competent workers, more knowledgeable students, better home-makers, but more responsible adults, better citizens, more useful members of the human community. Only a cynical administration can regard this as less exacting than any other service: and cynicism too often ends in degrading the service provided.

CHAPTER X

SUBJECT DEPARTMENT LIBRARIES

1. GENERAL

A library organised on subject departmental plan will consist of a series of collections of books and allied material not limited by language, relating to particular subject groups according to the ascertained local interests of readers, e.g. Fine Arts, Music, Science, Technology, Commerce, Law. These individual subject collections will each be, when fully developed, but part of a comprehensive grouping of subject libraries, whose aim is to cover intensively particular subjects and give as a whole a more effective library service than is given by a large general collection. That complete separation of a general library into many groups need not be envisaged is proved by the successful development in several British libraries of 'special' departments of Science and Technology or Commerce, without removing emphasis from the general library. This development is particularly appropriate in industrial areas, where an enhanced service to technologists is so desirable. Quite frequently, the subject department may have both a lending and reference function, even though this dual function will mean that a large part of the stock will be duplicated, one copy being for reference only and the other available for lending. The status of each copy will then be marked and there will be no interchange of function. The reference and lending stock will usually be shelved in one sequence. An interesting experiment has been made in a small Lancashire library to enhance the value of both stocks by shelving them in parallel sequence in the same room. This may be the start of more specialised service than is usual in small libraries.

An important requisite in a subject department is the employment of staff with a specialised knowledge in the appropriate field and a competence in several foreign languages. This knowledge may have been acquired formally at a university, in industrial employment or informally, over the years by way of personal interest, and perhaps by the completion of appropriate specialist parts of the Library Association syllabus. The subject specialist should also be a Chartered Librarian.

The idea of subject departments is not a new one, having been for many years a feature of university libraries, whilst in the United States they have evolved over some seventy years, particularly in New York, Baltimore, Los Angeles and Toledo (Ohio) Public Libraries. A powerful impetus to this development is undoubtedly the use of modular construction and the increased emphasis on open plan interiors, together with

BIRMINGHAM UNIVERSITY LIBRARY

Author .....

Title .....

.....

.....

Date(s).....Price .....

Publisher/Place .....

Suggested by .....

Review .....

Approved for purchase from .....*Fund*

Signature..... *Date*.....

SUGGESTION AND ORDER CARD

Fig. 27. Single purpose suggestion-slip. *Generous in space, anticipating elaborate titles, and prepared for most contingencies.*

This side for use in Library Order Department only

Ordered from..... No..... Date.....

Reminder sent.....

Remarks:

Date added to Library..... *Classmark*.....

Fig. 28. *Verso of Fig.* 27.

the 'market-place' concept of the library-community relationship. In Great Britain, there was a Commercial Library at Coventry as early as 1915 and in 1917 the 'Report of the Committee of the Privy Council for Scientific and Industrial Research' advocated the establishment of special subject departments in public libraries to assist in the dissemination of technological and marketing knowledge. As a result, Leeds established a joint Commercial and Technical Library in 1918 and Birmingham, Dundee, Manchester and Wolverhampton followed with Libraries of Commerce in 1919.

Of more significance in Great Britain is the programme of subject department development begun by the Edinburgh Public Library in 1932, a plan which has served as a blue-print for other British libraries.

The post-war developments at Liverpool are particularly important in demonstrating how a large general reference library can be transformed, stage by stage, into a series of mutually dependent subject departments individually giving high quality service to readers, yet together maintaining the advantages of a great collection of reference material.

Experience has shown that more staff are needed when a library is organised on a subject basis; that the staff will tend to be established in higher grades; that expenditure on books and other material will rise owing to duplication within and without the department and also because of greater expenditure on the non-book material; but, nevertheless, the extra expenditure is more than justified by the quality of the service which the reader receives. That it is necessary to employ staff of sufficient ability to exploit stock and promote interest among actual or potential library users is amply demonstrated by the lamentable fate of the Patents Specifications distributed by the Stationery Office to early public libraries as the nucleus of commercial intelligence departments. Few of these collections were ever developed and all too many seem to have been regarded as an embarrassment causing storage problems, but of no utility.

The ideal subject library should be planned and built towards the end of subject department organisation and perhaps the most recent and impressive British example is to be found in the new Brown Library in Liverpool. However, a librarian wishing to departmentalise his library will usually be faced with an existing building to adapt. This is not an insurmountable objection; in fact, it has been shown, as, for example, at Leeds, that subject departments can often utilise existing space more efficiently than a general collection. So long as there is adequate access by lift or escalator, it is unnecessary to limit the departments to the ground level. A more important principle is to preserve the free flow of readers between the departments, and in this, the judicious use of mezzanine floors and internal glass walls may be most effective. A point to emphasise is that the subject libraries should never consider

SUBJECT ENQUIRY C W PG

SUBJECT.....

ASPECT *Practical/Theoretical/Historical/Legal/* .....

PURPOSE *Amateur/Professional/Home Use/Manufacture/Construction/Performance/ Examination*

LEVEL *Introductory/Elementary/Intermediate/Advanced/Research/* .....

LANGUAGE *French/German/Italian/Spanish/* .....

MUSIC SCORE *Miniature/Full/Parts/Instrumental/Arranged for* ...../*Vocal*

ILLUSTRATION *Coloured/Diagram/Photograph/Map/View/ Section/Plan/Elevation/Axionometric* .....

PERIODICAL *Title* .....

Year..... *Vol*..... *Part*..... *Pages*.....

Author.....

Title.....

DATE *Application*..... *Wanted by*.....

SOURCES TRIED BY READER.....

NAME ..... *Mr./Mrs./Miss*.....

ADDRESS

... .*Eccles Tel.* .....

STAFF USE ONLY Received by.....

Fig. 29. Eccles Public Library. Subject Enquiry *form for use by reader. Verso shows the sources used by the staff in tracing the answer.*

themselves self-contained units. It will be necessary frequently to make material from one department available to a reader in another, and it should never be assumed that the readers' subject approach will necessarily coincide with the subject arrangement of the library. The advantages of the 'open plan' library as so frequently erected in America, e.g. Cincinnati and New Orleans, become clear, and the need for maximum flexibility in the internal structure of the building may be considered fundamental.

The heart of a subject department system is the Enquiry Department, a 'common service' point where will be found a full catalogue of the entire system, a comprehensive collection of bibliographies, a small, but effective, quick reference collection and a highly trained staff. This Enquiry Department will have the task of assisting readers and directing them to the appropriate subject library which should, ideally, be adjacent or easily accessible within the same building. It is interesting to note that there is a movement away from the idea of siting special departments, e.g. commercial libraries, in an appropriate area of the city, away from the central libraries.

As in a general reference library, there should be adequate provision for periodicals, maps, prints, illustrations and micro-texts, and certain items of furniture will need to be designed specifically for individual departments especially Fine Arts and Music. An efficient photographic department is essential as part of reader service in a subject library and should include not only contact documentary reproduction apparatus but also the use of photostat, micro-camera and perhaps a Xerox unit. As in any library, which hopes to serve the serious reader, consideration should be given to providing areas where typewriters may be used. Carrels, though attractive, are so extravagant of space that few libraries can afford the luxury; yet the valuable work achieved in the Sheffield Reference Library carrels (see the *Annual Reports*) seems to show that the question is not one on which to be dogmatic. In the new Holborn Library, it has been found necessary to limit the length of time for which any one reader may retain the use of his carrel and new applicants have to wait a considerable period.

Routine processes will be very similar to those in the conventional lending and reference libraries, but it should be emphasised that each subject department must keep a detailed record of all enquiries and research projects handled by the department, and should index all periodical articles of importance in its own field. If books are to be obtained by the staff or the reader for use in a department other than the one where the book is located, it is necessary that a slip giving full details of the place of loan and the reader's name be left in the appropriate shelf space, or, in open libraries, at the issue counter.

The status of borrowers' tickets will need to be determined, if lending is allowed, when planning the administration of the department. Each

URBAN DISTRICT OF CANNOCK PUBLIC LIBRARIES

Author .....

Title

Publisher..... Date..... Price.....

The Librarian wishes to inform you that this book is now available and will be reserved until.....

.....Request Dated.....

Postage is payable by reader

FOR STAFF USE ONLY

A .....

T .....

Pub..... Price.....

Date.....

Class No.

Loc.

Files.....

Ord. B.....

Ord. RLB.....

Reserved until

.....Req. D.....

Fig. 30. Multi-purpose suggestion reservation or inter-library-loan-slip. *Brief, but formally worded. Is the staff section self explanatory ?*

department will usually issue its own tickets and they are not regularly inter-available.

2. LOCAL HISTORY COLLECTIONS

Undoubtedly the most common, perhaps the most successful, subject department library is the Local History Collection. All libraries, whatever their size, can collect material of local interest and in the hands of enthusiastic librarians remarkable collections have been formed. These collections are worthy of extended examination, particularly as they are undoubtedly a guide to the degree of bibliographic coverage which may be expected in other subject departments. The purpose of a Local History Department is to collect and preserve all the material that is needed to convey as complete a picture as possible of the culture (in its widest sense) of a given locality, past and present. Matters social, economic, educational, religious, biographical, these and many others are activities and aspects that rightfully belong to this department. But because our collections of local material are incomplete, the extent of our local knowledge which is based upon books and documents is also incomplete. The main reason for these deficiencies in the past lies in the general lack of appreciation of the importance and significance of local records of all kinds. The result has often been the unwitting destruction of valuable historical materials. There are signs, however, that the public is more aware now of the need to preserve such records. This awareness should be made the basis of a more dynamic approach towards the task of collecting, for the benefit of future generations, the materials of local history. This applies especially to those materials that reflect history in the making, for it cannot be overstressed that the records of the present are the materials of written history. If the laborious task of collecting such material is to reflect the myriad activities that go to make up the 'life' of a town or county, then it must be based upon a continuing and systematic effort.

A positive approach of this nature can be sustained only by a department adequately staffed from the viewpoint of qualifications and numbers. Such a standard is necessary also because the local historian must operate within bibliographically uncharted areas. Rarely for him the comforts of standard bibliographies; rather the more frustrating forays into the field of privately printed publications or the products of obscure presses.

To sum up: the librarians working in the local history department must work to the paradoxical principle that the provision of a reasonably full record of the past, for the users of the future, demands of the library staff a total immersion in the present. It is not a department for those in search of a quiet life.

The coverage of local history collections follows, generally, the pattern of administrative areas. The municipal library will concentrate upon

material dealing with and emanating from the town or city; the county library will have a wider collection comprehending the county as a whole. Where it is possible for more than one library authority to 'cover' a given locality, then it is advisable that coverage areas should be delimited and that the various authorities work within a co-ordinated acquisition policy. Co-operation on such a basis would prevent unnecessary duplication and allow for the more economic utilisation of book funds by reducing competition for the same items. Having attempted a generalisation, it must now be qualified—the fate of most generalisations in library science. Some of the larger library systems may have assumed responsibility many years ago for an area wider than that of their own administration. Liverpool Public Libraries, for example, maintain an excellent collection relating to Liverpool and, in addition, possess general collections relating to the counties of Lancashire and Cheshire; so Croydon, specialising in its own literature, is yet a fine source for Surrey County. The successful acceptance of such a responsibility depends upon the availability of adequate financial resources, the standing of the library as a centre of research relative to the wider geographical area and the distribution of other library collections. That Plymouth should be the centre of a Devon and Cornwall collection is perhaps inevitable and is of the greatest value to scholars, who should not be driven to travel unduly for their material.

Having decided upon the precise area to be covered, the next decision concerns the type of material to be collected and preserved. The statement of governing principle presents no difficulty: everything relating to the locality should be collected. Even with the best of organisation, however, chastening experience suggests that this can only be an ideal. But, this conscious striving for completeness in acquisition is characteristic of local history work and to it may be added the other distinguishing feature, the need to preserve the material that is collected. It is the act of almost indiscriminate preservation that has made the local collections of many public libraries so rich a quarry for the historian and also the novelist. A discussion of the techniques of preservation to be applied to a great diversity of materials is beyond the scope of this section, but the problem is basic to local history work. Experience in this field has led to the conclusion that some kinds of materials, e.g. newspapers, cannot be both used and preserved. Many librarians have resorted to the use of microfilm and microfiche to ensure preservation and at the same time allow of more constant use of such material.

'Get everything' is a satisfying, if rather grandiose, slogan that gives to one's work a comforting sense of certainty that has no parallel in other library departments. Specifically, what types of material are covered by this slogan? A selective listing will illustrate the variety—books, newspapers, maps, official, commercial and church records in printed and manuscript form, films, photographs, prints, posters,

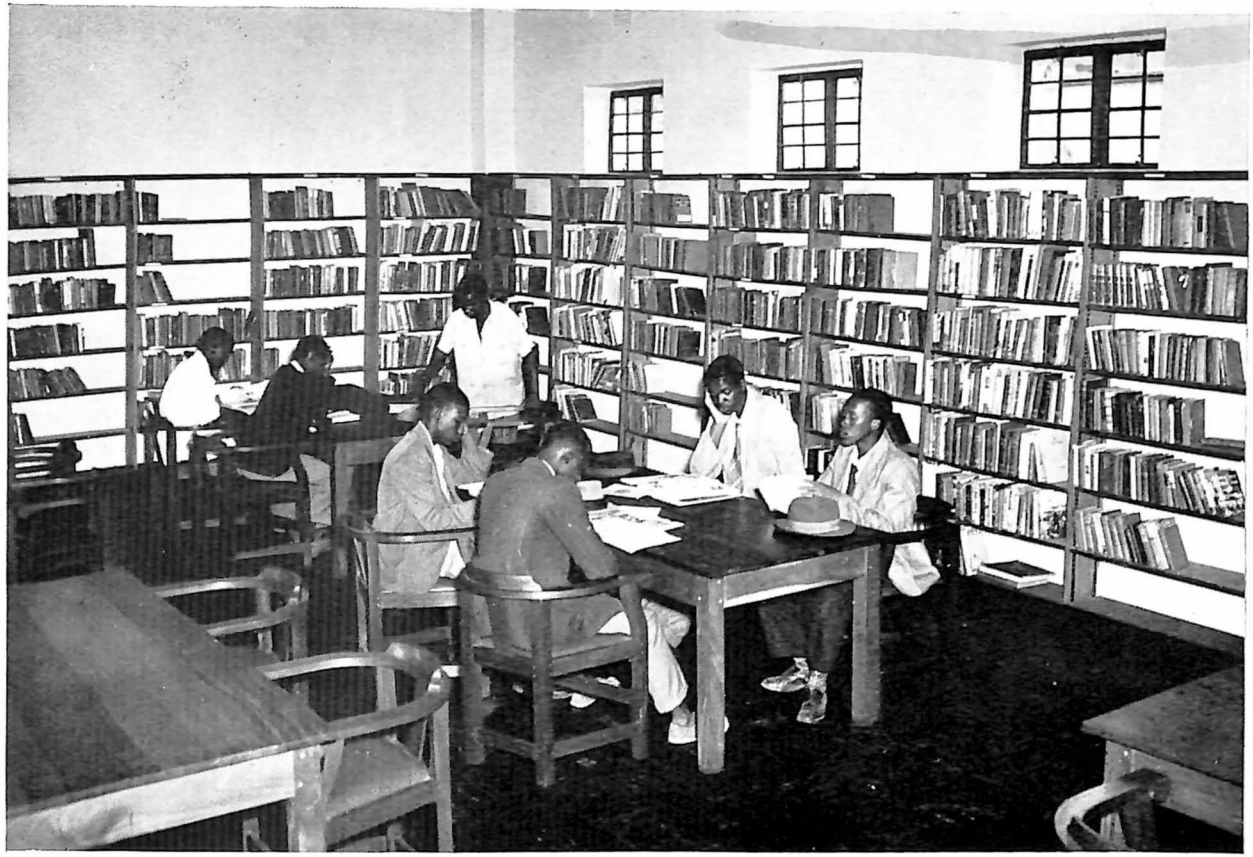


Plate No. 31.

Johannesburg City Library. *African's Library.*



Plate No. 32.

Easy charm: Rhodes Park Branch, Johannesburg. *Few American, perhaps fewer European libraries possess the grace of this single-storey building.*

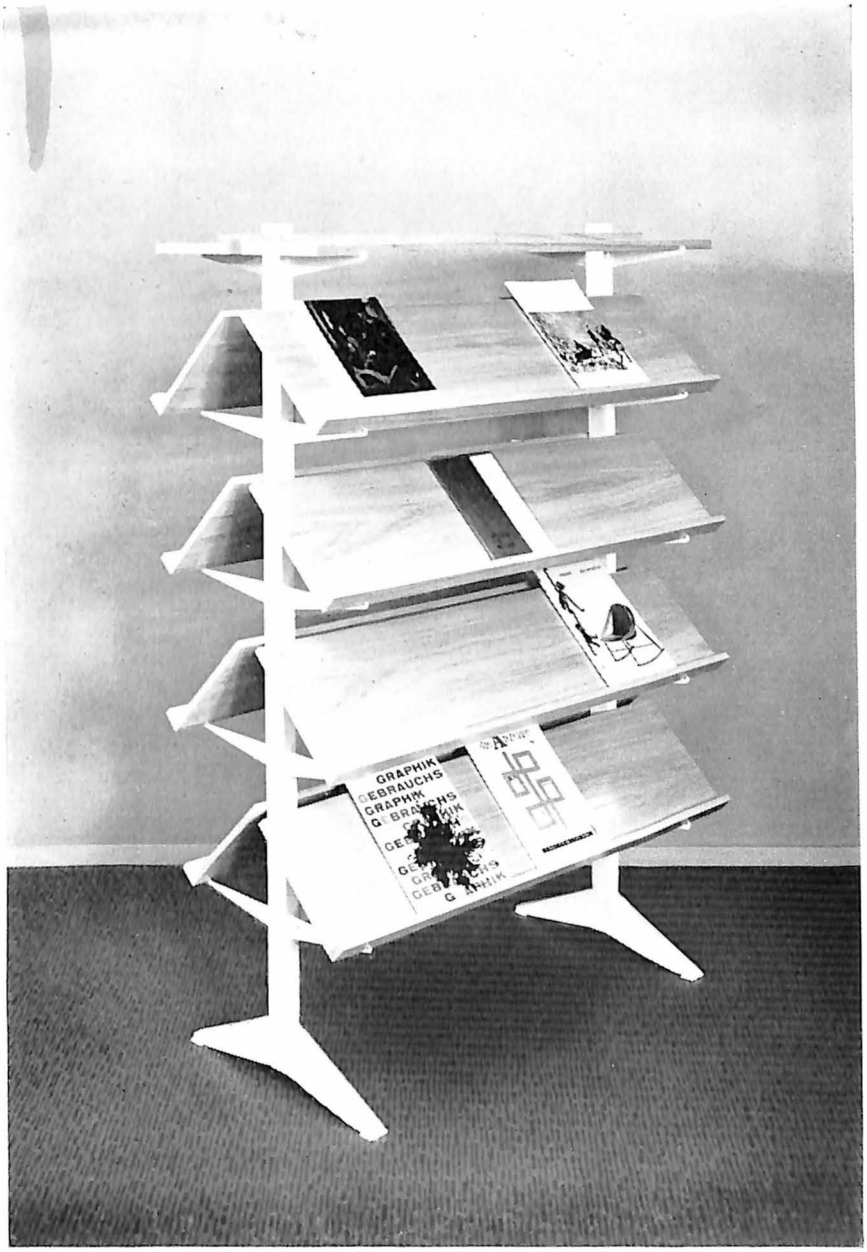


Plate No. 33.

E.K.Z. free-standing periodicals rack. *The Einkaufszentrale für Offentlichen Büchereien, Reutlingen, a co-operative organization for West German libraries produces many attractive fittings of this kind.*

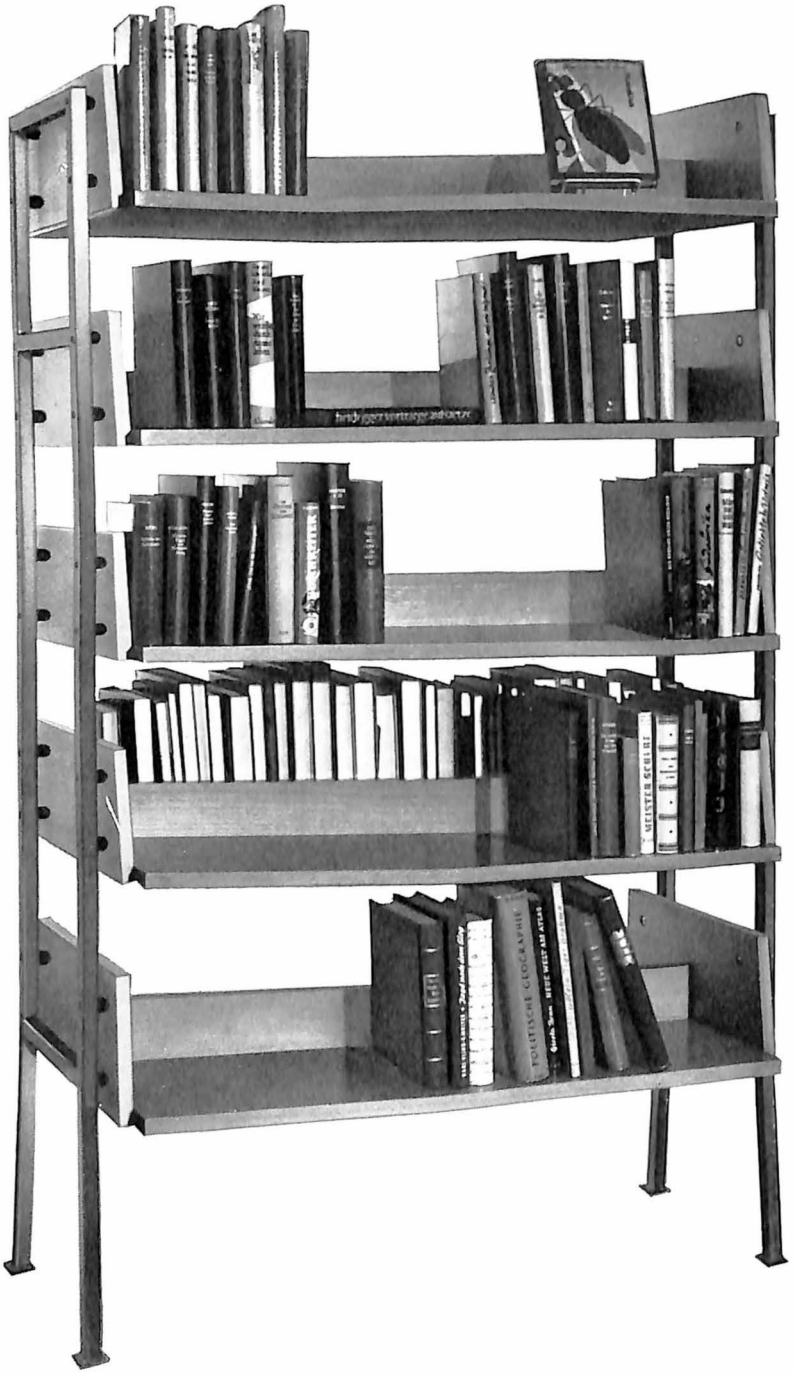


Plate No. 34.

E.K.Z. free-standing metal and wood bookshelves.

tape recordings. Items such as these are collected because they deal with and throw light upon some facet or other of what may be termed broadly the history of the area. It is usual also to collect at another level which may be called, for want of another term, bibliographical, i.e. acquiring the publications of the local presses and the works of local authors or people having close associations with the area, though such works have no local subject content.

Newspapers are a primary source of information on these themes and on many others, although the information that they contain is difficult to exploit without an index. A number of libraries have solved this particular problem by compiling their own index of local newspapers. Another method is to form a newspaper cuttings file or collection. Here the cuttings are arranged in alphabetical or classified order, bringing together at one place information on specific subjects. Not only the general public but local journalists often turn to the local history department for information about local personalities past and present, the local library, equipped with its cuttings collection being frequently the only place where such information is accessible. Cuttings are mounted usually on stiffish paper and filed in pamphlet boxes or vertical files. A collection of this kind organises the information in newspapers for efficient retrieval, but it does not do away with the need to preserve a file of local newspapers, for cuttings must be, to a certain extent, selective.

Not so obvious, because of the difficulty in tracing such works, is the information of local interest that is contained in imaginative works—novels, poems, plays. They are often of interest in revealing just those aspects of local life that are not susceptible of factual or statistical evaluation, such as the niceties of social relations between classes or the impact of new religious fervour on different members of families. Attempts have been made to survey this field and provide some bibliographical guidance, e.g. Lucien Leclaire, *General analytical bibliography of the regional novelists of the British Isles* 1800-1950, (Clermont-Ferrand, 1954) but much still remains to be done.

Maps are indispensable to a local collection. A full set of the most up-to-date editions of the largest scale Ordnance Survey maps of the area should be available. The worth of a map collection, however, lies not only in its up-to-dateness, but also in its degree of retrospective coverage. A set of all Ordnance Survey maps for an area would reveal graphically and rapidly the physical aspect of change. This is particularly the case with the Land Utilisation series. Pre-Ordnance Survey and local estate maps should be especially collected, even if only in photographic facsimile.

Photographs, films, prints and paintings have a special place in the local history department because they are often records of buildings, objects, festivals, about which little, if anything, has been written. They are always a useful supplement to the printed word and often by their

objectiveness more informative. Photographs and moving films are media which no library can afford to ignore in its attempt to capture for the future the 'feeling' of the present. Most libraries started rather late (if at all) in this field and attempts are now being made to form collections of the frequently quite fascinating nineteenth century photographs. Their acquisition requires, nowadays, a great deal of persistent searching and many public appeals, but the results are well worth the labour. The difficulties of retrospective collecting of this kind make it all the more imperative for libraries today to follow a systematic collecting policy. A modern collection should be based upon a planned photographic survey of the locality. It should then be possible to record changes that take place as they occur. The country as well as the towns and cities is being transformed at an unprecedented speed and the photographic collection should portray the various stages of that transformation. A notable piece of regional co-operation is exemplified by The Worcestershire Photographic Survey Council, which works in close relationship with the County Archive Office and has a permanent organisation to co-ordinate the activities of local photographic societies and regularly receives accounts from independent library authorities in the county regarding their own Photographic Surveys. One authority at least has found it practicable to pay 1s. 0d. for each print accepted by the Public Library for preservation. Flexibility in administration makes it best if such work can be carried out by the library or under the direct control of the library. It may also be practicable to secure the co-operation of official bodies, e.g. the Surveyor's Department or Engineer's Department—both departments using photography in the normal course of their work.

If still photographs have their value, then librarians should be prepared to consider the next logical development, a collection of moving films. This step has been taken by Swansea Public Libraries, for example. At Swansea, much re-building has taken place following the war, and the value of a 'live' record of the transformation was recognised by the Library Committee, who agreed to the purchase of cine-camera and equipment. Originally undertaken to record one specific aspect of Swansea's history—its rebuilding—the general applicability of the method was soon recognised. The filming of civic ceremonies, buildings of interest, etc. is now a recognised part of the library's work. Llanelly Public Libraries have also accepted the moving film record as part of local history work in time to record a significant industrial change in the area—the closing down of the hand tin-plate works outdated by the development of the strip-mill process. A way of life, a way of working, has disappeared, but in the local history collection is a 'complete record, on film, of the whole process of hand tinning from the rolling of the steel ingot to the finished tin plate.' The worth of such contributions to the materials of local history cannot be overstressed.

Librarians have enlisted visual aids in their attempts to record history. The tape-recorder allows them, also, to make use of sound. The field of application is, possibly, not so wide as that for film, but the sound record can make an important contribution to, for example, an understanding of the linguistic changes that take place within a community. With a tape recorder it is possible to put on record the voices of the older people speaking the local dialect soon to be overwhelmed, as are worse things, by standardisation. In addition, the older people can often possess a store of local reminiscences that add to the liveliness of our comprehension of the past. Liverpool Public Libraries have tapped this vein of local knowledge and have managed to persuade such people to record their memories of incidents, customs, etc. of the past. In a society which has quietly revolutionised social relationships, sound record of a different age with dissimilar social values has every historical justification, not the least being that the 'voice of the common man', either generalised out of recognition or ignored completely in history textbooks, is to be heard clear and plain.

Much of local history is to be found in the records of organisations, associations, families; the pluralities that are the foundation of communal living. The records, for example, of official bodies; church records; business and industrial records. Such records are called archives and may be written, typescript or printed. Records of this kind have found their way to public libraries over the years, but systematic collection, exploitation and preservation of archives could be undertaken only by the larger libraries. Archives demand special storage treatment and their handling, specialist staff. Of necessity, the smaller libraries ignored both, yet there existed an obvious need to collect and preserve archives on a wider scale than the rather haphazard activities of public libraries suggested. The result was the growth of a professional body of archivists responsible for just such a task. This growth has had a marked effect in counties and other authorities where County Record Offices have been established independent of existing local collections in public libraries. A number of writers have deplored the separation of functions that could well have been combined, especially where a public library had already developed a useful archives collection. The possibility of duplication of effort is a further criticism—since the definition of what is and what is not archival material seems capable of individual interpretation. However justified such criticism may be it is now too late to change matters. The only course open is that of wholehearted co-operation between archivist and librarian, especially in matters of acquisition.

The critics of separately administered archives collections accept that the collection and preservation of archives demands specialised knowledge and techniques which are outside the province of librarians *qua* librarians. They do not accept the view that such collections cannot be administered successfully within the public library structure. They

point to the examples of Liverpool, Sheffield and Leeds, where trained archivists are employed by the library and where the libraries have been recognised as approved repositories by the Master of the Rolls. In addition to the administrative arguments, criticism is also based upon a view that stresses the unity of local history; that the distinction between archives and other material is artificial and that all should be regarded as contributions to knowledge of local affairs. Such a view tends perhaps to disregard the legalistic nature of archives, but it is supported by the successful archives departments of a number of public libraries.

The problem appears incapable of definite resolution at this stage. The position may be summed up as follows. Where a library can provide adequate storage facilities and can employ qualified staff, then there appears to be no reason why archives should not form part of a local collection. Where a public library cannot provide these facilities, or where the libraries have failed to recognise their responsibilities in this field, then independent Record Offices are the answer.

If the local history department differs from other library departments in a number of respects, it shares with them the responsibility of organising its material to permit of the rapid finding of an item of information. Such organisation, of course, is based upon the catalogue and upon the arrangement or classification of material.

Classification: most librarians have compiled special classification schemes for their local collections because general classification schemes do not provide the necessary detail and cannot cater for the varying needs of each locality. Sometimes such schemes are modifications of a general classification, usually the Dewey Classification scheme; others are original systems evolved by librarians to meet their own special needs. Whatever the method adopted, the governing principle underlying classification remains the same—the classification should group the material in a fashion that conforms, as nearly as possible, to the pattern of approach by the staff and the public. Experience suggests that the initial approach may vary depending upon the kind of collection. In a collection devoted to a single town, the place is understood and a subject classification, providing helpful groupings, will suffice. Then again, a county collection or one embracing more than one definable locality must take another consideration into account. Should the primary classification be by place or subject? Are requests for information more likely to be phrased in terms of place and subject or will the approach be through subject qualified by place? Although both approaches will be encountered, on balance it appears more useful to regard place as the significant grouping characteristic; each place being sub-divided by subject.

On the basis of such reasoning, the essentials of a classification scheme can be worked out. There must be a general subject section for those books, etc. that treat of a topic generally, i.e. applicable to the county as

a whole, e.g. a general history of education within the county. The subject classification so formed can then be applied as needed, to the towns, villages, parishes of the county, such areas being distinguished notationally.

For convenience and to allow of rapid retrieval, it is preferable to include in the general sequence books by local authors (i.e. those not dealing with a topic of local interest) arranged alphabetically. The scattering of such works under place of birth hardly seems worthwhile. The narrower local relationships can, of course, be indicated in the catalogue. The same may be said of books printed in the area.

A scheme of this kind can be based upon existing classification—though not without modification. The normal scheme, say Dewey Classification, can become the basis of the general subject arrangement, and can then be applied to the notationally distinguished localities, e.g. History of Education in Xshire, X370: History of Education in a given sub-division of Xshire, XA370. The disadvantage of this method is its notational clumsiness, introducing as it does lengthy numbers and lack of economy, in that large sections would have little relevance to a local history collection. Drastic modifications may overcome such defects to a degree, but the amount of change that is necessary to produce acceptable schedules suggests that it would be better for each library to evolve its own special classification. Some help in this can be found in A. J. Philip's *Outline of a scheme for the classification of local collections.*

Cataloguing: the first decision concerns the form of catalogue to adopt—dictionary or classified. Despite expressions of conviction on the subject, it appears that neither form possesses an overwhelming superiority, for, properly compiled, both forms should prove adequate as a staff tool, though it is possible that the dictionary form is regarded with greater favour by the public. This is a factor of some importance because catalogues of local collections are often printed and sold.

The normal run of books, periodicals, pamphlets and newspapers presents few problems to the cataloguer, who must, however, ensure that all the useful local information contained in a work is revealed. Often, in local history work, items of information are found in the strangest of sources. It is the cataloguer's task to make this information accessible through skilful subject cataloguing—analogous to the calendering process in archive work.

General cataloguing will be of a fuller nature than in a lending department because many of the items possess a bibliographical significance—rare editions; products of short-lived local presses; polemical pamphlets that have to be related to others, etc. Since the catalogues of most local collections are printed and used away from the collection itself, it is as well to provide as much information as possible.

Difficulties arise when the material handled does not allow of the normal author/title approach, e.g. photographs and prints. The

approach to non-book materials of this kind is usually through subject and the cataloguer must base his entry upon this feature: the subject itself will form the heading; the descriptive entry carrying details of the print or photograph—description and direction of view, date,process, size, artist or photographer, if local.

3. BOOK RARITIES

Very frequently, especially in the last century, public libraries attracted donations of rare and valuable books from local bibliophiles. In some cases, these gifts were comparatively trifling and have remained mere isolated specimens, elsewhere other donations were thereby encouraged and the Library Committee emboldened to make special provision for their conservation or even expansion. Thus, the far-sighted resolution of the Birmingham Libraries Committee in 1878 to acquire specimens of printing and of bibliographical interest has resulted in an unusually strong collection of incunabula and books printed before 1700, quite apart from the specialised Shakespeare Collection and the representative specimens of contemporary fine printing. Such riches are beyond the reach of most libraries unless private benevolence assists. Nevertheless, it is quite feasible on a modest scale to collect specimens of fine book production, e.g. those of the Gregynog Press, at a reasonable cost and to acquire some of the admirable modern facsimile editions of famous books of the past. If suitably displayed, these items are of great public interest and in particular form an admirable introduction to children in the use of libraries.

When original copies of book rarities and finely produced books are obtained, it is necessary to formulate a positive policy to control their use and conservation. The whole collection may be housed in an especially luxurious room, as in the Hornby Library at Liverpool; or more modest shelving in the reference library stack may be all that is available. However actual storage is achieved, it is essential to guard against theft, over-crowded shelves, dust, undue heat or damp. Especially rare items, such as a Block Book or a Shakespeare Folio, should be stored in a fire-proof safe and will no doubt be specified in the library insurance policy. Fine bindings and fore-edge painted volumes must be enclosed in specially made slip cases; elaborate metal ornaments and clasps safeguarded; vellum covers adequately supported. These are elementary, but necessary, maintenance routines that are enlarged upon in Chapter XVIII.

Public use of these treasures should be carefully supervised; failing separately staffed Rare Book Rooms, a senior member of staff should always be at hand to procure the book for the reader and to remain unobtrusively nearby while the volume is in use. Now that all libraries can command the services of a photographic unit, tracing should never be allowed.

All books of bibliographical interest and certainly those earlier than 1700 should have a catalogue expertly compiled by an experienced bibliographer and, if need be, experts on, for example, early bindings, should be called in to advise. To these early books the normally accepted catalogue code rules are not applicable and the likely users will be those already familiar with bibliographic method. Nor is it possible adequately to describe an early printed book on the conventional sized catalogue card. For such material, whose acquisition will in any event be slow and comparatively infrequent, a loose-leaf book catalogue is more satisfactory than any other form. If possible, holdings of rare book material should be recorded in appropriate national or regional published bibliographies.

Order on the shelves will best be determined by actual size and, within that arrangement, by date of publication; the former characteristic being for convenience of storage, the latter for the user.

CHAPTER XI

THE REFERENCE LIBRARY

> If to knowledge, courtesy and firmness, your Librarian can add a sympathy with the men who need information; and a pride in helping them, he will fill a very happy office, and his Library will be a great success.
>
> J. D. Mullins 1869

THE public Reference Library was originally somewhat vaguely thought of as a collection of books to which literary workers could have access failing proximity to one of the great national collections. Enthusiastic pioneers of the library movement anticipated donations comparable to those which had enriched these great libraries, and assumed that local pride would foster the establishment of scholarly institutions wherever the Public Libraries Acts were adopted. Significantly enough it was assumed all users would know how to use the library resources unaided. With a handful of notable exceptions, locally financed libraries have not fulfilled these expectations, and in the completely changed conditions of today a definition of the reference service and an estimate of the public demand for it may well be desired. It should be noted how tardily (post 1876) the idea arose of a library staff competent and willing to assist readers in their use of the library resources and how slow was the reaction of the library authority to the increased educational standards stimulated by modern competitive society. Parallel with these factors are the vigorous educational attempts to interest all students, scientific, technological, humanistic, in the importance of acquaintance with the literature of their subjects. In the schools, colleges and universities, in industry and commerce there is almost universal appreciation of the need for knowledge of what has been discovered and made available in print. This has resulted in a wide variety of sources of information being made available for those most concerned. The national government, through the Department of Scientific and Industrial Research with its vast number of subsidiaries and grant-aided Research Associations, and through the copiously published work of the main Departments, is perhaps the largest single agency originating and distributing knowledge. Industrial firms have their own research departments (geared to their own requirements) and numerous societies, professional and scientific, add to the list of 'specialised sources of information'. All these, however, are producers of knowledge and it does not follow that adequate distribution channels exist, or that they are used correctly.

Does the public reference library find its rightful place here? Is it the function of the reference library to develop into a positive agency for promoting the dissemination of knowledge and to abandon the rather passive attitude hitherto adopted? If so, who are the readers who will use the services and from what part of society do they come and with what purpose? These are questions that must concern the public librarian particularly in districts where apparently competing services are most adequately provided, and the answers must depend to a great extent on a series of further questions: (*a*) the nature of the services provided by the public library; (*b*) the book stock available; (*c*) the distribution of the public libraries; (*d*) the terms under which the public library may be used. Underlying all these questions is the problem of financial resources, especially urgent in a local government context.

The general answer seems, from observation in some of the largest reference libraries, that there is a great mass of the public unable, apparently, to satisfy its reading requirements from other sources. Undergraduates and technical college students, industrial information staff, journalists, private research workers are all to be found in the reading rooms of a large library. It is not so clear whether *all* these readers are in fact engaged in equally important work, but it is to the public library they turn, either because they have no access to another library, or there is an insufficient supply of the requisite books made available in their own professional surroundings, or the hours of opening of other libraries are less favourable. While these conditions obtain it is reasonable to expect public library provision; but it is also reasonable to expect that when financial resources are limited, provision should be geared to the maximum requirements of the more serious workers. The public reference library should lead readers towards material not perhaps otherwise provided rather than seek mere popularity and massive circulation figures; it may indeed, if carefully managed, become the 'university' of the people as so sanguinely imagined by the pioneers.

The main elements of a library are stock and services, and it will be convenient to consider the Reference Library under these heads, leaving buildings and suggested plans for treatment in Chapter VIII, and referring to Chapter V for staff qualifications.

As more specific principles of book selection are considered in Chapter XVI it will be sufficient here to consider (i) the several types and uses of Reference Books; (ii) the value of the library in relation to the volume and range of its stock; (iii) the emphasis that must be placed on providing sources of knowledge as much as on providing the actual knowledge itself; and (iv) that no library can hope to be self-sufficient.

These services are illustrated in the complexity of the large reference library services and start with the 'Quick Reference' collection of Directories, Year Books, general Encyclopaedias, Atlases, Time-tables and similar works designed to give immediate factual answers. Next is

the supply of standard texts, in demand by students, literary or scientific, sometimes prescribed for higher examinations, but always regarded as well-known authorities for the subject. Beyond this will feature the mass of past acquisitions which will so often form the raw material for the genuine research scholar. Current acquisitions must aim at continuing the representation of pure knowledge, especially in the pamphlet and periodicals collections, and, in addition, provide foundations for future collections. This legacy of responsibility from past acquisition policy together with the current need to provide for the future lies at the back of the financial and accommodation difficulties which beset the larger libraries. Nevertheless, the emphasis in acquisition is on completeness of acquisition regardless of form of presentation or language.

From this point it is clear that the value of the library depends on the consistency of acquisition in its collections (ii, *supra*). It is impossible to specify any material which might not ultimately *at some time* be of use to *some* person.

Failing this ideal (and most libraries must fail) emphasis must fall on select provision of the sources of knowledge. These will be guides to sources, subject and personal, in the widest sense of bibliographic control. It is necessary to know not only what is available, but frequently the value of the contents and the location of the material. Only the strongest collection of bibliographic resources can be relied upon to give guaranteed service, and most libraries will consider outside assistance by means of co-operation schemes.

Within the library certain specialised services are desirable to extend existing bibliographic sources, particularly the compilation of indexes to such categories as local newspapers, trade names and unexpected sources of information. Such work is costly in staff time and labour but is extremely valuable if continued systematically over long periods. Similarly an information file of great worth can be compiled by intelligent scanning of 'official' news as reported in parliamentary proceedings, or in the financial and specialised columns of newspapers. The matter concerned may be extracted and preserved in a Newscuttings File (especially useful for the Local Collection), a convenient means of organising material fragile in form and difficult to organise for use.

That the staff should be knowledgeable in the exploitation of the stock is axiomatic, but in the very large collections much will depend on the catalogue as regards analytical entries and adequacy of subject headings.

A Reference Library will attempt then to collect a fully representative stock of current and retrospective guides to and accounts of human knowledge, regardless of physical format, and will by conventional library methods organise this material for use, but will extend classification and cataloguing to greater detail than will be necessary in a Lending Library, and will also supplement the catalogue by reliance on printed bibliographic guides and by indexes compiled by the staff.

Such a collection poses problems of storage and organisation for use by readers. With notable exceptions it has been policy to present limited open access to the shelves in the reading rooms, and to display thereon standard encyclopaedias, dictionaries and multi-volumed works of authority. Behind the staff service counter will be a collection of 'quick reference' works, directories in great demand, year-books, general fact finding works which it is desirable to safeguard. The great mass of the collection will be in a storage stack inaccessible to the general reader, the library ceasing to be a 'reference' library in the literal sense. More modern policies have moved away from this large reading room and general book store concept to that of special subject departments with larger open access collections. This increased emphasis on maximum access to open access collections of books is a most welcome development in library organisation and will undoubtedly imply far-reaching changes in reader-service as well as routine work. Subject Departments are considered in Chapter X, and as will be seen to a great extent depend on the availability of a new building or a drastic replanning of the old.

The Reference Library must further be prepared to store books and other non-book material as discussed in Chapter XII, and continual additions with, in certain large collections, almost complete absence of discarding, will create a very considerable problem for the librarian. No serious worker would contest the value of such a library formed over many years, but financial implications may cause drastic modifications of the ideal. There appear few economies possible in micro-reduction, except of newspaper or periodical files (public libraries will find the rather limited range of available titles quite expensive), and it appears the large library will have (i) to include stack accommodation capable of extension in the future, or generous enough to last many years; (ii) to acquire storage accommodation on a site independent of the library; (iii) to support a co-operative storage scheme in conjunction with other libraries to enable duplicate copies of little used material to be discarded. All librarians would prefer to keep their books on the premises, and many plans have been devised to solve the problem. None, as yet, appears to meet all the difficulties successfully.

Certain steps have been taken towards co-operation by inaugurating regional Subject Specialisation Schemes (see Chapter VI), but of more immediate interest is co-ordination of local resources under the auspices of the public reference libraries as in the Sheffield Interchange Organisation (known as SINTO and covering the principal industrial libraries of South Yorkshire and the Sheffield City Library); the Hull interchange scheme; the Co-operative Industrial and Commercial Research and Information Service (CICRIS) of Acton and certain west London libraries; HADIS, a similar scheme for Huddersfield and district; TALIC for Newcastle-on-Tyne and area; LINOSCO for North

Staffordshire. These schemes[1], differing in detail, have in common the ideal of avoidance of duplication of expensive, rare or little used material; and the speedy location and supply of information. The advantages of co-operative purchase and processing on the analogy of libraries in the United States (e.g. the Minnesota and the MidWest Inter-Library Center) have not been explored as fully as might be expected. The Reference Library is an excellent agency for organising such services, and benefits in turn by a great accession of resources in books and skilled staff. An essential element in this work is the telephone, in the competent use of which all staff should be trained. The development known as Telex, which provides a record, in printed form, of enquiries from subscribers at any time of the day or night, and to which answers are given, when practicable, in the same form, is of far-reaching importance in inter-library work. By it, libraries are enabled to serve enquirers at any distance. The running cost is that of the actual calls, the equipment being rented from the Post Office Telephones Department at approximately £170 p.a.

A development of considerable interest for the future is the subscription scheme offered at Liverpool City Libraries (LADSIRLAC). Under this scheme subscribers are, according to the amount of annual payment, entitled to borrow material from the Reference Libraries, to receive the Documents Bulletin, an indexing service based on the periodicals taken by the libraries; and, additionally, command the skill of the Reference Library staff in literature searching.[2] The nearest analogy is perhaps that of the John Crerar Library, Chicago, where an hourly rate is quoted for this research service.

