

LIBRARY RESOURCES AND TECHNICAL SERVICES

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Technical Services in 1963

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DURING 1963 developments in technical services moved along various fronts, and to this observer marked an effort to relate the field of documentation more closely to what has been described as traditional librarianship, particularly in the area of special librarianship. Undoubtedly, this approach will be furthered as more programs in education or training of librarians will introduce students to the activity and essence of new opportunities to aid researchers and scholars in their work.

In order to present the review of events, it may be useful to discuss them under the following rubrics: (1) organizational and administrative matters, (2) extension of centralized processing, (3) documentation, (4) personnel and training, (5) quarters and equipment, and (6) binding and conservation of materials. Since it is not possible to cover the literature completely, the selections are made to illustrate developments and trends.

Organizational and Administrative Matters

Probably the greatest attention during the year to organizational and administrative matters in the technical services has been associated with surveys, or analyses of library systems or individual libraries. Among the major reports issued during the year was that on the *Federal Departmental Libraries*, by Luther H. Evans and others.¹ This is an important work for personnel in technical services. Part I, by Dr. Evans, considers in some detail matters of acquisitional policy, classification and cataloging, and various concerns of interlibrary cooperation. In separate papers the following matters are discussed: acquisitions, weeding, cataloging and classification, and machines and equipment. As a matter of fact, the entire report, including dissenting statements of L. Quincy Mumford, Librarian of Congress, and Walter M. Carlson, Director of Technical Information, Department of Defense, is concerned with the technical services, and the general problems of efficient information storage and prompt retrieval. Mr. Carlson, in addition to objecting to an inter-agency council on federal libraries, made pointed remarks at "traditional libraries." He observed that they were unwilling to accept technical reports as "published literature," and this has resulted in federal agencies assuming "large, library-like document operations." He also calls attention to the use of "ancient and outmoded concepts of subject classification in the face of rapidly developing interdisciplinary approaches to science and engineering." Thus,

he notes, there has been "independent development of storage and retrieval techniques for documents that are completely outside the scope of present-day operations." In regard to cooperation, Carlson commented that the term has been "misused (probably inadvertently) to unify resistance to demands for new types of services by technical people."

Librarians will accept or not accept such generalizations of their work. That they are being made, however, should be a basis for re-evaluation of services and approaches to such services, even though it may be demonstrated that sometimes the critics are not completely aware of the efforts of librarians, particularly special librarians.

The volume by Dr. Evans and his associates is important also in the suggestions made for support of the work of the Library of Congress. In the approach to technical services, in terms of organization and administration, there has been considerable attention given to the need of the Library of Congress to provide extensive and prompt service in cataloging, classification, and bibliographical aids. That the profession nationally has been alerted to the need is significant. Earlier, in 1963, Frederick H. Wagman, Librarian at the University of Michigan and President of the American Library Association, wrote of the assistance which librarians might give to their national library which would rebound to their own libraries. He wrote:

The fact is, however, that the Library of Congress would be able to increase the basic services from which we all benefit, to overcome the shortages of space, of personnel, and of money that inhibit all of its programs—and ours, incidentally—if there were a better understanding on the part of all congressmen and senators that its programs do benefit directly the economy and efficiency of the libraries of their home states and districts.²

The furtherance of the work of the Library of Congress is imperative if the libraries of the country which have come to depend upon its services are to benefit to the fullest extent. The discussions of organization and administration of individual libraries are interesting and informative, but the extension of effective centralized and cooperative projects in the field is paramount.

The importance of the Library of Congress in technical services has been recognized not only in the United States but in foreign countries as well. The paper by John Metcalfe, which appeared in the January, 1964 issue of *College and Research Libraries*,³ was written in 1961 for a Seminar held in Melbourne in that year.⁴ Although this is a highly critical paper of some of the subject heading practices of the Library of Congress in so far as Australian libraries are concerned, Metcalfe seeks improvement. His suggestion is that "Central cataloging associated but not identified with that of a particular library can be more flexible, directed to and even varied according to the needs of its users, but it must have a consistent practice or it will not avoid inconsistencies, partly caused—as LC says of its own headings—by 'varying theories of subject heading practice over the years.'"⁵

Thus, the Library of Congress has not only been criticized in terms of its services to American libraries, but foreign libraries have noted shortcomings as well. Of course, as Metcalfe aptly points out, the Library of Congress has been working within a framework of assistance to its particular constituents, and other libraries which could use its products might do so. The Evans and Metcalfe suggestions, as well as those by Wagman, indicate that librarians must consolidate their support of the Library of Congress if it is to be placed in a position of improving and extending its services.

Report on a Survey of the Libraries of the Arkansas Foundation of Associated Colleges, by Robert B. Downs (1963) is a description of a significant program that involves "a plan for the enrichment of the library resources through the purchase of materials in certain assigned fields."⁶ A grant from the Rockefeller Brothers Fund in 1956, totaling \$21,000, was distributed to the seven colleges involved, at \$3,000 each. Several principles were agreed upon in the purchase of materials: (1) Subject assignments based on the Dewey Decimal Classification were made to each library, in accordance with requests received from the individual institutions, and building as far as possible upon existing strength. (2) The classifications for each library conformed to the course offerings and teaching needs of the college concerned. Also, the areas assigned were represented in the course offerings of the other colleges, to avoid making purchases of use to one institution only. (3) By adhering to a standard library classification, duplication was largely, though not entirely, eliminated. (4). All acquisitions were to be made available on inter-library loan to members of the cooperating group. (5) To facilitate loans and provide information on current acquisitions, each library agreed to supply to each of the other six libraries two Library of Congress cards for every item purchased from the special fund."

Subsequent grants were received by the group of libraries, which include Arkansas College, the College of the Ozarks, Harding College, Hendrix College, John Brown University, Ouachita Baptist College, and Southern Baptist College. Among Dr. Downs' suggestions for a program for the future is that emphasis be placed on periodical and reference titles, rather than on "many small, separate titles, scattered in a variety of fields."

Extension of Centralized Processing

The discussion in the previous section leads normally to a consideration of efforts to extend centralized or regional processing. There have been some new centers established, and a review of the activity by Mary Lee Bundy⁴ is helpful in providing a profile of the spread of the operations and an analysis of basic issues which have evolved. Dr. Bundy describes the expansion of centers as a framework of a study of centers for furnishing data for a program contemplated by the Missouri State Library. She notes that in 1963 there were over 50 centers in 27 states. Among the significant points made are the following: costs are difficult to com-

pare unless one has a complete body of data concerning the agencies compared; the majority of the centers recommend both ordering and cataloging for most effective results; centralized processing may exist in various forms, but the major step should be to minimize or eliminate variations that have no evidence to support them in practice; and, over a period of time, the character of centers may change, and even cease. Undoubtedly, the character and essential factors of centers are in a state of change, and by observation and study it may be possible to isolate the more stable guidelines.

It may be noted that centralized processing has started in the Library of Hawaii in Honolulu for various libraries in the state, particularly school libraries. This step was recommended in the surveys of the library situation in Hawaii by Robert D. Leigh and Maurice F. Tauber in 1960.⁷ During the year there appeared also *A Study of Seven Academic Libraries in Brooklyn and Their Potential*, a report prepared by Rice Estes.⁸ An important recommendation of the study is that an investigation be made of the feasibility of centralized processing for the seven libraries. So the movement grows.

Documentation

At the beginning of this review it was remarked that documentation has been making a marked impression upon more and more librarians. The year showed a continuing and growing interest in the field by conferences, new curricula in library schools and other educational agencies, and publications. Both the American Documentation Institute and the Special Libraries Association, which overlap considerably in membership, have been consolidating their interests in joint committees as well as joint meetings of chapters and regional groups. Similarly, the ALA Interdivisional Committee on Documentation which includes representatives from the various divisions of the Association, as well as representatives to organizations concerned with information storage and retrieval, has been serving as a monitor on activities, instrumentation, or approaches which have applications for library service. These efforts are interrelated with the work of the ALA Library Technology Project. One of the developments of the Interdivisional Committee during the past year, with the cooperation of other units of the ALA, has been to encourage the preparation of a series of articles on the field of information storage and retrieval by Joseph Becker. It is expected that these articles will appear in the *ALA Bulletin*.

In last year's review, mention was made of an expected volume by Joseph Becker and Robert M. Hayes. This volume appeared during the year. *Introduction to Storage Information and Retrieval: Tools, Elements, Theories* (New York, John Wiley) is a useful volume for librarians and others interested in the state of the art in 1963. Becker, who is both an engineer and librarian by training, and an experienced librarian who was an adviser of Library 21 at the Seattle World's Fair, has been able to merge his knowledge with that of a mathematician. The volume

contains much that is known to experienced technical services personnel in cataloging, classification, and related areas. The chapters dealing with computers, role of a theory of information, theories of files organization, and theories of system design are probably not as well known, and warrant the attention of librarians. The chapters on theories of file organization and theories of system design will require an understanding of mathematical formulae, as well as some acquaintance with previous studies in the field.

Another volume of general interest to librarians is that of Charles P. Bourne, of the Stanford Research Institute, Menlo Park, California. Mr. Bourne, who is active in the American Documentation Institute, has developed a volume⁹ that is designed to provide guidance to personnel interested in the design of information systems. Although librarians are noted as individuals who will be interested in the volume, *Methods of Information Handling*, it will not be a surprise to Mr. Bourne to learn that some of them are familiar with basic procedures of filing, coding, notation, and perhaps even machine language representation. Included in the text are discussions, with appropriate illustrations, of manual systems as well as tabulating card and computer systems. Much attention is given to equipment of microreproductions, and it is observed that such equipment might well be out of date at the time of description. Note may be made of the fact that Mr. Bourne, as did Becker and Hayes, includes mathematical approaches to coding.

Librarians have been concerned with possible application of machine approaches to their work, and it is not surprising that the 49th Annual Conference of Eastern College Librarians should be involved with a theme, "Do We Need to Reinvent the Library?" at its November 30, 1963, meeting. The morning portion of this meeting was devoted to reports by Mario G. Salvadori, Professor of Civil Engineering and Architecture, Columbia University, and Henry J. Dubester, Chief of the General Reference and Bibliography Division, Library of Congress. Dr. Salvadori reported on the progress of the project to analyze in minute detail the operations in the Engineering Library at Columbia University in an effort to discover possible applications of automation. Similarly, Mr. Dubester reported on the Library of Congress automation study and its implications for academic libraries. This latter study was published by the Library of Congress in December, 1963,¹⁰ and is commented on below.

The afternoon session included a discussion by Edward Heiliger of the approach to automation at the library of the new Florida Atlantic University, at Boca Raton. It is expected that this installation will represent one of the important experiments in the application of automation to university library operations. Heiliger indicated that every effort would be made to introduce mechanical approaches to various technical services in acquisitions and cataloging which lend themselves to such manipulations.

A brief summary may be made at this point of the Library of Congress automation study noted above. Three areas of library work—

bibliographic processing, catalog searching, and document retrieval—were considered as now technically and economically feasible for automation in large research libraries. It was concluded also that research libraries can increase and accelerate their work in the next ten years through automation. Automation for retrieving the content of books is not regarded as yet feasible for large collections, but automating certain functions now can assist toward solving this larger problem. The development of automation should enable libraries to meet the changes in the research world and to approach a system of automated libraries. Although automation may reduce the cost-to-performance ratio, the goal of the Library of Congress is not to reduce operating costs but to expand services and solve pressing problems. The survey team recommended that the Librarian of Congress request \$750,000 to be devoted to securing system specifications for the automation of the internal operations of the Library of Congress and the functions it performs for other libraries.

The list of titles in documentation, in terms of special reports supported by the National Science Foundation, the United States Air Force Office of Aerospace Research, the Council on Library Resources, Inc., and other agencies continues to grow apace. Not only is this true in the United States, but it is found to be on the increase in foreign countries. Mention may be made here of an informative article by W. L. Francis on developments in the field in Soviet Russia.¹¹ The report is useful further in that it includes a section on discussion of various practical problems in documentation.