Developments of the Reference Library are clearly along co-operative lines and towards specialised subject work, and appointments of Subject Librarians have already been made at Liverpool and in some of the Metropolitan Boroughs; in more general terms, other libraries have their Technical, Commercial and similarly designated officers. Such a policy will make heavy demands on the intellectual equipment of the staff, and may indeed, as suggested in Chapter IV, encourage the separation of 'professional' and 'non-professional' staff, where the establishment is sufficiently large. Organisation problems posed by the development of Subject Department Libraries are considered in greater detail in Chapter X.

This problem of staff recruitment is likely to be most acute in the smaller authorities, and it is even questioned at times whether these should seek to provide more than a 'Quick Reference' library service and a 'Local Collection'. In view of the preponderence of medium and small authorities in this country, and the very small number that are

[1] See also Ch. VII *County Libraries* for the Hertfordshire and other county schemes of co-operation with Technical College Libraries for reference services.

[2] Each year a notable series of public Technical Information lectures is held in collaboration with local professional societies: outstanding lectures are published.

large enough to finance the service so far envisaged, it is proper to consider how far these limitations will inhibit the Reference Library, and what may in fact be done. The most immediate problems are the cost in books, of staff salaries and the proximity of other large libraries. Geographically the distribution of the great libraries is bad, and large areas of the country are without reasonably easy access to a sound reference library. Even worse is the small representation of important literature as revealed by the National Central Library questionnaires on, for example, bibliographic reference books.

Professional opinion seems to agree that there is a minimum of 3,000 books[3] essential to a collection of basic sources of information, but these would need to be supplemented by greater coverage in subjects of local concern as well as by the usual 'Quick Reference' works. If such limited collections are kept current by adequate replacement, the annual burden would not be great in relation to the service given (supposing suitable staff and premises are available), but it would be necessary to note the large initial capital outlay. Such considerations have before now decided an authority not to attempt a Reference Service in view of the existence of a very large library within a reasonable distance. One of the greatest weaknesses in professional studies is the lack of statistics as to the cost of any such service. All historical evidence tends to demonstrate that no library authority has ever adequately considered the cost of the proper service; the approach is always what can be done within given limits regardless of the doctrine of minimum expenditure. In library work this is the most wasteful approach, and results in numerous semi-derelict reference libraries to the general detriment of the whole service. It has been demonstrated, e.g. at Rugby, that a very useful service can be given if there is adequate support from local industry. (Note that the 'special' libraries provided by the firms are not always available to the more junior student employees.) The key to the situation is co-operation as in the schemes previously mentioned and an enhanced awareness of existing national resources, e.g. services from Aslib, various subscription services such as Law Notes or Lewis's Medical Library. A Reference Librarian with small local resources has frequently to be much more ingenious and more knowledgeable as to the sources of information than the comparable officer in a large system. It is in the small system that the fullest value should and must be extracted from all material (newspapers, magazines, etc.) purchased, from all free distribution offers e.g. via Unesco, DSIR, BNBC and private industry, by indexing and classifying to the fullest extent. If the locality has a clearly defined special interest, e.g. in industrial or commercial undertakings of particular subject grouping, or the provision of information services within these firms is lacking, then the public reference library may profitably develop its stock in the appropriate fields of knowledge

[3] Walford, Ranganathan *et al.*

even if thereby a less general subject coverage is achieved. These developments compare essentially with Subject Departments in the larger systems. If real service to the public is to be undertaken, the vital need for a trained and competent staff increases as the size of the library diminishes.

Of particular interest to all public libraries, and usually associated with the Reference Library is the Local Collection, i.e. the exhaustive collection and organisation of all material (books, pamphlets, archives, written records and pictures) relating to the district.

Considerable efforts have been made systematically by librarians for many years in this activity, and the extent of the collections is widely recognised, especially by research workers and authors. It may be commented that the size of the Local Collection is an indication of the extent to which the subject departments might be developed if funds and accommodation permitted.

The organisation of the Local Collection is primarily considered earlier among Subject Departments, and the problems of classification and cataloguing are treated in Chapter XVII.

As part of the small or medium sized Reference Library, this collection may be considered as the most obvious contact with the general public, especially when actively used by the staff as the material for lectures on local history. Such 'extension' activities can be most valuable in demonstrating the services available and in gaining the goodwill of the community.

The *use* of the Reference Library must be controlled, even if the book collections are to a great degree on open access, to safeguard public property, to ensure orderly conduct, and to maintain certain obvious records indicating the extent of the work performed by the department.

Whilst all public libraries regard their Reference Libraries as open to all comers, most of the larger authorities require some check on entrance and exit. This is usually a simple card (protected by a substantial cover of a transparent plastic) stating that the card is to be given up on requisitioning a book and must be obtained on the return of the books used, as departure from the library depends on surrendering the card at the exit wicket.

A slip as illustrated (Fig. 32.), though the design may vary according to the individual internal organisation of the library, will effectively ensure full control over stock in so far as the lower half is removed by the assistant who locates the book in the stack and is left in its place; the upper half is paired with an admission card and filed under the name of the reader until the card is reclaimed by him. When books are reshelved the two halves of the Requisition Slip should be assembled for checking by a senior assistant, thus ensuring that all books are replaced accurately.

A useful refinement is to provide each reading place in the library with a number which must be inserted on the Requisition Slip. Books may

No. 158

BIRMINGHAM REFERENCE LIBRARY
ADMISSION TICKET

Books other than those on open shelves are obtainable by completing requisition slips available both on counter and catalogue. Hand the slip(s) to a member of the staff who will take this ticket from you when you receive a book.

All books so requisitioned must be returned to the counter before leaving and this ticket will be returned to you. It must be given up at the exit.

Fig. 31. Reference Library, Admission Ticket typical of a large city reference library.

This simple procedure may be linked with the Requisition Slip as shown:—

BIRMINGHAM REFERENCE LIBRARY—Requisition Slip No E 71323

PLEASE USE CAPITAL LETTERS AND FILL IN ONE SLIP FOR EACH TITLE

Reader's Surname with Initials _____

Full Address _____

_____ Date _____ 195

Author and Title of book

Where a set is concerned, specify volumes required if possible

Catalogue number of work	FOR STAFF USE	Location	Served by	Returned to
			_____ items	_____ items
Catalogue number of work		Location	Served by	Replaced by
			_____ items	_____ items

P45215

Slip No E 71323

Fig. 32. Reference Library, Requisition Slip: perforated lower half.

then be served directly to the place concerned and unnecessary waiting of readers at the service counter be abolished. Some libraries apply a time stamp to the slips as received in order to check the length of time involved in locating and serving the book. The main use of this device would seem to be when attempting to explain undue delays to readers. In itself it can perhaps discourage dilatory staff; but good senior staff control would seem of more effect. This is particularly desirable if, as in

a Subject Department library, there are several reading rooms. Stock control may otherwise be difficult due to the need of taking books from one room to another.

The *furniture* of the Reading Rooms should be dignified, of good design and hard wearing. It should provide ample accommodation for the readers of books, leaving specialised materials, e.g. manuscripts, rare books, magazines, micro-reductions to be used where the particular equipment or facilities will be available.

Readers greatly appreciate chairs designed to facilitate study, i.e. of the correct height and angle in relation to the tables. It is desirable that sufficient table space be given (3′ × 2′ 6″)—serious workers need more than one book and have their own papers—and that the tables be arranged (passage ways of 3′ 6″) so that there are no more than a maximum of four readers per side, with ample room (3′) to allow chairs to be pushed back. Metal furniture is to be avoided, as should be the old-fashioned heavy wooden armchairs which still survive. Much attention has been given by equipment manufacturers to the problem of office furniture and some sound modern simple designs are available. It would seem that not even the contemporary man-made fibres have yet produced an upholstery fabric suitable for public use. The surface of the tables should be easily cleaned and, if possible, resistant to stains. Sound polished oak still seems one of the best materials, though it is expensive and of rather monotonous appearance in a large reading room. An inlaid surface is preferable, but it stains easily; plastic materials do not appear to have been extensively tried. For the sloped reading surfaces of atlas cases or newspaper files, green baize is an admirable material.

All reading tables should be supplied with adjustable book rests which are of great convenience to the reader, who probably finds the flat table surface forces him into an unnatural attitude when reading large books.

A large library will need to make provision for almost continual repair and repolishing of both tables and chairs in the public departments.

The non-book materials within the library and the facilities which modern ideas of librarianship consider should be available to readers require specialised items of equipment or furniture other than the minimum furnishings of tables and chairs.

Of this equipment perhaps the most important is that concerned with Document Copying, and its near ally, the use of micro-photographic texts.

All the larger public libraries now provide document copying services to their readers (though restricted to some extent by the provisions of the Copyright Acts) thus saving much time and unnecessary labour. The usual services offer a choice between (i) photostat, (ii) dye-line copying. The first of these offers permanence and variety of size, but is relatively dear; the second is not of reliable permanence, and gives copies of the same size as the original, but is cheaper and does not involve the library

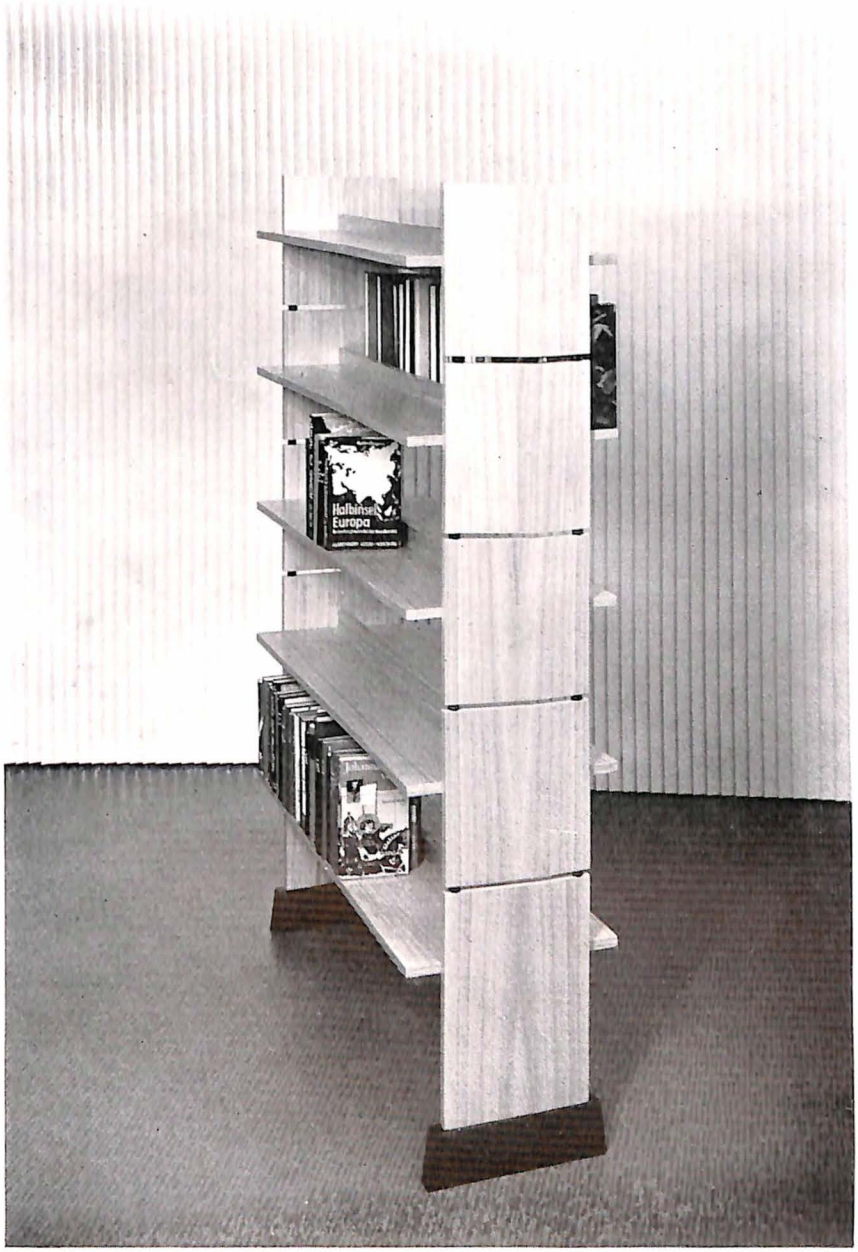


Plate No. 35.

E.K.Z. free-standing shelving unit. *Compare domestic, rather than library, furnishing in Britain.*

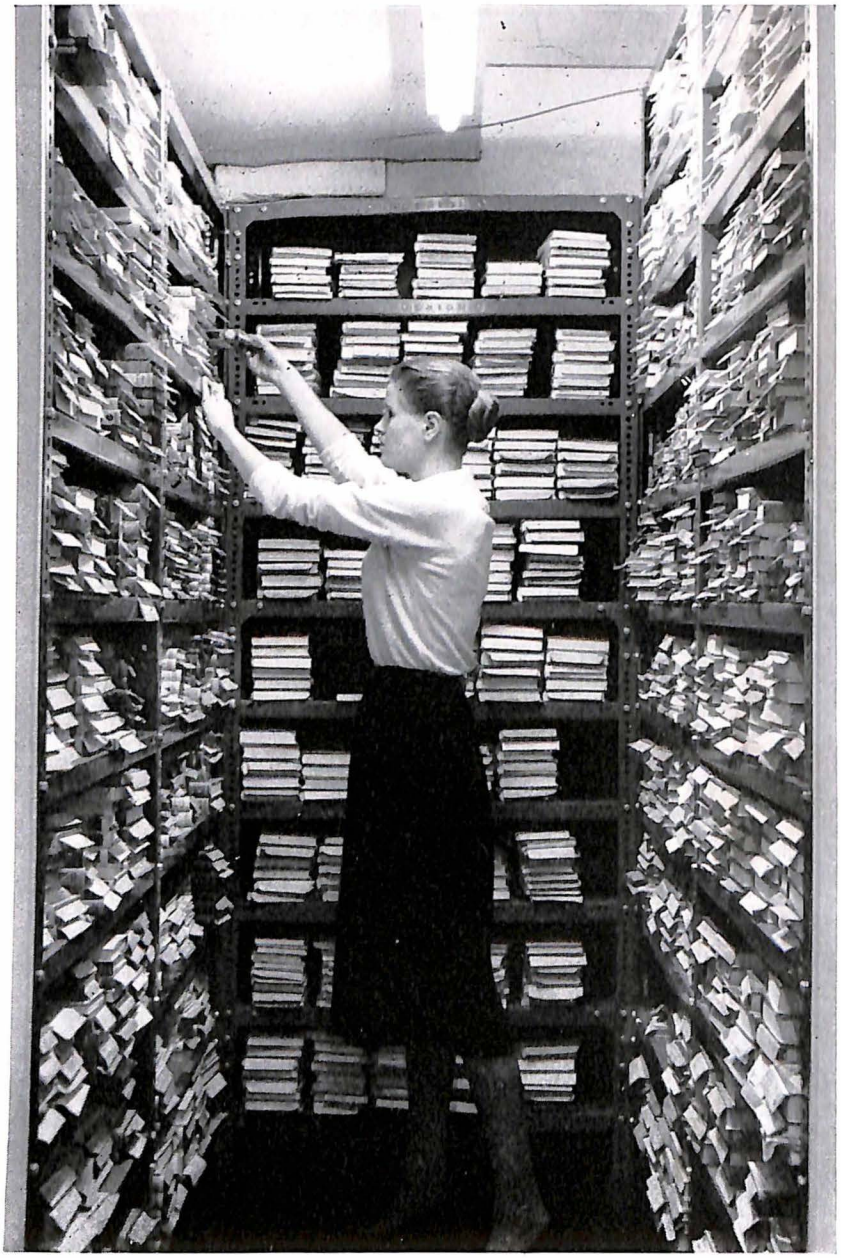


Plate No. 36.

Meccano-type metal racking in a book store: Dexion shelving in The Times Bookshop, London.

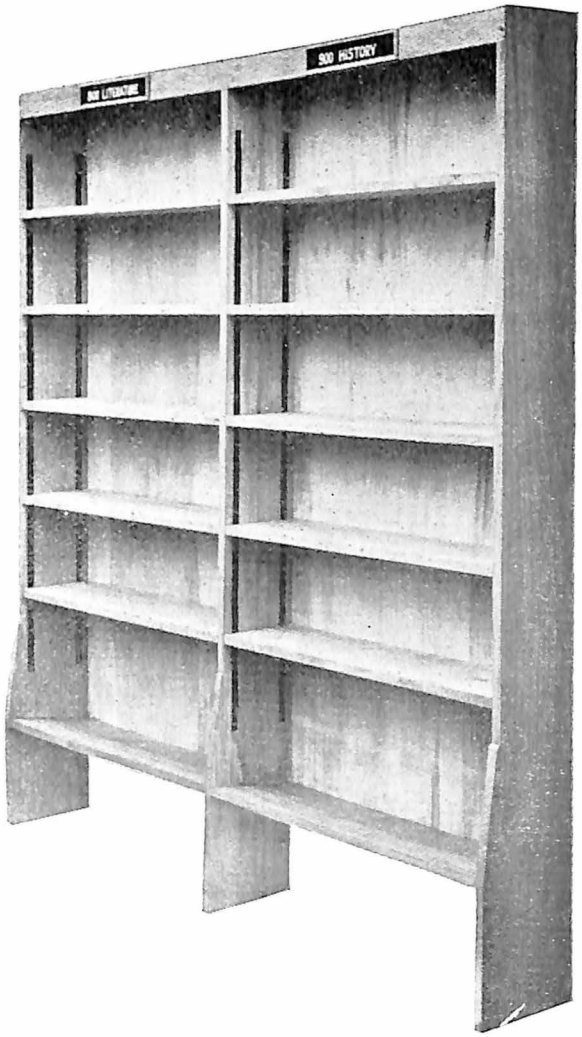


Plate No. 37.

Libraco wallcase. *Contrast plate* 34, *a completely differing concept of showing display rather than storage.*

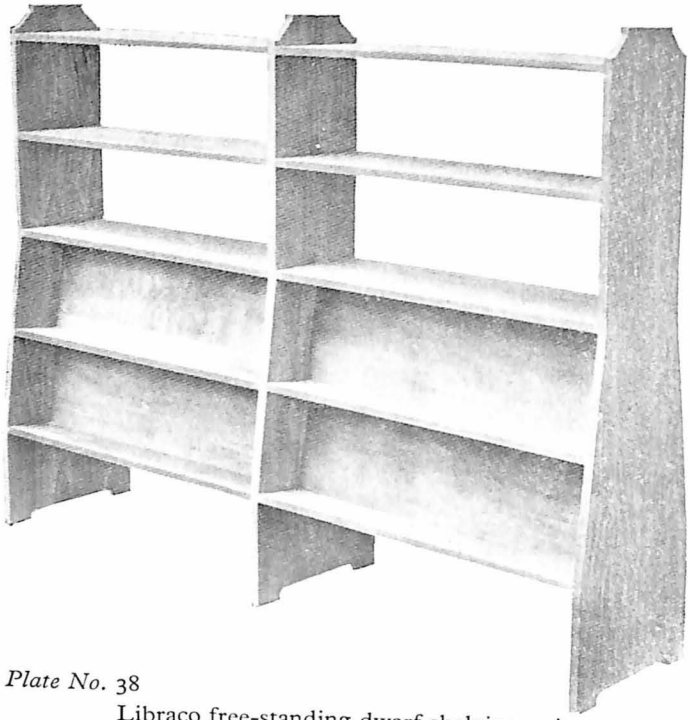


Plate No. 38

Libraco free-standing dwarf shelving unit.



Plate No. 39.

Libraco atlas case.

staff in techniques of photography. A great advantage of the non-photographic processes is this relative simplicity of equipment and operation.

Many varieties of copying apparatus exist and are being constantly added to by the highly competitive manufacturers; the librarian will make his choice according to the nature of the work likely to be required, i.e. copying from books or single papers, the number of copies required, the size of the copy, the permanence required, the treatment which the original will have to undergo in the machine, and, above all, costs in equipment, accommodation and staff.

Since the last war the use of micro-reduced texts has increased enormously among research workers, and it is now customary to expect provision for use of micro film, micro card, micro fiche and micro print, the principal forms now current. Whilst it is possible to obtain a multi purpose reader for all these forms (card as well as film), such a machine is comparatively expensive, and only those libraries which anticipate substantial use are likely to purchase one, for design is constantly being improved, and present models have not yet been widely tested in public libraries.

At present it is advisable to instal micro readers of any kind in comparatively secluded parts of the library and to guard against their misuse. It is unnecessary to avoid daylight, but it is essential to safeguard the power supply, either by using a wall or ceiling source. Trailing flex in any public department is a potential source of accidents.

Details of apparatus both for document copying and for using micro-texts are published in the F.I.D. *Manual of Documentary Reproduction.* Current developments are usually reported in *Office Management* or, in an impartial critical manner, in the *O & M Bulletin* issued by H.M. Treasury. The literature of the subject is vast, but the position to date of publication is well summarised in Verry *Document copying*, 1958.

Other specialised equipment relates primarily to maps and newspaper files, the storage of which is considered in Chapter XII. From the public point of view there must be adequately large reading surfaces on which such material may be consulted. Such surfaces must be at a reasonable height (4′ 6″ at the lowest) and at an angle which will permit the whole printed area to be read. As care must be taken that bound atlases or newspaper files do not slip, the slope must be covered with a material such as baize.

Copying of maps by tracing is undesirable, and, if copying services are available, largely unnecessary. If hand copying must be done, it should be permitted only if a transparent sheet of xylonite is placed on the map surface.

Service to Readers in the Reference Library is a concept of quite modern growth and is subject to very wide variations of interpretation. The problem is complex, involving the supply of staff, their competence

at providing reliable information, the responsibility of undertaking this, and, as sometimes urged, the equity of giving special service to some users rather than to all. The last argument, however, seems outmoded and can carry little weight so long as no positive barriers are raised against enquirers.

More serious is the supply and competence of staff, especially in view of the increased emphasis on Subject Departments (see ante Chapter X), but even if the most elementary assistance to readers is to be given, it is fundamentally important that the basic responsibility of accuracy and verification of facts is understood by all the staff. Training in the sources of information and of the value of the library stock to hand is always practicable and will obtain surprisingly good results from the average assistant; to go further in the understanding of the nature of research work and to comprehend the attitudes of the research worker demands much more in education, experience and availability of library material. Only in a few great centres can such valuable grouping of personnel and book resources be attained; the ideal can, nevertheless, be an inspiration and a standard for others.

The important routine elements of the Reference Library service to readers are concerned with establishing adequate machinery to ensure that the user of the library can easily see *where* he should make his enquiry; next, there must be always available staff of the qualities mentioned above, and competent not only to define the enquiry but to identify the means of obtaining the informative answer. This will imply tactful discovery of the relevance of staff assistance; possible explanation of the catalogue arrangement; the routine for book requisition; and the offer of other services such as document copying, further literature search, library co-operation resources and perhaps introduction to other potential information sources.

Such a routine can be applied as appropriate to the most straightforward applications from readers, and a firm adherence to it by all members of the staff can alone ensure competent service. The staff must never be too busy to attend to a reader, nor, perhaps worse, the reader be allowed to leave the library without having either the knowledge he sought or having been told where it may be found.

Some permanent record of enquiries made and answered, either in person or by telephone, should be kept. Convenience suggests that such a record be maintained on suitable sized cards to allow of intercalation within subject order. There is great scope here for the application of a device such as edge punched cards to permit the retrieval of multi-faceted information. Records of enquiries in book form are virtually useless as constructive aids to the librarian.

The statistical record of Reference Library work can be made in terms of books requisitioned and consulted, or of enquiries made and of the results. The latter would surely be a greater indication of the worth

of the library than the former. Whilst it may be of interest to learn how many people attend the library daily, perhaps even at what times, this information will be of more use in determining the number of staff required for service duty. Any estimate of the value of the Reference Library to the community really requires detailed questioning of the users to reveal their requirements and the measure of success they encounter.

CHAPTER XII

THE STORAGE AND USE OF NON-BOOK MATERIAL

THE library has to preserve much material that is not in the comparatively straightforward form of books, and, indeed, much of the difficulty of organising a really comprehensive library service derives from what is generally called the 'non-traditional' presentation of knowledge.

Material thus encountered is not only the province of the 'special' librarian, but is to be found to a greater or less extent in all kinds of library, according to the initiative displayed by the librarian in gathering knowledge together and organising it for his readers. The problem of this 'special' material is thus threefold; first, location of publication and acquisition; secondly, making usable; thirdly, conservation; and it is with the last two problems that we are now concerned. The material with which we are to deal may be classed as (i) music, (ii) pamphlets, (iii) maps, (iv) periodicals, (v) illustrations, (vi) news-cuttings, (vii) micro-reproductions, (viii) gramophone records, (ix) lantern slides. With archive preservation, the average librarian is not greatly concerned, but something of the general principles will be included as bearing on the Local Collection.

(i) *Music*,[1] in bound form, is usually treated as books, and requires only especially deep shelving with vertical supports at more frequent intervals, perhaps 18″ apart. It is not desirable to have these divisions made by rods, for nothing is easier than for a careless user to force a volume back around the rod and so to damage the leaves irreparably. Sheet music is undoubtedly best filed flat in boxes of suitable dimensions, having the fore-edge hinged to permit easy handling. Such boxes, similar indeed to the pamphlet boxes described below, should not attempt to hold more than perhaps twenty-five items (which will be listed in typescript on the inner side of the top cover) or both contents and box will suffer in constant use. More popular items may be cased in manila covers for protection, but such covers should be only of sufficient strength to cover the brief life of the piece concerned and to support the leaves from sagging when on the piano or music stand. It is extremely important that, whether bound as a book or protected by stiff manila covers, music scores should easily lie open flat (or they are unusable) and that the leaves should turn readily. Unless this is so, even the most careful musician is liable to damage the score. A modern development of potential value is lamination, by which process a thin

[1] *See also* Ch. XV.

film of cellulose acetate is fastened to each side of the sheets by a suitable liquid adhesive. Music thus strengthened is capable of a substantial number of issues.

(ii) *Pamphlets*, that is, paper-covered items of fewer than 50 pages, may be treated in several ways. The old, rather unsatisfactory, style was to bind up a suitable number into book form; and some libraries still stitch groups of pamphlets into stout paper or manila folders. It is more usual to provide special boxes with hinged cover and fore-edge, of folio, quarto and octavo sizes, in which pamphlets may be filed in classified order. An alternative is to use the modern suspension filing system; a method that has the great advantage of permitting very close subdivision, of giving visual indexing and, above all, of supporting paper-bound items. Larger pamphlets and those likely to be of more permanent value may be bound, either as specified for books or in a light storage binding.

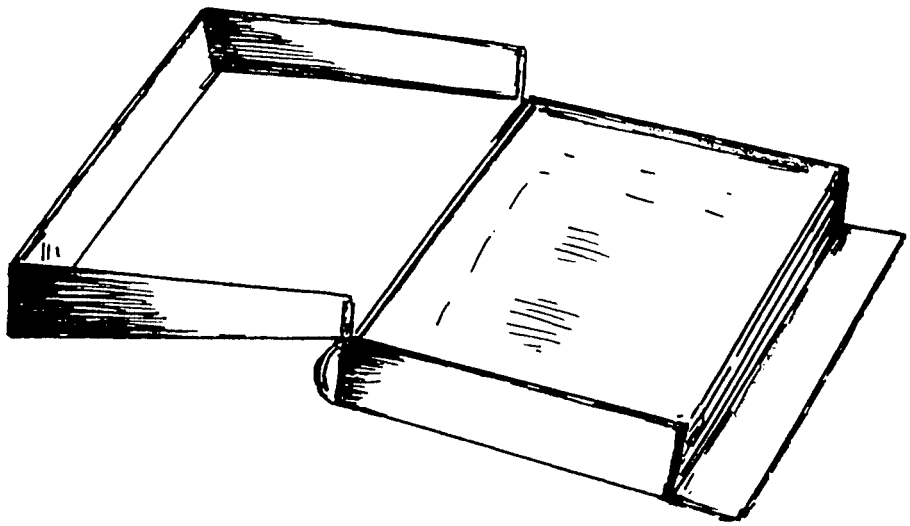


Fig. 33. A Pamphlet Box.

Patent files with springs or metal fittings should be avoided. To be of maximum usefulness, a pamphlet collection must either be classified minutely, or catalogued fully. With proper methods of storage, i.e. in classified files, the great expense of the latter method may perhaps be avoided, but it is correspondingly necessary to ensure the holdings of the pamphlet collection are not overlooked, and therefore the boxes or files should be conveniently and prominently located. There appears to be no available method of ensuring accurate replacement of used items, except by denying free access to the collection to all save the staff. The problem of weeding obsolete or unused material seems intractable.

Many librarians would prefer not to discard any of the material which is so ephemeral in form and so little subject to bibliographic control.

(iii) The storage and conservation of *maps* has been the subject of an authoritative report, prepared at the instance of the Library and Maps Committee of the Royal Geographical Society, by a committee representing the principal types of map collections. The salient features are here reproduced by courtesy of the Society.

'1. GENERAL CONSIDERATIONS. Ideally, a map should be stored and conserved in the state in which it is issued. If deterioration should, or has, set in, the methods of repair and conservation used should respect its original or existing physical form. It will then be preserved for posterity as nearly as possible as it was designed by the maker. The committee considers that this principle applies to all maps, irrespective of the material on which they are drawn or printed. In practice, however, a broad distinction can be drawn between maps (for the most part printed and in current use) in working and record collections, and maps of archival importance mainly in record offices. . . . This principle, if scrupulously carried out would require precautions which may be beyond the scope of a large working collection of maps. For instance, changes of temperature and humidity will cause paper to expand or contract, and these can be controlled at a price. The committee considers that a map library of repute should make every endeavour to approach this principle closely and believes this can be achieved without disproportionate expenditure.

PRINTED MAPS

The extent to which this ideal is approached, at least for printed maps on paper, should be related directly to the standard of accuracy of the particular map, and to the requirements of potential users. A motoring map, merely showing the mileage between towns, etc., clearly does not demand the same standard of care as the sheets of a topographical survey from which measurements will be taken directly. A distinction can also be made between collections which are charged with preserving maps for posterity, and those in which maps may be largely regarded as 'expendable', i.e. are discarded when out of date or worn out, and replaced by current issues. For these latter the minimum standards of storage would be appropriate. For the above reasons the committee considers that maps on paper should be stored flat as issued, either vertically or horizontally. Maps which are published folded with or without covers are also often better preserved unfolded and flat. . . . It is also considered that in some circumstances it may be permissable and convenient to dissect wall maps, and other maps in rolls, and to store as flat sheets. . . . If maps must be folded, they should be dissected and mounted. The committee wishes in particular to emphasise the necessity

of storing the sheets of national topographical series as issued, and of avoiding cutting or folding them. These are scientific documents for the surveyor, geodesist, geographer and others, and should be treated accordingly. Folding or dissection cannot but reduce their value by hindering their efficient use. . . .

ATMOSPHERIC CONDITIONS

With maps, and more especially archive maps, it is essential, if damage by damp or organic growth is to be avoided, to have regard to the atmospheric conditions. The temperature should be kept steady between 55° F. and 60° F., without rapid rises or falls. The relative humidity should not exceed 65%. Ventilation is equally important. . . . The deleterious effects upon maps of persistent exposure to light, in storage and on exhibition, should also be borne in mind.

THE STORAGE OF PRINTED MAPS

. . . it appears that the following are the chief methods of storing sheet maps in use in Great Britain.

1. Flat in horizontal drawers
2. Unfolded, in vertical files
3. Other vertical and suspension methods
4. In Solander boxes, portfolios, guard books, or similar containers, folded when necessary
5. Folded, in vertical files, pigeon holes, etc.

The first method was used for all or some part of the maps in most collections, and was stated to be the method preferred in the majority of cases. One or two libraries use the second method and find it satisfactory, particularly for long series of uniform sheets, as it allows the index or sheet numbers to be consulted with ease, and the required map can be extracted, without moving a number of other sheets. On the question of metal versus wooden cabinets, the former have every advantage. They will withstand harder and longer wear, the drawers are less likely to jam and to require force to open and shut, with consequent damage to the maps. What is important, especially in the archival repositories, is that they are free from the risk of dry rot or worm, and reduce the risk of fire. The only advantage of wooden cabinets is their cost; on present prices, metal cabinets would cost approximately 50% more.

Horizontal Filing. Standard sizes of drawers are double-elephant (approximately 43″ × 31″) and antiquarian (54″ × 32″). The former will accommodate most of the large topographical series, and smaller maps may be placed in two piles. The depth of the drawer should not be greater than 2½″, otherwise it is difficult to get at the lower maps, and the drawer is too heavy. Each drawer should have a hood at the back which should extend for at least 9″, and its fore-edge

should be visible when the drawer is fully open. There should be a clear space between the top of the pile of maps and the bottom of the drawer above. Each drawer will hold approximately 100 sheets. Stiff manila folders must be used to sub-divide the contents into convenient units, to reduce labour and damage in handling. It is desirable that the metal drawers should have ball-bearing suspension, and a lock device to lock the drawers in the open position. Some fittings to keep the folders and maps flat in the drawers are necessary. These may be flaps inside the drawer, wooden or leather covered metal battens, or weighted American cloth over the whole area. The front flap when raised should fall outside the drawer; if it does not, it hinders access to the drawer. If the front of the drawer is hinged, 'scooping' is avoided in handling maps. Cabinets carrying such drawers may be built to any given height. The upper ones may contain maps which are not often required, though this is not always easy to arrange. If the maps are being constantly referred to, the top drawer should not be more than 5′ above floor-level. The ideal unit will have its top at a convenient height to form a table on which maps can be spread. In arranging a lay-out, provision should be made for some, at least, of the cabinets to allow this. If a large uniform series has to be housed . . . it may be practical and economic to order cabinets to suit the particular series, rather than to fit the maps to existing cases merely to preserve uniformity.

Vertical Filing. Maps may be filed vertically, unfolded, in files similar to ordinary letter files, in 'plan-files', where the maps are in folders which are compressed by springs and move backwards and forwards on ball-bearings, and in files employing various methods of suspension. The largest steel vertical file now available as a standard product will take maps up to 26″ wide by 21″ high. This has been found very useful in the Royal Geographical Society, as it will take many series, such as the Ordnance Survey Six Inch Map, unfolded. Another useful size, made for X-ray photographs, is $18\frac{1}{4}'' \times 14\frac{1}{2}''$. Compared with horizontal storage, unit for unit, this method is economical of storage space. It is not necessary to mount the sheets. They should be put in linen-hinged strawboard folders, about 100 sheets in each folder. Each drawer should have at least two subdivisions, otherwise the weight of maps may make it difficult to extract maps from the back. The drawers should not be filled too full, or the tops of the folders tend to get torn.

Merits of horizontal and vertical filing. In general, horizontal filing is to be preferred, but it is essential that the precautions, which are enumerated above, should be observed, to avoid damage to the maps. Vertical filing is only satisfactory for long series of uniform sheet size, and where the sheets are small. In these circumstances, it affords economy in storage space, and reduces friction in handling the sheets.

Other vertical and suspension methods. 'Planfiles' and vertical suspension systems do not as yet appear to be extensively used in map libraries.

They would seem to be best suited for holding drawings and plans to which frequent reference is made. One feature of some of the suspension systems is that it is necessary to attach a strip of tough paper to one side of the map, by which it is suspended.

Portfolios. In the new map department of the Bibliothèque Nationale, the majority of the maps are kept in portfolios, which are stored horizontally on roller shelves. The portfolios are in five sizes, the largest being approximately 50″ × 34″. The stacks are 4′ 6″ high, with 9 or 10 shelves. The portfolios are carefully made, with interior linen flaps and ties, making them dustproof. In effect the portfolios correspond to the drawers of a cabinet. To consult the maps, however, it may be necessary to remove the portfolio to one of the tables provided and more time and effort are required to open the portfolio, find the map and replace the portfolio on the shelf. Against this extra demand on labour, is to be set a saving in floor space. This method is probably most justified where large numbers of maps, which are not frequently referred to, have to be stored. Solander boxes on shelves are convenient for storing smaller maps and those which are being kept folded, for one reason or another. To take standard topographical series without folding, they would be an inconvenient size to handle, and . . . the committee is opposed to folding this type of map.

Wall maps, maps on rollers, etc. . . . maps of this character should be preserved in their original form. It is arguable that wall maps formed by mounting a number of sheets might without harm be separated into component sheets and stored flat, especially if they are in a working collection of maps where they will be used for reference only. But in most cases, the wall map may well be required to fulfil the purpose for which it was designed, and consequently should not be broken up. Certainly no maps of an archival nature should be cut up for purposes of storage. The treatment of maps on rollers should follow where appropriate the recommendations in the section on archives. They can be hung vertically from hooks, or kept horizontally in racks or shallow troughs fixed to the wall, or if size permits, as rolls in the ordinary drawers. Small maps which have become rolls fortuitously should be stored flat.

Minimum standards of storage. The minimum requirements, given suitable atmospheric conditions, should be protection from dust, and easy accessibility. These can be secured by putting the maps in portfolios, large envelopes, or brown-paper parcels, up to 100 sheets in each, and storing them on simply constructed wooden racks or shelves. . . . The committee, however, strongly urges that, wherever possible, wooden cabinets with horizontal drawers should be regarded as the minimum acceptable standard in map storage.

Mounting. Maps on less durable paper, especially if in constant use, should be mounted on linen or other fabric. Many series to-day are

printed on sufficiently tough paper to stand up to reasonable handling, so that the proportion to be mounted may not be large. All maps which are to be folded should be dissected and mounted. Mounted maps should not be folded without dissection as the paper will crack. Maps on photographic paper should be lined to prevent tearing and cracking. . . .

Repair. Map repair in a map library will be confined largely to mending torn maps. This is best done by mounting the whole map. Transparent cellophane should not be used for repairs on the face of the map, as it becomes discoloured and spoils the paper. . . .

Lamination. A method of preserving documents which is extensively used in the United States is that of lamination. The process consists of putting a map 'between two slightly larger sheets of cellulose acetate foil, and placing them in a press, where, by means of heat and pressure, the cellulose sheets are fused with the map.' While the committee understands that professional opinion in this country is divided on the merits of the process, the technique is capable of extended application to maps. The comprehensive report upon it which the U.S. Bureau of Standards is to issue in 1955[2] and the results of the experience . . . in the British Museum will be awaited with interest.'

Section 3 of the Report is devoted to consideration of maps in archival collections, their storage, mounting and repair.

'*Precautions while maps are in use.* The first requirement is adequate table-space, so that the map can be spread out flat, and damage by folding or crushing avoided. The edge of the table may have a slot, to take the lower part of large sheets when the upper part is in use. Covered lead weights should be provided to keep the map flat. The second point is prevention of damage to the surface of the map when in use. If the map is valuable, it should be covered by a sheet of transparent material. The ideal to be aimed at is that the surface shall at no time be handled. Tracing should be carefully controlled: maps should only be traced through a transparent cover, and if possible tracing tables, lighted from below and designed to prevent the map from being unduly heated should be provided. The use of ink should be allowed only under safeguards, and ink-pots should not be placed on the tables. Maps of special value can be preserved from damage if photographs or photostats of them are available to students.'

(iv) *Periodicals* are not acquired in really large numbers save in the larger libraries and their subject departments or in the university and special libraries, but are nevertheless a most important part of the stock, especially if carefully selected and preserved. The problems of selection have been considered elsewhere, and it was observed that in this, as in many other branches of librarianship, no library can afford to stand alone, for the actual expense of purchase is by no means the only cost

[2] *See also* Barrow, W. J. *Document restoration processes*, Richmond, Va, 1953, etc.

of this kind of material, and only by retaining long runs of periodicals, plus indexes, can the full value be obtained. Co-operative bibliographic recording such as the *World List of Scientific Periodicals* and the *British Union Catalogue of Periodicals* has imposed a permanent obligation on some larger libraries. The development of indexing and abstracting services has greatly increased the liability of all libraries to require more or less extensive periodical holdings.

Current numbers of periodicals are usually displayed in the library within stout cloth-covered folders leaving the title printed on the spine and on the outside front cover. A strong cord or tape fastened along the inside of the spine allows the journal to be held in place. The whole range of covers is given an individual number and shelved in a rack of special design having thin numbered partitions for each cover and a facia-board bearing the titles of the periodicals taken, together with the number (based on their alphabetical sequence) which will identify the location in the rack. It is no longer general practice to allot a special place for each title on the reading tables. For libraries having less use it is possible to display periodicals without these covers on the sloping shelf type of stand. Back numbers may be accommodated, until bound, on the shelf under the hinged sloping shelf. A list of current titles taken by the library, preferably in Visible Index form, for adjustability and for convenient recording of date of arrival, etc., should be readily available to staff and readers alike.

A problem of considerable difficulty is the preservation of back numbers, until either they are bound or are no longer in great demand. The method just mentioned is sound where readers are responsible; but more secure methods are often necessary. Thus, back numbers may be filed in pamphlet boxes to which the staff alone have access. A less ambitious, but still, within limits, very satisfactory method is to have open shelves or racks on which piles of periodicals may lie flat. This method needs some protection against dirt.

When periodicals are thought worthy of preservation, they should be carefully checked at intervals through the year for completeness, and due care should be taken to obtain title-page and index from the publishers when available. The checked file may then be bound in style according to the use anticipated. Most libraries desire to save space and money, and most periodical files receive only comparatively light wear, especially now that photo-reproduction has largely superseded the actual loan of whole volumes. A light storage binding is therefore perhaps all that is needful, that is, a cloth binding with boards of strength adequate to the weight of the volume. Leather is an unnecessary expense. Libraries may perhaps in the future derive some economy from micro-reproduction, especially with regard to some of the bulky technical journals, but at present the expense of such a method outweighs the advantages, except where a commercial firm has produced the original film (or micro card)

and is prepared to contract annually for future issues. Such services are available in this country and from the United States and usually involve subscriptions to the current journal plus a small annual charge for the micro-reduction. This is generally issued at a reasonable interval after the completed year, at a cost certainly less than that of permanent binding. A micro reader (suitable for microfilm or micro card) is of course necessary, though its cost should be considered in relation to general Reference Library use as well as with periodicals.

(v) *Illustrations* are best mounted on heavy paper of a colour suitable to the subject, but preferably neutral and unobtrusive. Corbett, in his authoritative book *The Illustrations Collection*, recommends sheets of 20·5″ × 25.5″ with a weight of 240 lb. per 1,000 sheets, but this size may be and probably will need to be varied, especially in the Local Collection. The mounting is done with a non-watery paste (illustrations usually being on coated paper) or by the process known as dry-mounting, and the material filed in vertical filing cabinets. Some libraries find it satisfactory to have illustrations mounted and filed in stout fibre boxes rather similar to pamphlet boxes—a more portable method, but extravagant of space and subject to much wear and tear. Portfolios of stout paper or light board are useful safeguards when illustrations are loaned.

(vi) *News-cuttings* may be treated as illustrations, and mounted, or they may, especially if on well defined local subjects, be pasted in guard books, or, best of all, perhaps, filed in envelopes of suitable size. The main consideration for clippings to be filed loose is to reduce them to a uniform size without unduly increasing the gross bulk of the collection. Hence, though backing slips are desirable, they are frequently dispensed with in favour of envelopes. Newspaper Libraries, which have great holdings of clippings, appear to find the envelope filing system satisfactory.

(vii) *Micro-reproductions* have hitherto implied microfilm, which is generally an acetate film, and as such requires to be stored in correct conditions of humidity and temperature. Friction on the film is to be avoided. Microfilm is most often in the form of rolls of up to 100 feet in length, and these rolls are stored in small aluminium cylinders provided with tightly fitted lids, on the surface of which is the identification of the film. These cylinders are stored in shallow drawer cabinets or on suitable shelves, but are most efficiently placed in a cabinet which has incorporated a chemical compound for the regulation of humidity and is so constructed as to allow a circulation of air between the rows of boxes. Microfiche is a flat form of microfilm that requires storage in protective envelopes, but after that may be filed vertically quite satisfactorily. Microcards and micro print need similar treatment to avoid the consequences of friction in handling. Photographic negatives, if film, are best treated as microfilm, but stored vertically in protective envelopes.

(viii) *Gramophone records*[3] are a prominent feature of many libraries today, and have brought their own problems of storage and routine. For storage, it is necessary to have some form of shelving that will permit vertical filing. The provision made by well-known retailers seems eminently serviceable, that is shelves divided by thin struts at small intervals, as recommended for bound music. Records should be protected by heavy manila envelopes of appropriate size, and should be filed in such a way as to afford mutual support, but must not be too tightly wedged, or damage will ensue. The attractive 'sleeves' and the polythene envelopes issued with the records are unfortunately highly susceptible to damage, and may have to be replaced by more substantial protection. It would, however, be a great error to under-estimate the user. Most borrowers are likely to possess their own records and will respect public property more than experience has shown to be the case with books. Exceptions there will be, but inspection and fines systems should deal with them.

(ix) *Lantern slides* are customarily filed vertically in suitably sized drawers lined with baize and provided with slotted partitions at small intervals. The ideal is to prevent friction of the surface, and it is usual to require the reader to make choice from a catalogue before handling the slides. For protection when on loan, the library will provide a baize-lined box of dimensions and plan similar to the storage drawer, with two reliable fastenings and perhaps a leather securing strap.

Certain libraries have been recognised as approved repositories for Archives, by which is usually understood the written historical records of the community. These require very special care if the documents are to be preserved for all time and at the same time to be made available for use, and the specialised profession of Archivist has devoted much research to the storage, conservation and repair of this material. All librarians should be acquainted with their local Archive Repository and the work of the Society of Local Archivists in recommending standards of storage, etc. Briefly, archives must be kept clean, preserved from damp, fire and careless use. They must be stored in suitable containers (according to their format) in freely circulating temperature and humidity-controlled air. Such stores are best without natural light and some of the most suitable are in fact underground. Slatted shelving well away from the floor level is desirable.

Libraries will most often have the care of collections of deeds and similar local documents which are so valuable a source of local history. These parchments may quite simply be stored in stout envelopes within metal cabinets, but, naturally, measures should first be taken to see that the documents are clean and pest-free. This is peculiarly important if a collection of, for example, parish registers or old family account books

[3] *See also* Ch. XV.

is received. The advice of a trained archivist should always be sought.

In conclusion, it may be suggested that the staff instruction book should contain clearly the precautions to be observed in handling any or all of this specialised material, together with a reasoned account of the hazards which make such instruction necessary.

CHAPTER XIII

WORK WITH CHILDREN: THE JUNIOR LIBRARY

THE organisation of the Children's Library (or, to give it a name more acceptable to the users, the Junior Library) depends essentially on the provision of rooms separate from the general public library and on the appointment of trained qualified staff. The emphasis is not in this country primarily on the educational function of the Junior Library, largely owing to the increasing provision of suitable libraries in schools and colleges, but rather on the establishment of the idea of a place wherein children will find books they wish to read, a place in which they *may* read and study and a place in which various 'club' activities can be organised for appeal to particular group interests. It has not yet been the practice to separate Junior and Adult library services as suggested by Werner Mevissen,[1] but, as he later remarks, when new buildings or services are planned, the separation might well be implemented. This would be of particular relevance in municipal housing estates and similar districts where a high proportion of the population is very young. The present situation is largely conditioned by the recent cessation of new building, save for branch libraries, and the fact that librarians must usually adapt some existing building, such as a newsroom, to the new service.

Ideally, the Junior Library would be a separate room adjoining, with possible communication into, the general library. There will be a separate entrance (not on the main road frontage if at all possible), a separate control desk and specially designed furniture.

Service with children, from perhaps five to fifteen years of age, is an intensely individual one, requiring careful understanding of their psychology, and high personal integrity, coupled with good disciplinary power. Such persons are rare and need to be selected for training as soon as possible from the general intake of staff, so that their full powers may be developed and utilised. Even in unsuitable premises, excellent work can be accomplished by the right person given sufficient support from the Chief Librarian.

There seems no general evidence as to the optimum size for a Junior Library. Some reasonably modern branch libraries, such as Norbury, at Croydon, can give a very large proportion of the total floor area to

[1] *Büchereibau*, Essen, 1958, p. 33. 'Diese Umstände legen für die Kinderbüchereien eine noch stärkere Dezentralisation nahe als für die Erwachsenenbüchereien. Es muss sogar überlegt werden, ob nicht das Kinderbüchereinetz in einem grossen Umfang vom Erwachsenenbüchereinetz zu trennen ist.'

this department; other systems have preferred quite small 'children's corners' in general lending libraries. This latter is not to be recommended, though, in small branch libraries, it may be unavoidable. As shown in the accompanying illustrations, to do work with children effectively, the library must make concessions in the design of furniture and decorations; and to the physical limitations of height, both for shelving and for tables and chairs; the institutional air must be avoided. Some of the interiors here shown demonstrate clearly the friendly atmosphere desired—good windows and artificial light; attractive curtains; tables and chairs of pleasing design in light wood; pleasant decorative schemes, including pictures, flowers and exhibits of interest, such as models of aeroplanes, tropical fish. Room should always be available for quiet reading and study. Other rooms will be needed in addition, if there are to be 'extension activities', i.e. story hours, club gatherings, film showings, playreading. For these last the library lecture hall (if provided) may perhaps be utilised, but, with ingenuity, surprisingly good effects are achieved in rooms without stage or special equipment. The chief requirement of the furniture design is that the shelves (always of wood) should not exceed perhaps 5′ maximum height and that sufficient provision be made for the really young readers and their picture books on very low shelves up to 2′ 6″ from the floor. It is desirable that shelving should be confined to the walls, leaving maximum unobstructed floor space. Special small tables and chairs may be designed to ensure that the larger boys and girls do not monopolise all the reading space.

All this furniture must be strongly constructed, preferably without sharp corners. The flooring should be as nearly noiseless as possible, such as rubber tiles, and of non-slip surface.

The staff control desk need not be the formal construction so frequently seen in the Lending Library; indeed, all that is needed is a basic office type desk with some drawers that may be locked. The users of the library can soon be taught to wait in orderly fashion to return their books, and if, as later explained, voluntary helpers are chosen from the children, the librarian can easily manage the really large influx which occurs after school hours. Perhaps the most valuable function of the Junior Library for the librarian is that thereby the idea of the full public library service is demonstrated to children at an age when they are most receptive, so that they may carry into later life the habits of reading widely and of relying on the library for books and knowledge of all kinds. At the present time, many homes are quite without books as family possessions, and there is genuine cause for fearing that the love of books for what they are and what they contain may perish among the younger generation. Mere borrowing from a library can never replace the joy of possession, but the spark may thus be kindled, and as opportunity offers, the young reader may take the initiative and start



Plate No. 40.

Serota Book Trolley.



Plate No. 41.

Book trolley or movable shelving unit? *Compare with this E.K.Z. trolley the roller-mounted shelves illustrated in Mevissen's 'Büchereibau'.*

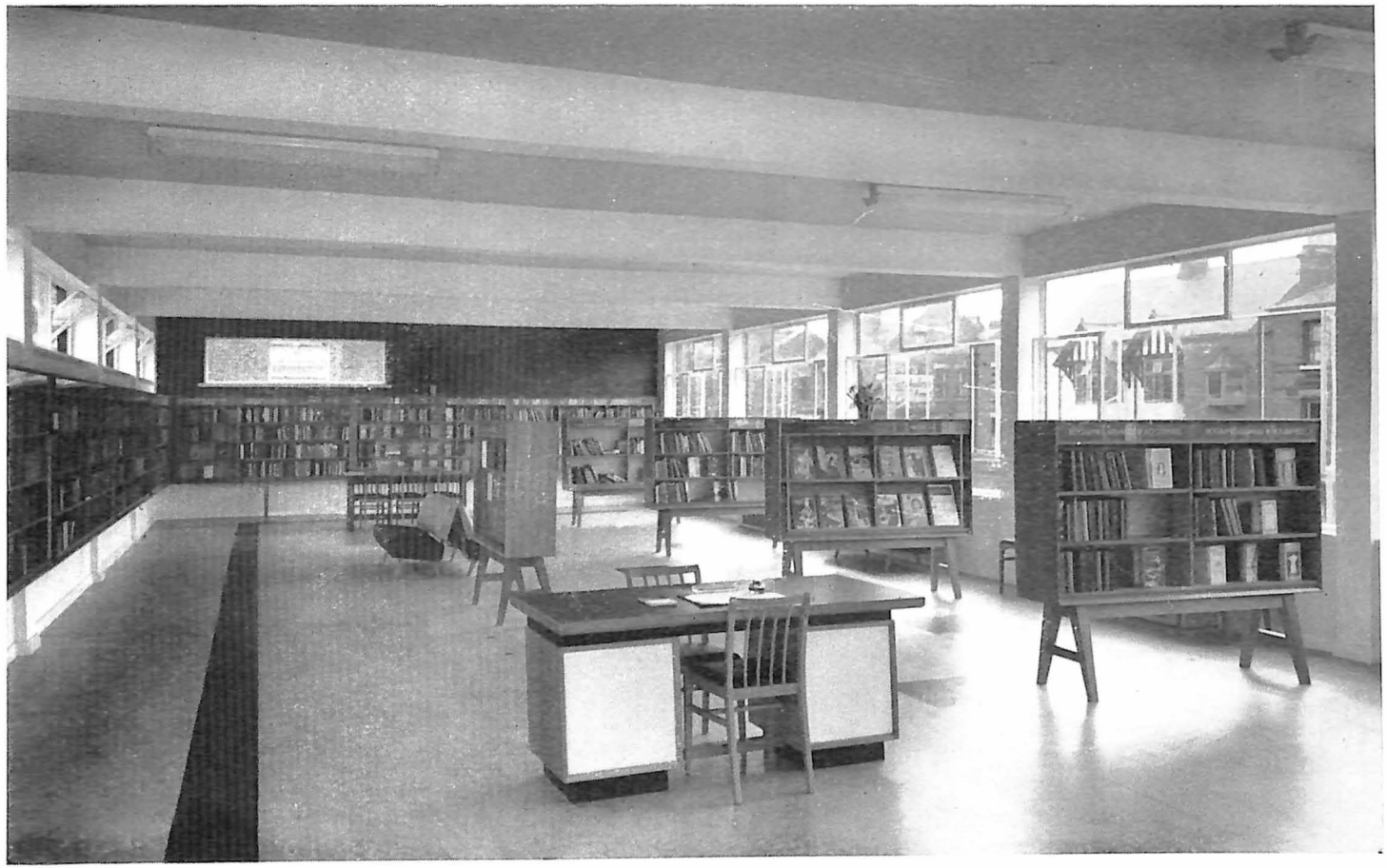


Plate No. 42.

Sherwood (Nottingham) Branch Library. *Free standing shelf units tending towards display cases. Is wood the most suitable medium? cf. pl.* 65.

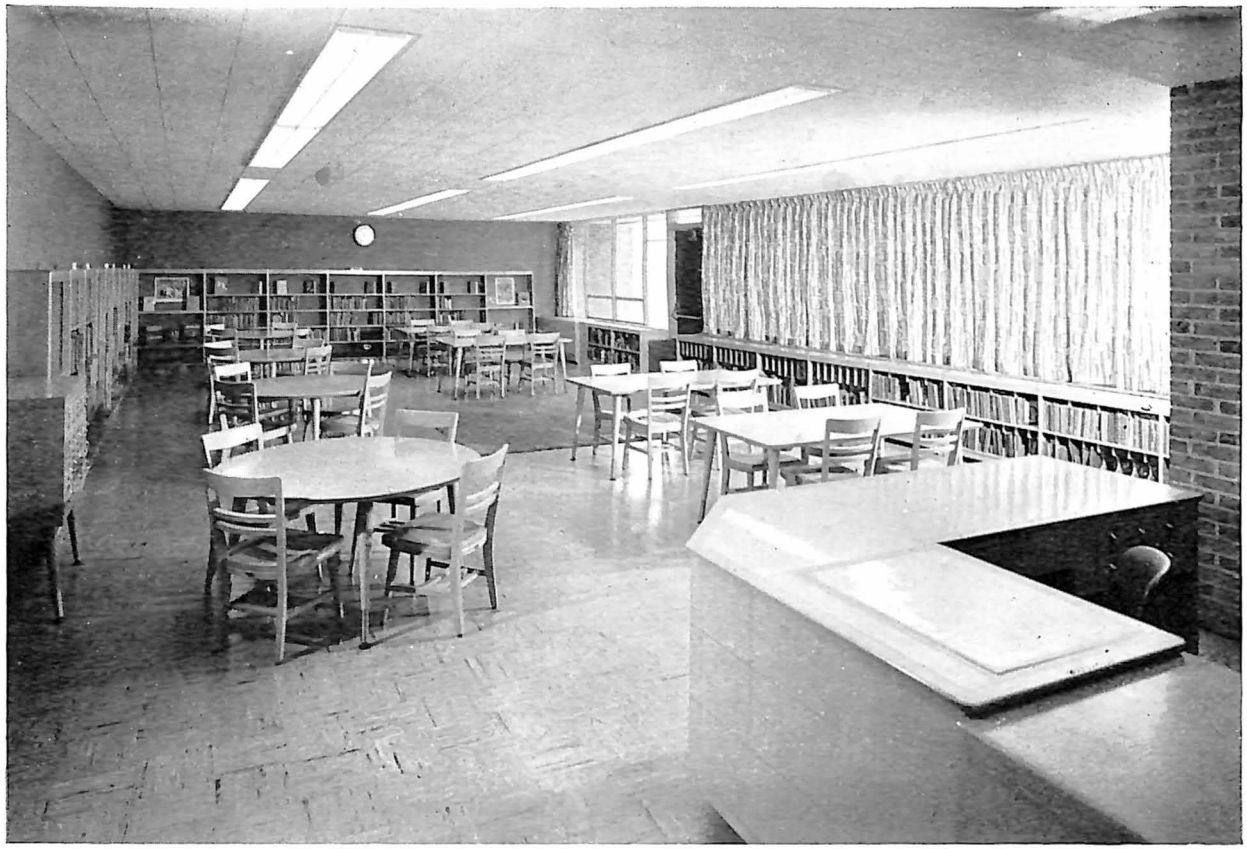


Plate No. 43.

Sjöstrom New Life Furniture in an American School Library. *In style, pleasantly non-committal: but a heavy, formal counter.*

acquiring personal copies. If these ideals are to be realised, it is necessary that a positive relationship should be aroused between staff and readers, so that routine practices of the former do not inhibit the latter in their approach to books and reading. Thus, whereas it is customary in the general lending library to invite enquiries from readers who are at a loss concerning, for instance, the arrangement of the book-stock, and to assume that those who do not enquire are satisfied, in the Junior Library, there should be definite instruction in the rules of the library, its arrangement, the classification and the value of the catalogue. This instruction may be done in several ways; either in co-operation with the local schools, to whole classes at the time of a regular school visit to the library, or on the initiative of the librarian, to selected groups of boys and girls several times during the year. At all times, however, individuals will need special instruction and this must be forthcoming either by the staff personally or through clearly written explanatory leaflets. So long as the shelves are adequately guided with effectively worded subject headings, there is little value in over-simplifying the classification scheme; if the main library uses, for example, the Dewey Classification to five figures, the same practice can apply with perfect satisfaction in the Junior Library. Boys and girls are usually quite intrigued by the ingenious features of the scheme, and derive considerable pleasure from using the subject index and the classified catalogue to locate actual books. In this, as in all work with young people, it is fatally easy to under-estimate the mental activity that is going on and to overlook the genuine desire most have to extend their knowledge of how things work.

Catalogue entries are, as in modern lending libraries, in a much more abbreviated form than required by the Anglo-American Code; but the rules for author entry may be followed. The principles of alphabetical and other filing orders cannot be learned too soon. One concession that may be made (it will probably also feature in the general library) is to simplify subject headings into popular forms, e.g. in botany and zoology, it would be pedantic to insist on scientific names of popular flowers and animals. It has been found that, given clear instructions, young people readily understand and appreciate the classified catalogue as being 'business-like' or 'scientific' or 'modern'; and the card catalogue is equally popular with the sheaf form. As either kind will be readily used, the catalogue display stand should be placed in a prominent position, near the staff desk, but with adequate floor space to allow easy consultation. In these conditions, damage to the cards or leaves of the sheaf catalogue need not greatly be feared.

The choice of stock in the Junior Library is of fundamental importance and demands that a carefully considered policy should be continued over a period of years and that sufficient funds be allowed for acquisitions as well as binding.

Very sound principles of book selection were long ago suggested by

W. C. Berwick Sayers, and it is perhaps only necessary here to give an outline of the main points. First and most important, the titles stocked should all be of good literary and moral standard; that is, written in grammatical English and free from glorification of anti-social behaviour. This is particularly difficult in the case of fiction, where the supply of straightforward stories seems to have diminished acutely of recent years. Secondly, books of fact should indeed be accurate and unbiassed. Thirdly, the physical presentation of the books should be worthy of the contents.

As a general rule, re-told stories from the classical literary authors are not desirable; but it should be recognised that so long as many of the great story-tellers of the past are published in such unattractive format (or in a style unsuitable for library use) such re-edited texts may be the only ones available. A choice will have to be made, comparable with that in the general library, as to the amount of popular light fiction to be stocked. If insufficient, the library will lose readers; if too much, then the worthwhile books may not be read. This is the case for work by the Junior Librarian in carefully holding a balance and using perhaps unusual means to ensure that readers do not blindly follow normal group instincts all the time.

It is particularly difficult to purchase sufficient non-fiction books suitable in subject treatment and format adequately to stock the Junior Library, and, despite the efforts of librarians to encourage publishers, many of whom would be of assistance, the real problem is to persuade authors of competence to turn their attention to this market. That the problem is not confined to this country may be seen from Mevissen (*op. cit. supra*) who goes so far as to make this shortage of titles a compelling justification for organising small junior libraries of no more than 4,200 books, lest demand overwhelm the stock and force the librarian into excessive duplication. A possible method of countering this shortage of non-fiction is to allow considerable freedom for suitable boys and girls to use the Lending Library non-fiction stock, even if they are under the approved age limit. This perhaps merely accepts a practice that quite certainly prevails even if librarians decline to recognise the fact! Boys and girls do not necessarily all mature mentally at the same speed, and the function of the library is certainly to encourage the use of books. In view of the nature of much contemporary fiction, it is perhaps prudent for the librarian to control access as far as possible and to reserve the right to decline to issue to children under 15 years. This rule, sometimes attempted, is usually thwarted by the use of children as messengers; but the fact that it can be invoked may prevent abuse.

The need to appreciate the rapid changes in child behaviour between 7 and 15 years, and in particular, the desire of various age groups to separate themselves from others (as, of course, in school) has led librarians to supply three categories of books—those for the youngest,

mainly picture books with easy text; the great bulk of the stock suitable for all who can read; and, thirdly, a section 'intermediate' to the general lending library. This intermediate library aims both at the mentally precociously advanced and at those who have grown older but who would still like some favourite books that had been read in the 'Junior' Library. To stock such a library calls for the utmost skill in child psychology, with a wide knowledge of books and reading habits. Furthermore, the readers in such a library are likely to be self-conscious and awkward, so much tact and understanding are needed from the staff. Perhaps these libraries may help to prevent the substantial drift away from membership that seems to occur so frequently among adolescents.

With the introduction of transparent plastic jackets or of laminated covers, there is no need for the Junior Library stock to appear dull and unattractive; but, as it is essential that the maximum life be obtained from worthwhile books, binding must be considered. If so, then modern bright cloth must be used, preferably types proof against dirt and water. So long as the text or pictures are attractive, the child reader is amazingly tolerant of the condition of the book. The librarian will, however, see the dangers of this in encouraging careless handling, and will act accordingly. Similarly, very careful attention must be given to repairs, replacing illustrations and removing pencil marks. All of this is frequently made the subject of formal instruction—as for the routine use of the library mentioned earlier—and in many Junior Libraries the visitor may see groups of youngsters keenly interested in the processes of repair or eager to make the attempts themselves.

Such participation of children, if done on a systematic plan, can be of excellent value to the library, and will have far-reaching effects in later years. The basic plan is to enrol 'Library Helpers', who undertake to come to the library for specified times on definite days, and will, after training, undertake counter work (discharging and issuing books), minor repair work, replacing books, and sometimes even helping other children to find books. Library Helpers must be treated fairly by the staff, but must also be kept in control; but given the right calibre staff, this should not be difficult. Once a year those who have given regular and faithful service will perhaps be given a celebration party by the library staff, a small gesture that is much appreciated.

That such schemes are sound and successful is proved by the fact that instances are known of former 'helpers' growing up, marrying, and later bringing their children to the library to enrol in a similar capacity.

Rules and Regulations for the Junior Library must be so worded as to be understood by the readers. The vouchers should be signed by the parent with perhaps a recommendation from the appropriate school teacher in addition. There is little point in making an age limit, as many parents like to borrow books to read to their very young children; but

the issue of a second ticket could well be deferred till the age of ten or even later.

Fines and overdue notices should be regular routine if only to bring home a sense of responsibility; the occasional hardship case must be met on its own merits.

Infectious diseases are of more importance than in the general library, and whereas there the readers scoff at the idea of infection, in the Junior Library it is taken much more seriously, and the usual practice of collection by the Public Health Authority from premises having a 'notifiable disease' should be followed. A list of these diseases may be obtained from the Public Health Department and should be available in case of question by parents. When the infectious period is over, the library will be notified by the authority, and the reader should always have his tickets returned by post immediately with an appropriate covering letter.

Hours of opening must be carefully related to school hours and holidays so that on the one hand the library is not available as a refuge for victims of minor illnesses and on the other, can profit from the increased leisure of the readers. Evening opening seems today rather unnecessary beyond perhaps 6.30 p.m., and if the library is open all day Saturday, 5.30 p.m. may then be quite adequate.

Special stationery e.g. book plates, date-labels, readers tickets, will be needed for this department, and should, as all library printing, be of good design and of utmost clarity.

A much desired, though infrequently provided, section of the Junior Library, is the Reference or Study Room where, in a quiet atmosphere, youngsters will find the facilities for home-work or independent study. The room would desirably offer a parallel with the open-access stock considered necessary for the main Reference Library, e.g. encylopaedias, dictionaries, standard texts, sources of information. This would be expensive to provide and perhaps, at present, superfluous. There is, however, a growing appreciation of the home difficulties faced by children preparing for examinations or merely cultivating their minds, and progressive librarians are already moving in this direction.

All libraries should, however, always have on view the standard classical children's books and encyclopaedias, together with the reference books for recognised hobbies, such as stamp collecting.

In a service so individual as this, where there is such a high turnover of actual readers, continual publicity is needed to keep all potential readers well informed of the library activities.

This publicity, or Extension Work, as it is often called, usually takes the form of attractive posters (drawn and designed by the librarian) announcing group activities, new books, current interests, etc.; or of booklists preferably printed, on topics of more or less perennial interest, e.g. hobbies for the winter, sports and pastimes.

Basic material for display work is often found in the Illustrations

Collection, a collection of informative and artistic pictures gathered from books, periodicals, commercial publicity material and similar sources, and mounted on special manila sheets of neutral colour and in standard sizes. The management of this collection is the same as that described in Chapter XV, but it may be mentioned here that the Junior Library collection is more likely to be formed with a view to use in display than as a source of accurate information. Loans may of course be made to schools as from the main collection.

More personally, group activities are organised with a view to attracting to the library youngsters with special interests. Such group activities may be the reading of popular or classic favourite books; or story hours, wherein a capable member of staff tells, according to the audience, fairy tales from Andersen or similar source. For older members, play acting circles, film shows, stamp collection clubs are popular, especially when a authoritative guest speaker can be engaged. These activities flourish mainly in winter months after the library is closed; but those appropriate for younger members should be held earlier, and need, therefore, special rooms so as to avoid interference with the library work.

All these activities, and the enthusiastic Junior Librarian will think of many more, must only be entered upon if thereby the work of the library is advanced. Even if the idea of the public library as a social institution is accepted (as surely it must be) the repercussions at present on staff time, and ultimately the cost, must be carefully borne in mind. Moreover, unless good standards are maintained, positive harm may result. Much hard work and talent lie behind the successful extension activities of our great libraries; it is not impossible for less ambitious plans to be comparably successful even if the resources are fewer.

In view of the emergence of School Libraries since the war the question has frequently been asked whether the public library need continue the separate provision of Junior Libraries, and occasionally the question is put in another form, should not the two services amalgamate under the Public Library? The primary difficulties are that by no means all schools have adequate libraries; not all children go to the state schools; the schools have holidays, during which the buildings are closed; trained staff are not available in schools for full-time duties; and the organisation and discipline of the school makes it difficult for a non-teacher to function on school premises. Some Education Authorities do in fact request the Public Libraries to second one or more of their staff to do book acquisition, distribution and maintenance work for school libraries (cf. the County Library Schools Service), but this is not to be considered librarianship in the fullest sense of guiding readers in the choice of books. It would, moreover, be considered more appropriate for the stock of the School Library to be more closely related to the curriculum than would be the case in the Public Library. That the Public Library provision is recognised by teachers as something as yet beyond

their abilities is demonstrated by the frequency of requests for organised visits from schools either to view Reference Library treasures or to work in the library on some pre-arranged selection of subjects. Branch Libraries in particular find this latter type of visit especially fruitful on the early closing days when the library stock can be at the disposal of the teacher in charge and no inconvenience will result to the general public.

Perhaps this kind of co-operation between the two services is the most satisfactory, and in the final analysis is apt to resolve itself into the relations between the local Junior Librarian and the local Head Teacher.

The nature of the work of the Junior Librarian calls for some adjustment of the normal hierarchic staff structure. By definition, work with children is for specialists, and, whilst they function in the same premises as the remainder of the library staff, they must have considerable freedom to pursue their work. In a large system there will be a senior person in charge of all work with children, and to her all the branch Junior Librarians will be responsible for their work. Yet the Branch Librarian will naturally need to control activities within the premises for which he is responsible, and more particularly, for activities reaching the public outside. Whilst the Junior Library Service shares premises with the remainder of the library service, there is a potential source of friction that can only be avoided by firm definition of spheres of responsibility and action, coupled with a common desire to promote the work in hand.

CHAPTER XIV

NEWS ROOMS: MAGAZINE ROOMS

ONE of the earliest functions of the public library was to supply reading rooms in which newspapers and periodical literature were made available to that great majority of the population who could neither afford to purchase nor had other means of gaining access to sources of current information and recreation. As the standard of living has risen and other media of mass communication have developed, the public reading room has greatly diminished in importance, to such an extent indeed that many librarians actively regard these departments as wasteful and redundant. In many towns the large rooms formerly used as newsrooms or magazine rooms have, along with the obsolete Ladies Reading Room, been converted to services more immediately relevant to the library system, i.e. children's room, reference room, gramophone record library; or, when floor space was at a premium, have been suppressed in favour of extending the lending library.

Local needs will determine the continuance of these traditional departments, but even the most superficial observer will note the diminution in use that has coincided with social changes and question whether the time has not come finally to abandon this service.

Some examination of the true function of these rooms, rather than a statement of their abuse, seems desirable. Is it, for example, really proved that people do not wish to read more than one paper, or that only the least reputable of the community frequent the premises? Should not the library provide a cross section of all information sources? What is the selection of newspapers and periodicals available, and what is the organisation of the material for the user? The traditional layout of the news and magazine rooms clearly show the passive nature of the service. Material is merely placed in position, removed when new issues are received, and a certain supervision exercised to ensure the Bye-Laws and Regulations are not too obviously infringed. This does not coincide with the modern concepts of librarianship, and it is worth considering what might in fact be done to make better use of material which is fundamentally important.

This implies, firstly, adequate selection of both newspapers and the magazines. As an example, a library might well cease to supply all the most popular national papers, and instead, subscribe to some of the more important provincial dailies (these can be obtained, if necessary, by postal subscription). A central newsroom in a large authority may well be expected to do this and also to supply leading foreign papers. This

could be especially valuable in some of the more cosmopolitan cities, and, if related to the Commercial Library or the Information Department of the Reference Library, could acquire significant importance in the community. Proper care by the staff of the back numbers or an active policy of cutting informative items for preservation in the Clippings File, will ensure maximum utilisation of the papers.

A positive policy of this nature immediately calls into question existing methods of display and use. Earlier editions of this *Manual* show a great variety of devices for ensuring that papers be read without damage or mutilation and guarded against theft. None of these has been outstandingly successful and it may now be urged that the old fashioned stands be only used for such popular items as may still be taken and that those items which will be read for information be either hung on rods or issued by the staff from the service counter. A supervised room will soon cease to be abused, but, if staffing is impossible, it it appears that the old stands or wall slopes will have to be retained.

Some librarians still feel it necessary to black out racing news, but not the Stock Exchange quotations; though perhaps the users of the one are more of a social nuisance within the library! It seems again the case for proper supervision, preferably by an honest, efficient man in uniform.

The problem of supplying magazines is much more complicated than that of the newspaper service, and in modern times involves consideration as part of the Reference Library and its departments rather than as a separate entity. The essential element here is the concept held by the librarian of the nature of the service as a whole. If an active supply of information and news is to be available to the community, then the library should ensure that an adequate selection of trade, technical and scientific journals is present either in the Reference Library or in the separate magazine room. Where there are subject departments, there is no doubt that each will have its own stock of periodicals and there may therefore be no need for the recreational or general titles. Nevertheless, there is a strong case for a continuance of a well stocked magazine room in medium and small authorities and in the branch libraries of the large system, if only on the grounds that this will be literally the only way in which the more worthwhile periodicals can reach a large proportion of the general public.

In such smaller libraries there are several possibilities for improving the appearance and use of the periodicals. The provision of reading tables and chairs in the lending libraries is valuable for more than one reason, and if the display racks or furniture for the periodicals are attractively designed, the general use and appearance of the library may be enhanced. In this respect much can be learned from contemporary American, German and Scandinavian libraries (see also *ante* pp. 105, 159).

That the more serious periodicals devoted to e.g. art, architecture, music and similar cultural subjects are really important to the com-

munity may be judged from the great demand for loan copies of back numbers. Many libraries, especially branch libraries of larger systems, have developed a routine for strengthening the covers of suitable periodicals, either by backing with stout brown paper or sewing on an outer protection of manila, and these items are invariably used to the maximum, supply rarely meeting demand.

This policy will naturally prevent the formation of files of back numbers, and the modern librarian has to be aware of his responsibilities in this respect. Co-operative bibliographies, indexes and location lists have gradually created a distinct obligation to review the periodicals holdings of the library and to consider very carefully the number of titles that can be retained either in bound form for perpetuity or in some more temporary form for limited period filing only. Recent work on these lines has disclosed an alarming poverty in public library holdings outside the very largest systems, and though the more recreational periodical publications may be the principal stock of the small library, it is certain that if fair service is to be given to the community much greater efforts at co-operative selection and preservation of periodicals should be made. A more imaginative selection of titles, having regard to local interests, might well prove most rewarding in the increased use of the library.

As regards the routine of purchase and control, quite simple methods will suffice. Selection should be made annually, and, once approved by the committee, the list should remain unchanged till the next year unless very good case can be made for alterations. Contracts for supply are usually placed with local newsagents, though these may not in some areas willingly deal with foreign titles. Journals obtained by membership of a society, if not great in number, may be ordered direct from the society. There are well known booksellers who specialise in the supply of both these categories to all kinds of libraries. Donations are undesirable as being almost invariably inspired by propagandist motives, and, as the library must avoid the impression of partiality, should generally be declined. An essential part of the routine of handling periodicals is ensuring prompt and regular deliveries of all the items required plus any supplements, title pages and indexes, if wanted for files and binding. All this is best achieved by using a visible index method (see Ch. XIX) on which can be recorded all the particulars, and late or non-arrival easily signalled.

Payment to the supplier will usually be against a monthly invoice submitted by him and carefully checked by the staff for non-supply and price variations. As much confusion can arise from inaccurate checking of, for example, the daily papers, the records should be clear and unambiguous.

When newspapers and periodicals are to be filed, it is necessary that adequate shelving should be allocated in a dust-proof room or that

provision should be made to keep off the worst deposition by the use of blinds or other protection. Ordinary metal shelving allows successful flat filing, and though this is extravagant of space where many titles are retained it is a common method, which allows easy access for use and for tidying. Some periodical racks[1] use the space under the display slopes for storing at least the previous few numbers. This is a great advantage, especially for the more serious reader, but encourages losses and makes annual binding practically impossible.

When public access to the file room is not granted, unbound numbers may be held together between pieces of strawboard of suitable size and thickness, fastened by broad tapes. This discourages careless use to some extent, and preserves the items against dirt. For frequently consulted files, pamphlet boxes may very well be used to keep perhaps one year of issues previous to binding. This is particularly useful in large reference libraries where considerable numbers of consultations of these files are continually made. The pamphlet boxes can be shelved adjacent to the staff service counter and thus be adequately controlled.

A list of newspapers and periodicals taken by the library, and the extent to which they are filed, should be prominently displayed. As the names or items change frequently, this list is most desirably in a visible index form.

The largest libraries publish lists of periodicals, newspapers and directories; and on a basis of regional co-operation, a number of locations lists for current holdings and files have been compiled, though the national coverage is very imperfect.

[1] *See* Mevissen, *op. cit.* p. 216.

CHAPTER XV

SPECIAL SERVICES

1. Within the Library Premises: the Music Department and Gramophone Records; Illustrations; Lantern Slides; Film Strips.

Contemporary librarians would generally concede that the provision of books is but one part of the library function; that in an age of audio-visual records of considerable diversity the library cannot confine its activities to one only. The way has long been prepared by the provision of Music Scores, of Illustrations Collections, Lantern Slides and, to a much lesser degree, of Micro-reductions. To these are now added Gramophone Records and Loan Collections of original artist paintings. The problem is therefore very real and by its very diversity tends to be approached sporadically in an individual manner on largely experimental lines, so that it is not easy to discover routine solutions universally applicable. Indeed, with the contemporary trend towards the subject department development of libraries, it seems likely that much of this work will become organised either into an Audio-visual Materials Department or be divided between the Music and Fine Arts Departments. The latter would seem a more acceptable solution.

THE MUSIC DEPARTMENT AND GRAMOPHONE RECORDS

The present situation suggests a considerable extension in the near future of services ancillary to music—gramophone records, tape recordings, but only to a lesser degree, actual music scores and the literature of music. Ideally, this group of material does not fall into the usual concept of a public lending library. Only the books will be appropriately classified, catalogued, shelved and issued by methods similar to those of the main stock. Music scores need special shelving (to give lateral support, greater depth and height), special binding, sometimes in a comparatively unconventional form; music bibliography, cataloguing and classifying are specialist activities; and the control of loans requires frequently not only knowledge of music notation but of the physical presentation of the work. Even so, few people have yet urged that this specialist minority service, primarily useful only to executants, should be curtailed on these grounds; yet these are substantially the objections raised against the provision of gramophone records and other non-book materials.

Most objections may easily be countered from first-hand observation of the service. Thus, the people who actually borrow records are themselves frequently the owners of records and are aware of the need for

care and of the intrinsic value of the material. Nevertheless, there are careless users and also accidents, so provision must be made to deal with damages, by inspection on return and by the deposit of a sufficient sum of money to reimburse the library or to act as a caution. The financial burden may be solved by forming the collection by means of an initial grant, specially included in the annual estimates and thereafter, by the levy of a sufficient charge for each loan, the scheme may be made not only self-supporting but even to show a balance sufficient to make possible replacements and reasonable additions to stock. The fact that some damage and loss may occur need not deny the majority of careful users this extra and greatly appreciated service.

Some doubt exists as to the legality of making charges for a special service and it was recommended in the Roberts Report that in any future legislation the loan of gramophone records and allied materials, together with their accompanying charges, should be made legal.

Some routines practised in gramophone record libraries may be of interest and are tabulated for convenience.

(i) *Loan:*— may be limited to societies or may be freely made to individuals; the period is usually limited to a week.

(ii) *Deposit:*— ten shillings seems a normal requirement; one ticket being allowed per person in return.

(iii) *Charges:*— 6d. per record, even for multi-record works, seems frequent.

(iv) *Access:*— the ornamental sleeves may be available for inspection by the public, with actual records stored in plain manila sleeves, vertically in cabinets accessible only to staff. On issue, the ornamental sleeve is filed in place of the record and at the counter the borrower's ticket is matched with a book-card giving the particulars of the record borrowed. This system enables fines to be charged if desired. Alternatively, an indicator system of cards showing details of the records, with a coloured tag to distinguish those already on loan, has been found very satisfactory, especially where accommodation is cramped. No purpose is served by allowing actual records to be handled during choice.

(v) *Inspection:*— on return, records must be inspected for damage. This may be done quite simply under a magnifying glass; more elaborately, special machines will test not only for scratch marks but also for evidence of over-use, and abuse by incorrect stylus.

(vi) *Selection of stock:*— quantity should not be the dominant aim— that is, the cheaper records should not be bought merely to enable a larger coverage of works or greater number of loans to be made. The great advantage of limiting issue to societies is that the librarian will be encouraged to purchase the best recordings and will be spared the 'cheap fiction' controversy. Statistics will clearly not seem so impressive, but the lasting appreciation of the

service will be more wide-spread, and the library will receive genuine publicity among those people whose opinion is to be valued.

(vii) *Performance:*— if possible, recitals should be actively encouraged in the library premises and the possibility of planned series of musically illustrated lectures should be explored having due regard to Performing Right and copyright requirements. It seems unnecessary and is probably impracticable in most libraries to provide sound-proof cubicles in which borrowers may test records before making their choice.

(viii) *Educational use:*— where music students are likely to use a Music Department, consideration should be given to providing turn-tables and headphones for individual listeners, *see* Plates 49, 72. This is specially valuable for recordings of musical research material and needs to be complemented by access to appropriate books. Such a development is rarely possible in British public libraries owing to unsuitable buildings.

For model Rules & Regulations, see pp. 27-28.

ILLUSTRATIONS COLLECTIONS

A much older special service within the library is the provision of purely pictorial material, that is, the Illustrations Collection. Properly conducted, this should be a representative collection of pictures illustrating all manner of persons, places, events and objects; and will be of immense value to artists, commercial or otherwise, school-teachers, and very frequently, to the Reference Librarian.

The pictures are usually gleaned from periodicals, though occasionally discarded books or, better, donations, are a profitable source. It is very seldom that funds are available for the purchase of e.g. first quality reproductions of artistic masterpieces, desirable though this might be. In general, selection of illustrations must be guided by the quality of reproduction and merit for information rather than as a pretty picture. When selected, the pictures should be mounted on suitably strong manila sheets of standard sizes. The identity of the subject should be endorsed in Indian ink, a classmark allotted and written in the top right-hand corner. As accumulated, these illustrations should be filed in vertical filing cabinets of standard size (extra large mounts, few in number normally, may be stored flat in special boxes). Opinion varies as to the merits of a formal classification scheme, e.g. Dewey Decimal, or specific alphabetical subject headings; examples of each being available in the great illustrations collections. Specific classification appears the most fruitful in library practice, especially in view of the inherent grouping of related subjects. It is desirable to have a competent subject index as a companion to the collection for use by both staff and borrowers.

Loans from the collection should be made by entry on a special slip,

allowing for name and address of reader, the number of illustrations borrowed and their subject, together with the date. No restriction on the number to be borrowed need be enforced. Before leaving the library, all illustrations should be placed in a strong manila folder or other suitable carrier for protection during transit. Rules for these loans may well include a prohibition against damaging the mounts by drawing pins and cellotape.

LANTERN SLIDES

Lantern slides, often found as an adjunct to the Illustrations Collections, were for some years very much out of fashion, except those of local history interest. Historical slides are once again much sought after, especially by television producers, but the main public library use is likely to continue at the local history or geographical travel level.

Black and white slides may easily be prepared from book illustrations, photographs or maps, and modern colour photography readily yields colour transparencies easily mounted for use in a projector. This modern technique and the new popularity of home projectors has given a new interest to what seemed an obsolete service.

The library problem is mainly one of storage, which is simply the provision of suitably sized baize-lined drawers in cabinets similar to those used to house the catalogue. The drawers should have fairly frequent partitions to obviate friction between the slides and to give them support. Transport of slides should always be in special wooden containers, lined with baize or soft felt and secured with special straps independent of the carrying strap. Particular care should be taken to ensure that explanatory notes or commentary should be preserved for loan with the appropriate slides.

FILM STRIPS

Should the library have film strips as part of its stock, (and this may include micro films of periodicals or of book rarities) again special storage will be necessary. Short films of this kind are usually provided with individual aluminium cylinders with close-fitting lids for storage, and may be conveniently kept within these, especially as the title and other data may easily be written on a label attached to the upper end. All that is needed to preserve order in a large or growing collection is a series of small pigeon-holes in which the cylinders may be placed, so as to show the identifying labels. Film container and pigeon-hole may be numbered to facilitate filing and identification from the appropriate catalogue. The explanatory notes usually supplied with film strips should be carefully filed in an adjoining filing cabinet in similar numerical order, with the reference number clearly endorsed on the cover. Great care should be taken to inspect all film on return for scratch marks or any breakage and also to check that the accompanying text is intact.

2. Extension Services: special categories of readers; prisons, hospitals, housebound readers, deposit libraries.

In addition to the supply of specialised materials to special elements of the community, librarians today consider their responsibility extends beyond the walls of the library to include service to various categories of readers who need books, but who, for some reason or other, are prevented from visiting the library in person. Gradually and rather fortuitously, there has grown up a considerable number of these 'extension activities', and some examination of them is proper as affecting the main service and book provision.

The problem may be considered as involving (a) those who are able to visit libraries, but whose needs are in some way restricted and (b) those not able to visit the library. In (a) are included the blind, children at school, adolescents only contacted through youth clubs; in (b) are considered inmates of prisons, hospitals and the housebound (through age or infirmity). Within these two general groupings the service will primarily, though not exclusively, tend to be recreational and will not particularly involve a supply of specialised non-book materials.

The problem to the librarian is essentially one of economic deployment of resources, both books and staff. It is clear that over-extension of book-stock, chiefly of the recreational stock, and of staff may greatly weaken the general library service, without commensurate gain to any special category of reader. Caution must therefore be observed, especially in view of frequent appeals to provide 'a few books' in a room at a club without any further intervention. It is useful to recall that a library service implies the services of a librarian, and that voluntary workers are seldom an adequate substitute.

Extension services should, preferably, be organised in conjunction with existing agencies, which may already be functioning among the people concerned. Thus, the National Library for the Blind supplies books for blind readers, sometimes through the medium of the public library, but more frequently through their own local societies; the Schools will usually have their own libraries, even though welcoming block loans from the public library; the Youth Officer is the local expert on adolescents and their organisation; the Hospital Boards are responsible for the conduct of hospitals and libraries are frequently already referred by them to the St. John or Red Cross voluntary librarians; the Prison Commissioners have their regulations for amenities in their institutions; the local Welfare Officer is responsible for the aged and housebound. Local societies, musical, artistic, cultural, are more frequently obliged for accommodation at the library, but may be of value in promoting the use of specialised non-book material.

The librarian about to embark on extension services will do well to ascertain what, if anything, is already being done by these or similar agencies, and the establishment of some informal committee of respon-

sible representatives might be considered. At a minimum, consultation will be essential, for some of these organisations, e.g. hospitals and prisons, have strict regulations regarding access; most have only limited accommodation; some have funds available for the purchase of books or will wish to designate their own staff to work under supervision from the public librarian (schools, hospitals, prisons). It will be for the public librarian to make the most of the available resources in each of these organisations and to ascertain the competent authority with whom to negotiate. He must also realistically face the need to adapt his own library practices and routines to other particular circumstances.

PRISON LIBRARIES

An enlightened policy of penology has brought invitations from the Prison Commissioners to many local libraries to supply books to their institutions on a *per capita* basis of payment for books, together with agreements for co-operation between the Prison Officers, who are paid a special responsibility allowance for library duty, and the permanent library assistant chosen for the duty. This liaison with the public library will ensure a certain instruction in necessary routine methods, e.g. the operation of request services from the public library stock, the control of loans, and recording of elementary statistics. More important, a regular system of book exchange with the public library stock must be organised. Herein lies the contribution of the trained librarian and it will be a matter of professional pride that the prison library stock should not be the detritus of the public library, but should receive as careful attention in selection and maintenance as a normal branch library.

Internal access to the library service and discipline is a matter for the Prison Governor and will be greatly conditioned by the antiquated prison buildings so generally prevalent. As this service is basically comprised of books circulated from the public stock, no local maintenance or binding provision need be made and, in view of the personal nature of the request service, no catalogue will have to be provided.

HOSPITAL LIBRARIES

Though not functioning in such restrictive conditions, the library service to hospital patients has to adjust to the medical organisation and has developed to the fullest degree only when there has been the internal appointment of a librarian by the management with proper allocation of accommodation, finance and responsibilities. This policy will, in addition, permit proper library service to the nursing staff, if desired.

The great teaching hospitals of London have been well to the fore in this respect and much practical experience has been made available to the library profession from that source. Provision is, however, sporadic, and by no means universal. A most urgent problem is that of finding finance and the accommodation for books, with the necessary space for

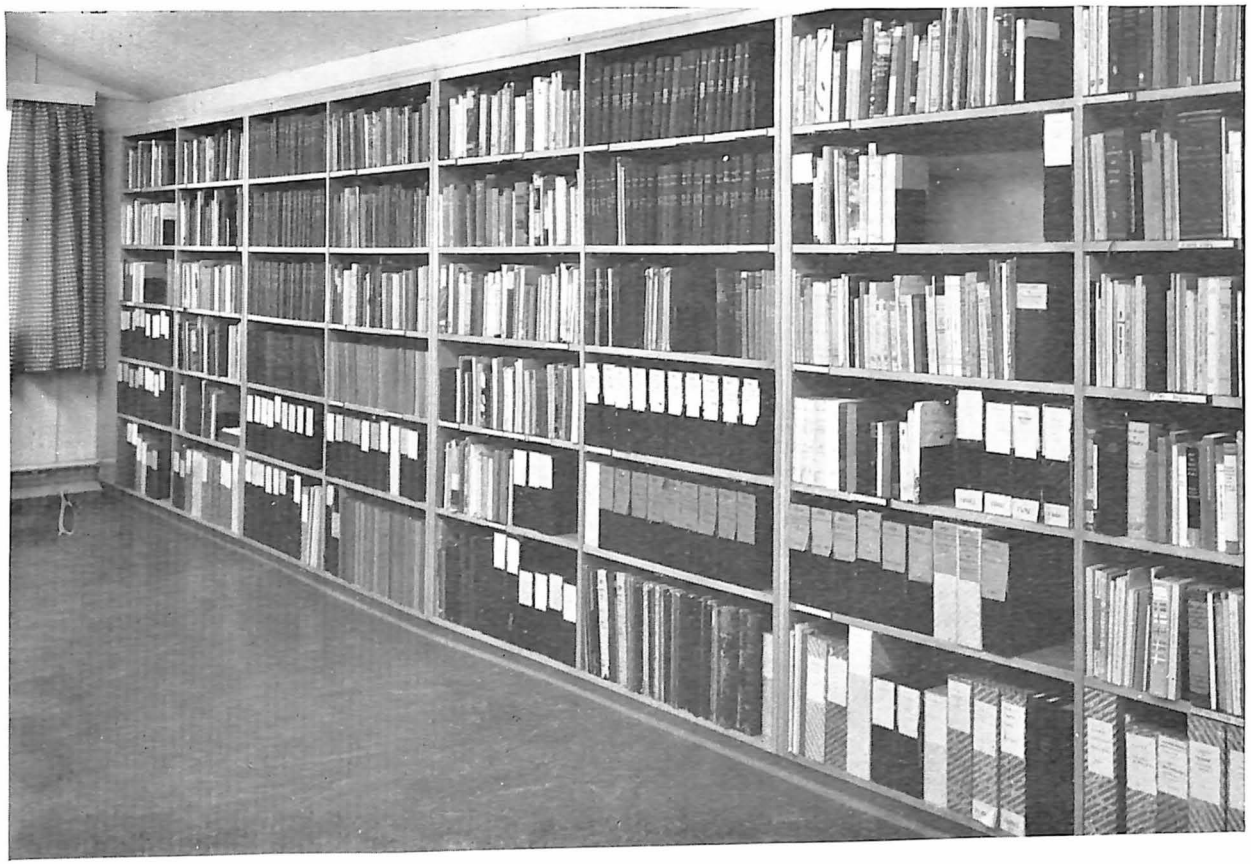


Plate No. 44.