During the year, considerable attention was given to the report, *Science, Government, and Information* (known as the Weinberg report, after Alvin M. Weinberg, Chairman).¹² In general, it has been pointed out that the report, which calls for a new look at the problems of the generation of information and its transfer, particularly within the governmental agencies, is suggestive to librarians in their strategic position for bridging the gap between scholar and user. The direction of various libraries, such as the Library of Congress, Florida Atlantic University, the University of Illinois, many special libraries, and others suggests that librarians are willing to take the look that is necessary for supporting any new approach toward solving their problems.

As a matter of general interest, mention may be made of the Rutgers seminars on the intellectual organization of information. The first of the seminars, October 31–November 1, at New Brunswick dealt with the place of the Universal Decimal Classification in organizing information, and J. Mills, of the Northwestern Polytechnic and the Aslib Research Project, provided the major paper. The second was focused on the system of J. C. Gardin, known as SYNTOL (Syntagmatic Organization Language), and Dr. Gardin presented the major paper. On March 12–13, 1964, the third seminar will be presented. John Metcalfe, of the University of New South Wales, Australia, will present the paper on Alphabetical-Subject Indexing. In each of the seminars there has been a panel which considered various aspects of the presentation. Susan Artandi of the Graduate School of

Library Service, Rutgers University, has been serving as moderator. It is expected that the papers and observations will be published at a later date. It may be noted that Theodore Hines, formerly of the Rutgers faculty, devised an overall guide for the consideration of informational systems. This is *Documentation Systems: A Structural Outline*, and is published by the Graduate School of Library Service, Rutgers (1963). The approach has been to provide the elements of a system so that comparison of systems may be facilitated.

Among developments in documentation during the year has been the production of thesauri. Examples include those of the American Petroleum Institute, the U. S. Bureau of Ships, and Engineers Joint Council. To experienced librarians these thesauri are similar to the conventional subject heading lists, but study of the relationship of the two types might be revealing, particularly in regard to the structure of the syndetic apparatus. This development may well remind librarians of the unfinished project of David J. Haykin at the Library of Congress, where before his untimely death he had started a thorough examination of the theoretical basis of subject headings.

A final word on documentation relates to the efforts of library schools, and universities and other institutions without such schools, to develop curricula in information science. Programs at the Drexel Institute of Technology, Georgia Institute of Technology, University of Illinois, Columbia University, the University of California at Los Angeles, and other institutions have been publicized.¹³ The statement of Don R. Swanson, of the Graduate Library School, University of Chicago, is of interest in that it proposes a program of "information science" on the Ph.D. level which will "include calculus, modern algebra, logic, applied math, information theory and computer organization and design. It will also include certain courses in the field of linguistics and possibly in psychology."¹⁴ Again, it may be observed that the library schools are responding to the developments in the field, even though there may be some question as to just what is the best approach to meet the demands of "technical people."

Personnel and Training

The stress and strain of documentation has been felt mostly by the individuals who are responsible for training of personnel who are to take the lead in organizing of collections, or the knowledge therein, in libraries. The development of programs in documentation, however, cuts across the whole curricula of a library school, as has been indicated by Dr. Swanson and others. *Information Retrieval Today*, edited by Wesley Simonton, includes papers given at the Library School of the University of Minnesota, through the Center for Continuation Study.¹⁵ The papers are designed to evaluate the present state of information retrieval, to consider new approaches to the field, and to suggest possible lines of development for the future. How the present students in library schools are to be trained for the positions that are opening in government, sci-

ence, and industry is a basic question that all library school deans and their faculty members are concerned with during this period.

Despite the leaning toward the new, there is the need to consider what is being done with the present collections and their records in libraries. There remains the problem of teaching current students the procedures of manual acquisitions and cataloging and classification, with the ALA rules still in a state of controversy. There is also the problem of developing a continuing interest in cataloging and classification among young librarians. Indeed, the possible opportunities in the field of technical services are among the greatest in the whole range of possibilities in librarianship at the present time—in resources, regional processing, documentation, supervision of cataloging and classification operations in large libraries, and in related areas of indexing, abstracting, and bibliographical control.

In addition to specific courses being developed at various library schools in the several areas of the technical services, the attitude towards regional processing and centralized enterprises is being conveyed to students through reference to the literature which is developing for the profession. Indeed, since the publicity given to such projects, there has been an increased interest in extending services to new areas.

Quarters and Equipment

The Council on Library Resources, Inc., in its various grants for projects involving equipment, and the Library Technology Project of the ALA, supported by the Council, have been concerned with the introduction of new equipment for library application. The 1962-1963 report of the Library Technology Project¹⁶ describes four projects that were made ready for the market: charging system, labeling system, shipping container, and newspaper holder. A *Manual of Library Furniture* was started, with Martin Van Buren, designer and library consultant, and Stephen D. Pryce, experienced in the manufacture of fine furniture, responsible for the compilation of data and preparation of the guide.

In various surveys in which your reviewer has been involved during the past few years, the question of proper quarters for the technical services has been a constant one. How much and what kind of space should be allotted for the acquisitions, cataloging, binding, photographic reproduction, or other related technical activities is a query which, of course, is to be settled for each library.

As an example of the need to examine with care the placement of quarters for the technical services, reference may be made to the new library designed for Johns Hopkins University. The librarian, John Berthel, has been much concerned about the proper placement of the quarters. In *Ex Libris* for December, 1963, the following comments are made:

A short, broad flight of stairs will run down through the Main Level of the building. At the foot of these stairs there will be an exit control station and just beyond this, the central circulation desk.

Facing the visitor as he descends the stairs will be the Bibliographic Center, which will contain the union catalog of the University's book collections, the printed catalogs of the Library of Congress, the British Museum, the Bibliothèque Nationale, and other major collections, as well as general bibliographic and reference materials.

Except for two utility cores (composed of elevators, stairwells, etc.) the entire northern section of this floor will be occupied by the Technical Services operations, and it is here that books will be accessioned, cataloged, and prepared for the shelves.¹⁷

There are other comments which suggest the need for coordinating these services with the readers' services of the University.

The increase in microforms of all kinds, however, has had an effect upon planning for quarters for technical services in that there should be proper space for reading machines and for the handling of the materials. Libraries have also had to expand their quarters for the storage and space for the reading of these materials.

Under a grant from the Council on Library Resources, Inc., a report of a three-year project directed by John H. Ottemiller, Associate University Librarian, Yale University, has been issued on *Yale's Selective Book Retirement Program*.¹⁸ It was prepared by Lee Ash, editor and research assistant. The report is of considerable interest to technical services personnel, in that various policies of selection of materials for storage, the reader's use of stored materials, the relation of the Catalogue Department to the retirement program, and statistics of the Department are considered. Compact storage is discussed also, and appendices include purposes and policies of the Selective Book Retirement Program as well as extracts on Catalogue Department routines from the *Manual of Procedures*. The appearance of the volume, which contains arguments pro and con storage as well as statistical data and compact storage plans, marks another step in the efforts of librarians to attempt to separate materials on the basis of extent of use. A note was included in last year's review on the work by Helen Joanne Harrar on *Cooperative Storage Warehouses*. The Yale report suggests that readers may want another look at the study prepared in 1961 by Fussler and Simon on *Patterns in the Use of Large Research Libraries*,¹⁹ which provides insights into separate storage facilities and compact storage.

Binding and Conservation

Note may be made of three publications that consider the problems of binding and conservation. The first of these is by W. J. Barrow,²⁰ who continues his work in his research laboratory in Richmond, under the sponsorship of the Council on Library Resources, Inc.

A publication of the Library Binding Institute, a new edition of its *Library Binding Handbook*,²¹ is a useful booklet for librarians who are concerned with the care of their collections. Various suggestions, descriptions of operations, standards of materials, and similar helps are provided in this guide.

The third publication of the year in this area that may be cited is

*Protecting the Library and Its Resources: A Guide to Physical Protection and Insurance.*²² The volume is divided into two parts, the first dealing with protection of materials against physical loss, and the second, with the problem of insuring the library. Such subjects as evaluation and insurance of rarities, the salvage and restoration of damaged materials, and evaluation for insurance purposes, are included in an Appendix. There are also a model insurance policy and an extensive glossary. The work should be of continuing value for library boards, library administrators, and other personnel.

Miscellaneous

Reference has been made to the report of the Council on Library Resources, Inc.²³ The seventh annual report contains much material of interest to technical services librarians. Included are such items as "Bibliography and the Mechanization of Library Operations," as well as discussion of developments on such topics as Bibliographic Apparatus and Techniques, Physical Access, Library Administration and Planning. Publications resulting from grants by the Council are listed.

Two other publications may be mentioned as having some usefulness to readers. The first is a compilation of articles, with several new pieces, on *Book Catalogs*.²⁴ The increase in these catalogs, as well as interest in them, has made it desirable to provide in a convenient volume discussions of various aspects of books catalogs, including background of the catalogs, relation to card catalogs, techniques of preparing book catalogs, standards, applications, and research problems in the field.

Also completed during the year was the study by Fred Heinritz on the book versus card catalog costs.²⁵ In general, Heinritz found that the book form of the catalog was cheaper than the card form, but that more time was needed to use the book catalog. The use cost was more than offset by the book catalog in savings in such areas as production, distribution, filing, and equipment and space for use, even with heavy catalog use. The production and distribution costs were studied at the offices of the Engineering Index, Inc., in New York City.

During the year the summary of the report on the study of *Resources of Australian Libraries* was issued by the Australian Advisory Council on Bibliographical Services.²⁶ This summary considers the conditions of collections in the libraries of Australia and contains suggestions for further development, cooperation on various fronts, and the relation of resources to bibliographical control. Australia, in many ways like the United States, has come to realize the need of a library system for the country if the students, researchers, and other users of libraries are to be given high-level and complete library service.

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Highlights in Acquisitions

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THE TREND IN ACQUISITIONS in 1963 was toward continued efforts at cooperation and coordination. Pressure is increasing on libraries to tighten bibliographic control and to automate recurrent processes. To reduce the number of operations involved by increasing the span covered by each is the inherent aim of regional cooperation in purchasing, of the division of responsibility for specialization, and of the attempts to establish recommended buying lists by area or type of library. A lack of personnel, funds, and space proportional to the increase in demand due to more users and new areas of research, and to the increase in costs and in publications is the recurring theme in library literature. The following figures illustrate anticipated growth in acquisitions to the end of this decade. At the annual meeting of the American Book Publishers Council on May 16, 1963, at Skytop, Pennsylvania, John G. Lorenz estimated "The Library Market: Its Character, Dimensions, and Future Growth." Figures from his speech, which will appear in the 1964 *Bowker Annual*, show the expected increase in acquisitions for all types of libraries.

AMOUNTS SPENT FOR LIBRARY MATERIALS IN \$ MILLION¹

	1958-59	1960	1961-62	1970 (est.)
Public Libraries		\$46 (est.)		\$ 95
School Libraries	\$37			\$132.5
College and University Libraries			\$55	\$125
Special Libraries	Spending about \$25 million annually for library materials			

It is obvious that this increase cannot be ascribed to a single cause, nor will it affect each institution to the same degree. Nevertheless, the implications for acquisition librarians are mirrored in the attempts to cope with it.

Budgets

Library Trends devoted the April, 1963, issue to the staff and operational costs of public and academic libraries, under the editorship of Ralph Parker and Paxton Price. This issue ought to have a place in the office collection of every acquisition librarian, as well as every library

administrator. The approach to the total picture of financial administration is through source of funds, their allocation, and management. The goal, if not the trend, is toward a more businesslike approach to accounting for expenditures, greater reliance on state rather than local appropriations, toward the library administrator as fund raiser, and toward a greater share of the library operating funds for the purchase of library materials. In his contribution, "Budgeting and Budget Control in Public Libraries," Paxton Price gives an exceptionally clear picture of the shift in public libraries to "performance budgeting" based on services and activities from the old "estimate" budgeting detailing objects of disbursements.