Institute of Education Library, London University. *Typical of most subject libraries in its heavy proportion of quartos, pamphlets (housed here in boxes in main sequence) and other unbound material, and highly specific shelfedge guiding.*

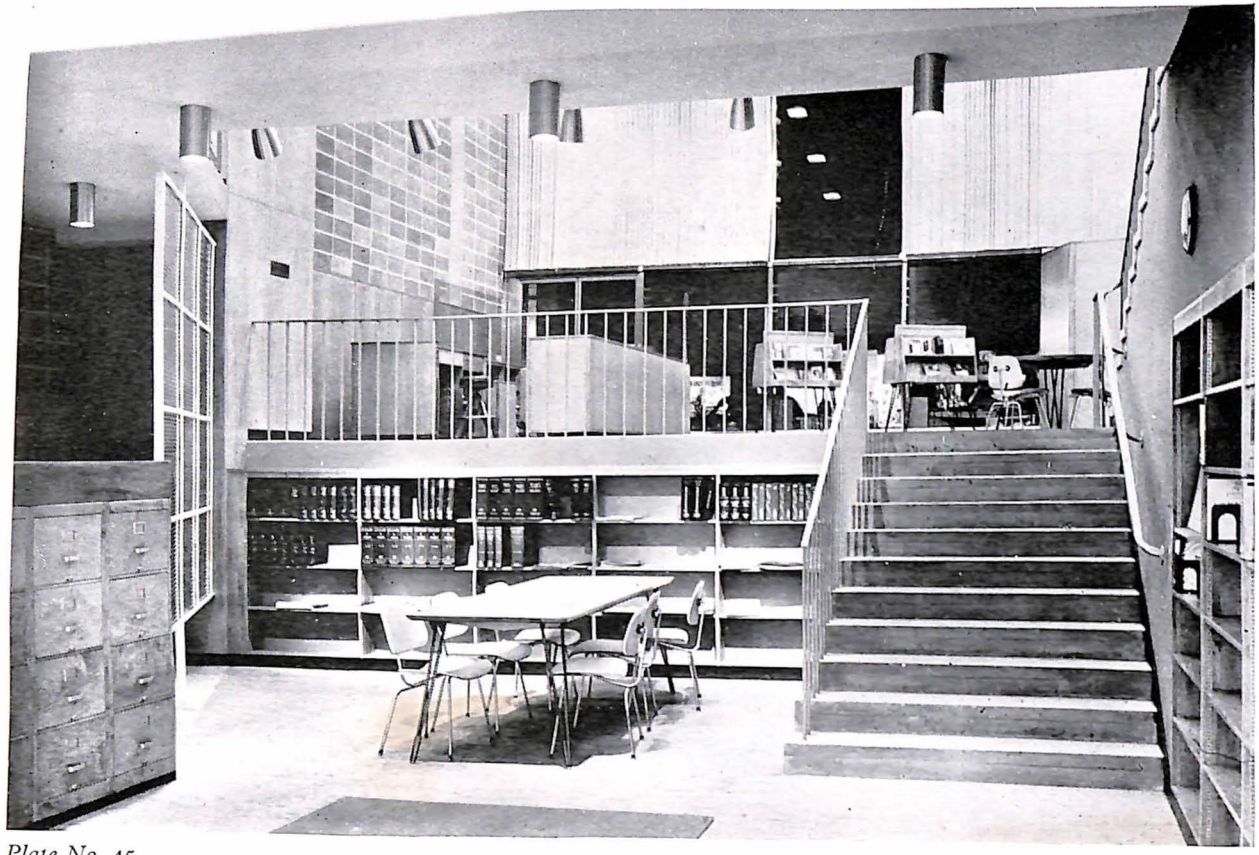


Plate No. 45.

Mercantile Library Branch, Philadelphia. *Interesting aesthetically by virtue of different floor levels, oblique wall surfaces and cylindrical light fittings.*

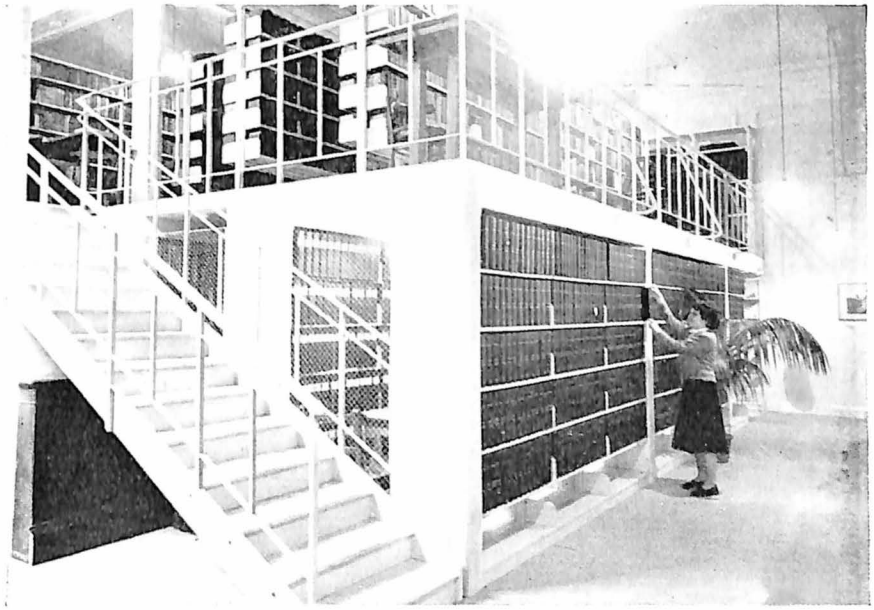


Plate No. 46.

Liverpool Public Library. *Temporary stack accommodation in the Patents Library. The extensive alterations to the rapidly changing central libraries of Liverpool are fully described and illustrated in the* Guide to the rebuilt Brown Library . . . 1961

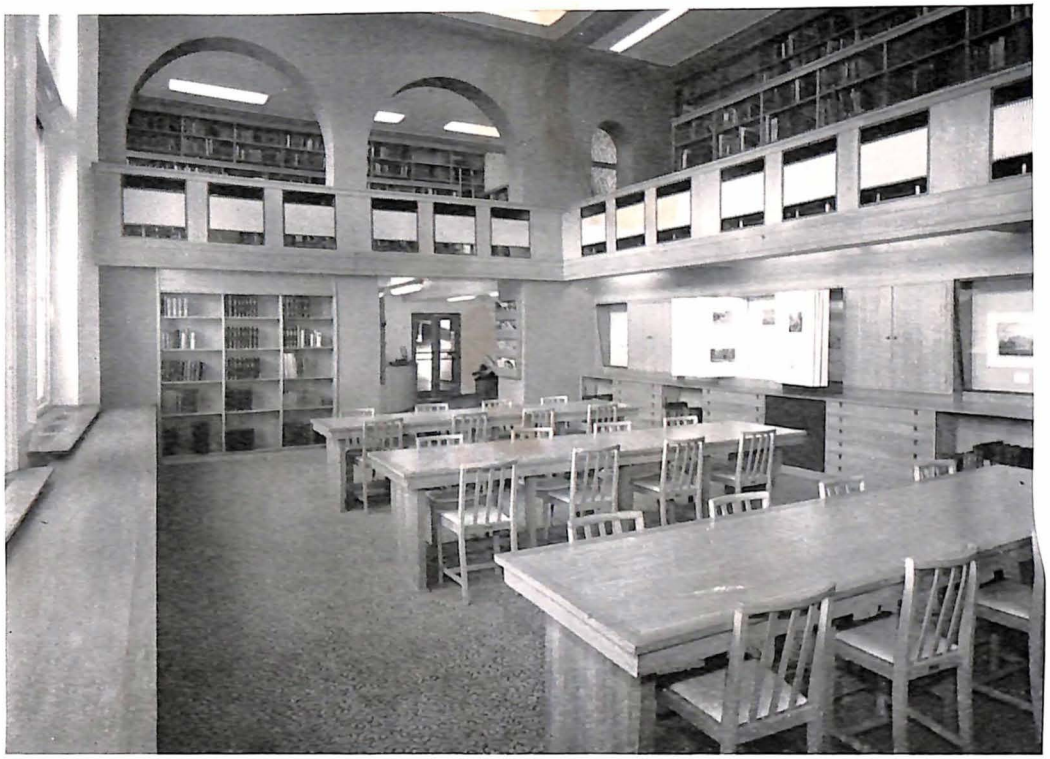


Plate No. 47.

Leeds Public Library. *A subject department dealing with the literature of the fine arts.*

office work—repairs, records, correspondence. The picture emerges of librarians requiring special instruction, not only in hospital routine, but in the psychology of patients and the correct approach to them. Almost the worst service, though made inevitable by present circumstances, is that from a trolley wheeled perfunctorily round a ward by an over-worked amateur, uninstructed in books, incapable of supplementing the meagre display or of understanding the individual needs of a patient. A seemingly more elaborate service, using properly trained staff, though initially more expensive, would ultimately be both more economic and more effective. It should be possible in modern buildings to provide adequate storage space to enable a reasonable request service to be implemented without undue delay, even if financial stringencies will prevent the establishment of properly equipped and staffed reading rooms for those patients who are allowed or are capable of leaving their beds for short intervals. When the public library organises the service, it is usual, rather than drawing on stock from the home reading departments, to form an independent hospital library book pool, changing stock between the institutions periodically, if necessary, and supplementing it on demand by a request service from the main public library.

Control is theoretically simple—patients are never discharged without formalities—but depends very considerably on the co-operation of the ward staff. The service being personal and individual, the name and ward of each reader may easily be recorded as the loan is made, on a suitable sized book-card, together with the date. When returned, this record may be initialled and cancelled by the librarian. Signatures from patients are less reliable than one might expect, but permanent addresses can usually be found if necessary from the almoner. The most obstinate problem to solve is the mysterious disappearance of books due to casual borrowing or lending among patients and staff; a certain percentage of stock will almost inevitably be lost this way each year. Selection of stock will necessarily cause much thought. A high standard of cleanliness is essential, therefore it is unwise to rely on books drawn from the general public collection. Choice of the titles to be supplied will require experience in assessing a happy mean between the lowest level of popular requests and an impossible standard of 'good literature'. Certain obvious rules such as the avoidance of morbid literature and those books of religious or other propaganda need hardly be stressed; far too little is known of the problems and reactions of patients in hospital surroundings to form easy judgements as to their likely reading tastes. There is no reason to presume that the public library reader will dramatically change his reading habits on admittance to a hospital, but unfortunately far too little is known of the individual 'average reader'.

HOUSEBOUND READERS

Readers who are unable to leave their homes to visit the library, the

'housebound' in modern terminology, are, to an increasing extent, being cared for by the library staff, who frequently organise a rota of visits to such persons as may be known to be in need of the service. Such readers may themselves notify the library of their interest or the Welfare Officer may introduce the library service to the potential reader; a society or even a casual visitor may likewise provide the link. However it is done, individual house visiting can clearly only be on a limited scale, unless voluntary workers can be organised into some scheme for systematic and regular calls. It is as important that due emphasis be laid on the regularity as on the continuity of the scheme; and it is in this that difficulties are inevitable. As in all social work, by no means everyone is suitable, and an enthusiast may ultimately be less effective than a patient, unimaginative but regular worker. Most local authorities have trained Welfare Officers on their staff, and it is with him that the librarian will work, once it becomes clear that there is a substantial demand for serving these housebound readers. In no part of librarianship is the lack of a printed catalogue more serious than in this extra-mural work, for it is virtually impossible that any person, trained librarian or not, should have the necessary knowledge of the library stock to give anything like an adequate choice to the handicapped reader. Should a mobile library service be operated (especially in towns) the actual choice of books may be greatly increased, but the repercussions on the time schedule of the mobile library of attempting this extension activity will be very serious, and not lightly undertaken.

DEPOSIT LIBRARIES

Most librarians are at times requested to provide 'a few books' in Youth Clubs, Old People's Homes, social institutions and W.E.A. or University Extension classes. During World War II such deposit libraries were frequently placed in A.R.P. centres, in army depots—indeed, anywhere where people might have occasional time to read, and the idea seems an ancient one, appearing well over a hundred years ago in philanthropic contexts. The modern librarian will certainly question the value of removing books from the main library service and from the care of the staff; he will also question the cost of refreshing the deposits at intervals, remembering especially the experience of county libraries, and will doubt whether any useful purpose is served unless his staff can be present to give the necessary service.

In certain circumstances, usually in schools and for organised educational courses, a carefully selected list of books may well be made available from the library resources, especially if the school is inconveniently far from the library or the lecture course is held after library hours. This policy is fundamentally different from the few boxes of books usually requested by other bodies—their interests are almost always recreational and, as has been observed elsewhere, this is an

expensive service which can only be administered at comparatively few points in the authority. When a definite commitment, as for a lecture course, can be undertaken and the library has a well-defined area of knowledge to cover, the service can genuinely be considered beneficial, though it is still necessary to make provision for careful control of these loan materials. An acceptable method is for the books to be despatched to the lecture hall and kept in boxes similar to those used by county libraries, and the key given in charge of the organising secretary. He or she will ensure that all books borrowed are signed for by the reader and that they are returned at the end of the course. Some special notice in the book is needed to indicate that it is on loan to the course and should not be returned direct to the library during the period covered by the course. It is of considerable advantage to the library service if one of the staff can supervise the operation of these libraries, providing if necessary, booklists and other material to indicate the further services which the library may offer to the students concerned.

SCHOOL LIBRARIES

Earlier editions of this *Manual* envisaged the development of School Libraries working in close relationship with the Public Library Service. This seems now unlikely to occur, in view of the latest Education Acts, which provide for adequate library accommodation in school buildings, a limited amount of finance for purchasing books; and recognise teachers as part-time librarians. Much good work will continue to be done for many years by co-operation between the two agencies, and it seems appropriate to refer to this part of the work here, having considered extra school work with children as part of the normal library work with children in Chapter XIII.

The librarian can do much to help the school-teacher, who is confronted with his own work plus that of the school library. Trained staff can be seconded (if the school is sufficiently large, and frequently in the case of the new Technical Colleges) to establish the new library, to lay down routines, prepare the books, catalogue, classify and indicate methods of book selection. For the initial period, this is sound, but it is also necessary to loan substantial numbers of books, while the school is building up a reasonable stock; to organise regular repair, discard or binding services; and to instruct the users, staff or students, in the correct function of a library. Here, the public library training and experience can be invaluable, though it should be subjected to modification, in view of the new organisation into which it has to fit. Particularly this is true of purchasing arrangements, which must coincide with the practice of the Education Authority for the requisition of all school stationery. It is prudent for the librarian to know of the rules and regulations of the school as well as those of the Authority, and to appreciate that even the Headmaster is not a completely free agent.

The training courses organised by various Institutes of Education, the work of the Schools Library Association and the joint Library Association-Schools Library Association Teacher Librarian Certificate have all helped to raise the standard of this immensely important work. Perhaps even more to be encouraged is the provision in public libraries of collections of standard recommended or otherwise desirable books suitable for school libraries, to which teachers are invited in order that they may inspect books before purchase. This is particularly appreciated in those areas where book-shops are virtually non-existent, and does much to widen the teacher's own knowledge of modern trends in writing for children.

CHAPTER XVI

BOOK STOCK: COLLECTION AND UPKEEP

1. ACQUISITION:—ORGANISATION AND ROUTINE

Of all the administrative functions of a library, none is more important than those collectively termed stock control. So closely related is the book collection to the purposes accepted by a library, so essential is the regular, adequate flow of additions to maintain the state of the existing collection, the further maintenance of it by replacing outworn copies and retaining titles considered essential, old and drab as they are, and the careful pruning of the collection so as to obliterate yesterday's mistakes while leaving a sound structure for future growth—that in research libraries much of this is done outside the library, by its clientele. The administrators of public library systems by contrast themselves bear the main responsibility for their contents: and it is not surprising that they attract public attention normally only by purchasing or failing to purchase some controversial document of the time.

The scope of this chapter does not extend to reviewing the various schools of thought in book selection, as these can only be considered integral to differing conceptions of library service itself, while outside public libraries, so closely linked is the library with its parent organisation—university, research institution, or whatever it may be—that there is little room for debate as to the underlying aims of book purchase. Even in public libraries, book acquisition in practice bears little resemblance to abstract discussion. The many faceted nature of books renders almost impossible any satisfactory application to them of hard and fast selection principles, while the more adequate funds of at least larger library systems in recent years have allowed them to acquire virtually every major English language publication and removed the poignancy of conflicting doctrines. About the financial aspects of book purchase it would also be out of place to dogmatise here. Libraries of roughly equal size tend to spend much the same, and the administrator of a public or university library will pay particular attention to the average book fund of the libraries most closely resembling his own, as revealed by published statistics and by personal correspondence, striving at least to keep abreast of this average. Public library authorities in Britain take into account also the suggested financial standards laid down from time to time by the Library Association, aware that these represent not radical idealism but a careful compromise.

Administratively, book acquisition, as distinct from stock control as a whole, raises three questions of practice, more profitable to discuss

than theories of selection. These are:— the extent to which control of selection can be delegated; the routine needed for securing adequate information about possible additions; and the routine to be followed in placing orders.

Like every other function of library service, book selection must be considered to reside initially in the authority itself. A community of thousands cannot select books: its elected representatives, serving as a library committee, can: and should they choose so to do, they are exercising no more than their rights—some would say, their duties. Obvious disadvantages do of course attach to any activity so full of minutiae when carried on by a committee, discontinuous in existence and transient in membership. Decisions cannot be obtained quickly, since meetings are normally infrequent: they are likely to be taken hastily in some cases, and in others after disproportionate heart-searching, according to the exigencies of business and the temper of committee-men; while even conscientious committees may have very vague ideas about the upkeep of existing collections. In great libraries, and those with widely scattered board or committee members, such as state or county libraries, delegation to the permanent executive is almost inevitable, general direction of acquisitions policy resting with the authority. Such policy may well be embodied in a published statement of selection aims, which can be invoked in controversial cases and which should offer considerable guidance to acquisitions staff in their work: clarifying the general aims of the library's buying, it will also set down its practice in the case of dogmatic politics and racial theory, religion and literary works of strong sexual colouring: for instance, the often quoted Baltimore Public Library policy statement, produced in the shadow of the McCarthy era. Even within the framework of a policy statement, and with the exception of works costing over some arbitrary price limit such as five pounds, which are usually referred for board or committee decision, the librarian should feel free to refer upwards for particular rulings at any time, whenever he prefers not to take the responsibility of interpreting or extending basic policy principles in relation to some debatable title. Since any book added may be the subject of comment from a newspaperman in search of a story or a disgruntled correspondent, it is as well for the librarian to have his weapons to hand, and to be sure of his authority for whatever he may do.

Particularly in large libraries, if selection has passed principally into the hands of the librarian, by custom or by formal delegation, he in turn may well question how far he should try to retain personal control over this, or should refer it to his staff. In smaller libraries, the chief finds much of his time spent on books: elsewhere, considerable internal delegation may take place, although it is rare indeed now for the book-fund to be split up among branch and district librarians without any

central co-ordination of their spending. In larger city libraries, selection may be the province of a committee of senior staff. An extension of this system, initiated in Baltimore, is to require staff members to prepare personal reviews of at least the more debatable items for the committee's decision. It is certainly well in departmentalised systems for subject librarians to make their contribution in selection in their own fields for the whole system, and for the voice of all public departments to be heard freely: but it is equally desirable that the chief should take a lively interest in acquisition matters. No other ambassador, after all, can so adequately represent the library in the delicate task of negotiating or soliciting large scale donations or the deposit of rare or unique materials, such as city and university librarian must often undertake. Nor can any other person assume responsibility for 'friends of the library' groups such as are associated with many of the richer collections. Outside the library, whether he will or no, its head is taken to be more than an official moving amongst officials.

In any organisation, acquisitions work requires continually two kinds of information: factual information as to what new books are available—information about titles, authors, publishers and prices—and on occasion interpretation, criticism and comment sufficient to justify a final 'yes' or 'no'. Too much should not, perhaps, be made of the second case. In many instances, the experienced selector knows from a glance at prospectus or booklist whether he wants the book or not: he knows that it will be sought after in his library, or he knows the standing of the author from previous works: or he knows that his library needs a book on that subject, shoddy and makeshift though it may be. Any library which makes its contribution to fresh thinking and discussion of current questions must contain many indifferent books: many new publications of this kind *must* be on the shelves on publication day if the library's reputation is to be maintained. In large European towns, it may be possible to arrange with local booksellers for most books to be available for inspection and purchase before publication: thus in Britain the schemes inaugurated in the 1950s by Liverpool, Birmingham and Bradford gave their libraries a marked advantage over those gearing their ordering and cataloguing to the arrival of the *British National Bibliography*. Many small American towns on the other hand must rely on the advance information provided in the Kirkus list or Bowker's *Books to Come* if they are to obtain their books by publication day. In Britain, long-standing agreements entered into by many libraries to place 'blanket' orders with their suppliers for all titles falling within certain categories represent another abeyance of the selector's critical function.[1] A further aspect of this lies in the fact that in special collections particularly much of the most useful material comes gratis on request direct from non-book-trade sources:— from great firms issuing

[1] For subject and other specialisation schemes, *see* Chapter VI on co-operation.

well-produced explanatory or background publications as an introduction to their work or products: from their research departments, in the form of individual papers and journals embodying such of their findings as are cleared for publication: from trade development associations, describing in general terms the products of a given industry. Thus in the case of building technology serviceable publications emanate from the British development associations alone covering brick and tile, cement and concrete, timber, lime, plaster board, fibre board, copper, lead and asphalt products. Any acquisitions librarian aware of the usefulness of such material to reinforce the normal book trade imprints ensures that his library is placed on the appropriate mailing lists to receive future issues automatically, as he does with the trade catalogues of the major engineering firms. Whatever the purchasing arrangements operating centrally in great library systems most subject libraries will obtain considerable quantities of such matter on their own initiative—all, of course, needing to be acknowledged punctiliously.

Thus most decisions can and must be taken quickly: the learned and cultivated discussion which characterised subscription library book committees 80 years and more ago will never return. In a few cases when there is good cause for hesitation—the expensive American publication, or the costly item from a new publisher—rather than obtain each debatable title on approval, it may be desirable to await reviews in the more important subject journals, late though these often are. In some libraries, marked cuttings from such reviewing sources may be clipped to the suggestion slip and this slip filed alphabetically under author in trays awaiting committee decision. Occasionally the *Book Review Digest* may be used to advantage, collating as it does the judgement of several different sources not always available in the original. Less profitably, application is sometimes made to local university staff, research scientists and persons connected with specialised local societies: but such judgements tend to be personal and unrelated to the needs of the library's collection. It would probably be true to say that the average acquisitions librarian spends more time checking through other libraries' accessions lists—above all, lists in fields of special local interest—than in the scrutiny of reviews once extensively practised. Keeping abreast of the flow of publishers' announcements, watching also for special prepublication discounts, claims much of his time, as does interviewing the publishers' travellers, who are a traditional source of gossip and anecdote.

2. RECORDS AND EQUIPMENT

Little equipment is needed by an efficient Acquisitions Unit: nor need its records be many. An alphabetical 'Ordered' file of slips or cards, to be checked before any fresh orders are placed, forms the chief record. It is as well to use standard size 'proposal' slips, 5″ × 3″, on which both

readers and staff can note titles, publishers and prices, and to house the 'ordered' file in desk top cabinets. Each slip should have the bookseller and date of ordering added, or the order number by means of which this information can be found in the duplicate order sheets. Routine should include a regular, perhaps monthly, weeding to discover titles not yet supplied, slips not removed when the book was received, and other queries.

The second essential record is the desiderata file, showing the titles of those works considered basic to the collection, but out of print and as yet unobtainable through other channels: this will be used in checking through second hand, remainder, micro-publication, exchange and British National Book Centre lists, and in growing libraries may run to many trays. In any library, it is also desirable to have in the vertical files or elsewhere an alphabetical record of donors' names together with lists of the books presented by each: this may be wanted later for historical purposes and in any case is necessary out of mere tact. The

WREXHAM PUBLIC LIBRARY

SUGGESTION FORM

Author and title.....

Publisher..... *Price*..... *Date*.....

Suggested by (Mr. Mrs. Miss) .....

Address .....

Fig. 34. Suggestion Slip. *Effective: but for filing purposes, better with author and title on separate lines. A single purpose form.*

person with books to dispose of is less offended by a polite refusal at the outset than by an acceptance followed a year or two later by complete ignorance as the the fate of the volumes presented.

For their factual information about new books, many British libraries make do with the *British National Bibliography* and the *Bookseller* week by week, the Stationery Office *Monthly List* less often, and the *Reference Catalogue of Current Literature* in the case of older works still in print. To them should be added an alphabetical file of the general

catalogues of major British and American publishers and any firms concentrating primarily on fields in which the library has special collections: perhaps also a directory of antiquarian booksellers, a dictionary of foreign book trade terms and a file of *Book Prices Current*. The competent Acquisitions Head will also see that some of the excellent current guides to non-British publications distributed gratis are at hand: the *Stechert-Hafner Book News*, Bowker's *Books from the United States*, and *Das Deutsche Buch* among others. Large libraries will subscribe to the current complete lists from major countries and possess the 'books in print' list such as *La Librairie francaise*: but there is little excuse for the Acquisitions Unit in a scholarly library taking out a long lease on the major bibliographies to the detriment of the open shelf reference collection. So essential a part of the service of a great library are such titles that it is better in the event of serious competition for their use to subscribe also to the main alternative title, shelving the *Bibliographie de la France* on open access and *Biblio* for staff use, and so on.

3. ORDERING, ACCESSIONING, PROCESSING

In its choice of ordering routine hardly any library is wholly free. For the purposes of audit, the routine adopted by every local government department must be acceptable to the authority's finance officer: all Ministry libraries, similarly, must conform in general with the requirements of the Treasury. In essence obviously the library, the bookseller and the treasurer should each have an adequate record of total purchases, and the former two should know also the titles associated with each separate order. Thus commonly the official order is a sizeable document with columns for author, title, publisher, published price, net price after discount is allowed, with one or two carbon copies taken from the original.[1] On the other hand, by arrangement with the bookseller and treasurer, it may be no more than a covering note on the lines 'Please supply . . . items as marked in copy of *British National Bibliography* for week ending ....., to a total of £... ...s. .. d.', while the full order form is used only for second-hand purchases, American, foreign and local items. This of course assumes that the majority of books are ordered only when listed by the *B.N.B.*: a limitation which to some would appear deplorable.

The running number method to distinguish rapidly one transaction from a large number of others is universal: thus, customers' orders in a large firm, personnel in the armed forces, and letters sent out of a busy organisation are all individualised in this way. Hence also the running number method normally applied to book orders. Similarly it may be helpful throughout the history of any volume in a library's collection to designate it by a number distinct from that carried by any other volume: hence the traditional practice of 'accessioning' books, so that

[1] Cf. the order form reproduced in Chapter V, p. 50.

any copy of any title can be recognised easily.[2] Such accession numbers have at various times consisted of stock numbers covering the entire collection in one sequence, or separate sequences of numbers representing books in each main class, such as pure science, or books in each department or branch: sometimes the sequence continues indefinitely, elsewhere numbers left vacant by books discarded are used again.

List No..... Item No.....

Author .....

Title .....

Library	Purchase New	Purchase Secondhand	Coding Secondhand
C.L.L.			
A.G.			
A.			
A.X.			
T.H.			
W.E.			
Y.W.			
Total number of copies			

Coding New	/ /		Invoice checked by	
B.N.B.				
Classified by		(m)		
		(a)		
Catalogued by		U.C. Card		Green Card	
Multilithed				Allocated	

Fig. 35. Combined Allocation and Process Slip. *Used in a pre-publication ordering system based on one bookseller's lists not on order sheet, and thus in every respect exceptional. Top half completed after inspection of books at weekly selection meeting, bottom in cataloguing unit: forms retained for one year to show distribution of copies for purposes of audit.*

[2] More generally, the term is also used often to cover all phases of the receipt and preparation of books.

Elaborate and time-consuming in busy libraries, such methods have produced various reactions. Some libraries many years ago concluded that there was little point in using one set of numbers to apply to books before receipt, and another after arrival, deciding instead to use only the order number to distinguish each volume during its life in the collection —in charging routines, for instance. On the other hand, at much the same time a few libraries, British and American, Birmingham among them, chose to abandon accession numbers altogether, relying on copy numbers to distinguish one volume from another of the same title. The failure of the majority to follow this radical practice can perhaps be attributed to poor relations with the authority's audit department. Another expedient, that of allocating blocks of numbers to each of the library's regular booksellers, so that accessioning can be done by the latter as a concealed discount, is still in force: while automatic numbering stamps, reducing the clerical tedium of the process, are common in well-equipped libraries.

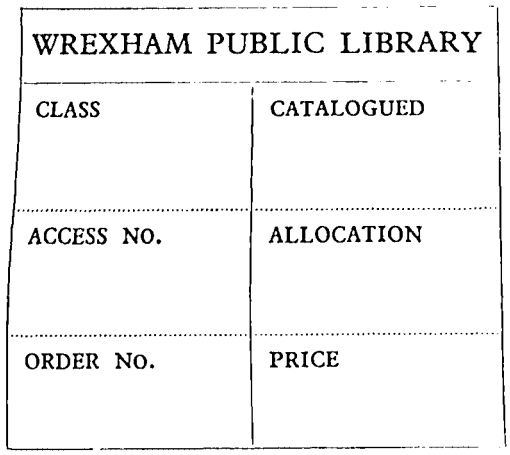


Fig. 36. Process Stamp for Title Page Verso. *Query: are locations and order numbers worth giving here? And in a small library, must the sole cataloguer initial every book?*

4. MAINTENANCE

New books are but one aspect of stock maintenance: the discovery and filling of older gaps in basic stock, the replacement of essential titles which are worn out, the removal of less used but potentially useful books to storage, and the discarding of useless works are others, all appropriately grouped together as one man's responsibility—a field of responsibility accorded little recognition in terms of organisation until recent times. In Britain, this was perhaps first realised shortly after World War II, notably in Lambeth Public Library, where a drastic

stock revision begun as the prelude to a scheme of centralised cataloguing culminated in the appointment of a Stock Editor responsible for such duties. A useful by-product of this for other libraries was, incidentally, a series of checklists of 'basic' or standard works, each list on some specific subject and based often on collaboration with some body such as a professional society or teaching institution. Similar appointments made later in other metropolitan libraries and the designation of a bibliographical chief assistant in Sheffield challenge strikingly the absurdly departmental attitude to book provision hitherto too common in British municipal library practice.

Any unitary view of the book collection immediately provokes questions of policy such as were evaded earlier in this chapter:— How large a collection is to be envisaged ultimately? What balance should be struck between current and older publications? What proportion of periodicals should be filed?—and other questions which to the non-public librarian must seem a little odd. Almost by definition the term 'University Library' implies a library of size: a quarter of a million volumes, perhaps. No such connotation attaches to the phrase 'Public Library'. For many decades in Britain it has been customary to measure public library stocks by so many volumes, or fractions of a volume, per head of population, implying that the town of 20,000 and the city of a million people are equally served if their library has, say, one volume per person: that there is no minimum size at which a library ceases to be worthy of the name. This ignores what every experienced librarian knows: that the average volume in the small public library tends to be cheaper, less substantial, less informative, than the average volume in the larger. Equally, it ignores the obvious fact that the reader's only test of a library is how far it can enlarge and satisfy the circle of his interests. For him, not volumes per head but—with certain obvious qualifications—volumes per subject, adequately organised, are the relevant yardsticks, and he is uninterested in statistics of volumes in some other library which he might borrow if he knew about them.

Against this, it may be argued that today the reader's library of first resort—the library to which he goes habitually for greatest convenience, public or private—is a matter of less moment than formerly: that a regional branch library, an industrial research library and a training college are but outlets through which the National Library Service is made available, drawing indifferently on the resources of public, academic and other institutions: and that that library need be no more than a token collection. There is no need, the argument goes, for the average public library to keep older books: they will always be available on loan from the universities or the greater reference collections. Thus the printed catalogues of Westminster, for instance, are not amended even when the last Westminster copy of a book is withdrawn. The only realistic reply to this is that in few countries indeed does there exist any

document inaugurating a national library service. For the most part such co-operation as does take place is done only in the absence of agreements and commitments,—by compromise and by subterfuge, with innumerable sacrifices from a few libraries, often beyond what their authorities would consider reasonable, and much bare-faced cadging from debtor libraries: this patchwork affair being liable to be shattered at any time by some maladroit initiative from any group concerned. The only book one can be completely sure of, it can be argued, is in one's own basement. Unwillingness on the part of the holding library to lend: incompetence on the part of its staff: delays in the machinery of regional and national union catalogues: a complete absence of national arrangements to handle information queries unsolved locally—these may be potent reasons why a library of some size should conserve rather than discard its older books, or at least a considerable proportion of them. Very similarly, rather than be dependent on market fluctuations and other circumstances beyond its command, the expanding manufacturing firm may acquire control of the company supplying its most important raw materials. In each case, security, not profit or economy, is the motive.

In any event, remarkable as the success of most co-operative schemes has been from one point of view, no-one concerned for the library service can afford to forget how different these are from having direct access to a full library, and how much less rewarding. It is not merely that checks and annoyances beset the enquirer, that books come slowly or that he may be asked to pay postage incurred: these are pinpricks to be expected. It is, fundamentally, that the system works laboriously title by title, producing what was required of it and no more: it yields never a sight of riches unsuspected, never an unsought stimulus, none of the creative browsing which is an essential part of the use of any library, and for which bibliographies can never be a substitute. Moreover, it is a system almost wholly unequipped to deal with periodicals until they are on the way to be superseded, the serious use of which, despite indices and abstracts, must largely be of an exploratory and browsing nature. The very beginner in a new subject knows how useful can be the current issue of a good journal in his field—not for specific, known contributions, but potentially for facts and generalisations which may be found anywhere in it. Yet there is no provision for lending current issues. The student more advanced will want to consult all the current journals, say five in number, within his field in his own language, or to go through the complete file of one particular title. Yet there is no provision for bloc loans. In the course of an hour's reading, the 'student' or any interested reader may pick up half a dozen references to publications, all of which he would gladly consult in the original. None of them, perhaps, does he want to read in full: over none will he spend more than a quarter of an hour: yet all can make his knowledge wider and more

authoritative. Can anyone pretend that he is really encouraged, in a library heavily dependent on borrowing from outside, to pursue these and similar leads? If he does, what would, in a sound special collection, take no more than an hour, spreads over long weeks. Co-operation, in reality, is never a substitute for adequate special collections, freely accessible to the common man.

Thus an adequate library service for the intelligent reader implies several things:— 1. a generous cross section of the books of his generation, above all in his own language—of, say, the last thirty years. 2. the major periodicals in his tongue in each of the broad subject fields. 3. bibliographies—indices, catalogues, checklists and the rest—the key to material outside the library. 4. direct access to the mass of monographs, theses, offprints and such material in each field acquired by a research library. 5. access through the interlending schemes to such of the non-current material in various languages as he may specifically require. The selection policy worked out by a library represents its attempt to reconcile these demands with the background of its own funds, and its physical ability to store the various kinds of material handled: the less its funds, the more critical its scrutiny of possible purchases in the light of its chosen policy.

Large or small as the collection may be, every decision to add or withdraw a title should conform to the general pattern implied in that policy. Effective coverage over all broad subject fields (the 'horizontal' aspect of stock) precedes 'vertical' accumulations, the concentration of secondary materials in highly specific topics. This calls for consistency of rejection no less than of selection. A library which must rely chiefly for its information about Eastern European countries on the *Statesman's Yearbook* and John Gunther has no place for a thick Rumanian Government statistical publication in English, even through that Government may distribute it free. Its absence does little harm: its presence demands that of a score of other parallel publications such as that library evidently cannot afford. An open shelf collection on any subject may be at introductory level only: or at the level of the practitioner or teacher: or at research level: or it may attempt all those; but it should never venture into any level at which it cannot offer a full, successful and consistent service. Tempting as may be special price offers occurring from time to time, the buyer must not acquire isolated books above the level at which the collection is planned to work. Similarly, no library should accept the offer of considerable special collections to be donated unless it intends honourably to maintain them. The private collector who passes twenty pleasant years buying books on Goethe, finally to offer them to some public library when he has space no longer, may have little appreciation how much must be spent each year on literary and philological journals alone if his collection is to have any value to the research worker: books, even large numbers of books, are no measure

of its usefulness. No competent librarian is unaware of this. Without such intensive acquisitions work, involving the consultation of many expensive bibliographies year by year, the collection is a useless plaything: and too many such titular dignities encumber public libraries in the older countries, to the amusement of the specialist.

The courage to reject—and indeed to pay for the privilege of rejection—is no less necessary from the point of view of successful public relations than it is to satisfy some philosophical scruple of the selector. Without one clearly perceived pattern underlying the work of the stock editor, or whatever title he bears, the collection will soon exhibit little logic and many curiosities: it will offer delusive promises by surprisingly generous treatment of some fields and disappoint modest expectations in others equally important. Such a library gives too many footholds for hostile criticism, too little sure ground for a reasoned reply. It has always been a cardinal principal in the professional literature that the tail should not wag the dog—that vocal, particular demands should not bias selection in directions not otherwise judged desirable by the librarian from the evidence available. Yet in Britain in recent years so much attention has been paid to the costing of interlibrary lending that a number of libraries automatically buy rather than borrow any book requested by a reader if it is in print—irrespective of its further value or quality: a situation tinged with irony when the motives for first setting up interlending schemes are recalled. In a large library, in so far as this contributes to filling real gaps in the collection, this may be reasonable: in a small, it involves an element of chaos which is hard to justify.

Essentially the same applies to passivity in the face of the torrent of donated propaganda material against which all libraries in the older countries struggle—periodicals setting out the achievements of some small country in which few are interested, statistical handbooks from another in a hostile political bloc, the views on organic manuring of one near-fanatical minority, the eschatological convictions of another, manifestos and testimonials from an industry threatened with nationalisation; and so on. Even a research library, dedicated to the elusive ideal of completeness, would find little use for much of this material: the limited aims of the small public library find none. Nor, fortunately, does unsolicited donation of this kind oblige any library to accept or to display anything so presented: but, if the propaganda statements of one group are accepted, fairness demands that they be balanced by those of opposing parties. The extreme right-wing daily, presented willy-nilly to the library, must be offset by the corresponding left-wing organ, bought or solicited. Above all, the day's intake of this literature of persuasion must not be spread cynically on a table in the corner of the reading room in the hope of whiling away a rainy afternoon for some reader marooned. Solicited donations demand cataloguing and classi-

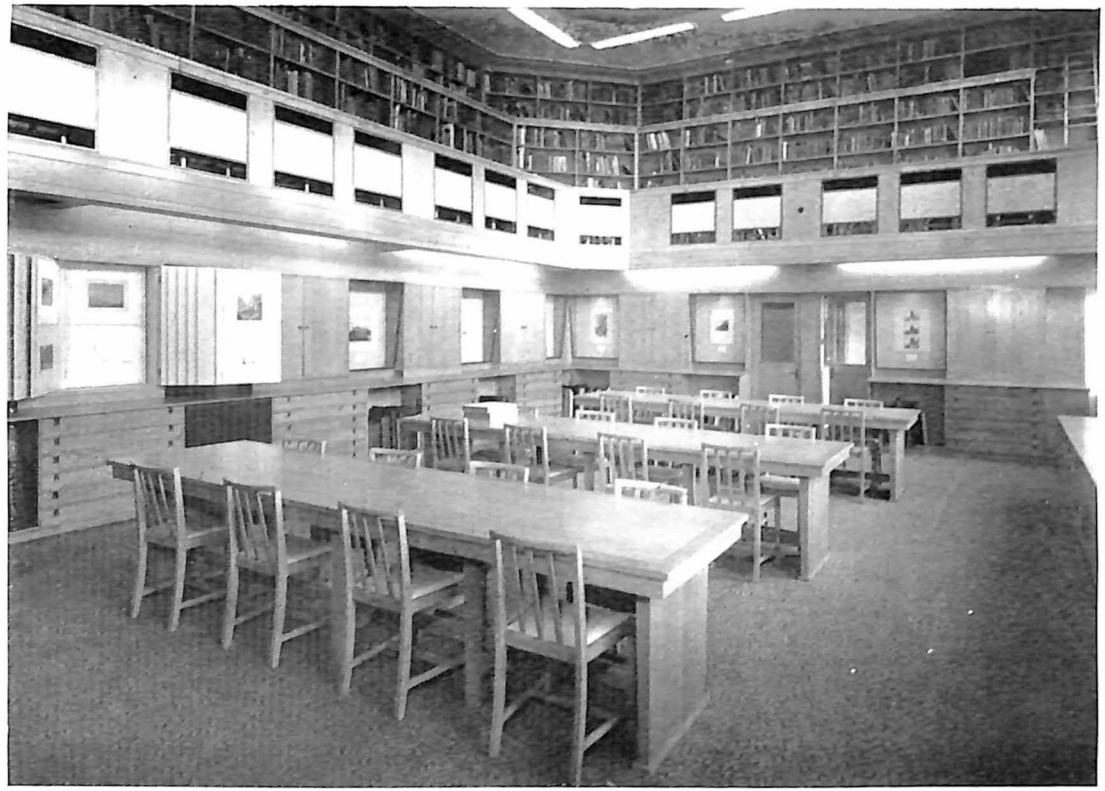


Plate No. 48.

Leeds Public Library. *A subject library in converted premises. Note the specialized fittings.*

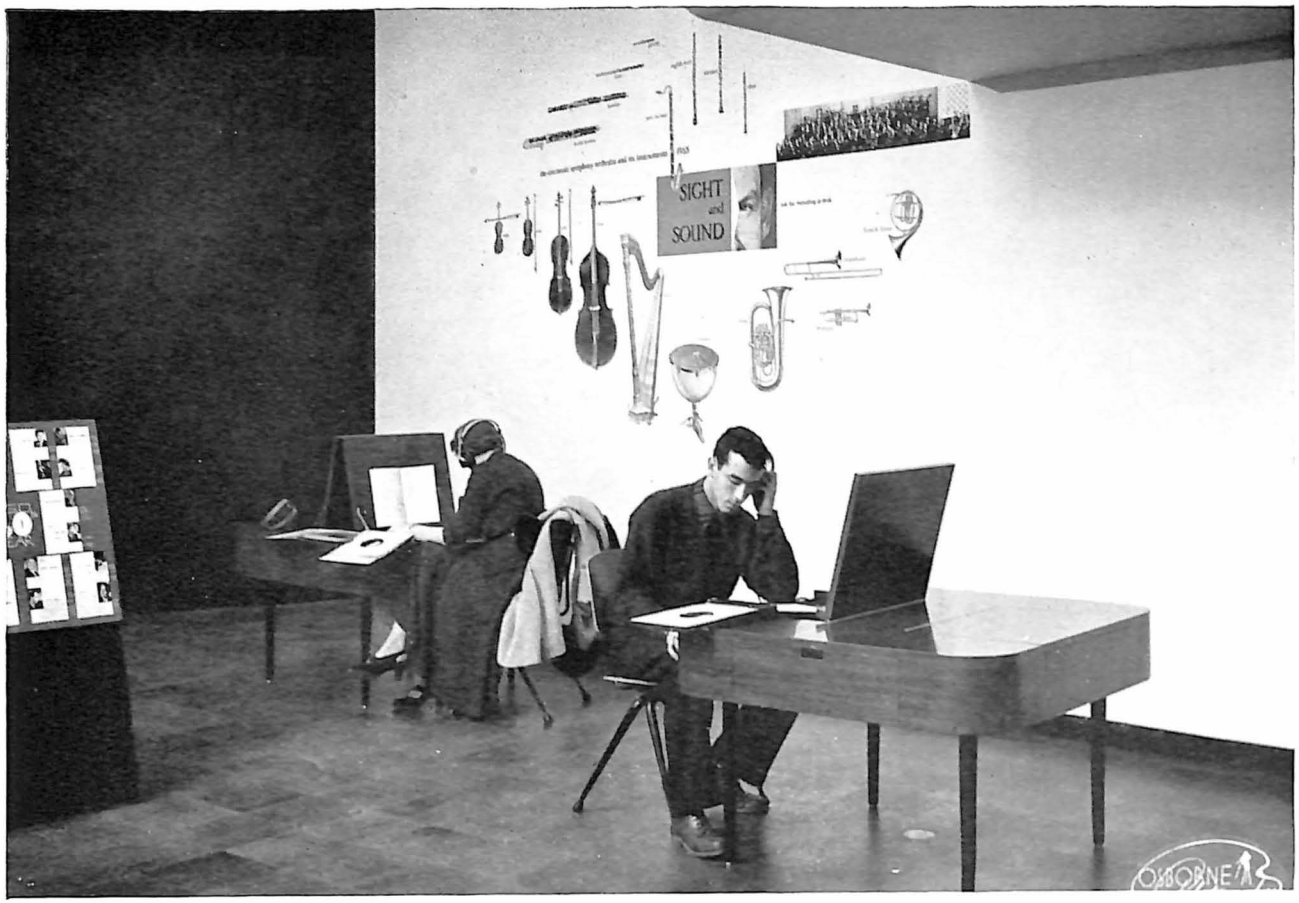


Plate No. 49.