In "Academic Budgets and their Administration—1962," James Richards, Jr. goes to some lengths in the perennial problem of designating budget allocations for library materials, both by academic department and by type of material. An instance of the lack of statistical compatibility among national data is his inability to draw comparisons between book and serial allocations after 1950. According to him, performance budgeting has not been adopted by colleges and universities, perhaps because of their need to conform to the general institutional pattern. However, in the presentation of acquisition budgets in university libraries, the trend seems to be toward a mixture of these two types of budgeting. Budget requests tend to be made in terms of past expenditures based on specific factors, but the requests are supported by service or activities claims. Projected figures showing increase of student population, or anticipated research needs are cited as supporting facts in current practice.

Cost Patterns

Henry Drennan analyzes public library operating expenditures over a period of years in terms of the relation to national per capita expenditures, of fiscal capacity, by population category, and related to quality of services. In constructing an adequacy index for 27 metropolitan libraries based on staff, size of collection, acquisitions, and per capita operating expenditures he finds that the standard most nearly met was that for acquisitions, (median of 88%), if compared to an ideal model. This may indicate the standard is too low.

In academic libraries there has been a continuing increase in the proportion of the library budget devoted to salaries and a decrease in the proportion devoted to library materials. To quote specifics here would be without meaning unless the basis for the data were included, which space does not allow. The same problem, which is touched on under "Operating Costs of College and University Libraries," by Ralph Parker, is also discussed by Helen Welch in "Cost of Library Materials." She suggests that "The serious problem posed by a diminishing share of library operating funds for the purchase of library materials, the increasing costs of such materials, and the increasing number of materials needed should be attacked directly by stating the facts of the situation to the authorities who can make some adjustments. . . . Substantial savings can

be made by the cooperative building of library resources, both in the mechanics of procurement and preparations and in the division of collecting responsibility."²

Another aspect of financial administration is discussed by Arthur McAnally in *The Library Quarterly* for April 1963, "Budgets by Formula." Because thirty-one of the fifty states now have established some kind of system of higher education, and the trend is continuing, librarians are concerned with centralized budgeting and its implications for library material expenditures.

To reconcile budget allocations with the cost of library materials is the function of acquisitions budget preparation. But increased operational funds necessitate additional staff. In order to put budget requests for staff allocations on a factual basis, the necessary data must be available. Chairman Helen Welch and the Technical Services Standards Committee are working on establishing a formula to express the relationship between increases in book budgets and in technical services staff in university libraries. Sample questionnaires have been sent to twelve libraries in preparation for a sampling of the total library population. Comparable standards are being developed for public libraries. The Committee is first experimenting with a standard in terms of a ratio between salary costs of the technical service staff for a given year and the cost of library materials, that is, cost of staff divided by cost of library materials. The Committee sees two primary advantages in developing standards based on such a ratio: 1. A single ratio based on the total technical services costs avoids consideration of the wide variation in assigning functions to different administrative units of technical services. 2. Such a ratio has a built-in escalator: as book costs go up or down, staff costs will also vary in the same direction, and expressing the relationship in terms of ratio will tend to neutralize fluctuations in the economy.³

This approach would avoid the pitfalls of oversimplification and bias pointed out by Felix Reichmann in his discussion on "Standards of Output in Cataloging and Acquisitions."⁴ That more uniform standards are needed in defining operations and their end product is supported by such divergent cost of acquisition figures as are given in the results of studies by Don Wynar, University of Denver, who quoted \$1.03 per book (*LRTS*, 7:324. Fall, 1963.) and by Don Culbertson as \$4.55 per title in 1961 (reprint of a paper read at the Chicago ALA Conference, "The Costs of Data Processing in University Libraries," *College and Research Libraries*, 24:488. November, 1963.)

The Cost of Library Materials Index Committee, with Avis Zebker as Chairman, is planning to initiate a microfilm cost index, listing rate increases of institutionally-produced microfilm. Institutions listed will be those listed in the 1962 *ALA Directory of Library Photoduplication Services in the U.S., Canada and Mexico*.

For the first time book and periodicals cost index figures prepared by that Committee have been included in the *Statistical Abstract of the United States 1963*, U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census

(84th edition, p. 527), and they are again available in the 1963 edition of *HEW Trends* (p. 64 & 65).

RTSD also approved the appointment of a Committee to Survey Acquisition-Catalog Coordinating Routines. A survey will be made to inform the profession of new and useful ideas in this area and to emphasize the importance of coordinating technical services. Opposition to the classic pattern of associating cataloging with acquisition work in a technical services division came from R. C. Swank in "The Catalog Department in the Library Organization" (*Library Quarterly*, 18:24-32. January, 1948.), as quoted by Helen Welch in her introduction to University of Illinois Graduate School of Library Science, *Occasional Papers*, no. 58, revised April, 1963. This paper is an updating of "The Literature of Library Technical Services". It contains bibliographic essays on the literature in acquisitions, cataloging and classification, serials, document reproduction, interlibrary cooperation and library resources, with an historical introduction by Helen Welch.

The controversial Weinberg Report (*Science, Government, and Information: The Responsibilities of the Technical Community and the Government in the Transfer of Information. A report of the President's Science Advisory Committee*, Washington, D.C.: G.P.O., January 10, 1963, 25¢) was the subject of a panel discussion at the meeting of the SLA Advisory Council at the Denver Conference last summer. Chairman of the *ad hoc* committee to study the report's implications, Eugene B. Jackson, was appointed to work with ADI in studying ways and means for implementing joint activity on the most pressing problems. The discussion brought out one of the report's disturbing elements, the by-passing of the professional librarian in the information field by putting the burden of retrieval on the scientist. The report may ease the acquisition of classified data by putting a large share of the responsibility for making scientific and technological information available to researchers, onto the federal government, which supports three-fourths of this research in the United States today. (*Special Libraries*, 54: 325-332. July-August, 1963.)

A manual on work simplification in small public libraries is being produced at Drexel Institute of Technology, with the collaboration of Joseph L. Wheeler, on a grant from Council on Library Resources, Inc. All steps connected with the selection, acquisition, cataloging and classification, processing, circulation, and mending of books and related materials will be investigated. Completion of the study is expected at the end of 1964. This is a continuation of the Small Libraries Project publications available from ALA. (*Special Libraries*, 54: 361. July-August, 1963.)

Statistics and Standardization

"An Approach Toward a National Statistics Program," by Frank Schick in the January, 1963, *ALA Bulletin* outlines the essential difficulties in drawing valid conclusions from diverse data on human and

material resources of American libraries. In July, 1963, the ALA Statistics Coordinating Project was initiated through a grant from the Council on Library Resources, Inc. of \$48,960, and a supplementary grant from the National Science Foundation of \$5,000, and the donation of office space for one year's time by the National Library of Medicine, Bethesda, Md. Joel Williams has been appointed director of the project. Its main purpose is to bring about agreement among university, public, school, and special libraries on definitions and terminology; to establish basic units of measurement to be compiled into a handbook to make the gathering of statistics a uniform effort in order to arrive at comparable figures for administrative and research purposes. The new Statistics Committee for Technical Services, a subcommittee of LAD's Section on Organization and Management, under the chairmanship of Bella Shachtman,⁵ is working closely with the project.

Mechanization

"Mechanization of Library Procedures in the Medium-sized Medical Library: 1. The Serial Record," by Irwin H. Pizer, Donald R. Franz, and Estelle Brodman may be mentioned elsewhere, but I believe it is of sufficient importance to include the acquisitions aspects here. Washington University School of Medicine Library devised a system of mechanical methods using computers, partially supported by funds from a U. S. Public Health Service grant. Included in the serial record system of 2,500 titles (1,200 currently received) are dealer and title check-in records, budget control and binding information. The trend continues in the tradition of the University of California, La Jolla, and the University of Illinois, Chicago campus.⁶

In 1963 the National Library of Medicine reported the successful completion of phase II of the MEDLARS project, which resulted from a grant by Council on Library Resources, Inc. to mechanize the production of *Index Medicus*. Implications of the MEDLARS project for acquisition librarians is the feasibility for dissemination of bibliographic information which now exists. Since this computer uses cultivated language in machine-readable form, order lists and other records which are based on bibliographic information may be derived from it.⁷

The use of IBM programming for departmental book budgeting was initiated at the University of Alaska a year ago. Any library interested should write to Theodore Ryberg, University Librarian, University of Alaska Library, College, Alaska for a copy of the program.

Library Cooperation

Exploratory efforts in Ohio are directed toward state support for a state resource center to store and purchase, service and disseminate a central collection. A study, *The Possibility of Extensive Academic Library Cooperation in Ohio: a Survey*, was made by Wyman W. Parker at the request of the Ohio College Association. The Council of Library Resources, Inc., sponsored a report on Rhode Island, published by

Brown University Press, *Library Cooperation: The Brown University Study of University-School-Community Library Coordination in the State of Rhode Island*, by John A. Humphrey with Lucille Wickersham. The study offers a program of recommendations aimed at improving basic services in school libraries, at strengthening the state library, and at coordinated efforts on the community and research library levels. (Council on Library Resources, "Recent Development", no. 99, for release March 24, 1963.)

No progress report, but an exhortation to action is Dean Galloway's paper presented at an institute of the School of Library Science, University of Southern California, on "Cooperative Acquisitions for California's Libraries", (reprinted in *California Librarian*, 24:183-187. July, 1963.)

The Farmington Plan offices have been moved to the new ARL office of James Skipper in Washington, D.C. The price limit above which books should not be shipped automatically by agents to libraries in the Farmington Plan has been raised from \$25.00 to \$40.00.

The Library of Congress Public Law 480 Program has been increased to thirty recipient libraries in the India/Pakistan and United Arab Republic acquisitions areas. Except for seven libraries who receive sets of publications from both areas, participating libraries limit themselves to one or the other. Beginning with January 1, 1964, selected sets of English language material are being sent to selected U. S. libraries from these two areas. Libraries participating in the UAR program will receive serial titles, one newspaper from each country, and a few of the major monographs issued during the year from India/Pakistan. Libraries in the India/Pakistan program will receive this type of material from the UAR under the same conditions that apply to PL-480 material generally. At the end of 1963 Congress signed into law the addition of Burma, Indonesia, and Israel to the PL-480 program; participating libraries will be announced early in 1964. The ten major newspapers sent on the UAR subscription are available in microfilm from abroad beginning with the January, 1963, issues. Arrangements could not be made to microfilm the 70 Indian newspapers in India, therefore they will be microfilmed on a cooperative basis at the Library of Congress. Monthly accession lists are widely distributed so that libraries not directly participating in the program may locate items to be borrowed on inter-library loan. The *Public Law 480 Newsletter* is available on request from Robert D. Stevens, Coordinator, Public Law 480 Programs, Library of Congress, Washington 25, D.C.⁸

Of the changes which occurred during 1963, not all represented attempts at progress. The United States Book Exchange was hampered in its activities by a strike of its office employees' union. When USBE's contract with the Agency for International Development to pay handling fees for material sent to and obtained from foreign libraries was not renewed in the late fall, USBE made a drastic administrative change. It eliminated foreign libraries from its program entirely. In the past nine years USBE has placed in more than 1,800 foreign libraries a total of

2,487,251 books and journals at a cost of \$1.5 million. The special program, begun by USBE during 1962 at the request of the ARL Subcommittee on Latin America by which USBE offers to Farmington Plan libraries nonserial Latin American duplicates available from the Exchange and Gift Division of the Library of Congress, will be unaffected by the change. (USBE letter from Alice Dulany Ball, Executive Director, dated December 2, 1963.)

Area Acquisitions

The acquisition of library materials from areas which up until the end of World War II had been under-represented in American libraries now presents problems peculiar to sudden major undertakings. Philip J. McNiff (*College and Research Libraries*, July, 1963) points out that, "Foreign Area Studies and Their Effect on Library Development" have brought into focus the need for systematic long-range planning in area acquisitions, the need for its support in terms of space, money, and specially-trained personnel, and bibliographic control, as well as the lack of control or efficient book trade organizations.

A "Conference of African Procurement" was held in Washington, D.C. on November 18, 1963, by the Association of Research Libraries in cooperation with the Library of Congress to discuss ways of improving our procurement of African materials and methods of bibliographic control. The Conference was sponsored by a grant from the Council on Library Resources, Inc., and chaired by Louis Kaplan. There is no organized book trade in Africa, and, except for Nigeria, no national bibliography. The limited number of publications precludes an American dealer sending an agent through the countries periodically as is being done by Stechert-Hafner in Latin America. Extension of the Public Law 480 program cannot be requested, because no counterpart funds are available in African countries.

The Farmington Subcommittee on Africa, under the chairmanship of Jens Nyholm, has assigned regional responsibility for Africa to a group of American libraries. Of sixty American libraries who indicated an interest in African resources, thirty-four pledged \$30,000 a year for three years to support a collecting program. This sum is judged to be too high as well as too low, and no agreement on the number of publications originating in Africa (not including the Union of South Africa) was obtained. Since typed and mimeographed ephemeral material is being put out by individual governmental agencies without the help of a centralized agency, official publications now constitute approximately 75% of all titles published in Africa and would comprise 90% of the titles that would be selected as being of interest to research libraries. Because of the great demand for educated Africans, it would be difficult to staff local procurement centers with Africans. Tentative plans advanced by the Conference participants included the establishment of procurement centers in Africa to be supervised by Westerners until they become self-operative.

The Ford Foundation has under advisement an application for a grant which would be used for a conference in East Africa to discuss assignment of regional responsibilities for procurement and the establishing of several centers in tropical Africa. Gordon Williams, Chairman of an *ad hoc* committee, recommended the forming of a cooperative microfilming program to supply our present needs until the regional program can become operative. The microfilm program would be most useful for non-monographic material. It was suggested that American libraries which had accepted collecting responsibility for certain areas would also accept responsibility for periodically sending the African bibliographer in these libraries abroad to arrange for the procurement of materials for their collections. Also suggested was cooperation between the African Studies Association and the Association of Research Libraries on an organizational basis.⁹

The Pan American Union, Organization of American States, organized the Eighth Seminar on the Acquisition of Latin American Library Materials (SALALM) during which sixteen papers were presented, at the University of Wisconsin. The main topic concerned policies and practices of U. S. libraries in acquiring library materials from Brazil, with Marietta Daniels, Pan American Union, delivering a *Progress Report on the Seminars on the Acquisition of Latin American Library Materials: 1963*. While the difficulties in obtaining South American materials are well known and programs such as SALALM and LACAP (titles listed by Stechert-Hafner now number close to 20,000) tend to ease the situation somewhat within the limits imposed by existing conditions, other projects are proposed or under way which will increase their efficiency. Fifteen working papers were read. The papers covered existing "American Library Resources for Brazilian Studies" (William V. Jackson), "Significant Acquisitions of Latin American Material by U. S. Libraries (Dorothy Keller), "Acquisition of Research Materials from Brazil, and Their Selection: A Report and List of Exchange Sources" (Peter De La Garza), and the "Acquisition of Brazilian Official Publications" (Emma Montgomery) to cite a few; of interest also are the lists of Brazilian and U. S. institutions and of bibliographic tools. Other papers covered Brazilian, Caribbean-area and Chilean bibliographies. A union list of the official publications of certain Latin American countries was initiated by a pilot study undertaken by the University of Florida libraries. Colombia, Venezuela, and Brazil checking lists will be made available to libraries concerned with these countries. An *ad hoc* committee headed by William Kurth will study the problems involved in the pilot study. Another *ad hoc* committee, headed by Enid Boa will explore possibilities of creating a pilot center for bibliographic information for the Caribbean, on the basis of a 1961 study supported by the Council on Library Resources, Inc.

Six areas were discussed in papers presented at the Miami Beach Conference and published in the Winter 1963 issue of *LRTS*, covering acquisitions of library materials in non-Western areas. Methods and

sources for acquisitions were discussed for Latin America by Stanley West, for Southeast Asia by Felix Reichmann, for the Middle East by Philip McNiff, for China, Japan and Korea by Warren Tsuneishi, for East Europe by Dorothy Keller, and for Africa by Hans Panofsky. Panofsky's appended lists of "Bibliographic Aids in the Acquisition of Africana", of "African Booksellers", and of "Booksellers Outside Africa Dealing in Africana" lend themselves easily to Xeroxing.

Selection Studies and Aids

A much-needed tool was supplied by Philip J. McNiff who edited *A List of Book Dealers from Underdeveloped Countries*, for RTSD. Arranged by country, the 40-page booklet is sold by ALA for \$2. It is a list of booksellers dealing in library materials from the Far East, Latin America, the Middle East, the Slavic and East European area, South and South East Asia. Particularly helpful is the South and Central America area, the Caribbean Islands, and the small countries.

International Subscription Agents was published in December by a joint committee of the Serials and Acquisitions Sections of the ALA RTSD. It is available from ALA at \$2.75, contains 88 pages. (See the Serials report in this issue.)

SLA and its British Counterpart, the Association of Special Libraries and Information Bureaux (Aslib) have concluded an agreement in which each will be the sales agent for selected books published by the other. All prices will remain the same, but they have been converted into United States or English currency. A list of titles stocked by SLA may be had on request.

The Bowker Annual of Library and Book Trade Information, 1963, includes new sections on foreign antiquarian booksellers, and publishers' associations; a guide to national bibliographic centers; and basic books for librarians and the book trade, among other features. Mary C. Turner, Publishing Director of "Books in Print," announced a plan under study whereby publishers' discounts will be indicated in the next edition of BIP in the same way as in ABA's *Book Buyer's Handbook*.

Book selection is one side of the coin of which weeding the collection is the other. If done well, weeding is an expensive and difficult undertaking, as shown by the three year study-project concluded by Yale in 1963. *Yale's Selective Book Retirement Program*, by Lee Ash (1963, \$4.00) describes a controlled program of removing to a compact storage area little used materials. The Council of Library Resources, Inc., supported the study-project with a grant. The discussion of the bases for selection for storage are as applicable to acquisition policies. The faculty considers both the librarian's job. "The most satisfactory solution seems to be the addition to library staffs of subject bibliography specialists whose scholarship and cooperation with faculty will develop between the librarians and faculty a sense of mutual dependency and respect." (p. 12.) Chapter 5, "Analysis of Readers' Use of the Storage Collection," which shows that nearly 6,000 volumes (3 1/2 per cent) were asked for of the

approximately 180,000 in the storage collection, would take on even more significance if comparable figures were available for the regular collection. What would be the effect on readers' use if the whole collection were in storage?

The papers given at the Allerton Park Institute on "Selection and Acquisition Procedures in Medium Sized and Large Libraries," sponsored by the University of Illinois Graduate School of Library Science in November, 1962, are now available in print, edited by Herbert Goldhor, Associate Director of the School. Although the eleven papers cover a broad range of interests including book selection in public libraries and the highly-specialized aspects of "Research Reports in University and Research Libraries", the Institute papers give detailed insights into the handling of library materials and the formulation of policy governing acquisition activities which invite comparison and deserve study.

Fritz Machlup, one of America's foremost economists, has again concerned himself with a subject close to librarianship: *The Production and Distribution of Knowledge in the United States*. (Princeton, 1962.) According to a review of the book by Robert T. Jordan of the Council on Library Resources the author goes into the question of the interaction between educational and knowledge activities, capital investment, and growth in goods and services. No solution is found to the dilemma of which results in which, capital investment in the knowledge industry and increase in goods and services. The historical development of the theme results in a wealth of statistical information integrated from newly-available sources. Any library purchasing any books on research and development, computers, publishing or education will find the summaries invaluable bibliographic tools. (*SLA*, 54:535, October, 1963.)

In 1964 the first issue of *CHOICE: Books for College Libraries* will be published. The "New Shaw" is a monthly book selection tool which is geared to the needs of undergraduate and other libraries with annual book budgets of up to \$30,000. Selection by undergraduate faculty members will be made from 10,000 to 15,000 books of which 2,000 to 3,000 titles will be reported in the journal. Initial financing of the project will come from a \$150,000 grant by the Council on Library Resources, Inc., to the sponsoring agency, the Association of College and Research Libraries of ALA. After four years the journal is expected to be self-supporting. For the time being, only books in English will be reviewed. The editorial board is headed by the ACRL president, currently Neal R. Harlow; Richard K. Gardner, formerly Librarian of Marietta College, Marietta, Ohio, has been named Editor. Editorial offices have been donated by the Olin Library of Wesleyan University in Middletown, Connecticut. Subscriptions (\$20 a year, \$2 single copy) should be addressed to ALA Headquarters. Considering the burgeoning book market, limited budgets, and the ups and downs of faculty participation in book selection, this new acquisitions tool will make it possible to keep current in the basic output of the various disciplines.

Proliferation of national, subject, and area bibliographies, welcome

as it is, is too great to enumerate here. Perhaps a "State of the Art" survey could be made in that context. Perhaps it will suffice to list a few of the new tools which lead to others, bibliographies included. The International Organization Section of the Library of Congress, under the direction of Kathrine O. Murra, prepared *International Scientific Organizations: A Guide to Their Library, Documentation, and Information Services*, 1962, (794 pages.) The guide lists, among other information, current publications by and about the 449 scientific, technological, agricultural, and medical organizations listed. More than 3,100 bibliographical references are given, most of them with annotations. (GPO, \$3.25)¹⁰

Among the more significant bibliographic tools which were planned in 1963 is the proposed centralized Register of Master Microfilms to be established at the Library of Congress. As announced in the *LC Information Bulletin* for November 4, 1963, the list will depend on reporting by libraries on data sheets available from the Microfilm Clearing House, Union Catalog Division, Library of Congress. It is not clear at this writing whether the additional proposal mentioned to report holdings of library-use copies of positive microfilms, microcards, microprints, and other microforms is to be a part of the register, or whether reporting of complete holdings in these media is expected. The study which resulted in the proposed Register was made for ARL by Wesley Simonton on a grant from the Council of Library Resources, Inc. The project is an outgrowth of the Microfilm Clearing House maintained by the Union Catalog Division, and of the *Union List of Microfilms* published by the Philadelphia Bibliographical Center during 1951-61.

Copyright problems inherent in the advances of photoduplication continue on the way to resolution. Efforts in this direction are being made by Unesco who is planning a study to be made in conjunction with the United International Bureau for the Protection of Industrial, Literary and Artistic Property (Bureau of the Berne Union); the Council on Library Resources, Inc., has made a grant of \$700 to the Committee to Investigate Copyright Problems Affecting Communications in Science and Education in order to study the feasibility of setting up a clearing house which would serve publishers and authors by collecting royalty payments. In the meantime, ALA's Subcommittee on Copyright Law Revision, under the chairmanship of Charles Gosnell, offered an amendment to the Joint Libraries Committee on Fair Use in Photocopying (of which ALA is a member) to limit photocopying of single works by making a thorough search for a copy of the work through trade channels.

A list of current foreign newspapers being filmed by the Library of Congress, which is eventually to include 500 newspapers from 1962 on, appeared in the Appendix to the *LC Information Bulletin*, February 18, 1963, pp. 77-80. Positive copies may be purchased from LC. The bulk of the newspapers listed in Clarence S. Brigham's *History and Bibliography of American Newspapers 1690-1820* is being reproduced on microcards by the Micro-Research Corporation, 185 Salisbury Street, Worcester 9, Massachusetts. (*LC Information Bulletin*, May 13, 1963.)

The third edition of the *Handbook on the International Exchange of Publications* was announced in the July-August 1963 issue of *Unesco Bulletin for Libraries*. The Convention concerning the International Exchange of Publications and the Convention concerning the Exchange of Official Publications and government documents between states came into force in 1961, and have been ratified or accepted by, respectively, 15 and 16 members states so far.