Music Room, Cincinnati Main Library.

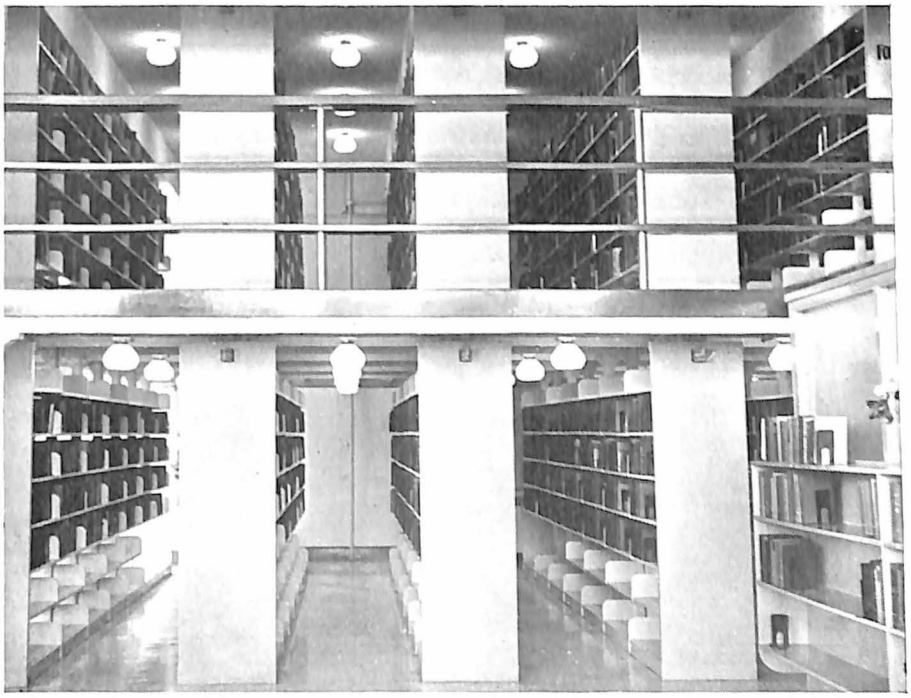


Plate No. 50.

Interior view of Metal Bookstack by Luxfer Ltd.

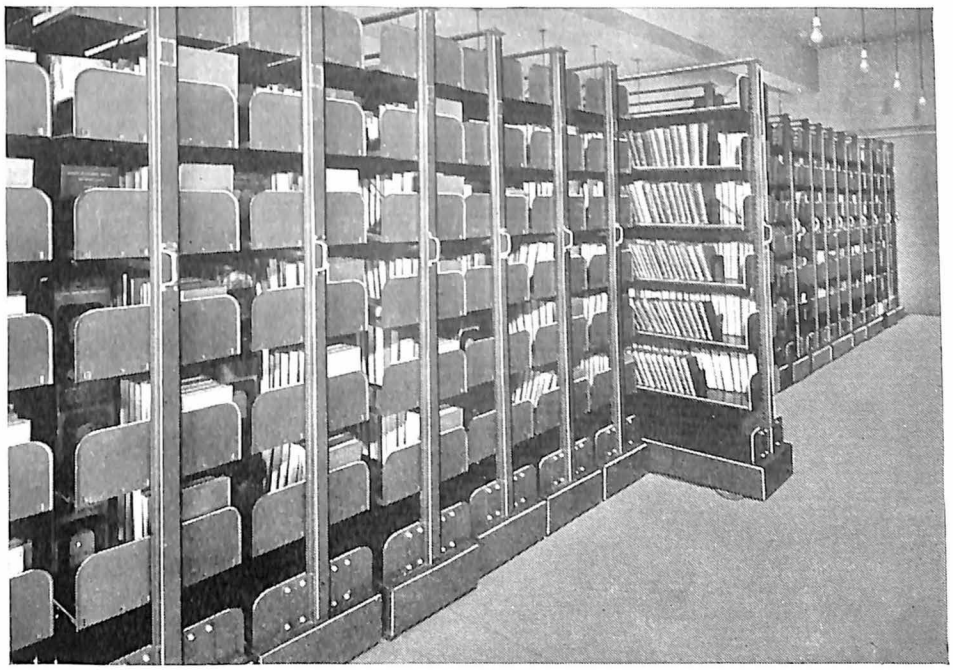


Plate No. 51.

Compact storage showing movable cases by Luxfer Ltd.

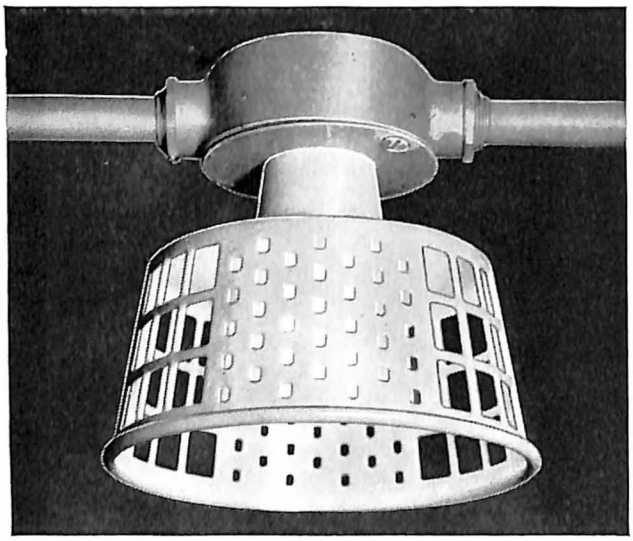


Plate No. 52.

Detail of light fitting for stack rooms by Luxfer Ltd. The pierced aluminium shade allows illumination of shelves but reduces glare in the passageways.



Plate No. 53.
Libraco Double sided Reading Table: a simplified version of Duff Brown's original pattern.



Plate No. 54.
Standard Libraco Reader's Chair.

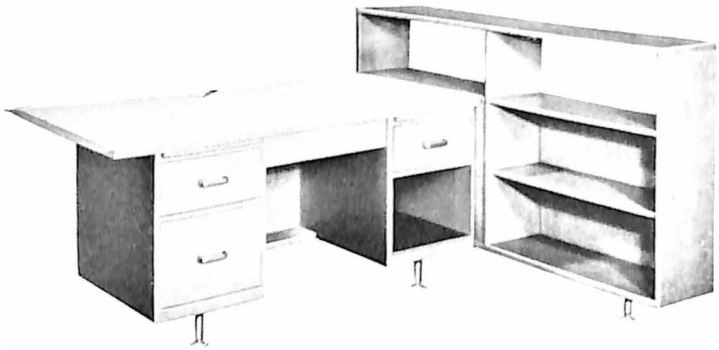


Plate No. 55.
Sjöstrom Circulation Desk. *Typical of much American furnishing; compact, functional.*

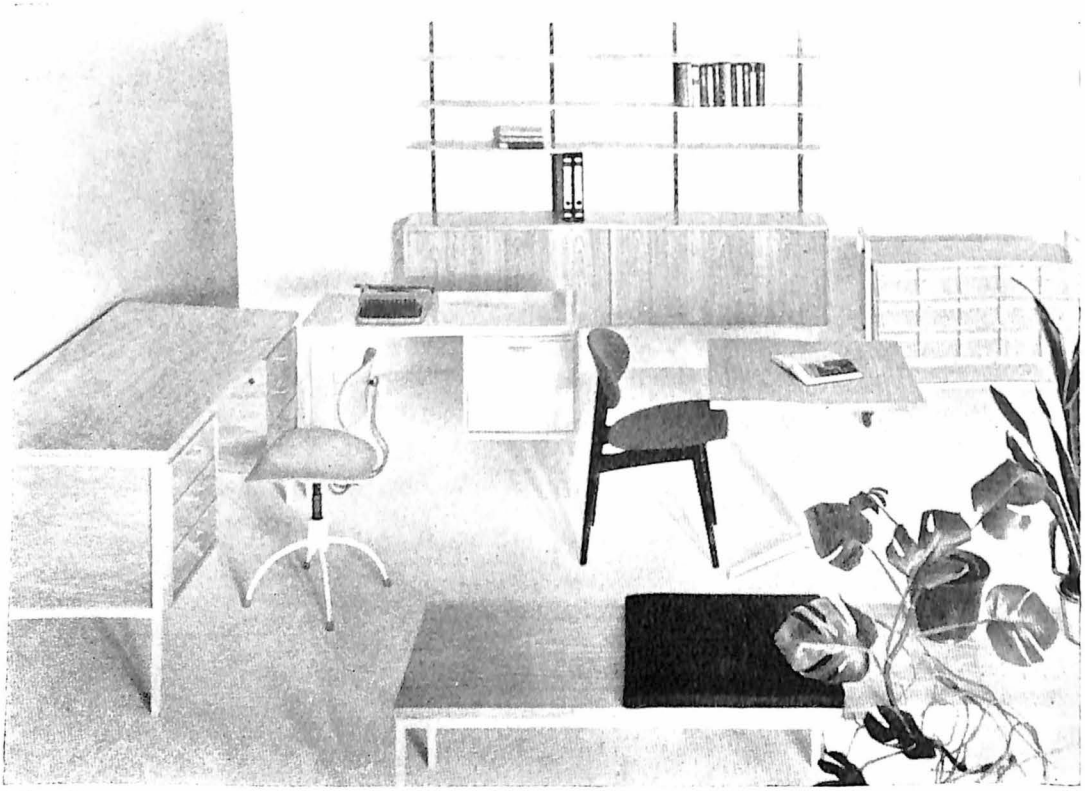


Plate No. 56.

E.K.Z. Office and workroom furnishings.

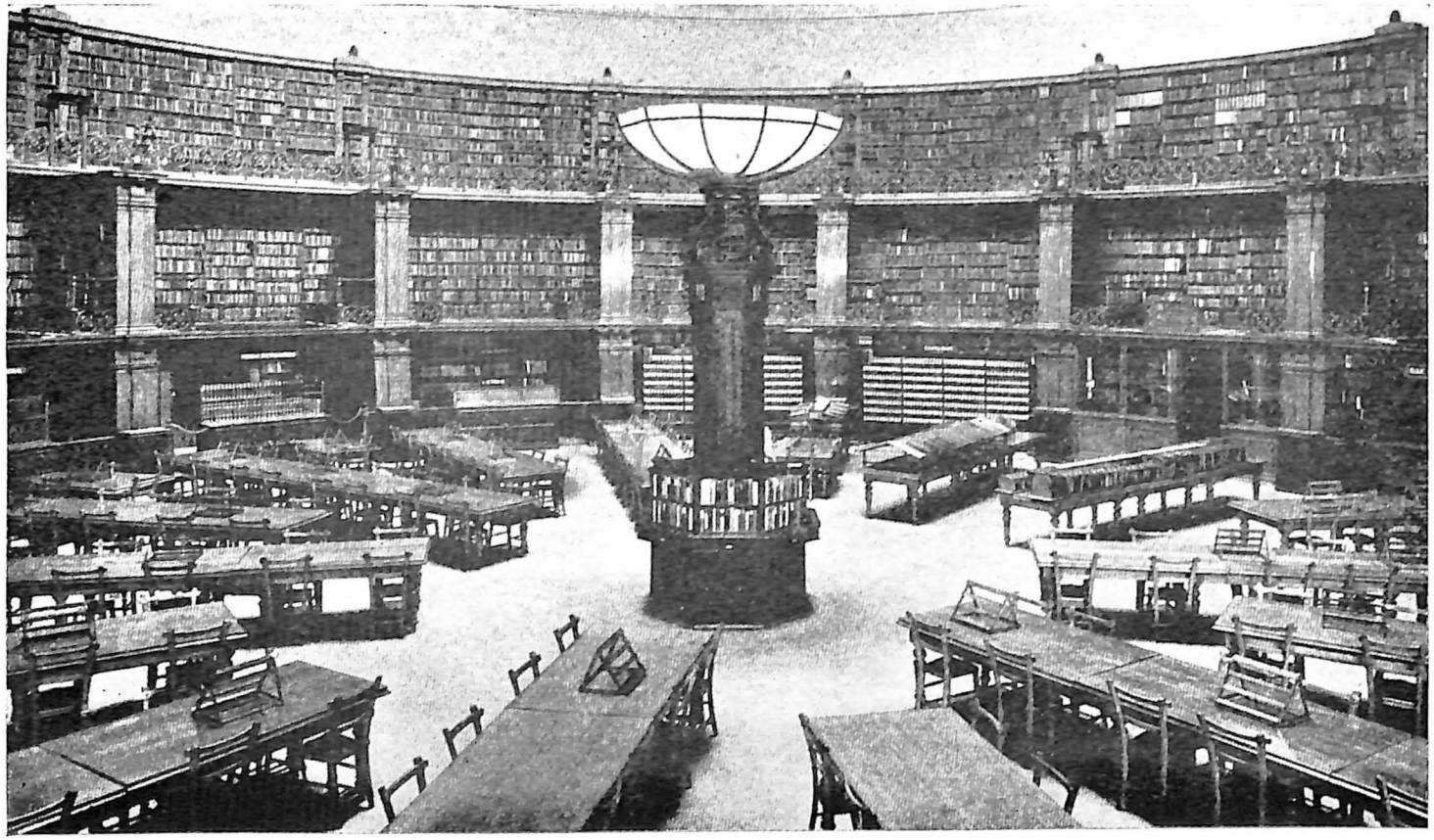


Plate No. 57.

The Picton Reference Library, Liverpool, in 1937. *Alcoves since thrown open, some housing service points; catalogue moved to free standing cases: reading tables resurfaced in plastic by the library workshop. The great reading-room tradition, perhaps no longer desirable.*

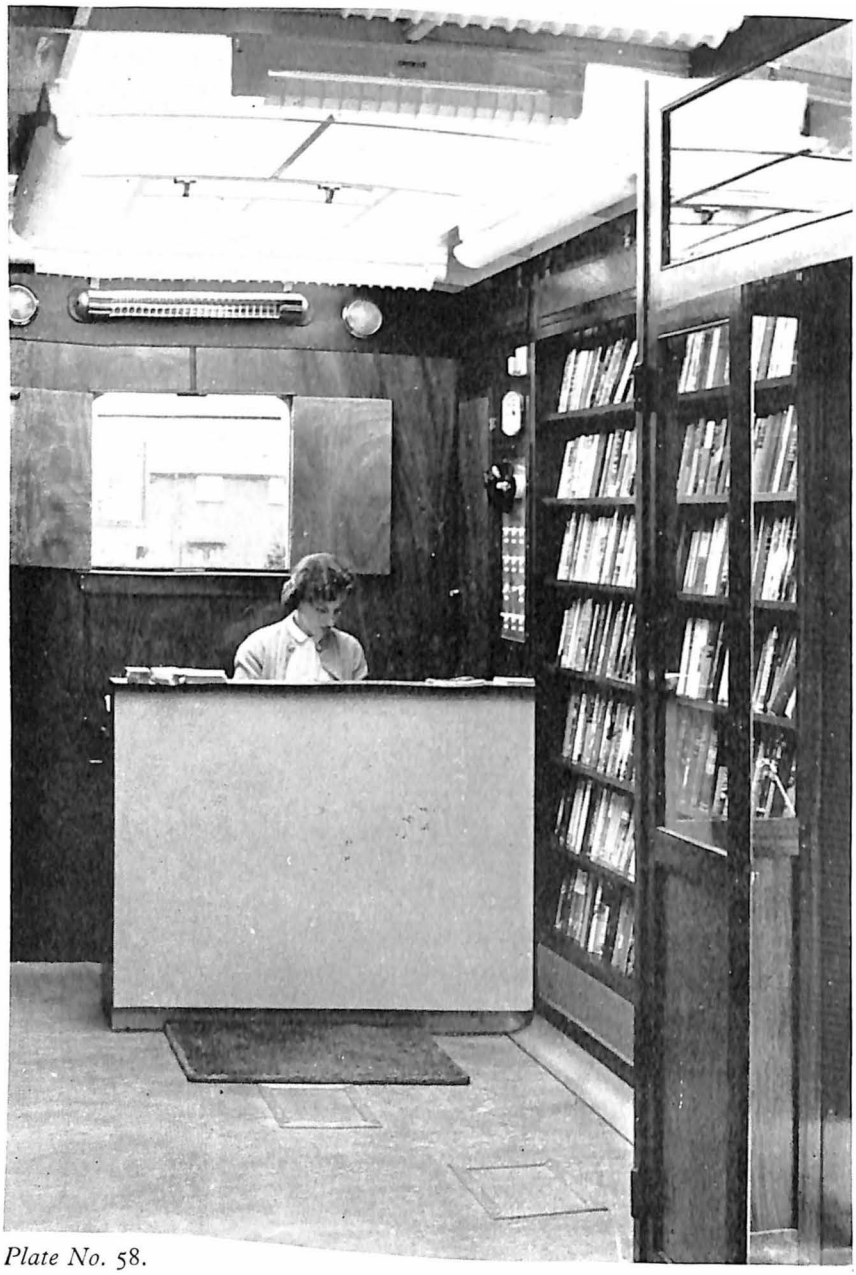


Plate No. 58.

Bedford Mobile Library: Staff Desk.

fication like ordinary bookstock: nine-tenths of unsought donations need go no further than the waste paper basket.

Current books and periodicals, bought or solicited, form the backbone of every collection: and every good public library embodies many men's judgements over a period of years as to the most useful books in any field. To buy and to weed is not enough, for the revaluation of existing literature in a subject which goes on continuously both dismisses old stalwarts and brings better appreciation of work originally ignored. Thus Stephens' once standard *Book of the Farm* is no longer read, while the tentative writings of J. J. Mechi and C. W. Hoskyns are considered of seminal importance. Continuous re-assessment of the collection in the light of current judgement must be a part of acquisitions routine. Every new booklist or select bibliography of any worth which enters the library—everything of the nature of English lists such as those from the National Book League and the County Libraries Section of the Library Association—must be checked against the catalogue so as to discover outstanding titles lacking. These and the best reading lists issued by major public and special libraries can have an appreciable effect on the collection within a few years. A good deal more rarely, outside surveyors may be called in to investigate the state of the collection as a whole: and for this purpose full scale published bibliographies and even catalogues may be used as yardsticks for sampling purposes.[3] Thus in recent years the Lamont Library catalogue, Dagenham Public Library's *Four Thousand Recommended Books*, Walford's *Guide to Reference Material*, Seymour Smith's *Know-How Books* and the '*Librarian*' *Subject Guide to Books*, have been suitable for use in different contexts. Costly though such analyses are in staff time and other respects they may succeed in giving the library some glimpse of the collection from the viewpoint of the informed reader: to which end the casual comment and partisan denigration which normally accompany press references to libraries contribute nothing.

Between books and periodicals the balance to be struck varies from subject to subject: within any subject, filing practice must vary from one title to another. Generally, periodicals are filed for so long as experience dictates and use can be found for them; but the use to which a journal is put changes with time, while usually one journal stands out clearly as far the most informative for reference purposes. Last year's *Builder* may not be consulted often, even in a college teaching building construction: but a complete file of it back to 1842 in a general reference library contains so much about persons, firms, prices, particular buildings and domestic history that it will hardly be discarded, though a building research station might find it no more than a nuisance. Apart from its intrinsic value, the fact that such a file has already been reported

[3] For instance, the study of the bookstock in the classic Survey of Los Angeles Public Library by the Los Angeles Bureau of Budget and Efficiency.

to, say, the *British Union Catalogue of Periodicals* or the appropriate national list in question, constitutes a further reason for its retention, as does its adequate indexing in some available published source such as the *Subject Index to Periodicals*:[4] the current periodical record form used by the library for each title may usefully include these points as a routine safeguard. The number of national and regional union lists already in existence suggests strongly that much more collaborative planning for the co-ordination of filing amongst neighbouring libraries will develop: in England, even in the north, the absurd number of libraries filing *The Times* permanently and nothing but *The Times* is an obvious instance. Similarly, much more co-ordination of the initial subscriptions taken out could be achieved. Must every British library—so the visitor might well ask—take, say, the *Engineer*, *Electrical Review* and *Farmer and Stockbreeder*, when there are also, among others, *Engineering*, *Electrical World* and *Farmer's Weekly*?[5] Circulation figures admittedly exert a telling influence, when funds do not run to buying every alternative: a larger circulation means a greater attraction to the advertiser, greater choice for his potential customer, a wider range of contributors and greater vitality generally. Thus in many instances the experienced acquisitions head will know at once which of the alternative periodicals serving any industry or trade he would prefer to have. Yet surprisingly few periodicals are genuinely indispensable in public libraries: moreover, since the circulation of leading trade journals amongst those interested is already so wide, there is some case for libraries displaying their less well-known competitors.

Chosen primarily for their success in combining the maximum of current information, presented in easily assimilable form, with frequent appearance and low cost, the periodicals in the small library differ markedly from those in the large, where the quarterly, the monthly, the journal of research and the abstract journal appear much more commonly, assuming a good deal more initial knowledge in the user. Essential to the exploitation of periodical material in both kinds of library are the collective indexes—essential in one's own library, not in someone else's. Even when most of the journals themselves are discarded, the indexes are necessary if co-operation is to be an effective service: and here, as so often, in the necessity for local subscriptions to such aids, the wastage of national resources occasioned by a multiplicity of small libraries is very clear.

In Britain at least most current contributions to the literature of book selection stress rather the national aspect of acquisitions work—the total effect of selection in the country's 600 libraries, and their degree

[4] The overseas reader will supply here his own titles: the indices produced by Johannesburg and Toronto Public Libraries, the union lists edited by Freer and others, and so on.

[5] These names are obviously chosen at random.

of success in atoning for the lack of a single unified service—than the mechanics of selection in individual libraries. This is very natural. Yet it is fitting to recall lastly that the librarian in any administrative framework has a very real responsibility to his local community—not to some abstract conception of national dimensions. But there are also other things to be remembered. Despite every appearance of individuality, the local community glimpsed from the librarian's windows may really be no more than a true and representative cross-section of the nation at large: for, whatever its accent, in age, educational background and social characteristics, the library public proves to be much the same in every industrialised society—in York as in Chicago, in Sydney as in Hamburg. Local pressures will always be felt acutely—pressure to acquire this or ban that. But the administrator goaded by such demands can console himself by reflecting that in any democratic community the most clamorous minorities are usually only better organised than the rest, and smallest in size. In the great reserves of tolerance—even of indifference—of the public at large lies the best promise of that stability essential in public administration and in the building of a great collection.

CHAPTER XVII

BOOKSTOCK: ADMINISTRATION AND RECORDING

1. BOOK ARRANGEMENT

The essence of efficient library service is to produce the book wanted, or to suggest a similar title, with the minimum of delay. All routines for the control of the book collection and all stock records stem from this. The fluidity of the private library of earlier times, adequate enough for its owner who was also often sole user and who could recall the contents of a given shelf easily, produced a natural reaction in the nineteenth century, when a far larger public began to use libraries, and, so as to minimise confusion, books were given fixed shelf numbers made even more permanent by their inclusion in printed catalogues. With the advent of book numbering schemes based on the classification of knowledge, stock control changed again, and with the more recent stratification of libraries into large units undertaking the conservation of printed materials, and smaller units whose primary function is the circulation of current publications, the elements of the contemporary problem were in existence.

A single 3′ shelf may hold thirty volumes, a single tier of 3′ shelves some 200. For the rapid location of any individual book on the shelf, some number clearly marked on its spine is obviously necessary: ideally, a distinct number for every book in the collection, similar perhaps to the running number used annually to distinguish books in the current national bibliographies. In the stacks of the great storage libraries, such as the British Library of Political and Economic Science (L.S.E.), or the MidWest Inter-Library Center, Chicago, books are shelved in the arbitrary order of their receipt, disregarding their specific subject, every shelf used being filled to capacity and ample space left after the latest acquisition at the end of the sequence. For the non-professional assistant, this system provides a single distinct and unmistakeable call number to locate: for the administrator, a simple permanent arrangement with none of the endless re-spacing needed in a classified library as it grows, and a more effective utilisation of shelf space, since no room need be left on each shelf to allow for further insertions. By splitting the stock into three separate size sequences, each with its own serial numbering, more efficient use still can be made of stack capacity, while, since the system is based on a numbering of books and not of shelves, the whole collection can be moved into new premises with none of that re-lettering

normally necessary in the older fixed location systems, giving as they do a room, tier, and shelf number. But the *numerus currens* method presupposes certain conditions: (1) that the stack is closed, and readers will never have access to it; (2) that full subject and author catalogues provide the link between the reader and the book in the stack; (3) that the majority of requests are for a single book, not for several books all bearing on the same topic, which would be widely separated. In the open access libraries, public and private, which are a tradition of the English-speaking world, these are not often the case. The average reader, accustomed to an open-shelf collection, expects books to be in subject groups; thus, the comparison of one book with another, the discovery of alternatives when the book sought is absent, and the assessment of library strength on any specific topic are made the more rapid, while even if he is already familiar with most of the literature on his subject, classified order brings new titles sharply to the reader's notice. For the administrator, on the other hand, the 'walk-around' library arranged for self-service, although delegating much of the effort to the user, is not without its disadvantages. Every book bears a symbol common to all books on its subject, not a mark unique to itself; hence, in order to distinguish further between books in each group, 'author' marks such as those first devised by C. A. Cutter may be added after the class mark. Thus, the Library of Congress catalogues Kalima's *Die Slavischen Lehnwörter im Ostseefinnischen* as PH 264.S6 K3. Increasingly in large libraries class marks tend to be long and complex, employing perhaps numbers, often decimally arranged, and upper case letters, perhaps lower case letters representing different sequences, e.g. s for stack, p for pamphlet, and possibly more kinds of symbol. Nevertheless, few librarians consider the disadvantages of classified order to outweigh its general usefulness, and few are prepared to operate two systems, one for storage collections, the other for the open shelf.

Hence, any new library is almost always a classified library, and its administrator must either devise a classification or choose some existing scheme for it. It is not difficult for him to say what he wants of classification. The system he requires should be recent in date, offering a continuous service for the reporting of standard numbers for new subjects; helpful in its arrangement of topics; sufficiently exhaustive in its listing of specialised headings to break even a large collection into workable groups, though giving common topics brief symbols; adequate in its treatment of Asian and African no less than of European topics; and equipped with simple number-building devices so as to save the time of the classifier and the memory of the user. Since no such general scheme exists, the librarian in such a situation normally falls back on that most familiar to him. In public libraries, the Decimal Classification of Melvil Dewey is almost universal, since nine out of ten librarians have been trained in this scheme. A majority of university libraries use

the Library of Congress system, while, in Britain at least, a number of libraries concerned with education employ the Bliss Bibliographic Classification. In the average subject library for research use, if a special scheme has not been evolved, the Universal Decimal Classification is likely to be in force.

If it is decided that a classification must be decimal—and there are, after all, numerous published bibliographies and catalogues used by many who frequent libraries conforming with this order—the choice rests between the original Decimal Classification itself and the internationally edited Universal Decimal scheme. Dewey's classification, now in its sixteenth edition, and complemented at last by a regular bulletin of additions and amendments, revised as it is by the staff of the Library of Congress, and competently indexed, has still a good deal to attract anyone not over-critical on points of subject arrangement and not greatly moved to learn, for instance, that organic chemists have little good to say of it. As obsolete and as ubiquitous as a non-decimal coinage, the Decimal Classification is an obvious choice to many experienced librarians: and it is striking that in England not one public library chose to follow Edinburgh in the 1920s in changing over to the Congress scheme, despite the ample specification of subjects and frequently sensible arrangement which this remarkable system offers. By contrast, U.D.C., too often thought of as only applicable in subject libraries, offers certain solid merits: its detailed listing of specific topics, for instance, its generous provision of alternative placings, and its freedom from American emphases. Ignoring its optional numbers representing country, period and form of presentation, the basic subject numbers may be used to good effect in a science—technology department: elsewhere a somewhat Central European colouring characterises social and political sections.

Other schemes will be found in operation in all the older countries with more or less satisfactory results. A very few libraries in Britain still operate the old broad group, single letter systems such as that abolished by Wednesbury in 1954, using J for Junior, F for fiction, and an accession or author order within each of the dozen or so groups employed. Brown's Subject Classification works with surprising efficiency in libraries here and there: books are classified quickly by it, and shelved quickly. It is as well for the newly appointed administrator who confronts such a scheme, and finds it alien to his past experience, to ask himself whether any real gain to the reader is to be expected from the enormous labour of re-classifying a library according to some other scheme, itself far from perfect. Is the diversion of funds and staff into this amending of records justifiable in terms of greater knowledge and use of books? The average reader takes little notice of book arrangement: the specialist is almost equally oblivious, save for some notable blunder which catches his attention. It may be argued that re-classification allows a library to

utilise the services of central cataloguing agencies such as the British National Bibliography: so few libraries do in fact accept such services without some local modification that this is hardly a serious debating point. Something more than personal preference must be the basis of decision.

If re-classification is considered unavoidable, normal routine for this covers four principal phases:— (1) The period during which current accessions are classified by the new scheme but accumulated off the open shelves; (2) The phase of re-classification of all those titles in the main collection considered worth retaining; (3) A period when the two systems are operated side by side on the open shelves with a new catalogue, until the old sequence has shrunk significantly; and (4) The removal of the old sequence from the shelves, and the withdrawal of these titles as convenient. Since two distinct bottlenecks may form, one in the work of the professional classifier, the other in the clerical and manual work of altering volumes already in stock, it may be desirable for the inspection of stock to be re-classified and the pencilling in of the new class-mark to be done at the shelves long before the new sequence is begun, the books returning for the while to their old places, and for the final re-lettering to be done in a concentrated drive only when the fresh shelf sequence is started. The obliteration of the old class-mark need not be unsightly if a standard size square of grey cloth carrying the new symbol is fixed over it; and with those books on the point of binding, no re-lettering need be done to the original casing.

A few libraries will attempt a classification framed specially for their own requirements: in recent years, Detroit with its 'reader-interest' groupings, Harvard's Lamont Library, and University College, London provide instances of this. It seems no accident that such schemes are normally 'broad' in character, offering no fine sub-division of subjects: the labour of emulating the great general classifications, which may extend to listing a hundred thousand specific headings, would be enormous. It is also noteworthy that apart from simple translocation of subjects—e.g. the removal of landscape gardening from its original Decimal place 710 to 635—the commonest modification of standard schemes made by libraries is that of shortening class-marks or broad classifying. For the enquirer seeking for information on a fairly narrow subject—e.g. pig housing—this practice has the disadvantage that any publication on this topic (properly 636·4·083·1 by U.D.C.) will be given only the general number 636.4 and shelved with general works on pig breeding, while it might also be sought under 631·2, farm buildings. There may be a certain force in the reply that staff and readers are encouraged thus to examine more closely the material contained in more general books: that often the best information on the subject is to be found in a few pages of a standard work of broad scope, while the specific pamphlet or monograph material is of limited use. But this is

hardly the reason why broad classification is adopted in practice. The administrator is more interested in the claim that it saves time and clerical work: and he may even choose to adopt broad classification in his branch libraries and 'close' in his subject and information departments, so that different copies of the same book bear different class-marks according to their allocation. For very similar reasons one outstandingly efficient city library in the north of England still refused even in the 1950s to admit any edition of the Decimal Classification later than the 12th—a policy which could hardly be successful without a specific dictionary catalogue.

Whatever system is adopted, a clear record must be kept of class-marks used, and that record must be self-explanatory, so that, despite changes of staff or relief spells, any new classifier can carry on without error or inconsistency. A small library may simply tick in pencil every class-mark used in its copy of the printed schedules; a larger may make out a fresh card for each newly adopted class-number, filing these in class order as a master record which can be consulted by several persons at once.[1] Obviously also each class-mark must be alphabetically indexed under each suitable heading: if it is a number interpolated by the classifier in expansion of a standard general class-mark, the new heading or headings must be added in the printed index, or whatever record is used to keep track of such innovations.

For the most part, home-made classifications are found only in one department of the average public library, in its local collection (*see also* Chapter X): less often, by an extension of this, in the schedules covering principal local industries, especially if these are segregated in a science-technology library. In framing other special subject classifications, considerable guidance can be derived from the analytical formula PMEST—Personality, Matter, Energy, Space, Time—evolved by S. R. Ranganathan, recalling a little the approach of Kaiser's *Systematic indexing*, while many of the specific subjects required for filling each of the various facets can be gathered from titles of periodical articles, entries in book indexes, and similar sources. The arrangement of published abstracts and bibliographies may also help in the initial collocation of subjects.

2. THE CATALOGUE

Catalogues record books in the collection of a library: beyond this, however, little agreement exists about their aims. Some are virtually complete lists of the library's contents, while others are partial only: some of each kind contain in addition more than one library's holdings.

[1] Each card may record also all synonymous entries made for its topic in the public alphabetical subject index, thus providing a reversed staff key to the latter. This prevents identical index entries being made for different class numbers in ill-defined areas of the classification, and allows efficient catalogue maintenance, should future changes of practice take place.

There are perhaps at bottom two radically different views of the catalogue. The first, well established by the year 1900, is that a catalogue is the record of one library's stock, and a guide to the location of each book on the shelves: therefore, by this view, catalogues are to be kept scrupulously up to date, and the insertion of new entries and the removal of those for books discarded is vital. The second, developed by about 1950, is that the catalogue of the average public library is rather a token of that national library service discussed in Chapter VI than a thing of significance in itself; it is a list of books from which the reader may make his choice, but which are not necessarily within the library he chooses to use—which might even, in fact, never have been in it. By this view, catalogues differ little from printed bibliographies: and here one recalls the longstanding practice of most national and university libraries, of shelving a considerable bibliographical collection near their own catalogues, while the latter is often no more than a name index of stock. When Lanarkshire County Library decided in 1952 to discontinue its own catalogue of books, displaying only the *British National Bibliography* for the use of the public and relegating the alphabetical author catalogue to the status of a rough and ready staff tool for the discovery of the number of copies of any title and other essentially administrative information, this was only a logical extension of this practice. True, in a public library the Lanarkshire system makes the services of advisory staff of critical importance in handling requests and selecting titles suitable for each enquirer. But from the economic point of view, subscriptions to the *B.N.B.* were and still are decidedly cheaper than a year's salary for a professional cataloguer never in contact with the reader and subject to more than average incidence of physical ailments and staff malaise.

Nevertheless, in the older municipal libraries of Europe at least, the traditions of many years cannot lightly be set aside: moreover their conditions are different. The larger the library the more readers will use different parts of its catalogue simultaneously: the harder also the wear and tear which this will suffer; and the more meticulous must be the information it gives as to the shelf locations of books and particulars of copies held, unless staff time is to be wasted in checking such information. Thus a tradition exists in many city libraries of detailed individual cataloguing with a large number of local departures from the standard cataloguing rules:[2] cataloguing often fastidiously aimed at describing in detail every item in the collection. Such cataloguing today involves a heavy burden in the face of the great influx of pamphlet, report and similar literature which every library experiences. On the other hand,

[2] It is assumed that the reader is either familiar with, or is prepared to read elsewhere about, the principal cataloguing codes—the Anglo-American code of 1908, the American Library Association rules of 1949, the British Museum and Prussian codes—and current projects for their revision, recorded regularly in the *UNESCO Bulletin for Libraries*.

in the smaller public libraries, a tradition of bleak, condensed entries runs side by side with this—an entry reduced to author, title, edition, date, which in Britain is the direct descendant of the 'title a line' entry pioneered in the eighties by Haggerston of Newcastle so as to reduce the cost of the printed catalogue.

More often in practice than in textbooks the 'bibliographical' approach to cataloguing—stressing the value of full description of the book, containing collation, imprint and annotation—conflicts with this 'finding-list' attitude, which holds that the catalogue need do no more than identify each book so that the work itself can be obtained and examined. The enormous throughput of volumes in the cataloguing departments of larger public libraries using brief cataloguing contrast strikingly with the limited number of titles handled in the average university library where each receives a more elaborate entry which, since no policy for withdrawal normally exists in such libraries, may still be the entry used by the reader 200 years from now. The accessibility of the book—some may be housed in stores miles from the main or headquarters library, without adequate telephone, teletype or other rapid communications—the period of time for which it is likely to be in the library's collection and the approach of the user are major factors to be taken into account in formulating catalogue policy.

Cataloguing: Purpose and Policy

How much am I prepared to spend on my catalogues? What do I want recorded in them?—the administrator faced with rival views must ask when considering change. Shall they be separate branch and departmental catalogues, or a series of 'union' catalogues listing the aggregate resources of the library as a whole? Is there really anything to choose between the classified and dictionary catalogues? And after half a dozen such questions of policy, methods—the physical type of catalogue, method of production, allocation of cataloguing duties, and so on—can be settled later.

Of these policy questions awaiting the administrator's decision, one, the union catalogue idea, has seldom been widely discussed in either Britain or America. Typically, the only union catalogue in the average public library is a staff tool housed in the acquisitions or cataloguing unit, used as a convenient record of stock to date and of cataloguing precedents followed so far, as well as a medium for arranging branch and departmental interchange loans:[3] while the catalogues of each of these latter service points record only their own narrow selection of stock. Yet

[3] In a library with a unitary stock, not scattered among branches and departments, and with Acquisitions and Cataloguing staff working near to the public catalogues, the 'official catalogue' is obviously unnecessary. It can conveniently record tracings—the headings for added entries given each book—but these can almost equally well appear in the public catalogue themselves, at the foot or on the verso of each main author card.

in a minority of public libraries the union catalogue is itself a public tool, displayed at every service point—in card form, or in sheaf pages, or in book form; and the number of such libraries grows slowly. Where published statistics are available, they show normally a slight but distinct increase in internal book exchange compared with the conventional average. Thus in Britain, Glasgow and Liverpool, providing union catalogues in book form, make more effective use of their stock through intra-system loans than the comparable systems of Birmingham and Manchester: and it seems probable that a survey of libraries providing card or sheaf union catalogues would show similar results. If the difference in relation to total turnover of stock is only fractional, it nevertheless covers serious and useful material, deliberately sought after. No figures are available to show how many people consulting the union catalogue at a branch travel to the headquarters library so as to see a book known to be there: in metropolitan areas, with excellent communications, they may be numerous. Evidently, behind the question of catalogue policy lies the larger question how far the branch library today can contain an adequate cross section of the literature which the intelligent reader may need, in any European tongue. In 1900 a typical branch could perhaps hold most of the titles important in the smaller world of books then existing: but is it so today? In the London Metropolitan Boroughs, whose collections are typically distributed among a few larger branches instead of being for the most part concentrated at one central library, the union catalogue is a near indispensable tool of service. In a great and scattered system, such as Western Australia State Library, the catalogue of a transient individual branch collection can have little significance.

A case can of course be made out for other ways of supplying bibliographical information to distant service points. Printed or duplicated reading lists provide a partial union catalogue service, for subjects of current interest only; while it is sometimes argued that a headquarters union catalogue open to the public, coupled with a telephone inquiry service to branches operating from 9 a.m. to 8 p.m., or whatever hours the library keeps, is satisfactory. It may be cheap: but titles read out over a telephone are never a substitute for a list which can be studied at leisure. Teleprinter communication between branch libraries, as at Tottenham and elsewhere, possesses clear advantages. Closed circuit television would be better still: but any system which produces a queue of calls from distant service points must provoke demands for a return to conventional methods.

From the point of view of the reader it makes perhaps very little difference what internal pattern the catalogue follows. A 'dictionary' catalogue, well enough suited for finding quickly a number of sharply defined, unconnected subjects, delays the person who wants to work systematically from one topic to others closely related—from Agri-

culture to Animal Nutrition, Farm Machinery, Land Drainage, Livestock and Plant Protection. Classified catalogues, excellent for such extensive surveys, and essential in libraries serving multilingual communities—numerical headings are politically neutral, while index catchwords can be provided in as many tongues as are required—have the disadvantage of requiring the user whenever he ventures on unfamiliar ground to return to the subject index to find the appropriate class-mark. Some may argue that the Decimal Classification everywhere in force makes the classified catalogue a nonsensical instrument to use: few readers notice. There may perhaps in English speaking countries be some preference for the deceptive simplicity of a wholly alphabetical catalogue. Yet the final decision is apt to be taken for other reasons—because a shelf list can be combined with the classified catalogue: or if the dictionary type is adopted, because peculiar systems of book arrangement are in force—more than one scheme of classification, or a broad classification policy, stultifying the idea of a classified subject catalogue. There is little doubt that, unless it is allowed to sink into obsolescence, over a period of fifty years a large dictionary catalogue recording a permanent collection will need the more maintenance work, due to linguisitic changes affecting both the headings used and the reference structure.

Since the physical form in which the catalogue is displayed to the reader can affect markedly the use made of any collection, this can also be regarded from one point of view as a matter of basic policy. Catalogues printed as books, and available in many copies, are portable and are bibliographies of a kind: card catalogues exist in one copy at one point in the library, while a sheaf catalogue, though mobile within the building, is also a single copy record. More than the convenience of the individual reader is at stake: the underlying question is the degree to which the library stock is made known, at what points within the library, and whether it can be made known at all in detail outside its walls. Bradford, pioneering in 1878 a printed union catalogue of all the Bradford libraries' holdings, at a time when it was common for each branch to have its own catalogue publications, at one stroke extended greatly the resources of the reader using any branch, and produced a valuable aid in publicity work. After 1900, in the era of the standard size card, written or typed by cheap clerical labour, with every branch or department having separate catalogues, the usefulness of the book catalogue was almost forgotten in comparison with the flexibility of the single-entry, single card method: never before had it been possible to handle additions and withdrawals so easily and so neatly. The accessions catalogue method developed by Liverpool and Glasgow in the 'twenties —perhaps on the model of the British Museum *Subject Index*—and adapted later by Stockholm, Bristol and Westminster, employs a regular five yearly, or it may even be annual, volume incorporating

titles added over that period; this naturally attracts most use until superseded in its turn by a later volume. No attempt is made to keep earlier volumes up to date by marking withdrawals, as was done in the older 'revised edition' catalogues common before 1914, since it is assumed that any title wanted will still be available through inter-lending services. Between the issue of catalogue volumes, temporary card or sheaf entries for current accessions may be provided, or all demands for newer publications may be handled by the enquiry service: meanwhile, obviously at headquarters and in each constituent library up to date shelf lists are maintained. For the basic premise of this catalogue approach is a consistent distinction between staff and public tools.

A variant of the book form, the loose leaf systematic catalogue—revised class by class as may be required from the information given in a master copy on cards or visible index strips, with fresh pages being sent out to branches to supersede those of the last 'edition' for the same class—has the advantage that sectional catalogues or bibliographies can be issued at any time for special purposes, while the labour of catalogue preparation and printing is more evenly spread than with the accessions-volume method. Loose leaf publications are seldom suitable for use outside a library: but for publicity purposes, printed booklists may be almost as effective, while from the point of view of sales to other libraries it is as well to recognise that so many bibliographic publications are issued each year that there is only a very limited market left.

Cataloguing routine: the irreducible minimum

The administrative approach to policy decisions tends to colour most thinking about catalogue provision: and it does so even in the fundamental question, what is to be included or excluded from the catalogue altogether. It is, of course, perfectly possible to argue that from the reader's point of view most large catalogues, containing books old and new, pamphlets, government publications, periodical runs, standard specifications, manuscripts and music, are far too cumbersome to be used rapidly or easily, and too reticent in interpretative or descriptive comment on the titles shown. For this reason, bluntly stated by him at the time, James Duff Brown set a precedent in British cataloguing with his Islington Public Libraries' *Select Catalogue and Guide* of 1910. In fact, this argument is seldom raised: yet almost every catalogue is covertly selective to some degree, simply for reasons of time, space and cost; and some considerable saving of time is effected by obvious economies. Thus a complete collection of British Parliamentary Papers can effectively be controlled by the sessional index of persons and subjects, rather than by card indexing, the whole collection being bound in the official order when title pages and indexes are issued. Industrial standards can be shelved in numerical sequence, the key to the whole

collection being the index of the *British Standards Yearbook;* United States atomic energy micro-cards filed numerically, and their contents traced through *Nuclear Science Abstracts.* Alphabetical or 'self indexing' shelf order obviates conventional cataloguing for several publishing types, especially annuals: town directories, university calendars, civic handbooks, company balance sheets and reports, trade catalogues, and the like. Patents are normally excluded from general catalogues. Yet all such exceptions do no more than nibble at the main burden of cataloguing and further drastic omissions from the catalogue may well be made. All pamphlet publications other than the major Government reports and those writings of well known political and literary figures likely to be sought in the catalogue may be excluded: to these, classified shelf order in a separate sequence provides sufficient access. University libraries may omit subject cataloguing completely, relying on the great printed bibliographies and indexes for their subject approach. The discussion of such attempts to reduce the labour of cataloguing dates back at least to the 1920s: a fair indication of the perennial nature of the problem and the gravity with which most administrators regard cataloguing arrears. For books not yet catalogued represent equipment lying idle, money wasted, and a considerable danger of money being again wasted unknowingly in buying books already purchased.