Also continued will be work directed at compilations of national bibliographies. The United States was represented by Melvin Voigt on the International Advisory Committee on Bibliography, Documentation, and Terminology whose function it is to advise the Director-General on questions within its scope of interest to Unesco; work of interest to acquisitions librarians which will be carried out under contract with Unesco in 1963/64 on the advice of this Committee will include a preliminary study of the control and dissemination of information in microcopy of all types, and possibly a bibliography of bibliographies in this field; assistance will be given for the publication of a Malagasy national bibliography and an Indonesian retrospective bibliography.¹¹

International Trends in Cooperation

The 29th meeting of the International Federation of Library Associations (IFLA), held in Sofia, Bulgaria, from September 1-6, 1963, was the largest on record with a list of 158 delegates and observers. IFLA has rapidly developed into a world-wide organization representing 52 countries at this writing. Among the activities to be undertaken by its members as reported in the Appendix to the *LC Information Bulletin* (September 9, 1963) are the dividing of responsibilities for sections of the *Gesamtkatalog der Wiegendrucke* among libraries having incunabula collections, in order to help meet publication deadlines; a listing of uniform titles for anonymous classics in the principal literatures of the world by the Bibliothèque Nationale, (Dealers, please note!); and a comparative study of bibliographies and professional responsibilities to be carried out at the national level, to be based on the experience of the British Museum, the Lenin Library (Moscow), the Bibliothèque Nationale, and the Library of Congress by the National and University Libraries Section of IFLA.

While there is an agreement for cooperative acquisitions among the four great general research libraries in Sweden since 1955, it has been operative within the international scope of the Scandia Plan since 1959. Up until now the Scandia Plan has had some of the features of the Farmington Plan, but its distribution responsibilities seem much more esoteric. Planning to include special research libraries, such as technological, medical, agricultural, and parliamentary libraries, is under way. Distribution of purchasing responsibilities for periodicals is being developed, and a printed union catalog of foreign newspapers in Scandinavian libraries is to be published in the near future.¹²

Since 1949 the Deutsche Forschungsgemeinschaft (German Research

Association) in Bonn has had in operation a plan of assigning regional acquisitions responsibilities for foreign literature to selected libraries. The Research Association makes appropriations to the various libraries for purchases. In 1962 expenditures for the plan totalled DM 1,157,000 (\$289,400.41.) The trend in West Germany now is toward the establishment of central specialized libraries. The Technical Information Library in Hanover, the agricultural library in Bonn, and a library of medicine now under consideration are indicative of this trend.¹³

A study of *Resources of Canadian University Libraries for Research in the Humanities and Social Sciences: Report of a Survey for the National Conference of Canadian Universities and Colleges* was undertaken by Edwin E. Williams and published by the Conference. (1962) According to Marion Milczewski who reviewed the report for *Library Quarterly*, October, 1963, the report indicates strength only in Canadian subjects and medieval studies. Mr. Williams makes several recommendations, including better bibliographic control of Canadian library collections, cooperative purchasing and specialization, and further study of the kind he undertook.

Research

That more research is needed to build up the body of knowledge in library science is generally agreed. The historical approach, current practices, and projections for the future need our examination. A common methodology must underlie our investigations in order to achieve systematization.

Research topics in areas where more facts are needed were listed in an article by Frank Schick, John Frantz, and staff of the U. S. Office of Education, Library Services Branch (*Journal of Education for Librarianship*, 3:282. Spring, 1963.) "Library Science Research Needs" are not only of academic interest, although the list is an outgrowth of a project initiated by Robert Leigh in order to coordinate research in the various universities. In the article, research needs for technical services are broken down by type of library. Some of the suggested topics are in process of being investigated by ALA committees now. Perhaps a liaison could be established between library schools conducting original research and a coordinating committee of ALA to encourage needed research. Such a committee would fulfill the same function as the Committee on Research and Development of the University Libraries Section of the ACRL outlined below. It would sift, define, and reformulate research problems into proposals to be submitted to fund-granting sources for all types of libraries, and by its character lend authority to requests. Possible sources for funds to be contracted are the U.S. Office of Education, Library Services Branch, and the Council on Library Resources; indirect grants may come through the Library Services Act or by subcontracting with the Library Technology Project. Certain proposals may also be directed for study by the U.S. Office of Education.

Robert Muller's "Research Approach to University Library Problems"

makes valid assumptions and has application for all library research. He speaks against the local, isolated survey approach to common problems in favor of dispassionate rational analysis, systematic investigation, critical evaluation, comparative study, and controlled experimentation. He outlines a proposal by the Committee on Research and Development of the University Libraries Section of ACRL to encourage librarians to submit research proposals to the Committee immediately upon becoming aware of the lack of reliable knowledge the existence of which would have been helpful in the evaluation or determination of policy. The Committee will act as clearinghouse for the collection, sifting, re-formulation of defined problems, and communication of the needs of different university libraries to those who may be in a position to help fill the need.¹⁴

With the wealth of activities to choose from in the field of Acquisitions it is likely that some that should have been included were not. Lacunae may appear to the mind of the knowledgeable reader, because we have not stood still in 1963. Efforts tangential and essential to acquisitions have been made to cover larger areas, to effect more control in less time and with fewer people, to avoid higher costs and to standardize methods. In this remarkable upsurge of activity much that is worthwhile will have been missed, but it is hoped that the parts cited will stand for the whole.

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1963: The Little Year that Wasn't There

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IT REALLY WASN'T. Since 1962 what have we finished? Nothing, dear reader—well, practically nothing. And yet it has not been a do-nothing year.

Take Code Revision. The Committee met for two days before Midwinter 1963 and again for two days before the Chicago Conference. In addition, the Steering Committee met for two days in the spring and for another two days in the fall. These meetings are not junkets. Sumner Spalding, the Code's Editor, and Wyllis Wright, the Committee's Chairman, see to that. These men are slave drivers; before each meeting a manila envelope crammed with proposed rules brings homework to every committee member; and during the long hours of each day's meeting the Chairman keeps the Committee noses buried in these rules and the Committee tongues rattling about them.

The Chief problem of the year was how to state a rule which would leave under place many "institutions" (if the Censor of this publication will allow a dirty word). Such a rule would carry out the Miami Compromise of 1962. This Compromise, you may remember, was necessary because the Library of Congress and the Association of Research Libraries complained that they would be unable to pay the cost of changing the headings on cards already in their catalogs if the Committee followed the IFLA Paris Statement of 1961 which called for the entry of all corporate bodies directly under their names.

At Midwinter 1963 the Committee tried again and again to draft a general rule; but every attempt brought under place not only "institutions," but also a number of corporate bodies which for years have been directly entered under name. In the end, the Committee decided to say plainly that the "institutions" rule is an exception to the Paris Statement name-entry principle and to ask Mr. Spalding to draw up and bring in a specific list of kinds of corporate bodies to which this exception would apply. At Chicago in the Summer, Mr. Spalding did this; and the Library of Congress proposed an alternate version. The Committee then decided to postpone a decision until our other partner, the (British) Library Association, had a chance to prepare its own suggestion for such a rule.

Noel Sharp and Philip Escreet represented the (British) Library Association at both Midwinter and Summer meetings; and they had disagreed with all three "institutions" proposals. They felt that their Library Asso-

ciation would probably want to conform more consistently with the name-entry principle of the IFLA Paris Statement. So the chief problem of 1963 remains the chief problem for 1964.

Apart from "institutions," Mr. Spalding and the Committee worked out a full chapter on headings for personal authors.

Like most things planned by man, this Code job takes longer than we thought it would. So last summer the CCS Executive Committee changed the timetable. Mr. Spalding will now submit a completed draft at the St. Louis Conference in 1964 instead of at Midwinter 1964.

The Code will also include rules for description. During the year Bernice Field's CCS Descriptive Cataloging Committee and a (British) Library Association Committee under Mary Piggott have worked hard on this project. Description in the new Code will not be simply a rehash of the Green Book (LC-1949). Instead, Miss Field and her Committee have come to feel that the Library of Congress limited cataloging rules should, with some modifications, be extended to all publications except a very few items for which a library may think more elaborate description appropriate. The Committee published its proposals in *LRTS* Summer Issue and invited all catalogers to comment. Thus, after almost twenty years, we seem again to move toward the goals set in the *LC Studies of Descriptive Cataloging* (1946).

During the year there were at least two important publications dealing with code revision. In an article in the *Library Quarterly* (33(1963)172-191), Elizabeth Tate examined the relation of catalog entries prepared according to the Lubetzky draft of 1960 to the way in which books are cited in bibliographies and elsewhere. Broadly speaking, the study shows that a user equipped with such a bibliographical citation would have a better chance of finding his book easily under the Lubetzky entry than under the Red Book entry now used. This, of course, would apply also to the Paris Statement which, on the whole, closely reflects the Lubetzky draft. The other was Hugh Chaplin's *Report* of the IFLA Paris Conference on cataloging principles in 1961. The book includes the summary of proceedings, the Paris Statement, and the Working Papers. The ALA Publishing Department is handling distribution of the book in this country. *LRTS* will have a panel of reviews in the Summer issue.

Filing is related to codes for entry. The ALA Editorial Committee appointed a Subcommittee to work on a new edition of *ALA Rules for Filing Catalog Cards*. Pauline Seely is chairman and will serve as editor of the revised rules. In the *LRTS* Spring issue Miss Seely had a list of questions which the Subcommittee hoped would inspire comment and suggestions. In filing, as in a catalog code, we are all for simplicity; it is a virtue almost as universally admired as love of mother. But how do we win it?

The year also saw continued work on two other basic documents: the Library of Congress list of subject headings, 7th edition; and the Dewey Decimal Classification, 17th edition. Both are expected to go to the printer in 1964, with publication in 1965.

Dewey 17 will try to reduce the U.S.-Western bias by such devices as expansions, shifts of emphasis, and suggested alternatives to give prominence to subjects important in other cultures. The "form divisions" will be "standard divisions" with the miscellany of 08 grouped with that of 02, leaving 08 for collections only. Centered headings will be further distinguished by topographical devices. Geographical detail will be presented in an area table with numbers that may simply be added where needed instead of used as a basis for "division"—e.g., U.S. 73 instead of 973.

Rather disappointing is the fact that drastic plans for reconstructing the schedules of the Universal Decimal Classification have made academic the question of agreement between the two classifications. UDC, for instance, will re-locate language from 4 to 8, where it will be interspersed with literature, and re-locate certain sciences and technologies in 4.

The book catalog continues a very live issue. Robert Kingery and Maurice Tauber gathered into one handy volume, *Book Catalogs*, the articles which have appeared during the last few years. Many of these papers were originally inspired by David Weber's interdivisional book catalogs committee. This *ad hoc* committee has now been succeeded by an RTSD standing committee on book catalogs. Perhaps we shall most of us agree that a book catalog is more easy than cards to use if it is up to date, if there is only one alphabet, and if there are enough copies that we need not stand in line to get at it. The unanswered question is cost. The book may be cheaper than cards if the library needs many copies of its catalog. But most libraries have only one or a few card catalogs; will the book be cheaper for such libraries? Or shall we try to show that the book catalog is so much more useful than the card, that cost does not matter too much?

There may be implications in this, too, for code revision. In *LRTS*, Winter issue, Phyllis Richmond described a short-title catalog made with IBM tabulating equipment. (The paper is reprinted in Kingery-Tauber.) Here we return to the one-line-a-title entry of some nineteenth century printed catalogs: call number, author, brief title and date, standard abbreviations—it is a handy, compact finding list. Such a catalog, if widely used, might influence the form of headings and entry just as LC cards once did. Or the book catalog may free us from the dead hand of the past. Change the rules; begin a new catalog; print the old one! (See Ruth MacDonald's paper on "Recataloging" reprinted in Kingery-Tauber.)

Cost produced the Miami Compromise; cost looms in the future of the Book Catalog; cost shapes much that we write and say about cataloging. And yet, what do we really know about it? Exactly ten years ago Felix Reichmann in an elaborate and carefully documented study showed that it is almost impossible to set any standards of cost because of the rugged individualism of libraries: ". . . Libraries, like books are distinctive, . . . resemblances are coincidental only." Each catalog department adjusts its work to the peculiar needs of the rugged individualist library it serves (*Library Trends* 2(1953)290-317). In 1963 Mr. Reichmann found the situation little improved; what is needed is a study of standards of output.