Even after the most rigorous search for economies, most books in a library's collection need some kind of cataloguing: and a closer analysis reveals five phases of the cataloguing process in which some attempt may be made to reduce the quantity or speed the flow of work. These cover:

1. Elucidation of subject matter, verbal rendering of this, and integration in the subject catalogue;
2. Elucidation of authorship, and its integration with names already in the catalogue:
3. Selection of further descriptive details:
4. Method of recording the above details—manuscript, typing, etc.:
5. Method of producing entries for the public catalogue, duplicated, photocopied, etc.

The most drastic attack on all these phases is, of course, to abandon local cataloguing and to rely on cards printed by some external cataloguing agency—the *British National Bibliography,* the *H. W. Wilson Co.,* the *Library of Congress,* the *National Library, Canberra,* or others. Despite a century and more of thinking along these lines, relatively few libraries do this. The advantages of outside supply are not in dispute: the liberation of staff time for other work, and the high quality of entry obtained, in particular. On the other hand, certain common running troubles have always accompanied these: delay in obtaining the cards ordered: discrepancies of varying degrees of seriousness, between external and internal cataloguing practices: the fact that in larger

libraries as much as 30% of current accessions may fall outside the scope of the service, by reason of date or country of origin: and in popular libraries a persistent doubt whether the kind of entry supplied is in fact suited for a public catalogue. Every entry should after all be considered a public notice, an essay in effective communication designed to transmit its message swiftly and simply: and it can hardly be maintained that a *B.N.B.* or *L.C.* card, bristling with technical data, does this. Thus in Britain not a few libraries have preferred to take their entry from the weekly issue of *B.N.B.*, abbreviating considerably the information given there, and to duplicate copies internally.

If the whole entry is drafted internally, subject cataloguing will certainly account for much of the professional time taken, particularly in larger libraries. Fortunately, the larger system at least can develop some degree of subject specialisation among its cataloguing staff, or, like Edinburgh, devolve the task to staff in appropriate subject departments, who thus have control over subject cataloguing in their own field throughout the system. The small library with neither time nor specialised knowledge can do nothing save arbitrarily limit the number of subject entries,[4] or still more regrettably reject the principle of specific entry in favour of broader, vaguer catalogue headings. With author headings, somewhat similar problems of differentiation arise: 'Robert Collison' may be the same person as 'Collison, R. L. W.' already listed in the catalogue, or not: the *British National Bibliography* or *Cumulative Book Index* may reveal this, but at the cost of some searching. Corporate bodies' official names may be equally difficult to discover. The 'no conflict' routine long practised by the Library of Congress eliminates such 'research' save in the case of obviously different authors with identically stated names, while commonly pseudonyms are accepted without further enquiry. All such practices derive from the old British Museum rule that the cataloguer must obtain his information from a perfect copy of the book to be catalogued: not from reference books, bibliographies or personal knowledge.

With most modern works, the quantity of information to be given about each book need not be great. For English books, authors, title, number of edition and date suffice, together with reprint date, if this applies: with non-British books, if the language of the title page does not indicate country of origin, place of publication is given. The term *pamphlet*, italicised or underlined, distinguishes shorter works better than a total of pages; the name of the series—'Royal Historical Society guides and handbooks, 5'—or that of an institutional publisher—'Plywood Manufacturers' Association of British Columbia'—can indicate the type of work. Such details take a few extra seconds to record: yet

[4] It is less practicable in Commonwealth countries than in the United States to rely for analytical entries on such tools as the H. W. Wilson Co. *Standard Catalog* and *Essay and General Literature Index*.

once the master is prepared for duplicating, it is as easy to produce twenty full entries as twenty in abbreviated form.

When the entry is printed within the library, a further aspect—the manner in which the entry is first recorded—demands consideration. Every book purchased which reaches the cataloguer will have with it some kind of slip originally filed under author in the 'ordered' file pending receipt of the book: perhaps a proposal form made out in long-

Author's Surname:
(Capitals please)

Title: .....

Publisher: ..... Date, if not a New Book:

Price: .....

Reviewed or recommended in: .....

Your Name: ..... Date: .....

M.E.Co. Hud. C.P.D.

Fig. 37. Combined Suggestion, Cataloguing Master, and Shelf List Slip. *Bookseller's Names at foot, classmark to go at top left, tracings on verso.*

hand by a reader, or if completed by Acquisitions staff typed or in a few libraries photocopied from booklist or sale catalogue.[5] Why, unless this is illegible, should the cataloguer then set down once more author, title, edition, date and possibly other data? The original form can well serve as the master catalogue slip, the cataloguer merely adding details such as distinguishing forenames when necessary. On the other hand, in a great library with many books passing through the cataloguing unit, the original slip may be transferred on receipt of the book to a 'cataloguing-in-process' file so as to save the time of Acquisitions staff in their final check before placing fresh orders: and in this case the cataloguer may be expected to type the master copy himself, or cut the stencil

[5] The SACAP routine inaugurated by Bro-Dart Industries, N.Y., on the other hand supplies the subscriber with the text of the review of any book dealt with in the *Library Journal*, an order form already made out for the book and an offset cataloguing master containing a complete entry ready for duplication.

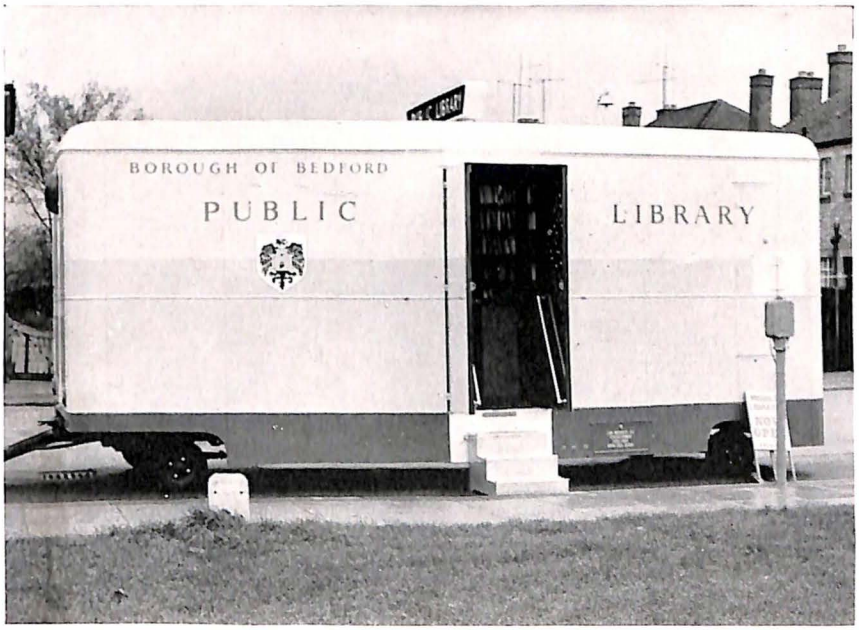


Plate No. 59.

Bedford Mobile Library. *A trailer unit, roomier than the typical rural mobile, and providing longer stops. Mains power connection at right.*

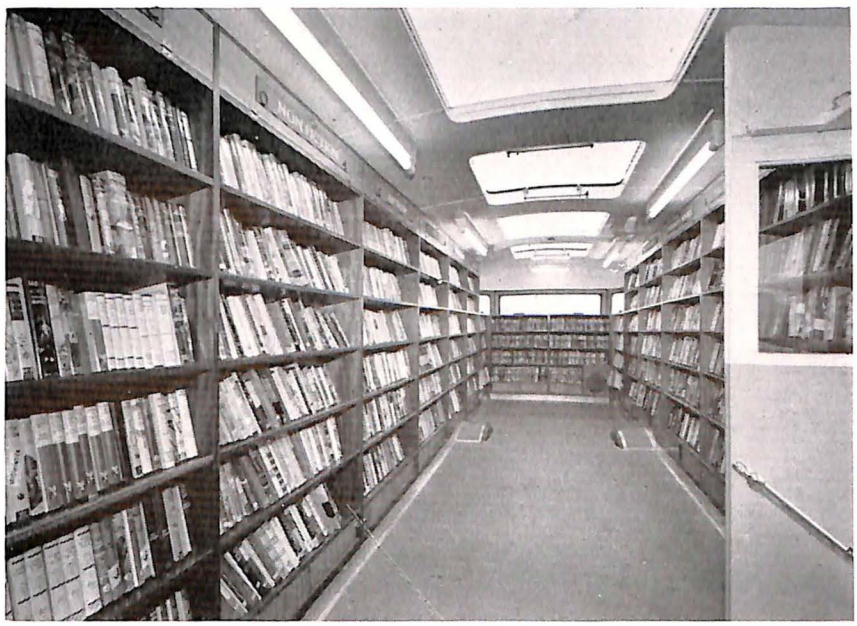


Plate No. 60.

Bootle Mobile Library. *Built on Bedford passenger chassis. Forward entrance provides long clear shelving run. Tilted sapele shelving with storage space above and below.*



Plate No. 61.

Derbyshire County Libraries. *Hospital Library Staff Reading Room and Library.*



Plate No. 62.
Junior Library, Cincinnati. *Ample space for circulation: excellent natural lighting: specially proportioned furniture.*



Plate No. 63.

Central Lending Library, Kensington (London). *Minimal window space: harsh decorative effects: ceiling height made superfluous by air conditioning.*

from which copies will be run off. As he must in any event supply the classification number by which the book is to be shelved, the cataloguer will also have more than one heavy tome on his desk as he goes through the day's quotum: Dewey, Sears, and a technical dictionary are obvious choices.

The final aspect of the cataloguing problem concerns the method of producing entries for the public catalogue. The average number of cards or sheaf pages required for a book in the average public catalogue may be put at 2·5—a figure which coincides exactly with none of the office reproduction processes. Carbons, giving two adequate copies on paper only, can of course be used for a single sheaf catalogue: every card, on the other hand, must be typed afresh. Repetitive typing of this kind, uninteresting as it is, is seldom done at a consistent level of efficiency: ideally every card requires the chief cataloguer's routine scrutiny before passing for filing. Until World War II little attention was paid in either Britain or America to the application of duplicators in catalogue work: yet in the larger libraries, where most titles are added to many branches simultaneously, and anything from ten to a hundred copies of the basic unit entry are required, their rôle is essential. Any library, in fact, which has four or more catalogues with a core of common titles to maintain needs to consider duplicating.

In general the advantage of machine duplication should be not only in saving time, in card checking saved once the stencil has been checked: it should also be in the high quality of the entry obtained, while a typewriter face chosen for its small and compact lettering, Elite in particular, will assure an economical use of the limited space available. Not every duplicating process, however, is wholly satisfactory from the aesthetic point of view. Hectographic (spirit) reproduction, though simple in principle, yields only violet, green or other copies, not black: stencil duplicating, though it employs black or other inks indifferently, gives even in expert hands the faintly broken, almost greasy print, recognisably home-made, and hardly comparable with letter-press or lithographic printing. On the other hand, the stencil duplicator is at least within the competence of any typist or secretarial assistant, and can usually be operated by her with an efficiency beyond that of the average professional cataloguer. Here a typical compromise is often made, the typewriter being used to produce copies of the basic unit entry up to ten in number and stencil duplicating, employing special card size stencils, for runs above ten. Ideally, the 'break-point' of ten will not be accepted by a library without careful comparative timing under its own conditions.

Small size masters, suitable for card duplicating, are now available for offset lithographic machines, these machines costing twice or three times as much as stencil units: but the entries so obtained differ so markedly from the average stencil product as rather to resemble a printed card in style and inking. As the stencil duplicator can also be

used for other office jobs, so the offset duplicator can be put to work to produce letterheadings, administrative stationery generally, booklists and other publications. Their running costs have been shown by O & M tests to be so much lower than those of other duplicating processes as to affect savings over a period of ten years more than equivalent to the replacement cost of the machine. In an intermediate price range, addressing machines, printing from a small embossed plate of metal, plastic or fibre, handle nothing larger than envelope size (nine lines for a catalogue card). Adequate in general appearance, the catalogue entry obtained from them is nevertheless often marred by the corner of the plate itself as well as the raised text smearing against the card. Despite their successful use in Germany and elsewhere, over a period of thirty years, it seems doubtful whether the average library is well advised to invest so much in so specialised a machine rather than in equipment suitable for a variety of uses.

3. THE CATALOGUING UNIT: GENERAL DUTIES

The drafting of a catalogue entry is a professional job, the printing of the entry a skilled clerical job, and the sorting of cards and books and their distribution into the correct bins for despatch to branches an unskilled, non-professional task which new or floating staff can do, as they can book preparation. A simple, economical flow of materials through the cataloguing department, with shelves and trolleys of adequate size and height, does much to help this, and to lighten the cataloguer's day.

The professional cataloguer, working from left to right, needs a trolley on either side of him, easy access to card files and reference books, and, on an average, one hundred square feet of floor space. In a large and old-established library, his personal reference collection may be numerically impressive, including superseded university calendars and academic directories, year-books and membership lists of learned societies, lists of periodical holdings, manuals of bibliographic practice and foreign language dictionaries; in the average public library system, it will not extend to more than *Chambers's Technical Dictionary*, a one-volume encyclopaedia, such as the *Columbia-Viking*, and last year's *Who's Who*—if he is lucky. Of the larger collection of bibliographic aids which may be used by the cataloguing unit, all that has been said about bibliographies and the acquisitions staff applies again.

Miscellaneous duties, which may fall to the cataloguing unit, include: responsibility for filing and general maintenance of the headquarters catalogues: preparation and upkeep of explanatory notices displayed with all public catalogues: training of new staff in catalogue use: and in some cases a degree of supervision over catalogue maintenance at branches, e.g. in the case of libraries providing card or sheaf union

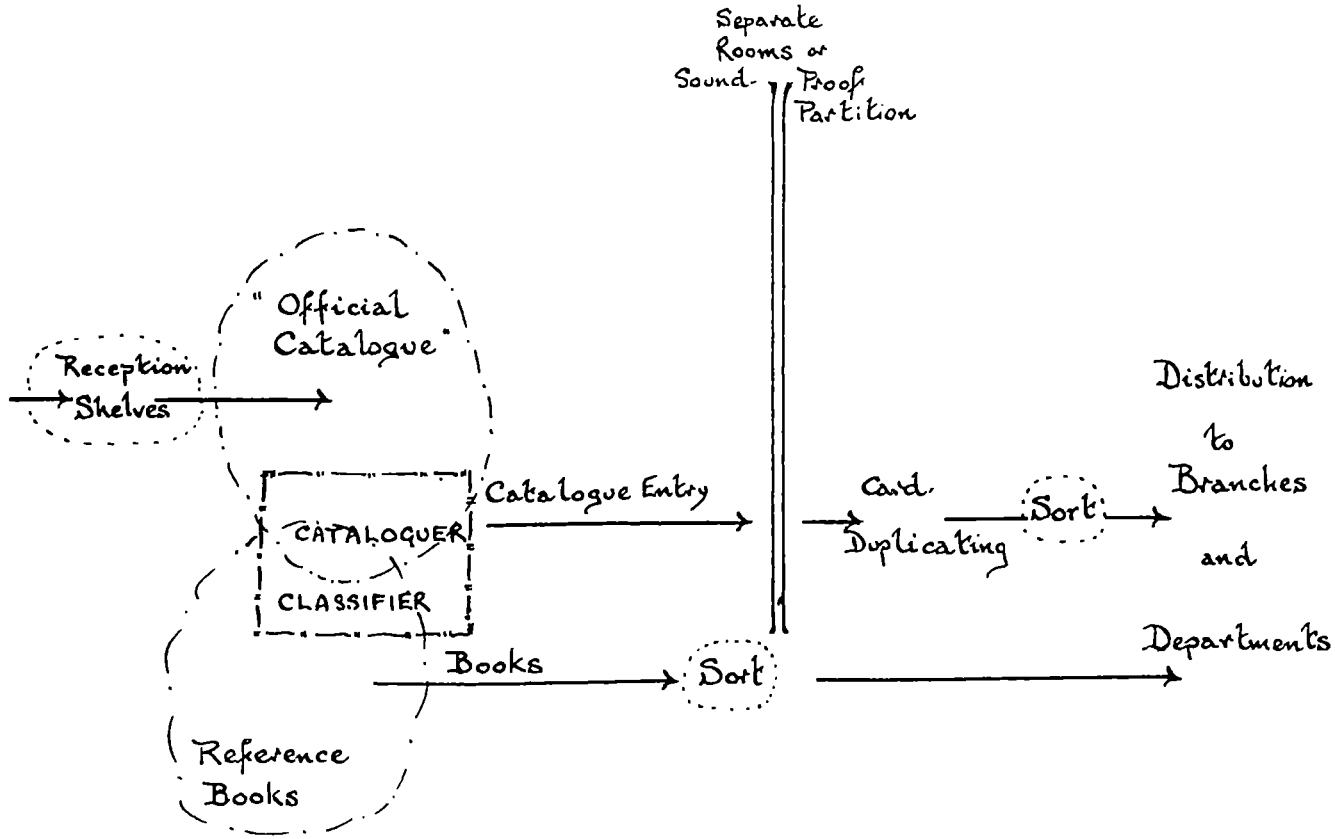


Fig. 38. *A Flow diagram of an Accessions Department.*

catalogue at branches and dependent on the circulation of withdrawals lists from the catalogue unit to keep them up to date.

All filing staff, particularly those not trained initially in the cataloguing unit, need clear written instructions, distinguishing the different catalogue sequences and the types of entry made, and the filing policy followed in the alphabetical catalogue—letter by letter, or word by word. There seems little to choose between the two, save that the latter more frankly acknowledges the artificial nature of arrangement in any large catalogue. The conventions used in most catalogues and bibliographies which contain different kinds of headings, as distinct from gazetteers or telephone directories, must also be set out:—person as author before person as subject, person before place, place-name in institutional author headings and in subject headings before place-name in book or periodical titles: and so on.

General catalogue maintenance as well as involving a strict watch for the physical state of the catalogue, its legibility and cleanliness, demands vigilant attention to drawers or binders which are becoming crowded, and which need the moving on and re-spacing of entries. Internal guides must be moved, amended, or added to as necessary. Such guides, with plastic-covered tabs protruding above the edge of the card or page, one to a hundred or fewer entries, or for every big block of entries under a single heading, save the time of the user and reduce wear on the cards when thumbing through for some elusive heading. On such points of routine depends the final impression made by the catalogue on its user: and it is as well for the chief cataloguer to bear continually in mind that, while the intelligent user may forgive a badly drafted entry as the product of professional pedantry, he can find no excuse for the catalogue which is merely sluttish and ill-maintained.

CHAPTER XVIII

BINDING AND THE CARE OF BOOKS

BOOKS are most frequently issued in this country in a form of publisher's casing, that is, a light straw-board cover over which is glued a more or less attractively coloured cloth. In contrast to traditional binding, this casing is attached to the book itself by narrow tapes projecting beyond the spine, to which they are glued, usually reinforced by mull, and only protected by the end papers pasted down on to the inside of the cover. The whole is admirably suited to private use, and not at all to the rigors of public handling, and, in fact, after a comparatively few loans, the book requires a new protection, and has to be bound to enable a more economic life to be obtained. Just what is the duration of this life is not certain, for it varies greatly in all categories of book; but experience has shown that it is fatally easy to give books too substantial a cover, and to find that the paper of the text has become unusably dirty before the binding is nearly worn out, or, on the other hand, the paper is so well protected that the text is obsolete before the copy has worn out. Rising prices have compelled rigorous examination of binding policy, and these semi-permanent bindings are now seldom seen outside the Reference Library, and even there are carefully considered.

The deciding factors are (i) the physical quality of the book itself; (ii) the permanent value of the content; and (iii) whether it would be in fact cheaper to buy a new copy than to bind. Certain categories of books are, however, always bound. Books of local interest; standard works, such as the Dictionary of National Biography; volumes of music, and well-produced coloured art books are obvious examples. A less obvious policy is to bind before necessary in order to obtain a longer ultimate life; a policy that is wise in the case of local directories, some encyclopaedias and other works issued with insufficient protection.

Fiction needs most careful consideration in view of the need for retaining a large fresh stock on the shelves and at the same time to avoid spending on the really ephemeral. It is a very responsible task to select such books for despatch to the binder. In the reaction against the overstrong bindings of a previous generation many librarians today advocate cessation of binding, especially for fiction, which they claim can be repurchased as cheaply as the cost of binding with an improved psychological effect on readers. Librarians of experience confirm that in order to keep continuity of actual volume of bookstock, binding is still necessary.

Much was formerly made of desirable specifications for library binding, but unfortunately such requirements are largely irrelevant owing

to the general introduction of machinery by the commercial binders and to the almost prohibitive expense of having orders specially bound to individual standards.

Sometimes a library authority insists that all binding must be done by tender. It must be recognised, however, that binding is a very varied matter, some books requiring special treatment, and that binders are equally varied in their ability to do special work. The best results can only be obtained if the librarian has power to send certain classes of work to the firms best qualified to deal with them. So far as general binding is concerned, the present-day combination of master-binders has levelled up prices until every binder quotes practically the same figures; so there does not seem much to be gained by tenders, except that legal formality which is so much approved by public authorities. If it is used, a book-binding specification should include every point which has any bearing on the cost, finish and workmanship of the books. The specification of the Society of Arts and that drafted by Mr. Douglas Cockerell are very comprehensive and many of their points could be included in a specification for library binding. As requirements differ in every library, it is impossible to attempt the drafting of a model specification which will meet every case, but the details set out in the following draft may prove useful and suggestive. Reference should also be made to the Minimum Specifications for Class 'A' Library Binding issued by the Joint Committee of the American Library Association and the Library Binding Institute, particularly for Part V 'Approved Materials', which, though American in intention, is valuable to other librarians.

DRAFT BOOKBINDING SPECIFICATION

To the Public Libraries Committee
of ..... Date .....

Gentlemen,

..... undertake to bind books for the ..... Public Libraries Committee in the manner specified below, at the prices stated in the annexed schedule, for one year from ..... to .....

All books to be carefully collated before being taken apart to detect missing or damaged leaves or anything that might make binding inadvisable.

All books to be well beaten or rolled, and care taken to avoid set-off of ink in new books.

To be sewn one-sheet-on, on strong tapes; the first and last sheets to be enclosed at back in paper strips. All sections broken at the back to be enclosed in strips and neatly overcast, not less than four stitches to the inch, before being sewn to the tapes. Four tapes to be allowed

for crown 8vos; other sizes in proportion. The tapes to be firmly secured between the back and front boards, which must be carefully split to receive them.

In leather-bound books, the back to be made close and flexible, without bands, save in cases to be separately notified, but with blind fillets in imitation of bands. Leathers as specified in schedule, with smooth cloth sides to match colour of leathers.

In cloth-bound books, the backs to be made open, with suitable linings. Edges to be very carefully cut, sprinkled and burnished, but only when the margins are not too small; otherwise to be left with proof and top edge only smoothed.

End papers to be of stout, coloured, marbled or printed paper, with at least one white leaf before and after the printed matter. (Or as an alternative—the special library end-papers to be used in all books rebound, etc.)

Linen or other strong cloth joints in all books.

Lettered in gold with author's name, title, class numbers, initials,

SCHEDULE OF PRICES

Sizes.	Half Leather	Quarter Leather	Cloth	Cloth (Specify varieties available)		Buckram
			Cloth			
Fcap. 8vo ($6\frac{1}{4}'' \times 4''$) . .						
Crown 8vo ($7'' \times 4\frac{1}{2}''$) . .						
Post 8vo ($8'' \times 5''$) . .						
Demy 8vo ($9'' \times 6''$) . .						
Medium 8vo ($9\frac{1}{2}'' \times 6''$) .						
Royal 8vo ($10'' \times 6\frac{1}{2}''$) . .						
Imperial 8vo ($11'' \times 7\frac{1}{2}''$) .						
Quarto ($11'' \times 8\frac{1}{2}''$) . .						
Folio ($13'' \times 8''$) . . .						

Prices of other sizes to be in proportion.

Extras:

Per inch for folios over thirteen inches.

For lettering large initials in classes 800 and 920 . . . per hundred.

For mending torn or broken leaves.

For guarding plates in linen or jaconet, per dozen.

For mounting and dissecting maps, etc., on fine linen, per sq. foot.

. . . For extra thickness, if books more than half the width of boards. . . .

etc. as per sample diagram showing arrangements of lettering for each class. The colours of leathers and cloths for each class to be as specified in the diagram. The order of lettering and colours to be maintained unless altered by the instructions, and class letters and numbers to be placed at a uniform height of one inch from the foot of each book, irrespective of size.

Protective lacquer to be sprayed over lettered backs.

Include all wrappings, cancelled matter, and advertisement pages of certain magazines at the end of volumes, in their published order.

All materials used to be of the best quality, and the work done carefully and promptly. Deficiencies and irregularities in books, if any, to be reported to the librarian.

Each lot of binding to be finished and returned within ..... weeks from the date of the order.

Should there be any extras chargeable beyond those provided for in this specification, they must be reported to the librarian before the work is proceeded with.

Samples of the manner in which ..... propose to bind books in accordance with this specification are sent herewith.

Signature of firm.

.....

The greater part of library binding is done by machine, under competitive conditions, and it is largely owing to the drawbacks of the commercial bindery that many librarians have decided to establish library binderies for their own system. The plan has many advantages, such as the closer control of the work, the absence of shareholders' profits, a possible speeding up of books through the shop, and the ability to decide the style and quality of the product. The convenience of having books and especially periodicals always on the premises is very considerable, though it has to be remembered that interruptions to the flow of work cost time and money, and therefore diminish the total value of the bindery. Librarians have made some very successful experiments in this enterprise, but it is not always clear that the economies are in fact necessarily obtained. Claims that a library bindery is economically used for jobs such as making book-card pockets, illustration-mounting, magazine cover making, should be very carefully examined, for a substantial weight of experience is against such practice. If the establishment is concerned only with repairs, i.e. stops short of the sewing and other binding processes, these jobs are a useful assistance to the library staff, and of great convenience for speed or for meeting individual requirements. The basis of costing is the chief element of doubt; in particular, the amount of the librarian's time that must be expended in supervision of accounts etc. is not always clear. Nor is it easy to compare

results when establishment charges as to heat, light and power are so variable. One authority has said that unless a clear saving of well over £200 per annum is foreseeable, the experiment is not worth while the expenditure of the librarian's time and energy, and that may form the basis for decision. The most obvious grounds for decision will be the actual continued volume of work available. Unless there are upwards of 20,000 items for binding annually, no substantial economy can result to a public library.

A particularly interesting experiment which does not seem to have produced really satisfactory results in the special circumstances of public library use, is unsewn, or 'perfect' bindings. At first it was thought economies of money, time and labour would result, but wider experience shows that sewn bindings are still the most satisfactory for books that will be subjected to continued heavy wear. Publishers are however increasingly tending towards unsewn casings to replace the conventional sewn book.

Librarians are always interested in attempts at preserving the freshness of newly purchased books for as long as possible, especially those which are published with artistic and decorative dust jackets. Various methods have been tried to prolong the life of these fragile papers, such as backing them with a stiffer paper or attaching them to the book cover; but the most effective all-round method is to attach transparent plastic (PVC foil) covers to the book. These covers are reasonable in price (ranging from 4½d. upwards according to size and the quantity ordered), easily fitted by the staff, and certainly, by protecting the actual book from the elements, achieve much of the desired object. One firm offers prepared 'sleeves' in 27 sizes from $5\frac{5}{8}'' \times 14''$ to $12'' \times 22''$; other firms supply the foil in rolls of various guages of thickness. An expensive, but still developing, product is Melanex (I.C.I.) said to be virtually untearable. Some booksellers will supply books already in these covers, and attractive coloured covers have been made commercially available (under various trade names) for children's books and music. Such covers are heat sealed (laminated) and are less easily detached or damaged.

The appearance of the library shelves is greatly improved if the staff pay particular attention to the withdrawal from immediate use of books needing binding, those with loose leaves or in any way damaged. Date labels should always be kept neatly stamped and replaced as soon as necessary.

One of the most important instructions that should be given to the new assistant is the elements of light repair work, and the correct method of handling books. Much unnecessary damage is caused by injudicious use of flour paste, and in particular by the new transparent cellulose adhesive tapes. In fact, the task of the binder is greatly increased by ill-judged repairs of loose leaves or illustrations, and there should be careful supervision of the assistant 'doing repairs'.

Books should not be shelved too tightly, nor too loosely. The one damages the binding by the force necessary for inserting other books; the other causes larger books to sag and so strain the sewing. Is it necessary to add that the public will hardly respect books or keep them carefully if the staff are seen throwing books carelessly into heaps, or casually dropping them on the floor?

A frequently overlooked point is the need for care in opening new or newly bound books. If such books are too abruptly opened the glue on the spine or even the stitches will be strained, and permanent weakness will result. Careful even opening of the leaves starting from either end will ensure the book always lies correctly when being read, and there will be no need for the reader to force the book open by bending back the covers.

Dust and dirt are great enemies of books, and until libraries are air conditioned, dusting and cleaning the library are routine tasks that must be done regularly. In particular, no assistant should allow open shelves to accumulate dust, and, in the case of books brought from the stack, it should be a duty unobtrusively to remove dust before the book is handed to the reader.

Insect pests may be disposed of by placing the book, with leaves opened, in a warm cupboard containing paradichlorbenzene crystals (1 lb. to 10 cubic feet) for about two weeks.

Particular care should be given in libraries which have collections of old or rare books to ensure that the staff are fully aware of the special problems caused by e.g. ancient bindings with metal bosses and corners, or of fine ornamental bindings in general. It is essential that these bindings be either protected by loose cloth covers or enclosed in carefully fitted boxes lined with some soft material to guard against friction. Slip cases, unless very well made, can do much more damage than their absence. The normal careful handling of books should be supplemented by judicious application of leather preservative where appropriate. A safe formula is given by the British Museum Laboratory recipe, viz:

Lanolin (anhydrous) 7 oz. (avoir.), Cedar Oil 1 oz. (fluid), Beeswax $\frac{1}{2}$ oz. (avoir.), Hexane (or petroleum ether BP 60°–80° C.) 11 oz. (fluid).

Applied by hand, using wads of cotton-wool, the fluid cleanses a great amount of dirt from the old bindings, and this certainly enhances the appearance of old leather as well as retarding deterioration, without harming the skin. An alternative treatment is to dress the leather with 7% potassium lactate solution followed by an application of toluol and polyvinylacetate, which, when it dries, leaves as a glossy surface film the polyvinylacetate and seals the leather against sulphur dioxide in the air. As far as appearance is concerned, the result is remarkable, but it may be suspected that the brittleness of the leather will cause underlying decay to continue. None of these treatments will be effective if decay has gone too far or if storage conditions are bad.

Some valuable practical advice on dealing with the results of insect pests, moulds, damp and various stains will be found in S.M. Cockerell: *The repairing of books* (1958).

It is essential that for public purposes book covering materials should be of the most durable kind. Good quality binders' cloth is amazingly durable, but unless safeguarded by one of the modern water-proofing agents such as pyroxylin, needs the protection of plastic covers as previously mentioned in order to retain its best appearance after exposure to constant handling. Some of the buckram type cloths are available, and make admirable covers for those reference books which do not require the strength of leather bindings.

Recent experiments in the preservation of leather have enabled manufacturers to put on the market reliable leather for binding purposes, and the cautions which were formerly made against the deterioration of leather need no longer apply if good quality materials are being used. These guaranteed leathers conform to the PIRA test—one which assures the user that essential chemical salts have not been removed in the dyeing process.

The principal leathers used in fine binding are:—

Levant morocco, or real morocco, made from goat skin. This material should only be used for very valuable books which require a handsome and dignified binding. It is very durable, but expensive for ordinary work. A cheaper reliable form is niger, which is tough, durable, and suitable for general use, especially when guaranteed in conformity with the PIRA test as it is by all reputable firms.

Persian morocco, made from sheep-skin, is not so dear or so good as Levant morocco, being soft, but is a durable and satisfactory leather if a good quality is procured. It was formerly used for popular books in the non-fiction classes of the lending department, but has been superseded by niger. Heavy books could be bound in this leather, but pig-skin would be better, since the more it is handled the better it wears and keeps its condition.

Roan (now largely superseded by cloth binding) is a kind of inferior sheep-skin with a different grain and surface from persian morroco, and is a cheap leather often used for certain classes of books, such as the less popular works of travel, science, theology, fiction. It is unsuitable for heavy books, and not now to be recommended for any kind of book.

Pig-skin is the strongest leather of all, and also the most durable for much-used heavy books; but librarians should make certain that real pig-skin is supplied. All reference works, such as dictionaries, atlases, directories and other volumes which are being constantly handled, may well be bound in this.

It is claimed that good leather and good binders' cloth have little difference in durability and cost.

The routine work of preparing and despatching books to the binder

should be made as simple and regular as possible. Most commercial binders arrange to call at libraries at stated times, and if the library has its own bindery, a regular flow must be maintained. The staff therefore must have a regular duty included in their diary for preparing binding. Though shelves and counter assistants may remove books that are wearing badly, all those despatched for binding must be scrutinised by a senior who can judge whether the cost will be justified. Binders frequently make a small charge for detecting imperfect books, which should, if possible, be removed or made perfect by the insertion of facsimile leaves before despatch.

Binding Order Slip.

	..... PUBLIC LIBRARIES.
	Central. No. 2987
Details from the price list supplied by the binder.	Style A Colour Red I Price Binder Ch.
Title	PERSONAL AND BUSINESS EFFICIENCY
Author	HENDERSON
Class Number	658
	Other Instructions Oversew

Fig. 39. An Individual Binding Slip *to include special instructions.*

The records that should be kept will vary according to the opinion of the librarian as to security. It seems unnecessary in the case of large numbers of fiction to have a traditional binding slip for each volume—a general order to bind a given number in a specified style, seems adequate, and the book-card in the binding file gives a check. But for non-fiction or works requiring lettering not given on the title page, more details may be given.

A binding order slip such as here illustrated, forming part of a duplicating book, is a safe record, which enables a check to be made on all details.

Special items, such as new volumes in a run of a serial, should be accompanied by either a specimen volume or a rubbing of the spine of a previous volume so that the binder may precisely follow the position of the lettering and tooling.

Date when sent.	Lettering.	Class and No.	Instruction.	Date Returned.

Fig. 40. A Binding Record Sheet.

A blind stamp of the authority coat-of-arms on the front cover of the book forms an effective indication of ownership, far more effective, incidentally, than the rubber stamp that used to be placed so frequently throughout books and on illustrations. The staff are quite able to operate the simple screw press and die that are necessary for this stamp, and, if the design is carefully considered, a pleasing result will be attained.

When a consignment of binding is returned to the library there should be a careful check to collate the actual numbers returned and the styles charged for on the invoice. This is particularly necessary for specially bound Reference Library and other exceptional books. Discrepancies may easily arise and must be detected at this stage and reported to the firm concerned. Most commercial firms will insert all necessary labels if the library supplies the appropriate quantities.

Books returned from the binder will each have lettered at the base of

the spine the classification number or author number for filing purposes, but when the book is still new the librarian must either employ a binder to visit the library for 'lettering' or adopt the modern method of electric stylus and foil. This process simply involves writing with a metal stylus (containing a small electric heating unit easily controlled by the operator) on a thin foil the underside of which is coated with coloured paint. This paint is transferred by the pressure of the heated stylus on to the book, and appears to make a very durable and visible impression. A choice of coloured foils is available.

Developments in classification frequently require that books should be re-lettered. Symbols may within the library be adequately covered by a coating of opaque lacquer or varnish and re-lettering effected above. The result is rarely entirely satisfactory, and important or permanently useful books should be sent to the bookbinder who can frequently remove old gilding and re-emboss the new letters without disfiguring the spine.

CHAPTER XIX

PRINTING, STATIONERY AND OFFICE MACHINERY

THE library is often judged by the quality of the printed material which is issued under its name, and no efforts should be spared to make all forms, book-lists and stationery worthy of the authority. Good printing is of course costly, but not disproportionately so when the difference between the effects achieved by a careful printer and those of a cheap jobbing man are compared. Modern papers, of infinite variety in finish, substance and colour, have made possible, with colour printing techniques, a standard never previously held practicable, and there exists a certain pleasant sense of emulation among librarians as to the reception of their printing by their own profession. The librarian may, therefore, with much advantage study something of printing practice, and become acquainted with the customs of the trade. He will find much of great interest in the processes that combine into the manufacture of a book or any printed item, and even a small knowledge of typography will assist in obtaining the attention and best work of the printer. Books such as Berry and Pollard's *Encyclopaedia of Type* and Hart's *Rules for Compositors and Readers at the University Press, Oxford*, are valuable as background and some of the trade journals help to keep the librarian informed of contemporary developments. Pamphlets issued by the Monotype Corporation and by Linotype illustrate a great variety of currently available type faces. It will be noticed that most printing houses have their own house style for punctuation and to a lesser extent, spelling, and if a different practice is desired, special emphasis must be made in the directions.

The main requirements of good printing are that it should be legible, pleasant to look at, be in harmony with the subject matter, and appear on paper appropriate to the face of the type. Experimental printing is no doubt of great effect in advertising, but the librarian has to remember that he is not responsible for a commercial concern, and that, although conventional types may seem dull to some, they are those whose value has been proved. Fashions in type change, witness the sudden interest in Gill Sans Serif before the last war, and the equally abrupt revival of long forgotten nineteenth century types in 1951. These fashions have their use for temporary lists and ephemeral publicity, but do not affect the solid mass of library printing, such as catalogues, and recurrent items, such as Guides to Readers, booklets of rules and regulations and routine forms. The inexperienced librarian may well gain confidence by

a careful study of those items singled out for praise in the *Library Association Record* review of Annual Reports.

Since the enforced paper economy and the difficulties of printing attendant on the last war, and the greatly enhanced cost of both in the post war world, many librarians have made experiments with office printing methods, some of which are almost as good as the print they are intended to replace. The chief principles of office printing are (i) adaptations to the typewriter-duplicator, (ii) use of spirit duplicator, e.g. the Banda or Ormig type of machine, (iii) the small, hand-set type printing machine, e.g. Roneotype, (iv) the photographic processes based on the lithographic principle, e.g. Multilith. Some of these processes produce excellent results, especially if the masters are prepared by skilful typists, but it must be confessed that they are poor substitutes for good quality printing from moveable type. A useful possibility, especially for letter-headings and similar repetitive matter, is the use of photo-offset lithography (Multilith or Rotaprint) to reproduce matter already printed by conventional methods. This appears a satisfactory product and secures a substantial economy.

Owing to poor appearance and possible non-permanence, spirit duplicating has largely lost favour. Hand-set type machines similarly appear to have been superseded.

As a measure of economy, there is much to be said for the production of internal administrative forms and records by typewriter and duplicator (e.g. Gestetner), but it seems very short-sighted to issue publicity matter, designed to attract readers, in this form. Purely ephemeral book-lists are frequently issued in this style, and where speed is an important element, perhaps office duplicating is the most satisfactory means.

A combination of Multilith with Varityper has made possible a much better imitation of the many founts offered by conventional print and, as shown in the sections on *Publicity*, proves an acceptable version of the printed catalogue, offering, as it does, complete control within the library of the speed of the work and also potential use of the equipment for other purposes.

It will be noted that the decision as to which method of 'office printing' to adopt depends on a consideration of the capital cost of the machinery and the continuing cost of labour; continuity of use; the labour of preparation of the master required for duplication in relation to other routine processes in the library; and, of course, the appearance of the finished work with regard to its actual use. Few librarians can produce accurate cost figures for 'office printing', owing largely to local factors such as charges for space, heating, lighting, and also to the frequent practice of sharing expensive machines with other departments. Commercial suppliers are also likely to be vague as to precise costs that can be compared with the performance of other machines. The factual

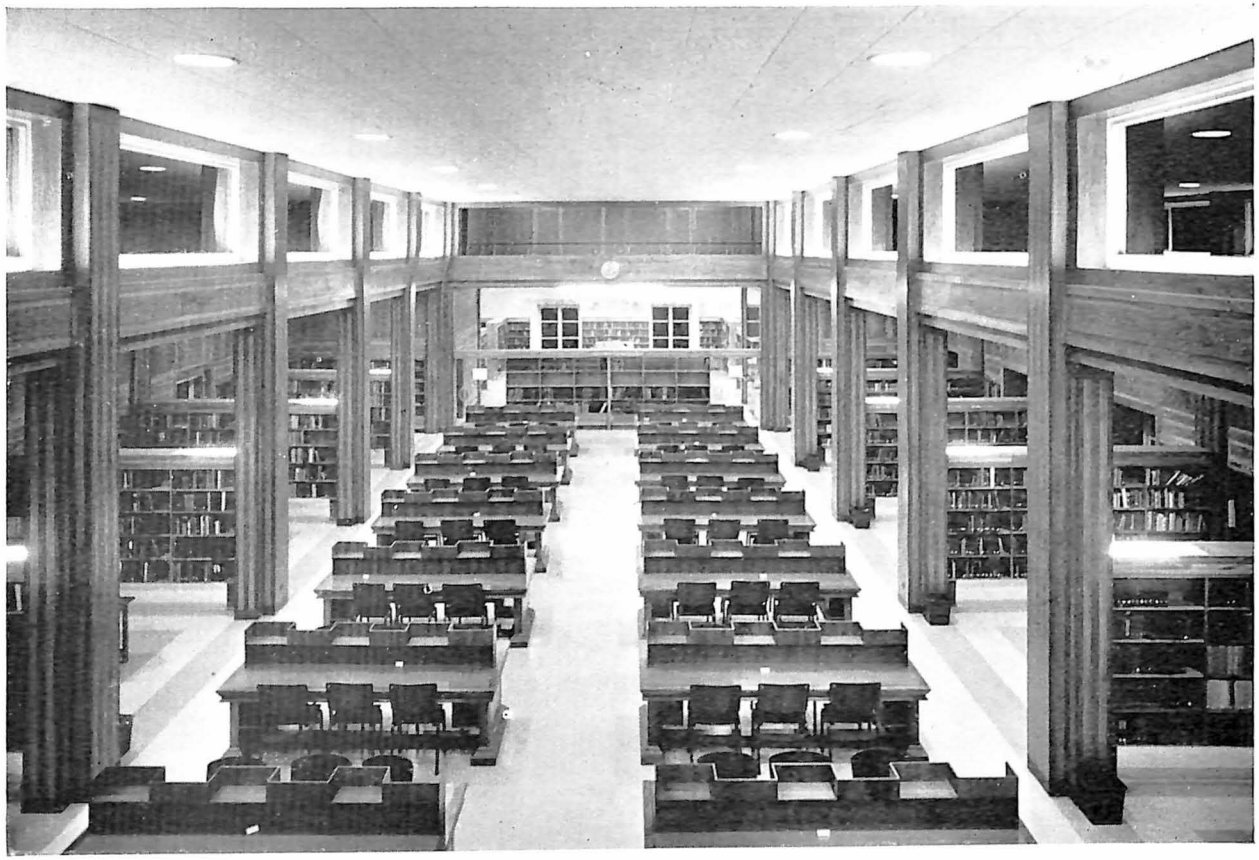


Plate No. 64.
Reference Library, Kensington. *Spacious and easy to supervise: but devoid of any illusion of privacy for the reader.*

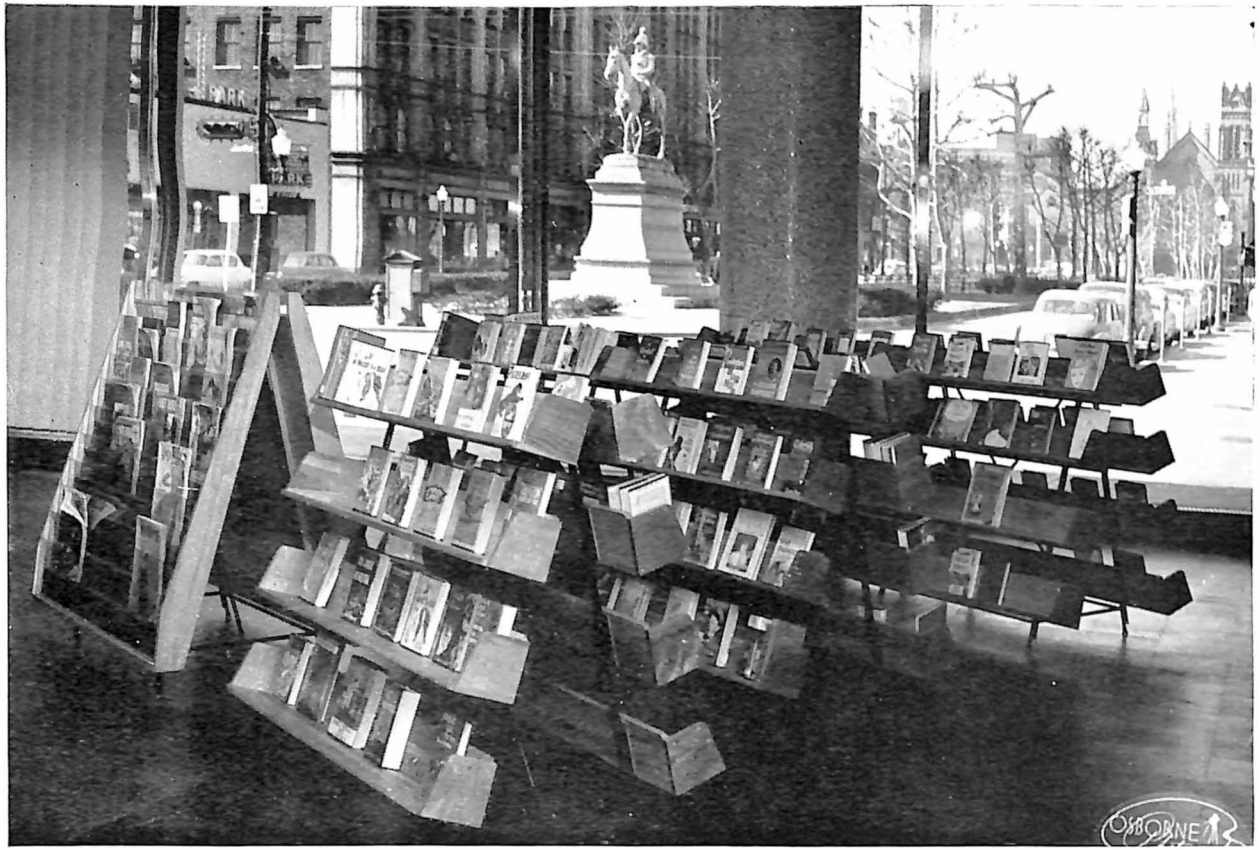


Plate No. 65.