Such a study, he warned, must avoid at least two pitfalls: (1) oversimplification, which might combine statistics from several libraries and then calculate statistical relations with the number of staff members or with the amount spent for library materials, and (2) bias with regard to budgetary applications. Standards should also take into consideration such variables in specific libraries as working conditions, machines available, final product desired; and, in the processed material itself, such things as language, publication date, subject, and so on. (*College and Research Libraries* 24(1963)200-201).

Also last year, Don Culbertson told of four recent studies producing a bewildering variety of conflicting cost statistics, and he urged that we need three things: (1) "some kind of standard method for making reports," (2) "a central agency . . . responsible for prodding librarians who do not turn in their statistics," and (3) "norms to which each librarian can compare his own performance,". A cure for sure for the rugged individualist! Only trouble: Who will bell the cat? And belled this cat must be, warns Mr. Culbertson, for "unless we get our costs under control . . . the whole library risks belonging to technical services" (*College and Research Libraries* 24(1963)487-489). This without any evidence to show that (1) most library costs are technical services costs or that (2) technical services costs can be reduced without affecting other library services. Nary a statistic—variable or standard. Could be we need another bell for another cat, daddy-O?

It was another year of co-existence with the Machine. We even have a Machine Folk Lore. Again we heard the folk tale of the Great Confrontation. Somewhere once upon a time (different versions give different places and times) Catalogers (all of us, I reckon) met the Men of the Machines. Asked the Catalogers: "What can you do?" Replied the Men of the Machines: "What do you want done?" And that was the end of that. Fault me not if it seems a curious end—that's the way the Tale ends. And again we heard the Tale of the Great Guilt. Once upon a time in the present and the near future Catalogers (all of us this time too, I reckon) lived in sin and pride. They refused to learn the language of the Men of the Machines. They even called it jargon. And so Catalogers brought us to the brink of a National Calamity. But the God of the Machine turned the wicked Catalogers into Dodos. And everybody else lived happily ever after.

And yet, there seem to be signs of a thaw in this cold war. In 1963 at the Chicago Graduate Library School the foes met and began to understand each other. In the Library of Congress a study of automation was completed and will be published early in 1964. The Book Catalog depends on the Machine; cards have long depended on the Machine. It was in 1963 that Verner Clapp, speaking of Medlars, announced that "the computer can now speak in the cultivated language of bibliography, and not merely, as hitherto, in a bibliographic pidgin-English" (Council on Library Resources: *Annual Report*, 11).

Librarians have welcomed the help of the Machine elsewhere in the

Library whenever it has proved itself. Catalogers, I venture to suggest, may be Librarians, too.

And so we struggle into this Brave New World. What will it be like? Sixty years ago Cutter welcomed the New Gadget of his day, Library of Congress Printed Cards: "I cannot help thinking that the golden age of cataloging is over, and that the difficulties and discussions which have furnished an innocent pleasure to so many will interest them no more. Another lost art. But it will be all the better for the pockets of the public, or rather it will be better for other parts of the service—the children's room and the information desk, perhaps" (*Rules for a Dictionary Catalog* (1904)5).

The "golden age" of cataloging was, indeed, over. But it did not end in the use of LC cards everywhere while catalogers were free to give more time to public service; there is no sure evidence that it was even "better for the pockets of the public." Instead, the golden age simply gave way to a silver age in which more and more catalogers busied themselves with ever more intricate rules for ever more elaborate cards to meet the needs of only the large research libraries which wanted such cards. Will the Machine and its perfecting lead us down this same narrow path?

Nineteen sixty-three was the year in which, tragically, we lost Lucille Duffy. Her long service to her profession and her friendship we shall not soon replace.

For the first time the Margaret Mann Citation went abroad, quite appropriately to Hugh Chaplin. For several years he has been a frequent visitor to our meetings on code revision, and he has always helped us solve our own problems even as he talked clearly and logically of the European point of view.

And that was 1963. A year of some frustrations, a year of a lot of work. A year we plodded. Onward and Upward. Slightly. We hope.

INDEXING SERVICES FOR LIBRARY SCIENCE

The Council on Library Resources, Inc., has made a grant of \$2,000 to the Library Association, of London, for a survey of major indexing and abstracting services for library science and documentation in the United Kingdom, Europe, and the United States.

The survey will be conducted by H. Allan Whatley, F.L.A., Lecturer at the Scottish School of Librarianship, Glasgow, and since 1951 Editor of *Library Science Abstracts*. He will survey the principal indexing and abstracting services devoted to library science and documentation; study the methods of compilation, production and circulation, and the use made of the indexing and abstracting services. The investigation is expected to result in recommendations regarding methods of production, especially of forms of cooperation between editors, and suggestions for improvement which may be helpful in bringing about greater effectiveness of the services in the various countries in which they are used.

Review of Copying Methods: 1963

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THE YEAR 1963 was not without commotion. It was the year which marked the first International Congress on Reprography, and in which micro-film developed "measles." It was a year which was marked by an increase in photocopying in lieu of loan, and which saw the number of titles available in one or other of the microforms increase by approximately 25%. It was a year, also, in which the microfilm industry set its sight on an annual volume of \$500 million by 1965 (estimated current annual volume, \$250 million).

While the photocopy field grew without showing major technological improvements, innovations in the microfilm field were numerous. If most of these technological advances passed the library by, it was because most of them were geared to the requirements of industry and pertained primarily to engineering-drawing storage on microfilm, and partly it was due to the fact that libraries do not use microfilm to the extent to which they should.

It was a year, also, which saw continuation of a trend toward bigger businesses in microfilm, a continuation of the trend which saw University Microfilms bought by the Xerox Company, Micro Photo of Cleveland purchased by Bell & Howell, Dynacolor Corporation purchased by the Minnesota Mining & Mfg. Co., Bruning Company added to Addressograph-Multigraph, and so on. This trend towards absorption of smaller companies, coupled with a tendency to eliminate the middle man in the distribution of products, a trend which has been evident in a number of industries, including that of photocopying and microfilming, may not, in the long run, be in the best interest of the consumer and the impact of these events will be felt in the library.

It is not always easy to judge whether or not a certain product has been officially introduced during the previous year. There are items which were announced, some with great fanfare, as long as four or five years ago; and, after their introduction, they turned out to be wanting and disappeared, to emerge occasionally like a swimmer coming up for air, air in this case being a government contract or similar support. Included in this review are items which were considered to have finally arrived, while other items, which were announced this past year are not included because they do not appear ready for delivery.

The review is not confined to materials specifically useable in the library now, but it is slanted towards library application of these products.

Photocopy

The Xerox Corporation added a new machine to its line, the "813 Copier," a small brother to the "914." It produces copies of the same quality, but only from unbound originals. Since its minimum monthly cost is one half that of the "914," it will reach into a greater number of areas, but in the library its use would be supplementary to the "914" rather than in place of it.

Smith Corona's Electrostatic Copier, Model 33, became available. This machine is one in a line of long-promised Electrofax copiers, machines which produce dry copies by an electrostatic system related to the Xerox process but substituting a sensitized paper for the intermediate drum of the Xerox process.

The essential difference between these two processes to the consumer at this time, is that the bulk of the cost in the Xerox process lies in the machine acquisition or rental, with a negligible expense for the paper, while the Electrofax process, since it takes a cheaper and simpler machine approach, renders the machine cost low while the paper, which is coated with a photoconductive material, is the primary expense factor. It seems likely that, since the zinc oxide coating on the Electrofax paper is inexpensive, Electrofax paper will be reduced in cost as soon as it is manufactured and sold on a larger scale. On the other hand, in any large scale copying endeavor such as that associated with the continuous Copyflo, it is doubtful whether the cost of the Electrofax process can ever be as low as that of the Xerox approach. With the actual marketing of Electrofax machinery, after many years of promise and no delivery, it will be interesting to watch future developments.

The Smith Corona machine is another loose leaf machine whose application is primarily to the business office.

A more important addition to the Electrofax line is the Dennison Copier. This is a machine destined to be in competition with the Xerox "914." It is capable of making copies from books as well as from unbound materials, since it exposes by an optical method rather than by a contact copy method, and it is capable of making a number of copies automatically by means of a dial (like the 914).

It is never wise to compare a newly-offered machine with a tried machine. The burden of showing itself to be equal or superior to the "914" is on the Dennison Copier. Physically, it compares to the "914" as a tall thin man does to a small fat one. It seems intended for stand-up operation rather than sit down operation, and a high stool is required for continuous operation by an operator. It uses a seven hundred foot roll of Electrofax paper. The paper stock in the Dennison Copier is a typical Electrofax paper with the advantages and disadvantages which this implies. The paper stock is coated, its surface is smooth, and the background does not quite have the starchy whiteness obtainable with the

"914" print. But the paper is capable, unlike its competitor, of reproducing photographs and pictures quite well. The back of the Dennison copy paper is shiny, and this is typical of many of the Electrofax papers which are used in so-called wet Electrofax systems. In the Dennison Copier (and also in the Smith Corona machine) the image toner is picked up by immersion of the exposed paper in a solution. There is, however, not the slightest trace of moisture on the copy as it emerges. There are slight differences in speed between the "914" and the Dennison Copier, but the main difference is in the economy of the two machines. The Dennison machine can be purchased outright for \$2,350, and the main cost factor is the paper. In its prospectus the Dennison machine claims that if the purchase price is amortized over five years compared to the rented "drum type" machine (meaning the "914," not the "813"), a saving of about 0.9¢ per copy is possible, provided production on the machine exceeds about 10,000 prints per month. The Dennison Copier bids well to be a strong competitor to the Xerox machine.

The past year saw an increase in the number of installations for the Docustat, a copy-vending machine. Copies are priced at \$.25 each. The copies are made on a silver paper, and the print is a negative one. There is a choice of two reproduction sizes, both of which are somewhat smaller than the original document. The prints are not permanent but should last for quite a time. Where the volume of copying is sufficient to justify a "914," the Docustat results in relatively-higher print cost to the consumer. An advantage of the Docustat is that it requires only a request for installation of the machine, which is then provided and serviced by a commercial company and requires no other attention providing the servicing is adequate. It is useable at all times when the library is open.

The Minnesota Mining & Mfg. Co. added a portable dry photocopy machine, the so-called model 58 to its line of "107" copiers. This is one in a series of dry copiers, called Dual Spectrum copiers, which the 3M company has provided of late and which, unlike the Thermofax, is able to copy originals with text of all colors. The machine is not quite as convenient for book copying as the standard dual spectrum printer, but it appears to have its application for personal, particularly "travel" use.

Microfilm Equipment

A number of recent articles, including the *LRTS* 1962 review of copying methods, made mention of the growing interest in the microfiche as a useable microform in the United States. The microfiche is an array of micro images, not in roll form, but on a sheet of film. In 1963 there continued to be an increase of this material, primarily produced by NASA and AEC, and it is certain that 1964 will see a much more substantial increase. To those of us who feel that sensible standards are the necessary foundation for the growth of a new form of this type, the microfiche developments of the past years have not been comforting. While it is obviously not in anyone's interest to force the microfiche into a straight-jacket, it was to be hoped that arbitrary ventures into different image

sizes, different image orientations, and different overall sheet sizes were going to be avoided.

Libraries are already faced with a number of variants of the microfiche, and after these had been introduced, a rather urgent call for a standard was heard last year, and the supervision of this particular standard was allocated to the National Microfilm Association. A special advisory body drawn from industry, the military, the government, and libraries was assembled. A standard has now been printed under the auspices of the National Microfilm Association, and it is to cover government microfiches only. There is some concern that the specifications of this standard are too strict to be met with available equipment. It is to be hoped that the American Standards Association will soon be in a position to review the government microfiche specifications and build on them for a generally-applicable microfiche standard.