Browsing Room, off main entrance, Cincinnati. *Conventional shelving, or display units? Adaptable for either purpose, these tilted periodical and book racks create an interesting corner, seen from the sidewalk.*

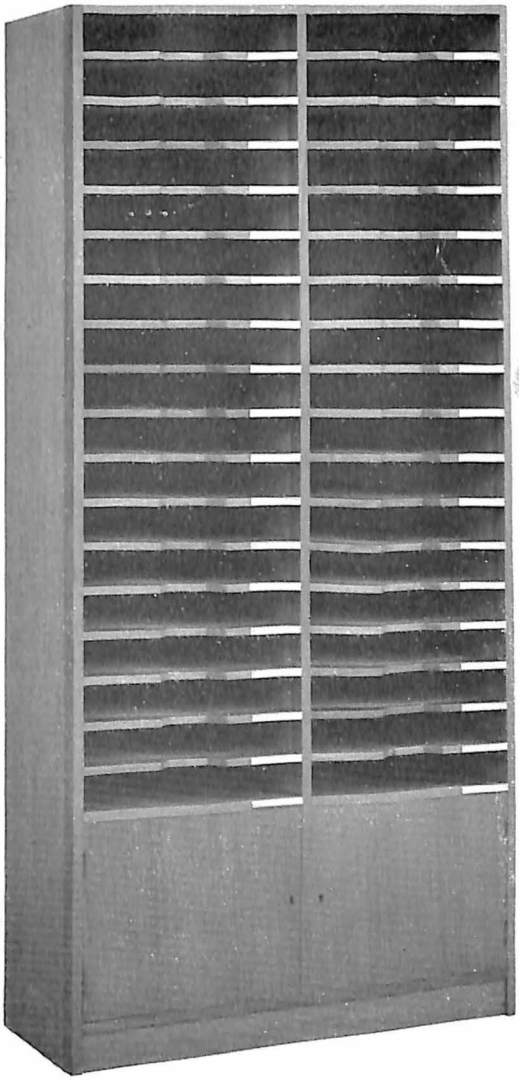


Plate No. 66.

Serota Periodicals Rack. *With* 36 *compartments for current issues, cupboard space beneath will obviously not hold corresponding back files.*



Plate No. 67.

E.K.Z. Catalogue Cabinet. *Severely functional in appearance, but not designed to suit the reader who wishes to consult the lower drawers.*

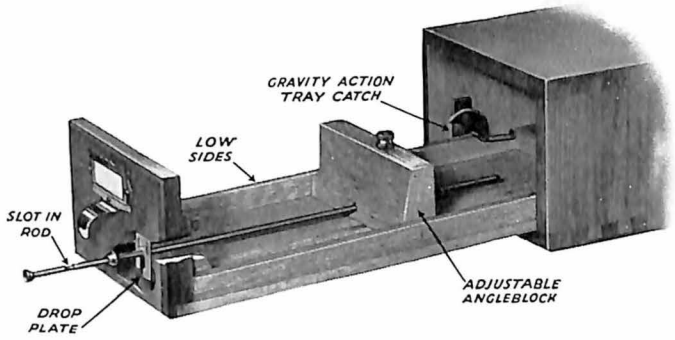


Plate No. 68.

Detail of standard non-tilted Libraco card catalogue.

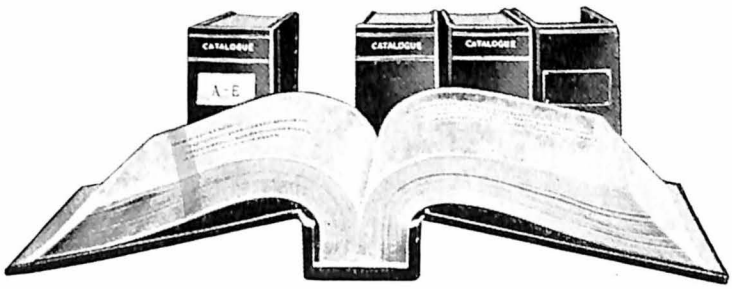


Plate No. 69.

Libraco Sheaf Catalogue Binders, open on shelf.

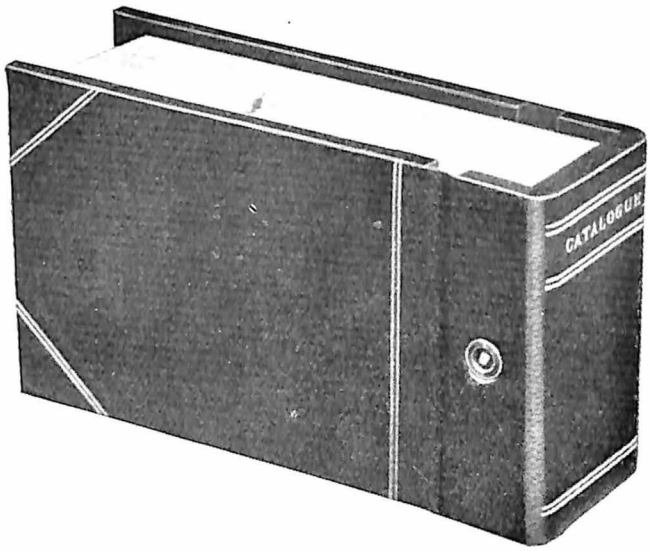


Plate No. 70.

Libraco Sheaf Binder.



Plate No. 71.

Serota Gramophone Record Cabinet.



Plate No. 72.

The Music Library, Toronto.

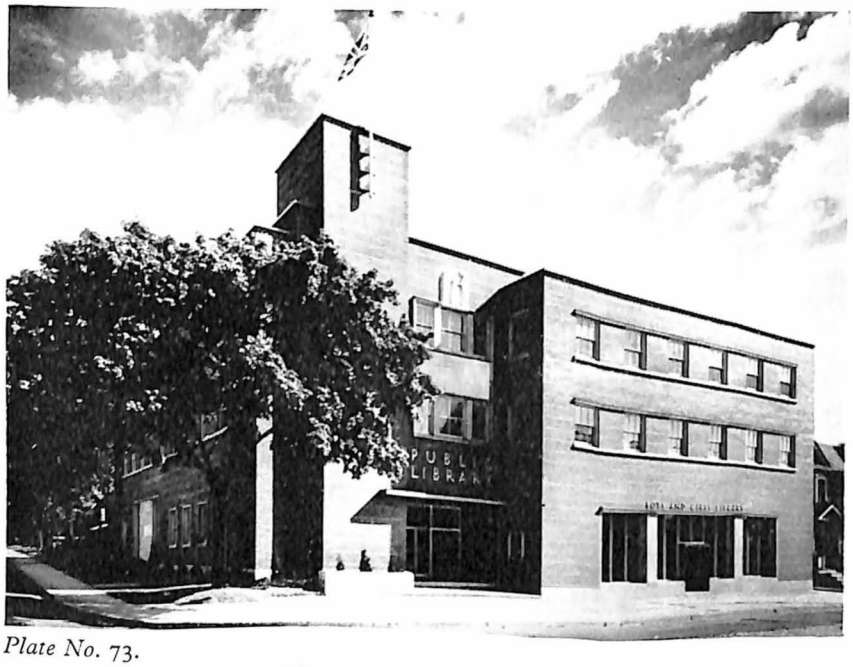


Plate No. 73.

Deer Park Branch Library, Toronto. *A good site, a big building: but less stimulating outside than within.*

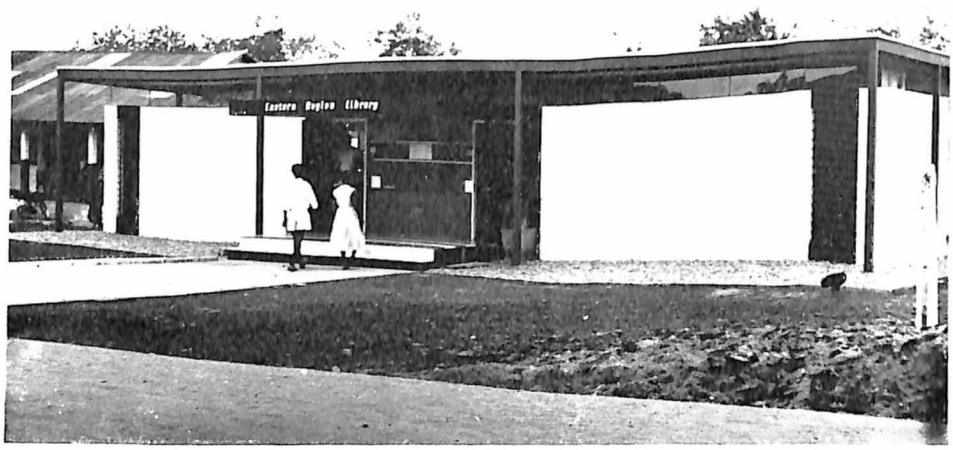


Plate No. 74.

Koforidua Branch Library, Eastern Region, Ghana. *Effective functional architecture: curiously, almost as anonymous as a traditional building.*

guidance in the Manchester Corporation Organisation and Method Unit enquiry (1958) is therefore of particular value as also H.M. Treasury O. & M. Bulletin.

The paper on which library correspondence and forms are printed calls for some consideration, in view of the great variety of qualities on the market. External letters are worthy of good quality, though not extravagant, paper; economy being achieved through the provision of various sizes of headed paper—foolscap folio, quarto and octavo. Some valuable time may be saved by printing the more formal communications, leaving space for variants, such as dates. Envelopes of matching size are essential. Suitable matter may be sent on post-cards.

Internal communications in any organisation call for the provision of memorandum forms—on cheap paper, especially when, as in the public departments, assistants are continually noting down brief items and telephone messages. Routine forms, as described under the different departments in which they are used, may frequently be produced by office duplicator. Some of the larger Reference Libraries, however, find it desirable to print Book Requisition slips. Durability and strength are not the criteria by which such temporary matter should be judged, and it is merely wasteful to use good correspondence papers on such as duplicating machines. If a home bindery is available, a useful source for 'scrap pads' is found in using the blank reverse side of suitable superseded papers glued together and secured by a strip of mull—the product being cut to convenient size by the guillotine.

MISCELLANEOUS WRITING MATERIALS: ink, although much displaced by the modern ball point pen, is still necessary in a library. There should be available black Indian ink, also good quality red and blue for records, where permanence is desirable. White ink for lettering class numbers on books and coloured inks for posters may be needed. Ink-pots should be used in the modern reservoir type or in an unspillable design. It may be prudent to supply such facilities in public departments for those who need to refill their fountain pens. Blotting paper should be available if special places are allocated to those using ink in a Reference Library: for staff, it is a useful writing or working surface which helps to preserve desks or tables against unsightly stains. Pencils are by custom supplied to staff and are available in Reference Libraries, although frequently secured to a writing pad or desk. Carbon paper is supplied in varieties suitable for the work, according, for instance, to the number of copies required. It is possible to have types which do not offset on the users' hands and some modern (expensive) varieties are white. Some stationery forms are now manufactured carbon-backed if duplicate records are required, but this does not seem particularly useful to libraries, except in the form of Receipt Books, which should certainly be so designed.

Any library evolves its own individual forms and types of stationery, but all need a proper method of storage and check on the extent of use

to avoid sudden shortages. Supplies of appropriate stationery will always be available in each department and the assistant in charge of each will regard it as a responsibility to maintain this even flow of material, but some central control is necessary, both to guard against emergency and to facilitate ordering and financial control. A central storage, whether merely a cupboard or room with shelving and cupboards, under definite control of a responsible administrative assistant (perhaps the Librarian's secretary or a clerk in charge of general stores and supplies) is clearly most desirable. Issues of stationery should only be made in a large system against some formal requisition and should always be carefully entered on record sheets appropriate to each item. These sheets (which may be ruled and duplicated) will give official designation of the item, source of supply, date and quantity of orders and entries of withdrawals for use. Such a system, whether elaborated to the full, or simplified for a small organisation, is necessary to prevent undue extravagance and holding of stocks in departments where they may become soiled and wasted. Clear reference to numbering on the shelf or other indication of the location of each item saves much time and encourages tidiness.

The vast expansion of the office equipment industry has made accessible to librarians a surprising number of labour-saving devices, and a critical acquaintance with current publicity is advantageous. Not all new gadgets are in fact worth installing, and some are not in the least applicable to our work; but it should be remembered that the administrative departments of the library are closely analagous to the administrative departments of many commercial firms. With the caution that all administration exists to facilitate the service departments, we may consider in what directions office equipment and machines may assist.

Printing and duplicating machines have been considered previously, and reference need only be made now to the importance of a good quality stencil duplicator, preferably electrically operated, if long runs are anticipated. Electric typewriters are speedier than hand-operated models, and give superior results as far as appearance is concerned, but they are expensive. Varityper models with change of founts most nearly approach the appearance of print; initial cost is very high and possible use is sufficiently small to discourage most librarians from acquisition. For the volume of work, conventional printing might even be more economical.

The most obvious applications of office equipment are in filing cabinets, visible index systems, internal communications and document copying. Filing cabinets (vertical files) are invariably now of metal, with enamel finish in either dark green or grey. They are supplied in units of three drawers of a standard size to accept quarto and foolscap type papers and it is now usual to add a suspension system by which the individual folders are mutually linked along their edges and supported

at both ends on metal bars attached to the front and rear of the drawer. The folded top of the file (the 'leading edge') is wide enough to accommodate a contents list or title of the file typed in to a narrow piece of stout paper which is in turn slipped under a xylonite holder fitted to the edge itself. Thus, a suspension file system displays immediately on opening the drawer, the titles of the files and their arrangement. It is not possible readily to withdraw the manila folders, as in the older free filing system, but the suspension technique banishes completely the problems of supporting loose folders, of rescuing those which slip under others at the rear, or indeed of the excessively bulky file.

A development of the vertical suspension file is the lateral system—identical in principle, but arranged so that the folders are visible left to right rather than from above front to rear. An ingenious supporting device enables insertion and withdrawal of papers to be done from the front into the pocket, and the leading edge has a plastic indicator to receive the typed title of the file. A metal flap can be drawn down over the front of the file after use, for security.

Lateral filing is of great value where floor room is restricted and it is undesirable to have several feet of space occupied by the extended drawer and the user, but as a storage system it is not so satisfactory in that the pockets do not mutually support each other and documents seem rather readily to become entangled or pushed out of sight.

The arrangement of these files (and they have superseded box files and other earlier methods) is at the discretion of the user. Substantial intercalation of new files is possible, and the enormous advantage of the visible title makes any arrangement readily acceptable so long as it is simple and appropriate to the material. Alphabetical subject heads, if carefully controlled and limited (consider the Kaiser system of indexing) have been found admirable in use; but for correspondence or personal files, alphabetical letter order may be just as satisfactory. Classified order with, e.g. Universal Decimal Classification numbers, is particularly acceptable if a specialised pamphlet or document collection is in question.

Visible indexes are an attempt to retain the advantages of a card catalogue and simultaneously allow the user to scan the entries as in the old guard book catalogue. The aim is achieved in one of two ways, each appropriate to a particular purpose. The first, and most useful, is usually marketed under the name Kardex and consists of a series of flat metal trays with slotted edges into which a series of cards (usually $5'' \times 8''$) attached to a thin rod, are fitted in such a way that each card leaves exposed about $\frac{1}{4}''$ of the card below it. The cards themselves may be lifted to reveal the under side (the rod serving as a hinge) and it is therefore possible to use the whole of each surface for record purposes. A conventional unit may have five or six trays each containing 50-100 cards; each tray being pulled out towards the user on a hinged fitting

so that it slopes downwards for ease of consultation. Titles, captions and other information are recorded on the exposed leading edge and are protected by xylonite. The method is particularly valuable for recording periodical holdings (q.v.).

The alternative method is really a strip index, in so far as entries are typed on a narrow slip of stout paper and slid into a xylonite holder which in turn is fitted into a flat metal tray with flanged edges which prevent the items falling out. Such visible strip indexes may be used flat on a wall, for instance, or attached to a central hinge in units of four or five.

Rotary index systems now publicised are an adaptation of the rotary catalogues cited in the early editions of this Manual. They do not seem to offer the contemporary librarian many advantages over any other system.

Internal communication within the library is essential if time and labour are to be conserved. Extensions of the central Post Office telephone will be in all main departments, but, to economise the work of the switchboard, it is useful in a large system, to have a private intercommunication system such as the dictograph; essentially a desk microphone with ear-phone for reception. Suitable models are available for use on desks (e.g. in the Librarian's office) or on walls (e.g. in the Stack Room). The librarian may well find it desirable to install one of the modern devices such as a tape recorder, for dictating letters in the absence of his secretary. These machines are now so well equipped with play-back mechanisms and controls for erasing unwanted matter that they seem preferable to the earlier wax cylinder machines. They are certainly more economical in space and greatly superior in vocal reproduction.

CHAPTER XX

LIBRARY PUBLICITY: PRINTING, REPORTS, DISPLAY

A PUBLIC service may appeal to its users as being essential to their comfort, their way of life; as being a source of pleasure or recreation whose supply is only possible through a community agency; or as being potentially pleasurable and useful, but being comprehended by a minority only, must be demonstrated at work before popular support accrues. Transport, television, libraries—are examples of each of these categories, and each show, in turn, the need for definite action by which the appropriate service is presented to the general public in order that those who wish shall know of the service, make use of it when desired, and be willing, if necessary, to provide finance. But in this century public utilities are not alone in clamouring for the attention of the people: never before, perhaps, has so much money, skill and industry been so directed towards attracting the notice of potential audiences or consumers. The best endeavours of the state, of consumer councils, of educationalists, have been unavailing against the ensuing mass vulgarisation, universally deplored by all thoughtful persons. In this clamour, services such as libraries, of great intrinsic value to the community, but in themselves offering no fantastic immediate rewards of pleasure or of money, are liable to be overlooked and, in the general struggle for public funds, find themselves shouldered aside in favour of more obviously popular enterprises. Libraries, it is agreed, must speak up for their cause, or be trampled underfoot.

How then is this to be done, bearing in mind the essential weakness, in a British local government context, of any service which spends, but does not earn, revenue? A good wine needs no bush, it is said; a good library service will attract the support it needs to become better. But does this follow in practice? Consider only the appearance of library buildings: the cheap make-shifts, the shared accommodation, the ingenious adaptations of superseded prisons, barns, halls, chapels, *et al.*; the siting of these and their distribution in relation to population. The survey is not inspiring, and it is clear that a very great deal of new planning and building is needed if the public library service is to be effectively housed —a minimum requirement indeed. In an earlier chapter, some of the desiderata of library buildings, their location and appearance, have been considered; it is appropriate in this chapter, devoted to the projection of the public image of libraries, to draw attention to the illustrations of contemporary libraries included in this volume.

A worthy exterior and location do not, however, themselves make a library service. For that there must be books in the widest connotation of 'forms of recorded knowledge', staff, and a policy directing the method of service. No effective propaganda for libraries can be undertaken without clear aims—the nature of the audience and the object to be publicised; for, without these, any action must necessarily be lacking in intensity and extravagant in execution. A sound library policy must therefore be formulated.

It is not sufficient passively to rely on good bookstocks adequately arranged with effective service to attract people to the library, for there can be little doubt that the great majority of the general public do not use the library either through ignorance of its existence and its services, or because it is not thought worth while to do so. The facilities of the library have continually to be put before the public eye, and when interest has been roused, the library itself must honour the expectations aroused. As every library authority tends to differ in its resources of one kind or another, so must the emphasis of its publicity, claiming no more than can be realised locally.

This external publicity may be at a national level, or it may be purely individual and local; but it is quite clear that certain things are more appropriately handled at each level. Thus, the centenary celebrations of 1950 were an admirable opportunity for general publicity in the national press through the Library Association, and at local level the pamphlet *Centenary Assessment* directed primarily at telling authorities how to measure their performance, was particularly effective. Similarly, the report of the Roberts Committee was used nationally for the advancement of the public library service as a whole, but locally certain recommendations only were used to enhance local book funds. It is not yet possible in this country to use radio and television to the extent possible in, for example, U.S.A., Australia, or Canada; but there have been especially in the Regional programmes, a surprising number of interviews and talks by local librarians; the B.B.C. is undoubtedly a sympathetic body, despite the rather unpromising material. Certain national newspapers faithfully report the Annual Conference; the opening of new buildings; or important new developments in service. It is rare that genuine controversy arises, but the recent Libraries (Public Lending Right) Bill provoked an unusually sustained correspondence in which librarians were certainly adequately represented. Nor has the formation of the National Lending Library for Science and Technology passed un-noticed.

Though it does not seem practicable to form a national agency for the design and production of display posters or similar material, an interesting development has been the appointment last year of a Public Relations Officer to the Library Association, and the organisation of courses in the technique of publicity, with the especial aims of distinguishing

'newsworthy' matters for communication to the press and of ascertaining the correct level at which this should be done. Locally, some librarians have shown considerable gifts in this direction. One well-known library in the south-west has made a great name by the projection at all possible public functions of coloured slides of the new central and branch libraries; elsewhere, others have found illustrated lectures on local history of great attraction to audiences normally non-library-minded. Similarly, reports of the installation of Telex; of the inauguration of new subject departments; of new buildings; all these will be given ample treatment by the local press, if the librarian can organise his material in a form acceptable to the journalist mind. Unfortunately, editors are too often only concerned with 'human interest', and this libraries can seldom supply in the sense understood by the popular press. Mere sensationalism is certainly of no value to libraries.

The work of the libraries in connection with special categories of readers (*see* Chapter XV) has a distinct publicity value. Who will not recognise the visual impact of the county mobile library proudly displaying its identity when encountered on a lonely country road? Much publicity work, however, goes on in comparatively unheralded service such as the Hospital, Prison, Old People's Libraries; all making their impact on sections of the community unable to visit the library itself in person, perhaps never having heard of this service, but greatly moved by this inclusion in the community.

Such external public relations represent in total the library as the public sees it—not as the librarian, often immersed in policy and routine considers his organisation—and it is often thus that the standing of the library in the community will be judged.

Public relations policies and extra-mural services do not necessarily link the library building and the public to the extent of inducing new registrations of readers or increased use of the reference library. To provide this link, people must be induced to think of the library, to associate it as the potential supplier of their needs, and to identify it not only as a cultural centre for the humanities, but also as an agent in supplying scientific and technological facts. Some libraries have developed this concept to the extent of organising definite Arts Centres wherein the plastic arts, music and drama can find accommodation for exhibitions, concerts, stage productions; all this in close collocation and preferably in the same building with the library service normally given. This concept of the library function in the community is particularly valuable in those provincial towns which suffer so much culturally from the dominance of the metropolis, and is largely made possible by the active assistance of the Arts Council of Great Britain in organising and to some extent subsidising loan exhibitions of the works of famous artists, actual performances by high-standard orchestras, instrumental ensembles or individual artistes. Other sources of aid are the national

museums and art galleries, which have available loan exhibitions of wide appeal and of which the high standard is guaranteed. Proper accommodation for these activities is necessary and it is frequently the modern function of the old library Lecture Hall or newsroom to be adapted for this purpose. In those areas where Art Galleries and Museums are part of the Public Library, only by vigorous use of these loan exhibitions is it normally possible for adequate freshness of exhibits to be maintained.

Somewhat analagous to this attempt to appeal to the cultural interests of the community is the formation of special groups which have interests in the library service, and which may be convened by the librarian, meet in the library premises, and discuss subjects of common interest. Thus, the Dudley Public Library organises a flourishing Teacher-Librarian Forum for school teachers who have library responsibilities. Throughout the academic year evening meetings are addressed by speakers, engaged by the librarian, of particular appeal or with topical interest; discussions, formal and informal, are stimulated, usually starting over light refreshments during the interval following the main address. Much useful exchange of ideas has resulted, and it is known that the teachers appreciate the breakdown of their normal isolation and the circulation of practical technical advice.

More general in scope are societies of 'Friends of the — Library', formed to link the librarian with community interests, sometimes to assist the organisation of seasonal programmes of lectures and social events, more rarely to acquire desirable items for the library stock. Valuable co-ordination work among local societies may be performed by this means, but considerable diplomacy is often needed in handling personalities.

The evaluation of all these activities is the degree to which the library service is benefited. If this does indeed result, then staff time and labour are well expended, but 'extension work' which is merely a projection of the librarian's own interests can rarely measure up to this requirement.

Failing positive extension work due to the lack of accommodation or staff to organise the programmes, the outside public may be reached by printed publicity. This may be the actual printed catalogue of the library; selected lists from it; lists of recent additions; lists of books on currently topical subjects; guides to the library services; reports on the work of the library. Conventional letterpress printing is expensive, but if executed artistically and to a good standard of production, cannot be surpassed for publicity matter of all kinds; and every librarian should know sufficient of the mechanical problems of the printer to take an intelligent interest in designing and producing whatever the library issues in print. Knowledge of type faces is easily gained from either trade catalogues or examples of the work of other libraries; knowledge of paper—vital to the appearance of all printed matter, is similarly to be obtained from trade literature or from discussion with the chosen printer. Good

taste in layout is of more importance than startling, showy unconventional effects; and is the logical outcome of extensive and critical study of other printed material. A most effective result may be obtained by choosing a definite style of layout and carrying it through all the printing done for the library. This has been done by Leyton Public Library, fortunate in having available locally a commercial press of very high standard, whose characteristic use of type ornaments and flowers makes such a pleasant, if rather mannered, addition to the range of publicity materials. Recent accessions to the range of coloured papers, with great variety of surface finish, have, with greater awareness of the value of coloured inks, made possible many effects not hitherto economic. Librarians have been very active in exploiting these techniques, particularly those involving over-printing.

If the whole library catalogue is to be printed and kept current, conventional printing will be too expensive in actual cost and will involve very heavy commitments of staff time in preparation and in the various stages of proof-correcting. It is therefore more usual either to print periodic lists of additions, with annual cumulations, disregarding withdrawals (as at Westminster) or to adopt non-conventional printing methods such as offset lithography from typescript. This method is suitable for the reproduction of existing card catalogues (e.g. the offset lithographic reprint of the Library of Congress catalogue) and is economic at a much lower number of copies than is conventional printing. On a smaller scale, offset lithography can be used within a library for the reproduction of select lists, reading lists, etc., with excellent results, especially if an electric typewriter is used. If it is possible to utilise one of the makes with alternative type faces, the result can be greatly improved, though the time of production will be substantially increased. Good offset lithographic printing, using different type faces, is much to be preferred to stencil duplication for booklists, unless this latter can be really expertly produced, so as to preserve adequate inking, even impression and correct register on the page. Too often, duplicating is hastily done and gives a very shoddy impression of the responsible authority, nor is the combination of duplicated text with printed cover much more successful. Costs of good printing are necessarily higher than these alternatives; the choice must be made on the question of standard and possible effect on the recipient.

The most usual item of library printing is the Annual Report; not so much as an official document as the best means of telling people just what the library has done, is doing and wishes to do. For such a document 'prestige printing' i.e. good standard of workmanship, attractive layout and effective paper is most desirable. Libraries generally on this occasion try to include suitable half-tone block illustrations of new buildings or old views from the local collection, to the very great enlivening of what is basically a rather difficult document to compile or to read.

The contents of this Report are too often statistical (not always in the approved Library Association form), pages of detailed analysis of issues, stock movements, attendances at meetings, lectures, etc., with little or no adequate formulation of opinion on trends and policies for the future. As a publicity item this is foredoomed; but great numbers are still issued. A few authorities, perhaps conscious of this waste, have ceased publishing Annual Reports at all; others issue them at three or five yearly intervals. There is no particular standard for presentation of these documents, but a comparison of many different reports seems to indicate a growing preference for avoiding the book style and a tendency towards oblong pamphlets with increased emphasis on pictorial illustration; statistical information, if given, is reduced to a minimum and placed at the end of the text. This text shows a welcome increase of frank admission of shortcomings due to lack of money or buildings or staff; the language, too, tends to be less formal and more vigorous. With increasing frequency, the cost of new books is being published and its relation to the popular appreciation of the library underlined.

Library magazines are now regrettably much less frequently published than formerly. Before the last war, it would have been possible to cite numerous instructive British examples: today, it is much more a problem to find any that are more than of local interest in respect of accession lists of new books. Perhaps owing to the decay of book selection in the larger libraries, perhaps due to the need for concentrating resources, or even to the growth of other publicity methods, few libraries now print journals to rank with the *Manchester Review* or the Croydon *Readers' Index*. The profession is the poorer. Intelligent well-written comment by the librarian on interesting but less publicised books is welcomed by readers of the library magazine as a substitute for personal discussions with the staff, that so many would genuinely appreciate if available; but high standard work of this order and of the volume and frequency necessary, imposes an impossible strain on the staff of most libraries. Yet if the work is to be done, it must be at the highest level of competence, and here; perhaps, is the opportunity for a national enterprise, for even though the difficulties of producing an annotated select book list are formidable, the value of good comment is incalculable especially to smaller libraries. An almost insuperable difficulty would be the discovery and emloyment of a suitably qualified editor without whose personality the whole enterprise would be nullified.

Within the library building considerable attention has been devoted since 1920 to the problems of

(a) decoration (usually attempts to renovate or modernise old structures) and

(b) to the presentation of book stocks.

These by no means separated questions have in common the recognition of changing and aesthetic standards and the modern preference for

ephemeral structures or furnishings—attitudes only possible in an affluent society lacking social integration. The implied justification for librarians following popular fashions is that unless buildings and services are presented in a 'contemporary' style, libraries will cease to attract or retain their public. This is perhaps within limits, true; few would suggest the Victorian and Edwardian presentation of libraries is adequate today; but there is grave danger of allowing the solid standards of that era in service as well as in the material surroundings, to be lightly dismissed without providing superior alternatives.

Changed concepts in buildings and furniture are shown in the illustrations to this volume; and attention is particularly to be directed to the 'open plan' or 'market-place' concept, so frequently exemplified in German and American libraries; the grouping of home-reading and reference functions; the collocation of libraries with open spaces or gardens; the invitation to linger in a library for cultural activities—reading, music, art, films; and especially to the new informal layout of shelving, book-racks and displays. The routine processes of circulation control are no longer dominant, and there is the maximum freedom of access.

These new attitudes will completely transform conventional librarianship and its relations with the public; not, it is to be hoped to the detriment of service to readers, but rather to its enhancement as a consequence of better understanding of crowd psychology. Thus it will no longer be held adequate to rely on printed notices (shelf guides) as sufficient attraction to the book stock; nor will rigid adherence to the order of the classification scheme (with careful directions to oversize sequences) be the final guide to the reader. More detailed and better informed acquaintance with reading habits will result in more functional groupings of books, even if only temporary, and, if the burden on staff, in keeping track of locations will be formidable, yet the use of stock is almost certain to be at a higher level of efficiency. The present day 'displays' of existing books taken from an insufficient, if not obsolescent stock to illustrate contemporary issues or topics are often too amateur to be worthy of comment! Unless such displays are the result of specially acquired books, there seems little point in spending staff time or buying materials for them. New books too, 'sell' themselves—they do not need special emphasis.

Behind the whole idea of 'internal publicity' is the fact that it is only a substitute for the librarian's function of ensuring the reader obtains the book he requires or has interest in, even if for the moment. Libraries with insufficient staff naturally try to complement their power by offering the reader 'self-service'—open access libraries were but a stage in the development—it should, however, be recognised that the limitations are many, and that the logical consequences may react unexpectedly on staff/public relation. The analogy with the 20th century department store is not entirely a happy one.

Given a suitable building the means of displaying book stock to best advantage will be

(i) well-designed and arranged shelving;
(ii) clear information as to the order of the books;
(iii) supplementary to the main order, special groupings of books selected to coincide with reader interests rather than the classification order.

These last, usually called, for brevity, 'displays' are of great importance in the popular library and call for high standard of production. This production will include specially designed separate furniture (perhaps shelving inset into vestibule walls); special sections in the regular shelving sequence; the use of materials familiar in commercial art, such as peg board, for mounting appropriate captions or illustrative materials. Only an experienced artist can rival commercial advertising standards, and very few libraries indeed can afford to employ such a man. It is interesting to note, however, that recently Plymouth City Library has employed such an assistant whose duty includes the formation and management of displays that can be sent to local society meetings, exhibitions and public events. Some county libraries regularly display at agricultural shows.

The costing of this work presents an interesting problem in itself—staff time, materials, transport are involved—but unfortunately little evidence is available for comparison. Libraries large enough to employ technical staff—carpenters, electricians, bookbinders, may find it possible to include the equipment and labour necessary for manufacture of these display boards and their ancillaries. At Liverpool shelf guides and direction notices for the Libraries are thus produced to specification speedily and effectively, using a die stamping machine and coloured plastic sheet for lettering and photographic enlargements of typescript for longer notices. The results are most pleasing, and the libraries professional staff is not involved.

Few libraries have failed to transform that appearance of their shelves by using one of other of the transparent plastic 'sleeves' for protecting ornamental book jackets; and it may be that problems of selection for the reader are thereby increased. No one would deny that the appearance of a public library has been completely changed, and that the consequent brightening of the shelves should provide the impetus for further advances. It remains to be seen which trade variety (and there is a good choice) is best; from the administration angle it seems that purchase of a brand which offers a wide range of actual sizes ready backed for the insertion of the jacket is superior to the purchase of rolls of the plastic without such backing. Prepared 'sleeves' are superior to lamination by the staff, in so far as the machine costs a fair sum of money and the results are not always reliable. Books may of course, be purchased with covers laminated, this is a different matter and may be regarded as

practicable, particularly in the Children's Library, as a means of achieving brighter shelves.

The book stock in the contemporary home reading library will then be bright in appearance, interestingly and constructively arranged on functional furniture, within light cheerful surroundings; staff will be freely available with trained knowledge to assist in selection and to obtain books not immediately to hand, routine processes will not impede. Such libraries are already being realised, and more will follow.

CHAPTER XXI

PROFESSIONAL LITERATURE

THE growth of professional literature since the first edition of this *Manual* has made it impossible and, indeed, undesirable for this chapter to attempt to give more than a selection of those titles or sources most likely to be of practical use to the librarian. Since that date the bibliographic control of the current literature of library science has been largely achieved; periodical literature is now digested and made more widely available in *Library Science Abstracts*; and, most important, more adequate collections of library literature are being maintained. Not least in this field are the recently founded collections at the Schools of Librarianship. Here, by virtue of the continued interest of the staff and students will be found along with the conventional book materials and sets of periodicals, the ephemera which so largely escape the bibliographer—duplicated documents, reports, correspondence, photostats. It is a development which adds greatly to the bibliographic resources of the profession, and deserves the fullest support.

The main omissions from this Select List lie in the areas of History of Librarianship, Bibliography and the actual apparatus of Book Selection. Much space could have been devoted to important items in series such as the Occasional Papers either those from the North Western Polytechnic or the Illinois Schools of Librarianship, for it is in this type of publication that the current problems of the profession are most frequently examined and reported on. They are, however, included in *Library Science Abstracts*, and no librarian will fail to include them in his professional reading. Further important omissions are in pure Administration, Office Economy and Reading Surveys which are easily discovered in current national bibliographies. Few references have been given to non-English material.

Attention may perhaps be drawn to the *Catalogue of the Library Association Library* (1958) invaluable for locating so much, though not, unfortunately including the great wealth of periodicals housed in that Library.

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An Leabharlan.
The Library.
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Library Review.
Library Science Abstracts.
Library Trends.
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Libri.
New Zealand Libraries.
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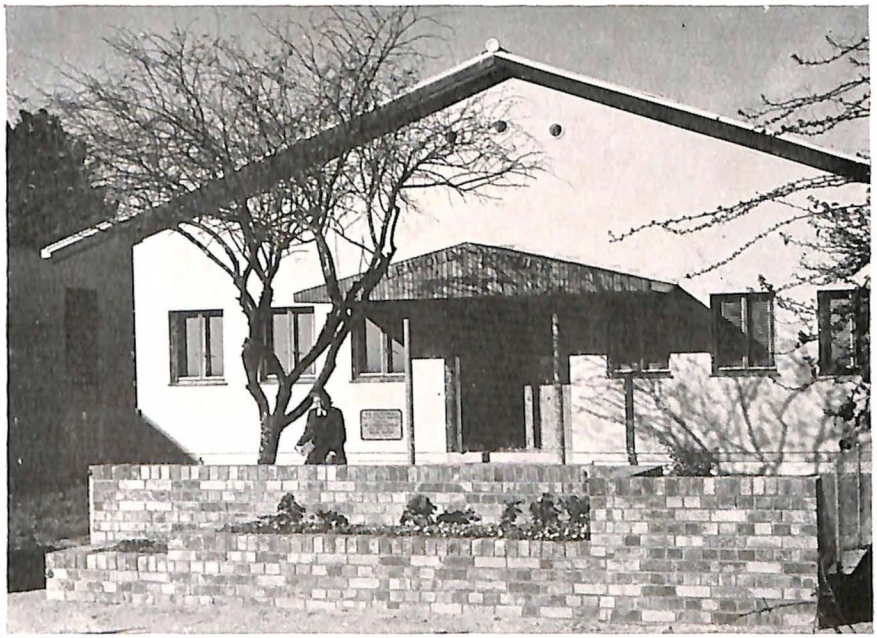


Plate No. 75.

Clanwilliam Public Library, Cape Province, South Africa. *Floor area* 2,560 *sq. ft., population* 930.

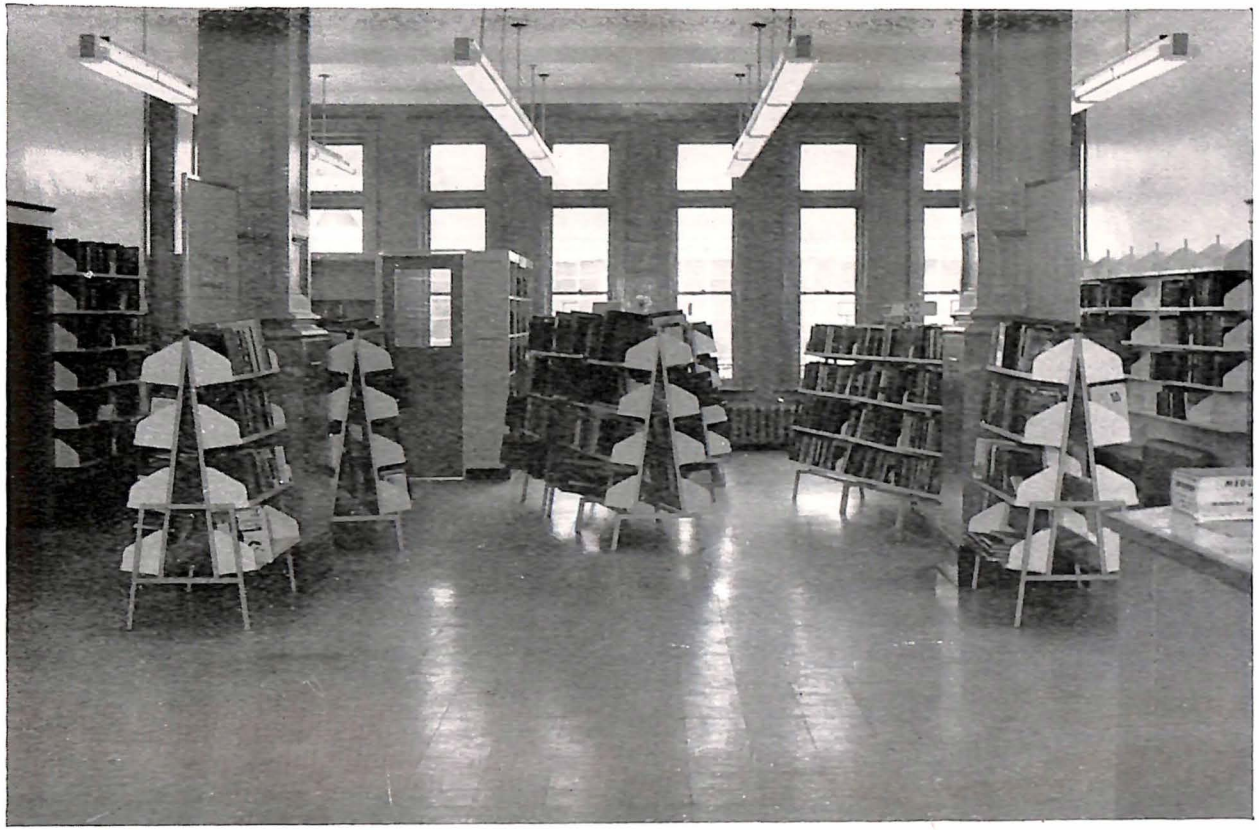


Plate No. 76.
Yorkeville Branch Library, Toronto. *A contrast of tilted skeleton shelving and heavy vertical emphasis from columns and*

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APPENDIX 1

LIBRARY ESTIMATES

A typical specimen of Annual Estimates from a small library authority.

Explanatory Notes:—

1. Left-hand column. The numbers are a local notation to the principles of designating local authority expenditure as laid down by the Institute of Municipal Treasurers and Accountants.

2. Last column is blank for the final recommendation of the Finance Committee.

3. All items must be clearly specified.

4. The document is presented between November and January (in this case 1959-60).

5. Actual expenditure in 1958/9 is in the first column of figures, followed by the Annual Estimate for the year in progress.

6. Actual Expenditure 1959/60 is a close approximation of the financial position which will be realised on March 31st, 1960.

7. Estimate 1960/1 is the figure to be considered by the Finance Committee.

8. The following Schedule is the account which appears in the Treasurer's annual Abstract of Accounts (printed by every local authority). Herein is given the final expenditure in the year concerned (again in the IMTA approved categories).

9. The final three items are prepared for the Treasurer for his own use and for inclusion in the General Statistics of the authority.

LIBRARIES COMMITTEE ESTIMATES 1960/61.

No.	Expenditure	Actual 1958/59	Estimate 1959/60	Actual Expenditure 1959/60	Estimate 1960/61	Committees Recom.
11.	*LIBRARIES.*	£	£	£	£	£
1.	*General Expenses.*					
1.	Salaries	6,117	6,510	6,836	7,224	
2.	National Insurance	232	252	244	250	
3.	Superannuation	298	345	345	378	
15.	Furniture & Fittings	15	20	20	100	
22–1.	Books Purchased	3,108	4,000	4,000	4,000	
22–2.	Books Binding	433	600	600	650	
24.	Overalls (Clothing & Uniform)	—	20	—	20	
31.	Car Allowance	43	40	40	40	
40.	Printing & Stationery	170	150	150	200	
41.	Advertisements	2	10	5	10	
42.	Postages	60	60	60	60	
43.	Telephone	78	70	70	70	
44.	Interview Expenses	—	10	—	10	
45.	Travelling	25	20	20	20	
46.	Conference Expenses	35	35	48	40	
47.	Insurance	28	25	28	28	
67.	Subscriptions	41	35	31	35	
		10,685	12,202	12,497	13,135	

11.	*LIBRARIES.*				
2.	*Mobile Library HUW.948*				
1–1.	Driver's Wages	517	450	500	500
1–2.	Wages Cleaning & Greasing	46	50	50	50
32.	Petrol	99	100	100	100
33.	Oil	1	5	5	5
34.	Tyres	—	13	—	15
35.	Licence	46	47	47	47
37.	Repairs & Maintenance	48	50	40	50
47.	Insurance	15	15	15	15
		772	730	757	782
11.	*LIBRARIES.*				
3.	*Cannock Library*				
1.	Cleaner's Wages	257	240	260	260
8.	Repairs & Decorations	30	100	100	100
10.	Maintenance of Grounds	40	50	50	50
11.	Heating & Lighting	455	500	450	450
13.	Cleaning Materials	16	10	10	10
14.	Water	24	16	16	16
16.	Rates	747	374	409	430
78.	Payments to Contractor (Window Cleaning)	36	32	32	32
80.	Loan Charges	1,471	1,490	1,490	1,490
		3,076	2,812	2,817	2,838
	Carried forward	14,533	15,744	16,071	16,755

LIBRARIES COMMITTEE ESTIMATES 1960/61.

No.	Expenditure	Actual 1958/59	Estimate 1959/60	Actual Expenditure 1959/60	Estimate 1960/61	Committees Recom.
		£	£	£	£	£
	Brought forward	14,533	15,744	16,071	16,755	
11.	*LIBRARIES.*					
4.	*Hednesford Library*					
1.	Cleaner's Wages	47	45	50	50	
8.	Repairs & Decorations	3	5	5	5	
11.	Heating & Lighting	99	140	100	100	
13.	Cleaning Materials	—	2	2	2	
15.	Furniture for new building	—	—	—	200	
16–1.	Rent	35	35	35	35	
16–2.	Rates	44	44	49	51	
47.	Insurance	—	2	2	2	
81.	New Library Building	—	—	—	7,000	
		228	273	243	7,445	245

11.	*LIBRARIES.*					
5.	*Heath Hayes Library*					
8.	Repairs & Decorations	—	5	5	30	
11.	Heating & Lighting	14	20	14	15	
16–1.	Rent	20	20	20	20	
16–2.	Rates	13	13	14	14	
47.	Insurance	—	1	1	1	
		47	59	54	80	
	Gross Expenditure	14,808	16,076	16,368	24,280	17,080
311—1.	*INCOME.*					
—	Fines	345	320	370	400	
21.	Rent of Land	68	68	68	—	
36.	Telephone Calls	2	1	1	—	
		415	389	439	400	
	Net Expenditure	14,393	15,687	15,929	23,880	16,680

CANNOCK URBAN DISTRICT COUNCIL

GENERAL RATE FUND

LIBRARIES.