There are a number of ways to produce microfiches. The photographic exposures can be made on a standard roll microfilm camera, with subsequent re-arrangement of sections of the roll film so as to produce a master for the preparation of distribution microfiches. An alternative is the preparation of the film by means of a so-called step and repeat camera, which produces a microfiche directly, either on a cut sheet of film, or on a wide ribbon of film which is subsequently cut into units each of which is a finished microfiche. To date there has been no altogether satisfactory step and repeat camera commercially available, and it is of interest, therefore, to read announcements of two new cameras of this type. The first is the Mikro Techniker offered by the Hirakawa Kogyosha Company, Ltd., of Japan. This is a camera which uses a 70 mm. film, and the camera is highly mechanized. It is capable of placing on the film, not only micro images reduced up to 20 times, but also slightly reduced captions to be read with the unaided eye. The camera has not been available in this country for testing. The roll 70 mm. film which it employs can be processed on standard 70 mm. continuous processors and, while this is convenient for processing, the resultant microfiche would be 70 mm. \times 125 mm. The three inch dimension of a 3" \times 5" fiche would, therefore, be reduced by about a quarter of an inch. The other camera was shown at the International Congress on Reprography in Germany and is called Camera Damier. It is intended to produce 3" \times 5" microfiche. The camera, which is described by those who have seen it as constructed like a Swiss watch, is highly mechanized. It produces a standard image reduction of 15 to 1 and is capable of butting the images closely together, regardless of the size of the original. If this facility is employed, it makes for economic utilization of the film; but whether the resultant, arbitrary image orientations on the fiche are a desirable feature is another question. No doubt the camera will become available in this country. A problem with the Camera Damier is that the 75 mm.-wide film (three inches) is not a standard width for available continuous processors, and special equipment would have to be installed.

Noteworthy as a systems component is the Argus produced Dial-a-Page

Reader which is offered by the National Reproductions Corporation of Detroit. In its present form, and this is possibly subject to further modification in additional models, the reader accepts $4'' \times 6''$ microfiches. It has two dials which move the fiche in two directions. Careful arrangement of the images on suitable microfiches will therefore make it possible to dial in a given page. This is of particular advantage if the array of micro-images is a decimal 10×10 arrangement with the pages numbered in sequence, page 23 would then be dialed by setting one dial on 20 and the other on 3.

Of great interest to libraries is the "K 40" Kalvar roll to roll printer. After a period of field testing, the K 40 roll to roll printer was marketed by Microdealers, Inc. The unit generates Kalvar microfilm copies by a dry processing method and produces a positive film from a negative original at speeds of up to 35 feet per minute. It is an extremely useful unit for library microfilm laboratories. The process does not require chemicals or water and is thus a self contained, complete system.

Of additional interest was the announcement that Kalvar Corporation had developed a film called Direct Image Film. This is a reversal film which produces from an original negative film, a copy *negative*. A brief comparison between the established Kalvar process and the new one may be of interest. Standard (positive) Kalvar film is simply exposed through a negative, and the portions on the Kalvar film which are light struck (through the clear areas of the negative) are subsequently processed by heat to yield a positive copy film. The Direct Image film undergoes a similar first step except that the light-struck sections of the film are not processed to produce an image but, instead, are treated so as to become invisible and desensitized. At this stage of processing, we have achieved a film which has an invisible and photographically-desensitized image of the text of the original negative film. It now remains only to expose and develop the film with an all-over exposure. Since the textual sections have been desensitized and cannot be developed to a visible image, only the background develops, and a film which has the same tonal values as the original negative is produced. Kalvar Company announced that marketing of a dual purpose printer, capable of producing either a positive or a negative film copy was imminent. The diverse applications of microfilm certainly suggest that such a dual purpose printer will have library applications.

The GAF Ozalid Microline roll film duplicator, a diazo roll film duplicator which copies 16 or 35 mm. microfilm and which has been shown on a number of occasions, was finally delivered in 1963. It is a machine which produces direct positive (negative copy from negative original) copy film. The machine takes advantage of the high resolution capability of diazo film.

Another diazo roll to roll printer is offered by the Micro Dupe Corporation; this machine is advertised as reproducing 8, 16 or 35 mm. microfilm at high resolution.

Early in 1963 the Xerox Corporation announced a new type of aper-

ture card and apparatus to make it. Like other aperture cards, this is of the "military D" type which means that out of a tab card it has a hole accommodating a piece of 35 mm. film approximately two inches in length. This has remained the only type of aperture card used to any extent, although other aperture sizes are available. The Xerox Corporation offers for rental or sale the new machinery needed to make the cards. The main unit takes a standard tab card, punches the hole, and puts a sheet of heat sensitive adhesive over the cut-out. The second machine punches a smaller rectangular hole into the adhesive sheet leaving only a small rim of the adhesive sheet protruding into the aperture. The third machine is a mounter which inserts the 35 mm. frame of film into the aperture and, by application of heat and pressure, joins film and card.

Two other pieces of equipment marketed last year show the growth of the aperture card field and also seem to bear witness to the fact that microfilm and computers can live happily together. IBM, which had previously been involved in only one major microfilm system and that for a special government purpose, marketed two machines. One is an aperture card reader, an excellent small reader with two different magnifications, outstanding appearance, and a good optical system.

The other unit which IBM marketed is their Micro Copier 1. This is a unit intended to duplicate aperture cards onto Kalvar film. IBM offers three types of copy-aperture cards. One is the so-called T 1 card, a tab card which contains (premounted) a frame of standard Kalvar microfilm. It is used for making a positive copy from a negative original film. The second IBM duplicard is called T 2, and this is intended to make a negative-appearing third generation duplicate card from a type T 1. IBM feels that copying from a second generation Kalvar film onto a third generation film requires copy material of slightly greater contrast for optimum results, and this is the reason for offering type T 2. Since the T 1 and T 2 cards have their respective frames of Kalvar film premounted with their emulsion side facing in opposite directions, the two types of card cannot be interchanged without departing from military specifications for image orientation in aperture cards.

A third duplicate card also offered by IBM contains diazo film, but, unlike the other cards, this one is not automatically processed in the printer and would require a separate diazo processing unit (not currently supplied by IBM). IBM has announced that some time in 1964 they will offer a Micro Copier (model #2) which is intended to produce the same type of duplicate aperture card, but in this case either from an original aperture card or from 35 mm. roll film.

Delivered along with the Micro Copier 1 is a small fixing unit. The Micro Copier manual states that this is to be used for fixing (the term normally used for the third stage of processing of Kalvar film is "clearing") of T 1 cards which are intended for further copying on to T 2 cards. The user of this equipment would, in my opinion, be well advised to use the fixing unit as a final step for all duplicate cards produced by this method,

since an element of instability can otherwise be present in the duplicate aperture card.

Towards the end of the year Recordak Corporation announced their new MRG camera. This is a large camera intended specifically for filming of engineering drawings. All of its features are designed with this one, primary purpose in mind, and it takes the place of the Recordak Model C camera. It is a great pity to see the current trend in Recordak cameras, from the library point of view. The small and the large Recordak planetary cameras, models C and D respectively, were highly applicable to the library, and are widely used. The D was first to go, and its place was taken by the MRD which, while in itself a good camera, is far less suitable for general library purposes than was its predecessor. The same has now happened to the model C. The MRG is not as useful for library work since it is strictly an engineering-drawing camera. This is not intended to detract from the value of the camera per se, but the library has lost another round.

The Filmsort 1000 camera mentioned in last year's copying review was marketed in 1963 as was the 1000 D, an improved model. The 1000 D Processor-Camera is a remarkable unit. If it is not primarily applicable to the library, this is because the library has had no use for the aperture card as yet, a state of affairs probably due to change in the foreseeable future. The 1000 D is too interesting to be dismissed with a casual look. It accepts originals up to 18×24 inches in size, or, alternatively, it takes four $8\frac{1}{2} \times 11$ pages which it can accommodate on its copyboard. Four pages laid out in this manner can be photographed with one exposure. Or, pages one and two can be photographed on the left side of the copy board, and the reverse sides of the two sheets can then be placed on the right side of the copy board and exposed in their turn. Either way, four images are photographed onto one frame of film premounted into a standard aperture card. The exposure time is approximately one second. The film is then developed for approximately four seconds, fixed in eight seconds, washed for twelve seconds, and dried in about 15 seconds. Add a few seconds for transport delays and you have a total cycle of 58 seconds from exposure to completely dried and finished film. The 3M company claims the film to be archival.

Remington Rand announced the marketing of an exposure control unit for rotary cameras, and it has been incorporated as an optional feature into two of their Film-A-Record cameras. This unit uses a photocell to read the reflection density of documents as they are fed into a rotary machine, and almost instantaneously alters the light setting to achieve uniform film density from frame to frame.

Recordak and Bell & Howell both announced new cameras capable of photographing computer or tab card printout on continuous, folded forms. The forms need not be separated for filming. Recordak's camera, the Rotomatic RR-1, microfilms the continuous forms at a rate of 183 feet per minute on to 16 mm. film. The camera can expose two films simultaneously and is capable of accepting interchangeable magazines. Bell &

Howell's continuous form camera is called the Tab Tronic 575 Recorder. The camera differs from the Recordak camera in a number of respects, and the prospective purchaser of such a unit should compare the two cameras for the best features for his application and for greatest economy.

In the area of reading devices the advent of the portable Microcard reader, the Micro 3 manufactured by the Microcard Corporation, is of note. A low cost, light weight and streamlined reader for microcards is highly desirable; this one sells for \$129.95. There is storage space inside the reader for a number of microcards. The magnification ratio is $19\times$. The clarity of the image on the screen and the user's comfort while reading leaves something to be desired. Nevertheless, this is a step in the right direction.

The Poly Repro International Company marketed the Polydex M 35 R reader-printer, an Electrofax reader-printer with an $18'' \times 24''$ screen and primarily intended for engineering drawings. The machine has an optional roll film attachment, but it is a less useful machine for library use, and roll film, than it is for aperture card purposes. The unit is of interest in that it is the first useful, low cost reader-printer using the Electrofax approach. In the interest of keeping the design economical, the company did not incorporate an automatic paper feed. The Electrofax paper is fed into the reader manually whenever a print is desired. The process of exposing and processing is automatic, and good prints are produced. One may look forward to a version of this machine built for 35 mm. roll film and $8\frac{1}{2} \times 11$ paper. Just prior to the time this article was written, Poly Repro's 16 mm. reader-printer, intended to be used with $8\frac{1}{2} \times 11$ paper was announced as available for orders.

Among the miscellaneous units which may or may not have some bearing on library copying, the Caps Jeffree enlarger is of interest. This is on ultra-violet, variable magnification enlarger which enlarges from microfilm at ratios from 6 to $16\times$ on to U. V. sensitive materials, such as diazo papers, Kalvar sheets, and others. The enlarger will have graphic arts and printing applications.

Just as the year 1963 bowed out, Recordak announced the availability of the Magnaprint reader-printer, a highly versatile unit. It will accept, either directly or with attachments, 16 and 35 mm. roll film, microfiche, aperture cards, and microfilm jackets. Optionally five different lenses may be obtained which result in magnification ratios from $11.8\times$ all the way to $38\times$. The unit uses roll photographic paper which is processed automatically in a single solution developer-fixer, a so-called monobath. The Magnaprint reader has a motorized drive and speed controls and looks like a good unit for library application. It is unfortunately still dependent on wet processing of the prints, and this entails changing the solutions after a certain number of prints have been processed, or after the chemicals have been in the machine for a week.

Libraries interested in photographic charging systems have either used the Regiscope Microfilm Charging Camera or have known of it. Recently the Regiscope Corporation announced the Regiscope Rapidex. This cam-

era, in addition to photographing book cards or identification cards, prints a little slip or card and presents it for use in the charging transaction. The printed slip can contain some fixed information, such as a date, and other data which may be changed intermittently, as well as numbers which are changed sequentially from one transaction to the next. This number is printed by the machine and presented to the user through a small slot in such a manner that the numbers are incorporated into the microfilm record.