YEAR ENDED 31st MARCH, 1960.

	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
Administration									
Employees									
Salaries	6,661	13	6						
N. Insurance	238	6	3						
Superannuation	339	8	1	7,239	7	10			
Premises									
Furniture & Fittings				25	15	6			
Supplies, Equipment & Tools									
Purchase of Books	3,821	11	6						
Binding of Books	362	6	1						
Protective Clothing	5	7	6	4,189	5	1			
Transport & Heavy Plant									
Car Allowance				39	3	11			
Establishment Expenses									
Printing & Stationery	166	1	10						
Advertising	22	10	9						
Postages	64	3	1						
Telephone	72	2	10						
Travelling	23	10	8						
Conference Expenses	48	4	0						
Insurance	34	2	10	430	16	0			
Miscellaneous Expenses									
Subscriptions				37	14	3	11,962	2	7

Cannock Library				
Employees				
Wages—Cleaner		272 6 8		
Premises				
Repair & Maint. of Building	116 6 7			
Maintenance of Grounds	42 19 6			
Heating & Lighting	417 17 7			
Window Cleaning	31 16 0			
Cleaning Materials	15 15 9			
Water	16 10 6			
Rates	409 1 0			
Tithe	7	1,050 7 6		
Debt Management Expenses		4 3 7		
Debt Charges				
Principal	471 17 0			
Interest	1,027 5 0	1,499 2 0		2,825 19 9
Hednesford Library				
Employees				
Wages—Cleaner		50 1 8		
Premises				
Repair & Maint. of Building	8 7 0			
Heating & Lighting	103 12 3			
Rent	35 0 0			
Rates	48 12 0	195 11 3		
Central Dept. Establishment Charges				
Architect's Dept.		59 9 11		305 2 10
Carried forward				15,093 5 2

	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
Brought forward							15,093	5	2
Heath Hayes Library									
Premises									
Heating & Lighting				14	16	7			
Rent				20	0	0			
Rates				14	3	6	49	0	1
Mobile Library									
Employees									
Wages—Driving	517	8	2						
Wages—Cleaning & Greasing	51	13	9	569	1	11			
Transport & Heavy Plant									
Petrol	107	1	1						
Oil & Grease	2	5	9						
Licence	46	5	0						
Repairs & Maintenance	100	11	2						
Insurance	15	8	0	271	11	0	840	12	11
							15,982	13	2

INCOME

Fees & Charges			
Fines		382 10 5	
Rents			
Rent of Land	65 0 0		
Acknowledgment Rent	3 0 0	68 0 0	
Miscellaneous			
Telephone Calls		3 3 0	453 13 5

Number of Books issued	299,770
Cost per book issue	1s. 0d.
Cost per 1,000 Population	£360 19s. 5d.

APPENDIX 2

MOBILE LIBRARIES

DESIGN AND SPECIFICATION FOR A MOBILE LIBRARY [TRAILER CARAVAN TYPE], BEDFORD. (*See* plates 58, 59).

The Mobile Library recently introduced by the Borough of Bedford as an extension of the library service. The design was worked out by the Borough Engineer from the librarians' rough drawings and designs, and consists of a trailer caravan 22′ by 8′ 6″, built by Messrs. P. G. Page, Ltd., of Colchester on a standard Lolode chassis which is built to carry four tons.

The Shelves themselves form the framework of the vehicle and are built of 1″ (one inch) Sapele. The roof is on Vanlite, a type of fibre-glass which diffuses light and heat while permitting maximum daylight. It is available in large sheets and is flexible, so that the many leaky joints usually associated with a glass roof are avoided.

Shelves are tilted so as to avoid movement while travelling. No books are carried on the rear wall, which is used for counter position and rear window. When books are carried on the rear wall, emergency braking has been known to empty the shelves on the floor.

Ventilation is by a Ventaxia fan forward, and an opening sash window behind the counter. There are also two opening roof ventilators.

An important feature is the porch with double doors. The trailer form, and low chassis permit of the steps into the vehicle being entirely external, and this allows room for a porch with swing doors, which are in addition to the outer doors with folding flap roof which form the outer porch. These outer doors bolt at right angles, and on them are mounted the handrails for the steps. Where there are no inner doors on mobile libraries, the heat losses in winter are very great; more than can be replaced, and the mobile library is then a most unpopular place with staff.

Heating is provided by tubular heaters beneath the lowest shelves, the recesses being lined with asbestos, and fronted with aluminium grills. Further, there is an overhead infra-red heater, and a foot warmer behind the counter in the knee-hole. Small cupboards in these rear corners behind the counter carry fire extinguisher, electric kettle, and a six-foot wardrobe for the assistant's out-door clothes.

Lighting is by fluorescent tubes with "eggbox" reflectors. There is also emergency lighting, which with parking and traffic indicator lights and porch light are worked from batteries; and there is a trickle charge system. The electric supply is by plug in cable to locked boxes at each site providing 10 kilowatts.

The steps are a lightweight aluminium structure, carried loose in the trailer and hooked in position by the assistant when the library is opening.

The stock carried is 3,000 volumes, and 2,000 more are in reserve. The stock has been purchased over a year, and is designed to work without large subsidies from the Central Library; for it is estimated that most of the business will be new readership. Request and reservation services will be operated.

Cleaning and maintenance outside the vehicle to be carried out by the transport section of the Highways Department which has all the necessary tools.

The Library is being towed to the sites by a small motor-lorry of the Highways Department; and after standing overnight, will be towed on to the next site the following morning. The towing vehicle had to be modified by the addition of a Servo braking system. The trailer comes to the library once a week for replenishment of stock and inside cleaning by the cleaning staff; and to the Transport Depot at week-ends for mechanical and outward maintenance. In this way the Library need only be concerned in Library Service. Mechanical and driving problems are met by the Department best equipped to deal with them.

A final note on shelf dimensions. Fiction is shelved on the sides with lockers above. Non-fiction at the front end. Shelves are non-adjustable and so must be calculated with some nicety or (*a*) one loses a shelf by being over-generous or (*b*) one is unable to shelve a book which is a little bigger by having been too parsimonious. Side shelving is therefore $8\frac{1}{2}''$ alternating with $9\frac{1}{2}''$. Non-fiction shelving 9″ alternating with 10″ with some low shelves (four in number) being 11″, 13″, 12″ and 12″ to provide for the larger books.

In designing the vehicle the mobile libraries of the Bedfordshire County Library, the Luton Public Library, the Middlesex County Library and the West Riding County Library were visited and much useful help was derived from all of them. Especially they were frank about their difficulties, and warned us of the things to avoid.

The total cost of the vehicle was slightly under £2,000, and the preparation of sites about £500 including electric service points.

MOBILE LIBRARY SERVICES. Policy statement and Specifications for the County Borough of Bootle. (*See* plate 60)

The Libraries, Museum and Art Gallery Committee decided in 1957 to provide a mobile library to serve the perimeter areas of Bootle until such time as permanent branch libraries could be planned and built.

Two sites for branch libraries are reserved in this area, one of which will have a larger branch library with lecture and exhibition hall in addition to library departments. Future plans provide for the replace-

ment in the older part of the town, of the Marsh Lane branch, which was completely destroyed by enemy action in 1941.

A new branch library (£30,000) was completed and opened in the Orrell district in September 1955.

The perimeter estates offer difficulty in library planning owing to the self-contained nature of each area and their separation by canal, golf-course and industrial belts.

The mobile vehicle will serve the new housing areas from five centres and will be available at each for one afternoon and one evening (1.30-4 p.m. and 4.30-7 p.m.) during each week. On Saturdays the vehicle will be serviced and maintained. Stock exchange and readers requests will be dealt with each morning before the vehicle moves to the first centre of the day.

In designing the vehicle for such service we were concerned primarily with capacity rather than mobility and as it is not the intention of the Council to treat this form of service as a permanent feature, it was decided not to use a trailer type unit. We were also desirous of making the vehicle attractive in appearance; an advertisement for the library services, and as unlike a pantechnicon as could be, consistent with the functional requirements of the interior.

The Library is built on to a Bedford Passenger chassis and has overall dimensions of 29′ 9″ long, 7′ 9″ wide and a height of 10′ 3″.

The counter unit is immediately behind the drivers cab, the assistant's seat being adjustable so that he may work either seated or standing. The section immediately in rear of the driver forms a full height wardrobe cupboard fitted with robe-hooks shelves and mirror. On the cab side it has a recessed shelf which falls to the horizontal position over the driver's seat forming extra counter space when the library is operating. The working area of the counter is 'L'-shaped terminating at the side entrance doors and having a side window above. The entrance has half-glazed draught screens either side and has two half-glazed doors, which are designed to lock back against the sides of the vehicle. They may also be locked at right-angles to the vehicle, when a sliding head canopy secures them, forming a small weather porch.

Natural lighting is provided by five panels 3′ square in peach perspex in the roof. Three of these are adjustable for ventilation. A side window above the counter and styled rear windows add to lighting.

The library compartment is 24′ by 6′ and is shelved all around in Sapele timber, the shelves being tilted and backed at 90 degrees. Book capacity: 3,200 volumes. Residual space at the head and foot of each tier is utilised for storage. Slam catch panels at the head of each tier carry cork pads to take the subject or topic headings and running shutters at the foot provide cupboard space. The last two tiers and the rear tiers of the vehicle have been reduced in height to 4′ 6″ to form the Children's section, with windows above. The centre rear window is an emergency

escape. The bottom of all shelves carries a three-inch kicking plate, the floor being covered in apple green linoleum. The counter surfaces are covered in a matching green formica and the roof is enamelled in ivory.

The vehicle will be supplied with power at each centre, the interior being lit by fluorescent tubes fitted flush to the roof. Two fan type heaters, one in the counter unit and one in the rear bookshelves, provide heat and ventilation. A power point for an electric kettle is provided on the switchboard, for staff use. An inter-change switch on the dashboard enables parking lights also to be supplied from mains power at night. Auxiliary emergency lights are fitted in the compartment, operated from the vehicle battery.

The exterior of the vehicle is styled in a contemporary manner with polished aluminium liners and bumpers. The use of attractive colours, silver grey for the roof and upper panels, azure blue for the lower side panels and crimson within the styling panel give a luxurious appearance to the vehicle. Lettering is carried out in gold leaf lined with black.

At Netherton, the single part-time temporary library at present housed in the foyer of the Netherton Moss Primary school will be withdrawn when the mobile service is in full operation. The Committee is confident that the whole area will receive a much more adequate book service with this new equipment until such time as the branch libraries may be established.

SERVICE CENTRES

		Houses	*Population* (Approx.)
1.	Park Lane area	2,014	7,200
2.	Copy Lane Estate	363	1,350
3.	Netherton Estate	1,699	6,100
4.	Cabbage Inn Estate	418	1,550
5.	Sterrix Lane Estate	831	3,000
	Total		19,200

APPENDIX 3

SOME NOTES ON BUILDINGS

ANTRIM COUNTY LIBRARY—Factors relating to the Erection and Operation of a new Library Headquarters. 1953. (c.f. also Fig. 20.)
[By courtesy of the Antrim Co. Librarian and W. J. Murison, F.L.A.]

The function of the Library Headquarters is to house the following units:—

An administrative centre, wherein are performed the organisation, financial and clerical duties; it shall contain appropriate offices, waiting room and stores. (The waiting room could be used as a committee room for meetings when about thirty or forty members would be present).

The book accessions department, responsible for the ordering, receipt, accessioning, processing, classification and cataloguing of some 50,000 books per year. (The rate of intake may be doubled in the coming ten years.) Along with the appropriate offices there should be unpacking space, waste paper store and books accommodation.

The catalogue and location records. The catalogue lists every book in the system, as well as providing a schematic list in order of classification of all non-fiction books. The location records consist of a file of lists for each of the 300 centres and may be taken as occupying two four-drawer standard foolscap filing cabinets, along with a card index of all the books out on loan to the 300 centres; the card index may be taken as occupying 80 5″ × 3″ card index drawers at present, with a possibility of being doubled in the next ten or twenty years.

A reference and bibliographical centre, to provide the all-round book-guidance and general reference service to be expected from any library service, as well as offering bibliographical details needed in book-selection and ordering. Besides the offices some space should be provided for students using the reference books.

Archives and local collections, which are ancillary to, and could be housed with, the reference books.

Students', postal and request services, which serve students living far from a large branch and which organise the delivery of any books specifically requested by readers or branches. This could conveniently be housed with the reference and bibliographical section.

The mobile library support unit, which does the administrative duties for the mobile library service.

The circulation department, responsible for the exchange of the book-collection at the branches and centres throughout the county. Most of the new books sent out from the accessions department pass

into the active stock section whence they trickle into the main circulation stream which consists of the books returned from branches and centres at the rate of 100,000 per annum. The outflow to the branches and centres is at about the same rate but may rise to 250,000 in the next ten to twenty years. Transport of the books is in 250 boxes for which accommodation should be provided (say 40 boxes 2′ × 1½′ × 1′). Returned books are sorted and useless stock withdrawn, so that the waste paper store referred to under "Accessions department" should be large enough to accommodate withdrawals at the rate of 40,000 per annum max. and provision should be made for books to be repaired or rebound before returning to "active stock". It would be a matter of convenience to have the circulation department constructed to allow it to be split into two separate units, one for adult service and the other for junior service.

Reserve book-stack wherein are stored the books not in constant use. This should be made to accommodate 40,000 books immediately, with provision for the easy addition of additional shelving in five to ten years to double its capacity.

Circulation clerk's office and Deputy Librarian's room which should be conveniently near or within the circulation department.

Other requisite offices, including garage for six or more vehicles, cleaner's room, staff common room, with canteen facilities, male and female staff cloakrooms and toilet facilities, and a heating chamber.

In addition to the Headquarters Library, it is proposed to embody the Ballymena Branch Library in the new building in the Ballymena Castle Demesne. This should be appropriate for a population of 25,000, and include a quick-reference section and a junior library.

The general public should have immediate access to the branch and to no other department. Accordingly, it would be convenient to isolate the branch with perhaps only one staff door into the headquarters.

The main entry of the building should provide easy access to the administration and book accessions department. It should also provide access to the reference department and mobile support unit. The latter may, however, be served by another access route. Direct access by the vehicles must be given to the circulation department and mobile support unit. The heating chamber should be accessible to vehicles too, of course.

As noted earlier book-flow is as follows: Unpacking, accessions, cataloguing, after which to active stock for circulation or to students' postal, requests or mobile support for direct disposal. In the case of requests and postal service, the books pass back to the administration for disposal.

Every department, with the noted exceptions, should have natural light. The exceptions are the stores for waste-paper, stationery, and boxes. The standard of natural lighting in the Reserve Book-stack need not be of continuous reading level, but should be enough to permit the easy location of books in the stack.

Future development is likeliest in specialist services allied to the bibliographical units and in the circulation department.

BRIEF NOTES ON THE REGIONAL CENTRAL LIBRARY, ENUGU. (*see* plates 5, 6).

[By courtesy of Kalu Okorie, F.L.A., Regional Librarian, Eastern Region Library Board, Nigeria.]

The central library as planned is 'T'-shaped. It covers an area of 13,500 square feet and houses two very distinct departments—one, the public library for Enugu and two, the headquarters in the building itself. The latter is accommodated in the long two-storeyed "arm" of the design. The "link" is on the ground floor via the staff entrance and above, the first floor (accommodating offices and board room) runs into the main building housing the library departments as a "bridge" or mezzanine accommodating book stacks and connected with the staff area on the library floor below by means of a book lift and a circular staircase.

In this part of the building which accommodates the public library for Enugu there are no permanent divisions between the departments. There are two reasons for this, one being the need for flexibility and the other that the breeze, which is necessary to physical comfort in the humid tropics, shall not be inhibited. It was considered that the disadvantage of the noise factor inherent in such an arrangement was vastly outweighed by these two factors and in practice this has been found to be true.

In designing the building, the architects used various shading devices to reduce sun penetration and to allow easy cross-breeze flow. On the two-storeyed "arm" of the building a combination of horizontal concrete canopies and angled vertical louvres has been used and on the library of the building large vertical concrete louvres set on the angle have been used on the North and South sides, while the vertical strip windows on the East and West sides, are completely protected by fixed aluminium louvres.

The siting of the building was carefully chosen by the Library Board not merely as a "setting" for a pleasant building but strictly in order that it might be within easy reach of the whole population of Enugu.

ACCRA LIBRARY (*see* plate 7).

Notes by courtesy of the Director, Ghana Library Board.

The Accra Library was opened on May 7th, 1956, by the Governor, Sir Charles Arden-Clarke. The library is sited on one side of a rectangular open space, and at right angles to the Supreme Court.

The main library block has been raised on pilotis to line through with the Supreme Court building, and thus provides car parking and garage accommodation underneath.

The reference and lending libraries with their associated stack rooms are superimposed one on the other to form the main block of the building. An octagonal block at the rear is linked to the main one by flying bridges, and houses the extension services department, the cataloguing department, and the board room and general offices.

The building is of reinforced frame construction, and through ventilation is assured by making the building "one room thick", and having all longitudinal walls of glass louvres from floor to ceiling. Protection from the sun is afforded by an external system of concrete "sun-breakers".

Dimensions:—of main rooms are—Lending and Reference libraries 2,880 sq. feet each; Cataloguing, Extensions Services, 1,550 sq. feet each.

The library serves the municipal area of Accra (pop. over 300,000), provides postal and mobile library services to the Volta and Eastern Regions, and is the Headquarters for the entire system.

Architects: Messrs. Nickson & Borys, London, Lagos & Accra.

ASHANTI REGIONAL LIBRARY. (*see* plate 8).

The first Regional Library to be built by the Gold Coast Library Board was opened in June, 1954. Designed with an open verandah which runs the length of the building giving access to all departments. Reinforced concrete columns and beams form the main structural frame, and infilling panel walls are built in cement and blocks. Windows are all louvred, and terrazzo tiles and parquet flooring are used throughout.

Dimensions: Lending library, 1,900 sq. feet; Reference library, 1,824 sq. feet; Stack room, 574 sq. feet; Children's library, 460 sq. feet.

The library serves the people of Kumasi, (pop. 220,000) and, by postal and mobile libraries the Ashanti and Northern Ghana Regions.

Architects: Messrs. Nickson & Borys, London, Lagos and Accra.

SEKONDI REGIONAL LIBRARY.

The second Regional Library was opened in July, 1955. Built on a terraced site the library is planned on the higher level, and partly projecting over the lower terrace on columns, to provide car and cycle parking.

Designed without interior walls, the Staff room being the only totally enclosed part of the library. The main departments are in two blocks linked by a shorter block through which the circulation space runs. A second link in the form of a balcony overlooking the patio on the lower terrace is accessible from the Reference Library and is used as an additional study area.

Dimensions: Lending library, 960 sq. feet; Children's library, 676 sq. feet; Reference library, 960 sq. feet; combined Stack and Workroom, 676 sq. feet. A service entrance is situated on the upper terrace for loading and unloading the mobile library.

The Library serves the municipal area of Sekondi/Takoradi (120,000) and the Western Region of Ghana by postal and mobile library services.

CINCINNATI & HAMILTON CO. LIBRARY SERVICE.

[With acknowledgements to the Libraries for the publicity material on which this note is based.]

Since 1898 the Library has been a county library serving a metropolitan, suburban, and rural area of 414 sq. miles with a current population of some 724,000. In addition to its headquarters the Library operates 40 branches, including one for regional service to the blind, four book mobiles, school stations and other special services totalling about 350 agencies. The book collection includes 1,650,000 volumes, plus unbound periodicals, pamphlets, pictures, films, recordings and other miscellaneous material. Circulation in 1954 was 3,644,351.

THE MAIN LIBRARY (1955)

Site area: 140 × 290 feet.
Building area: 140 × 180 feet.

Four book storage decks, three public floors give total area of approx. 200,000 sq. feet and a book capacity of about 1,650,000 volumes. Fully air conditioned sealed building, is conceived as a wholly open plan of infinite flexibility to meet changing needs, with the library organised on subject department lines. Interior freedom is achieved by resting the building on columns at intervals of 21 to 27 feet. A central enclosure extending through all floors contains elevators, stairs, conduits for building utibility.

Two stack levels are below the main floor, and, with two more above the second floor, books are stored as near as practicable to the service areas. A book lift is available.

Notable features of the exterior are the stainless steel louvres of the Rare Book Room (adjustable to sun); the full length glass walls of the Ground Floor departments; the provision of a garden ornated terrace on the third floor; parking area; and a drive-in book return service.

LIGHTING IN THE KENSINGTON CENTRAL LIBRARY.

As the building is designed to provide maximum influx of natural daylight to the library and reading rooms, the lighting scheme in these rooms is to some extent supplementary. Yet it is adequate on its own account to give an overall level of illumination of approximately 15 lumens per sq. ft.

LENDING LIBRARY.

In the entrance hall, circular tungsten fittings with concentric metal louvres are recessed in Frenger acoustic tile ceiling panels. Similar fittings provide the main lighting in the lending library which has satin

walnut furniture and leads off the entrance hall. Indirect illumination is provided by three 200W tungsten lamps recessed in the top of each of the bookcases which are arranged along the sides of the room.

REFERENCE LIBRARY (*see* plate 64).

The reference library on the first floor is furnished and illuminated in the same way as the lending library, but in addition clerestory windows are lit by twelve 12ft. reflector units each housing four 5 ft. 80W fluorescent tubes. At each end of the reference section, there is a specially designed fluorescent fitting, 11 ft. long, housing four 5 ft. 80W fluorescent tubes and fitted with oval, ribbed Perspex enclosures.

APPENDIX 4

LIBRARY ASSOCIATION EXAMINATIONS

REVISED SYLLABUS: PRE-ENTRY QUALIFICATIONS

(Re-printed from the Library Association Record for May 1961)

1. Although the new Syllabus is essentially a two-tier structure, a pre-professional examination, similar to the present First Professional examination, is to be retained for those entrants to librarianship whose General Certificate of Education meets the present minimum pre-entry requirements but does not include two 'A' level passes. This is to continue in being for as long after the introduction of the new Syllabus as proves necessary. One of the subjects passed in the General Certificate of Education, whether at 'O' or at 'A' level, must be English language, and one other should be either a foreign language or mathematics or a science, as this will be required of candidates for election to the Register.
2. The Syllabus now consists of an Intermediate Examination, conferring no professional qualification, and a Final Examination which leads to the Associateship of the Association. The Intermediate Examination consists of the first four of the papers that were proposed for the five-paper Registration Examination which is now abandoned. This Intermediate Examination must be taken at one sitting, but as it has four papers only and will be of a standard between that of the present First Professional and Registration Examinations, it will no longer present a formidable barrier to the part-time student. There is, moreover, to be provision for 'pass by compensation' and for 'reference' in the various parts of this examination.

The new Final Examination will indeed be the final examination. It will be upon the completion of this (with the necessary service requirements) that the Associateship will be awarded. Associateship will thus become the full qualification for Chartered Librarians, and we shall be rid of the present anomalous position whereby librarians are qualified when first elected to the Register and yet not, in the eyes of the outside world, fully qualified as they still have the Final examination before them. The standard in each paper of the new Final Examination will necessarily be high, but the wide choice of papers will mean that each student may undertake a co-ordinated course of study with a bias towards his own particular interests. The papers may be taken separately and in any order.

Upon completion of the Final Examination, members who have completed 3 years approved service (including up to 2 years in a full-time library school) and who have either a science or a language other than

English in their G.C.E. will be eligible for election as Associates. There will be no age limits on election to the Register. The date of the first examinations under this new Syllabus has been set at July 1964.

3. The minimum pre-entry qualification for the Intermediate Examination will be FOUR passes in the General Certificate of Education, of which TWO must be at Advanced level, and ONE must be English language. The acceptable equivalents are as set out in Examination Regulation 14 in the 1961 *Students' Handbook*. For those with minimum general educational qualifications as set out in Examination Regulation 4 in the 1961 *Students' Handbook*, there will be provided a pre-entry examination, similar to the present First Professional Examination, for so long as is necessary after the introduction of the revised Syllabus.

The pre-entry qualification for the Final Examination will be either a pass in the Intermediate Examination, or a university degree recognized by British universities.

Members who have passed the main Diploma Examination in Librarianship (i.e., Part I of the Post-graduate Diploma Course) of the London University School of Librarianship & Archives will be able to claim exemption from the Intermediate and Final Examinations.

THE REVISED SYLLABUS

LIST OF EXEMPTIONS

(i)	For having passed G.C.E. in 4 or more subjects, 1 being English and at least 2 at 'A' level (or equivalent of this as set out in the current Reg. 4).	Exemption from the pre-professional Examination.
(ii)	Graduates holding degrees recognized by British Universities.	Exemption from the Intermediate Examination.
(iii)	For having passed Group A of the Registration Examination.	Exemption from Intermediate, Paper 3, and 2 of Papers 1, 2, 3 of Final, List B.
(iv)	For having passed Group B of the Registration Examination.	Exemption from Intermediate, Paper 4, and 2 of Papers 4, 5, 6 of Final, List B.
(v)	For having passed Group C of the Registration Examination.	Exemption from Intermediate, Papers 1 and 2, and from Final, List A.
(vi)	For having passed Group D of the Registration Examination.	Exemption from one of the Papers of Final, List C.
(vii)	For having passed any Part or Parts of the present Final Examination by the date of implementation of the new Syllabus.	No exemption. The present Final Examition to be continued for 5 years after the date of implementation of the new Syllabus to enable any such candidate to complete under the present regulations, and thereafter no further examination will be held. Alternatively, it would be open to such members to comply with the new requirements for Fellowship. After the expiry of 5 years the option of completing the Final Examination will be withdrawn.

(viii) For having passed the Part I Diploma Examination of the University of London.	Exemption from the Final Examination.

TABLE OF EFFECTS

If a candidate had passed Registration, Group:				*He would be required to sit the following:*
A	*B*	*C*	*D*	
X				Intermediate: Papers 1, 2 and 4. Final: One Paper from List A, One Paper from List C, Two other Papers, in subjects not covered by his successes in the Registration Examination.
X	X			Intermediate: Papers 1 and 2. Final: One Paper from List A, One Paper from List C.
X	X			Intermediate: Paper 4. Final: One Paper from List C. Two other Papers, in subjects not covered by his successes in the Registration Examination.
X	X	X		Final: One Paper from List C.
X			X	Intermediate: Papers 1, 2 and 4. Final: One paper from List A, Two other Papers, in subjects not covered by his successes in the Registration Examination.
X		X	X	Intermediate: Paper 4. Final: Any two Papers, in subjects not covered by his successes in the Registration Examination.
X	X		X	Intermediate: Papers 1 and 2. Final: One Paper from List A.
	X			Intermediate: Papers 1, 2 and 3. Final: One Paper from List A, One Paper from List C. Two other Papers, in subjects not covered by his successes in the Registration Examination.
	X	X		Intermediate: Paper 3. Final: One Paper from List C, Two other Papers, in subjects not covered by his successes in the Registration Examination.
	X		X	Intermediate: Papers 1, 2 and 3. Final: One Paper from List A, Two other Papers, in subjects not covered by his successes in the Registration Examination.
	X	X	X	Intermediate: Paper 3. Final: Any two Papers in subjects not covered by his successes in the Registration Examination.
	X			Intermediate: Papers 3 and 4. Final: One Paper from List C, One Paper from List B, Three other Papers, in subjects not covered by his successes in the Registration Examination.
		X	X	Intermediate: Papers 3 and 4. Final: One Paper from List B, Three other Papers, in subjects not covered by his successes in the Registration Examination.
		X		Intermediate: All Papers. Final: One Paper from List A, One Paper from List B, Three other Papers.

SYLLABUS OF EXAMINATIONS

Summary

The Syllabus consists of two Examinations, named the Intermediate

and Final Examination respectively. The *Intermediate Examination* consists of four Papers of three hours each, all to be taken at one and the same sitting:

(1) The Library and the community.
(2) Government and control of libraries.
(3) The Organization of knowledge.
(4) Bibliographical control and service.

The minimum requirement for passing the *Final Examination* is six Papers of three hours each, which may be taken together or separately, and in any order. The Papers will be selected by the candidate from three Lists (lettered A, B and C) as follows: one, and only one Paper, from List A, and one or more Papers from each of Lists B and C. A candidate may take more than the minimum number of Papers.

List A

1. Academic and copyright libraries.
2. Special libraries and information bureaux.
3. Public (municipal and county) libraries.

List B

1. Theory of classification.
2. Theory of cataloguing.
3. Practical classification and cataloguing.
4. History of books and printing.
5. History and present state of the book trade in Great Britain.
6. Analytical bibliography.
7. Machines and technical equipment and processes in libraries.
8. Dissemination of information.
9. Archive administration.
10. Paleography and diplomatic.
11. History of libraries and librarianship.
12. Library service for young people in schools and public libraries.
13. Hospital libraries.

List C

1. Bibliography and librarianship of English literature (including literature of the Commonwealth).
2. — — of Welsh language and literature.
3. — — of French language and literature.
4. — — of German language and literature.
5. — — of Spanish language and literature.
6. — — of Italian language and literature.
7. — — of Literature of the United States.
8. — — of General and Indo-European philology.
9. — — of Classics (i.e., Greek and Latin language and literature).
10. — — of Slavonic language and literature.
11. — — of Literature for children.
12. — — of Archaeology and ancient history.
13. — — of Medieval and modern history.
14. — — of Geography.
15. — — of Religion.
16. — — of Philosophy (including ethics and logic).
17. — — of Psychology and Education.
18. — — of Social Anthropology, Ethnology and Folklore.
19. — — of Political Science and Law.

20. — — of Economics and Commerce (including administration and business management).
21. — — of Fine Arts (excluding Music).
22. — — of Music.
23. — — of Medicine.
24. — — of Mechanical engineering.
25. — — of Civil engineering, building and mining engineering.
26. — — of Electrical engineering.
27. — — of Mathematical and physical sciences, pure and applied.
28. — — of Chemistry and chemical technology.
29. — — of Natural history and biological sciences.
30. — — of Africa (South of the Sahara).
31. — — of Near East (including Egypt and Africa North of the Sahara).
32. — — of South Asia (India, Pakistan, Burma, mainland of S.E. Asia, and Indonesia).
33. — — of Far East (including Asiatic Russia, China, Japan, and Korea).
34. — — Latin America and the Caribbean.

DETAILED SYLLABUS

Definitions

Throughout this Syllabus the following definitions apply:

Academic libraries—The libraries of universities, university colleges, and all other institutions forming parts of, or associated with, universities and other institutions of higher education which have students.

Public libraries —Rate-supported libraries, whether Municipal or County, open to the general public.

Special libraries —All libraries which are not academic, public, or national libraries.

Library materials —Books, periodicals, pamphlets, reports, microforms, maps, gramophone records, tapes and all other audio-visual records.

INTERMEDIATE EXAMINATION

Paper 1. *The Library and the community* (compulsory 3-hour paper).

The general aim of this Paper is to put the library into its social context, showing the growing needs for it and how it attempts to meet those needs.

History of libraries and librarianship in the British Isles during the 19th and 20th centuries. The library in society, its aims and functions.

The kinds of libraries: national, academic, public, special and private. How the different demands on each call for different types of provision.

Library co-operation in all its aspects.

Professional education and qualification.

Professional and other associations connected with librarianship.

Paper 2. *Government and control of libraries* (compulsory 3-hour paper).

The aim of this Paper is to deal with the practical conduct of the institutions which have evolved as the result of the considerations covered by Paper 1.

Government management and finance of libraries. Staffing and division of work.

Sources of supply and methods of acquisition of library materials. The conditions governing admission and methods of registering readers. Methods of circulation and allied subjects.

Paper 3. *The Organization of knowledge* (compulsory 3-hour paper).

The organization of knowledge through classification schemes, catalogues and indexes. A knowledge of the basic principles of classification and the structure and main features of general schemes of classification.

Author and title cataloguing: a general comparative knowledge of the AA, ALA, and BM Codes.

Descriptive cataloguing: the contents of catalogue entries and their functional variations.

Subject cataloguing.

Physical forms and forms of arrangement of catalogues and indexes. Filing rules.

Centralized and co-operative cataloguing and indexing.

Paper 4. *Bibliographical control and service* (compulsory 3-hour paper).

General bibliographical control: principles and methods of selection of library materials.

Enquiry techniques: assessment of enquiries: literature surveys and searches: preparation of bibliographies, bulletins, abstracts, indexes; methods of bibliographical citation.

Types of general reference material and special forms of material and their uses.

Dissemination of information to users and potential users of the service.

Copyright problems relevant to library work.

Contemporary book and periodical production, rebinding, documentary reproduction. Micro-form publishing.

FINAL EXAMINATION

In this examination questions will be asked on detailed aspects of the various subjects and their application to current conditions. A critical knowledge of these subjects will be expected.

List A, Paper 1. *Academic and copyright libraries* (3-hour paper).

The history and functions of Academic and copyright libraries, with special reference to those in the United Kingdom, the Commonwealth, Europe, and the United States of America.

Government; finance; organization; administration.

Buildings: siting, planning, equipment and fittings.

Staff: selection, training and qualifications, salaries and conditions, duties and deployment.

Stock: administrative aspects of selection and acquisition, and of classification and cataloguing, access and control.

Special departments and collections; departmental libraries.

Relation to teaching and research: instruction of students: services to outside readers: regulations.

Academic libraries and co-operation.

List A, Paper 2. *Special libraries and information bureaux* (3-hour paper).

The history and functions of special libraries, information bureaux, and those national libraries that have a specialized function (including the N.C.L.) with emphasis on those in the United Kingdom, the Commonwealth, Europe and the United States of America.

Main features of organization function and administration, with special reference to variations in type of library according to specialization of subject and clientele.

Building: siting, planning, equipment, and fittings.

Staff: selection, training and qualifications, salaries and conditions, duties and deployment.

Stock: administrative aspects of selection and acquisition; of classification,

cataloguing and indexing; and of the handling of unpublished material, including confidential documents.

Special libraries and co-operation.

List A, Paper 3. *Public (muncipal and county) libraries* (3-hour paper).

History, development and characteristics of rate-supported libraries in the United Kingdom. Comparative study of public library provision in the Commonwealth, Europe and the United States of America.

Library law and other relevant legislation in the United Kingdom; bye-laws and regulations.

Government; finance; organization; administration.

Buildings: siting, planning, equipment, and fittings.

Staff: selection, training and qualifications, salaries and conditions, duties and deployment.

Stock: administrative aspects of selection and acquisition; classification and cataloguing; access and control.

Public libraries and co-operation.

List B, Paper 1. *Theory of classification* (3-hour paper).

Historical development of the theory of library classification, with special reference to the period since 1876.

Comparative study of major general schemes of classification, their development and principles, and their application in general and special libraries.

Construction, revision and modification of general schemes and of schemes for special collections and for particular purposes.

Notation.

Relation of classification to methods of information storage and retrieval, including mechanical and electronic methods.

Relation of classification to subject cataloguing and indexing.

List B, Paper 2. *Theory of cataloguing* (3-hour paper).

This paper deals with the listing and descriptions of library materials for the purpose of catalogues, bibliographies, indexes, abstracts, etc.

History and purposes of cataloguing.

Comparative study of the major cataloguing codes, including their development and revision.

Application of the principles of cataloguing to general and special problems.

Theory and practice in dictionary, classified and name catalogues, subject headings and subject indexing.

Problems arising from the different physical forms of catalogues.

Relation of cataloguing to methods of information storage and retrieval, including mechanical and electronic methods.

List B, Paper 3. *Practical classification and cataloguing* (3-hour paper).

This paper is intended to test general competence in practical cataloguing and classifying. Candidates will be given a number of facsimilies or transcripts of title-pages (with informative notes) which will form the basis of tests in classification, descriptive cataloguing, and selection of headings for main and added entries and references. They will be permitted the choice of one of the following general schemes of classification: Bibliographic, Colon, Decimal, Library of Congress, Subject, U.D.C. Each will be required to provide for his own use a copy of the scheme in which he chooses to be examined; and also will be permitted to take into the examination a copy of the Anglo-American code, and of either Sears' *List of subject headings*, or, Library of Congress *Subject headings used in the dictionary catalogue*.

List B, Paper 4. *History of books and printing* (3-hour paper).

Predecessors and early forms of the book, their materials and make-up. History of manuscript books. Printing materials and methods.

History of printing and the evolution of the book. The materials of which

books have been and are now being made, and their history. History and methods of binding and binding decoration. Book illustration, its functions, methods and history, from the decoration of the manuscripts to the present day. Book design; fine printing; private presses.

List B, Paper 5. *History and present state of the book trade in Great Britain* (3-hour paper).

Authorship. Publishing. Bookselling. The Stationers' Company. Censorship. Copyright and Legal Deposit in Great Britain and Ireland. The Net Books and Library Licence agreements. Book Trade bibliography.

List B, Paper 6. *Analytical bibliography* (3-hour paper).

The function of bibliography and the development of bibliographical method, investigation and research. Collation and description in detail. Principles of bibliographical editing and knowledge of its application.

List B, Paper 7. *Machines and technical equipment and processes in libraries* (3-hour paper).

The administration, assessment of suitability, and economics, of machinery and technical equipment and processes appropriate to: library binderies, documentary reproduction, audio-visual aids, business operations. The application of technology to library problems.

List B, Paper 8. *Dissemination of information* (3-hour paper).

Presentation of ideas, including composition, style and language, readership, choice of material. Types of publications: reviews, house journals, annual reports, etc. Methods of reproduction and printing. Editing, including law of libel. Preparation for the press. Copyright in dissemination. Abstracting and form of abstract journals, preparation of reports and publicity materials. Collation of abstracts with originals. Principles and practice of indexing in special libraries, and the recent developments in mechanical and electronic methods.

List B, Paper 9. *Archive administration* (3-hour paper).

The provisions made for the preservation and care of central and local records in the United Kingdom.

Definition of archives. Provenance and location of British archive accumulations.

Functions and duties of Keepers of records, and archivists.

Organization and administration of archive departments.

Classification, calendaring and cataloguing of archives; the provision of means of reference.

Problems connected with archives of recent dates, appraisal and destruction, records management technique.

Physical care of archives; repository buildings and equipment, methods of storage and repair.

Staff: selection, training and qualifications, salaries and conditions, duties and deployment.

Buildings: siting, planning, equipment and fittings.

List B, Paper 10. *Palaeography and diplomatic* (3-hour paper).

Handwriting of Western Europe, with special reference to English book-hands and document hands to the present day. Development of documentary form in Britain in royal and ecclesiastical administrations. Official scribes, notaries, scriveners, and writing masters. The private deed. Abbreviations. Illuminations. Descriptions of manuscript books and documents.

List B, Paper 11. *History of libraries and librarianship* (3-hour paper).

Classical and medieval libraries in broad outline only.

The dissolution of the monasteries and the development of academic and

national libraries, mainly in Great Britain but in broad outline for Europe also. Growth of the great private collections from Cotton onwards. Naudé; Leibnitz.

The development of municipal and parish libraries, especially in Great Britain.

The Royal Society; scientific and learned society libraries.

Circulating and subscription libraries.

Mechanics' Institute libraries.

The broad lines of the development of the modern libraries and of national library services in all parts of the world, and their social background.

List B, Paper 12. *Library service for young people in schools and public libraries* (3-hour paper).

History, development and characteristics of public and school libraries in the United Kingdom, and overseas where significant.

General provisions of current educational legislation relevant to libraries.

Main features of organization, function and administration of libraries for children.

Buildings: siting, planning, equipment and fittings.

Staff: selection, training and qualifications, salaries and conditions, duties and deployment.

Stock: selection for different types of libraries for young people and for various ages and degrees of reading ability.

Reference work. Reading surveys. Display work and extension activities. Use of libraries in relation to teaching.

Mental growth of children and adolescents, linguistic and reading ability at various ages, social development, backward children.

List B, Paper 13. *Hospital libraries* (3-hour paper).

This paper deals with the provision of a general library service to hospital patients and staff in all kinds of hospitals, and not with medical librarianship as such.

The history and functions of the hospital library in the United Kingdom, and overseas where significant. Types of hospital library organization.

Main features of hospital organization, function, and administration.

Government; finance; organization; administration.

Buildings: siting, planning, equipment and fittings.

Staff: selection, training and qualifications, salaries and conditions, duties and deployment.

Stock: administrative aspects of selection and acquisition; care and maintenance; classification and cataloguing; access and control.

Hospital libraries and co-operation.

The psychology of the sick: general principles of mental and physical rehabilitation. The therapeutic value of reading. Extension work with patients.

List C, Papers 1-34. *Bibliography and librarianship in a special field* (3-hour paper).

This paper concerns itself with the bibliography and librarianship of the subject, and does not seek to test subject knowledge as such. Candidates will be assumed to possess a sufficient background knowledge of the subject to enable them to grasp the bibliography of the subject. It is recognized that each of the sections of this Syllabus will not apply equally to all subjects. Papers set will reflect the varying emphasis given to parts of this Syllabus in different subjects.

Bibliographical apparatus: bibliographies, catalogues, guides to libraries and literature, indexes, abstracts, Principal works and editions. Periodicals.

Special types of materials. Classification and cataloguing: treatment of the subject in general bibliographical classification schemes. Special schemes of classification. Special problems of classification and cataloguing within the subject field.

Outstanding collections in the field, their contents, special features and availability.

Societies and other organizations in the field and their publications.

Selection of material. Exploitation of the collection.

Production of bibliographical aids.

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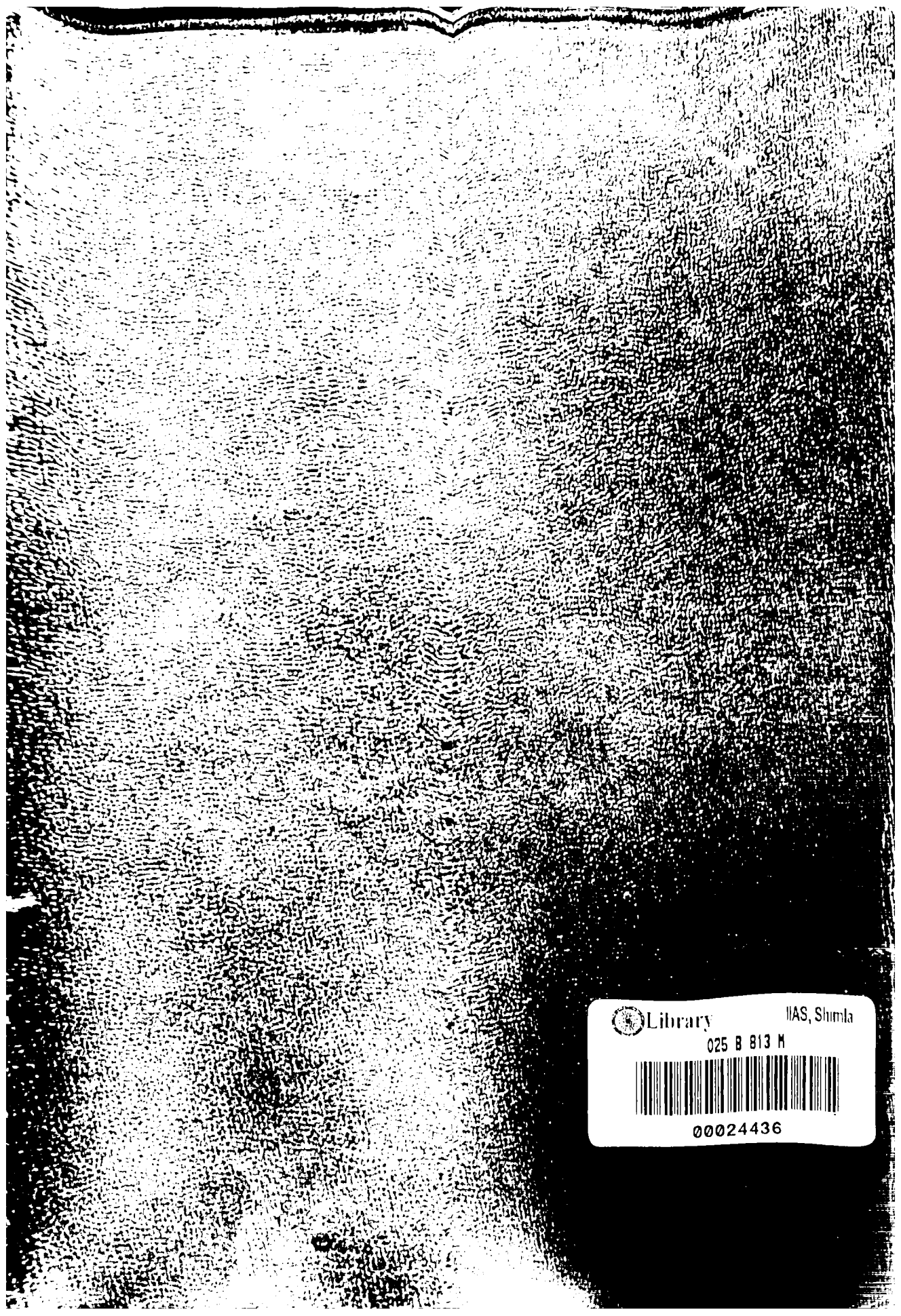
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