A machine which will help to control the quality of microfilm is the recently marketed Hogan Rapid Scanning Microdensitometer. For many years the criterion for proper exposure has had to be a combination of good judgment on the part of the laboratory supervisor and an objective measurement of the density (degree of blackness) of the background of a microfilm image. The fine lines of the text itself have defied objective analysis in most laboratories, because microdensitometers capable of measuring the density of these lines have borne price tags of \$25,000 and up. It has been evident that an ability to measure the density of the line, and not merely that of the background of microfilm images was of value, not only for theoretical evaluation, but also for practical purposes. For the purposes of reproducing film and re-enlarging film to hard copy by means of Xerography, or silver processes, it is of much greater value to know the character of the lines than that of the background. The Hogan microdensitometer is a relatively inexpensive instrument compared to other microdensitometers. It will not do everything which the expensive instrument will do, but it is adequate for many applications in micro-photography. The readings taken by this microdensitometer are conveniently observed on an oscilloscope, and ultimately this type of instrument will change the nature of our standards and help to control quality.

Materials

Among new materials which were introduced in 1963, the Direct Image Film by Kalvar has already been discussed.

An outstanding new microfilm was marketed in the Kodak-produced AHU film, available in 35 and 16 mm. This film has better definition than any previously offered microfilm had. In addition, it has other technical characteristics which are of value in certain applications, but these are too characteristic to merit discussion here.

Bell & Howell announced a new type of microfilm with some altered characteristics but not of major interest in library applications. GAF (Anso) brought out a new microfilm after a number of years of absence from this field. It is a film of good resolution, and it is different in a number of characteristics from the microfilms of other manufacturers. Whether these characteristics are advantageous or disadvantageous will be a matter of individual judgment.

Microfilm Systems

We find the most noteworthy new equipment of 1963 in the area of

microfilm retrieval systems. The Miracode, introduced by the Recordak Corporation and based on the Lodestar System, is a microfilm retrieval system. It combines microfilm images on 16 mm. roll microfilm with binary code information, so that the user is enabled to retrieve these documents either by address (document number), or, if the material is detail-indexed, by searching for the material on the basis of descriptors.

Over the last few years quite a number of systems of this nature have been developed, and many more are in a state of partial development. If most of these have left the library rather unmoved, it is because most libraries consider, not primarily the use cost of mechanized equipment, but have rarely been in a position to invest considerable sums in automation equipment, even where this could be shown to be a reasonable capital outlay with ultimate savings. Most of the systems available to date required capital investments upward of \$100,000, and in some cases running to several millions. The Miracode requires a capital investment of only \$25,000. This is not too bad a shock and certainly within the reach of many a library. Of course, the major cost of any retrieval system based on descriptors and subject search is the indexing. Even if Miracode is used simply for retrieval of numbered items filed in random order, the investment will in time prove worthwhile in many a library application. The equipment consists of a camera which is adequate. It is basically the MRD camera which, as I have previously mentioned in this article, is not ideal for library material, with incorporated facilities to enhance the images with a machine-readable code. It also consists of a storage rack for Lodestar magazines and of a Lodestar reader modified to read the binary code and capable of producing prints from the 16 mm. film. If more than simple "and" logic is required in a subject search, the system will be somewhat more expensive, but overall the equipment is a major price breakthrough.

Undoubtedly we will also hear more of the Radir System. This system, designed by the Hallicrafters Co., is in some features similar to the Miracode and yet, in other ways, it is vastly different. It is based on 35 mm. instead of 16 mm. film. The minimum capital outlay is \$35,000, and this does not include all components which I would consider necessary in such a system. The most essential difference between Miracode and Radir is that, while Miracode carries all coded information interspaced with the actual documentary information on one film, the Radir system separates the descriptors, in coded form, and puts them on one film called the Index film, with a location number to the document; and it puts the documents on a separate Document film accompanied only by the location number. On the one hand, this means that you must search for the document on one film and then switch to another, a two-step operation; on the other hand there are considerable advantages, frequently, in being able to search through the index film while some one else is consulting the actual document film. The separation of the store of information on the one hand and descriptive data on the other can also increase retrieval speed. Obviously it would depend very much on the nature of the materials

stored and the complexity of the logic needed to index and retrieve it as to whether the Hallicrafters system or the Miracode system is the most applicable. At the output end, although both systems use readers, the Recordak system uses a reader-printer while the Radir systems uses a reader which duplicates, not onto enlarged copy, but onto another piece of microfilm. This film, which happens to be Kalvar film (negative, in this case) can then be put on a reader-printer such as the Xerox 1824, the Polydex, or a similar unit. It would appear that the Radir system has merit but could be improved in one or two aspects. It is an interesting system, also, in that the index film is prepared directly from a keyboard onto Kalvar film. A number is depressed on the keyboard, and the machine immediately exposes the corresponding binary code pattern onto Kalvar film which is automatically processed. This is an intelligent utilization of the immediacy of Kalvar film, and its ability to accept and process images within a small confined area on the film.

A further system, sponsored by the Council on Library Resources through the Library Technology Project, is the M.I.T. Finder-Reader System. This was a feasibility study, which attempted to show that roll film can be inexpensively enhanced with index captions, readable in the form of normal words and numerals, which may be observed on the screen while the film is in motion. The M.I.T. Finder-Reader makes this possible. When the roll of film is advanced, either manually or by means of a motorized drive, index captions come and go on the screen; and when the desired caption is found, the user stops the film advance and the text appears on the screen. The M.I.T. Finder-Reader is not yet a commercial system. It is an inexpensive means of adding a retrieval method to a roll of film, and the reader should not substantially exceed the cost of standard readers. It is to be hoped that applications for this approach will soon be found. The technical problems have been solved, and the model which was produced worked even better than people involved in the project had hoped for.

A new machine, which was announced by Microdealers, Inc., is a systems component rather than a complete system, and is called the Randomatic. This machine is a mechanized card tray which may be built for tab cards or cards of practically any description or size, with automated retrieval facilities employing a keyboard. It seems particularly suited to the storage of micro-opaques or microfiche which are retrieved instantaneously by number. Microfilm jackets and aperture cards can also be retrieved by this means. It would seem that the Randomatic would also have a good application in certain types of book circulation system.

Miscellaneous

It would not do to close the annual review of copying methods without praising the Council on Library Resources for its research in this as well as other areas. While the Council has been of immediate help in a number of areas in the library field, it has initiated projects and research which will have highly-beneficial consequences in the years to come. In the past

year the Council has described a book cradle-page turner, which was developed under its guidance, and which is currently in the New York Public Library for experimentation as a microfilming aid. Apparently it is not yet trouble-free, but it is hoped that it will be the basis for a future accessory unit in filming operations. The last Council on Library Resources report makes mention of an experimental camera which produces microcopies without need for separate film processing. The camera uses an adapted Polaroid method, and the company developing the unit is the Photogrammetry Co. The report also discusses further the Council's attempt of some years standing to produce an inexpensive, personal viewing device for microcopies, and it describes the many approaches and attempts and the reasons for the general failure to produce an altogether adequate viewer. Despite the note of pessimism which creeps into the final comments, the accumulated data will be of value. Another area of interest is the Council's attempt to use fiber optics for copying of selected items from a page (a few lines of text or a paragraph) from a book or journal.

The Library Technology Project's sponsorship of William Hawken's investigations into the state of micro-equipment is of great help. The most recent publications are *Enlarged Prints from Library Microforms*, and the first of continuing supplements to keep up to date his *Photocopying from Bound Volumes*. This supplement describes the Docustat book copier and the 3M "107" book copiers.

Enlarged Prints describes those reader-printer processes which are suitable for the library; and supplements to it are now in order, also. In the book, the author describes, with care and fine objectivity, a great number of devices, all of them, it would appear, inadequate for the library. We may look forward with interest to his report on *The State of the Art of the Microfiche*.

The Council has also supported an investigation which is bound to be most important for the library, and this is the utilization of Micro-Xerography, the production of micro images directly from the hard copy onto either opaque or a transparent base by means of Xerography. This is another instance where lengthy processing techniques will be eliminated. Experimentation so far has been encouraging.

In October of this past year, the First International Congress on Reprography took place. Reprography is a word which is increasingly used for all methods of reproduction, photocopying, microfilming, etc. The author was unable to attend the Congress, but has listened with care to reports from a number of sources and concludes that the sum total of opinions damns the meeting with faint praise. While there were many exhibits, the Congress apparently displayed few worthwhile innovations, and the quality of the papers varied from excellent to poor.

Apparently the organization of the Congress also left much to be desired. Inadequate, simultaneous translation helped to confuse otherwise good papers; continuous meetings without luncheon break, and absence of a message centre, were matters causing criticism. It is to be hoped that

the Second Congress will be organized more efficiently. Of the items exhibited, there were a few of interest. Among them, the French microfiche camera previously described in this article, and a number of Electrofax machines. Ozalid, Ltd., of England displayed its Electrofax copy machine which accepts loose sheets only. F. K. Gruen Companies' Fotoclark, another single sheet copier, is able to produce copies of different sizes. More interesting was the Kalle Companies' Elfostat, a good name for a very large opaque electrostatic reproducer, comparable by virtue of application to the Copyflo, Opaque Model. The Elfostat, which uses the Electrofax method, is capable of 1000 pages per hour. It apparently accepts sheets only and puts out a roll of copies of good quality.

The Model T microfilm reader exhibited by the Fuji Company impressed a number of visitors to the Congress; it is equipped with variable magnification, 11X, 16X, 23X, and 30X, and has separating glass flats.

An event of note to take place in 1964 will be the publication of Carl Nelson's book on *Microfilming of Engineering Drawings*. It is a superbly thorough study in one particular area of microphotography. The book should be mandatory reading, not only for those involved in engineering drawing applications, but for anyone who has anything to do with microphotography. Microfilm theory is also included in this book, and it merits detailed study.

In the area of standardization of microfilm the awaited "Microfilm Norms," successor to the "Guide to Microfilming Practices" which was to appear in 1963, has not yet been published. The author of this article, who is Chairman of the Library Standards for Microfilm Committee of the American Library Association, was unable to complete the standard during the past year, but its appearance in 1964 is a definite promise.

"Microfilm Norms" is intended to be a guide as to what constitutes good microfilm for libraries, and the Committee intended to lean heavily on existing, good practice. In its deliberations, the Committee found, however, that not only was a good deal of the practice obsolete or downright bad, but if all current practices were to be preserved, standardization would not be possible. A considerable number of decisions, therefore, had to be made with respect to resolution, image reductions, image orientation, etc. It is hoped that the judgments made in the production of the document, and the compromises which had to be made, will result in a helpful guide in the area of library microfilm. If the document has been discussed here at all, somewhat in advance of its publication, then it is for the purpose of a plea to librarians to study the document carefully, after it appears, and to consider the many advantages which standardization of microfilm holds for libraries and to support its specifications.

In the opening paragraph of this article there is mention of microfilm "measles." It is not a subject which would require comment in such a general review were it not for some incorrect comments which have been circulated pertaining to a minor problem. A number of films stored from one or two years to twenty-five years were discovered to have developed some red spots, subsequently termed "measles." Even where such spots

occurred, impairment of legibility was almost nil. The spots have been thoroughly investigated, since even if damage to film was found to be negligible, the potential damage had to be appraised. For the most part, the measles appeared in the image-free leader of the films involved. A thorough discussion of these spots appeared in *Photographic Science and Engineering*, September-October 1963. The article was written by Henn and Wiest of the Eastman Kodak Company and describes the examination of much microfilm and a subsequent analysis of the spots. The article is too technical to be abstracted here, but it is recommended to those particularly interested. Suffice it to say that, at this time, observed ill effects from these spots have been minor. While steps should be taken to find means to avoid them altogether, it is of interest to note that where they are present, re-enlargement of the film is rarely affected. Methods for retarding the development of such spots and their complete avoidance by special processing techniques have been found. It is a question, however, whether these methods are not more cumbersome than toleration of the spots. The problem is under close scrutiny by several manufacturers and the National Bureau of Standards. While there is need for observation of this problem there is not the slightest cause for serious worry.

Nineteen sixty-four will be a year which will be marked by the introduction of better reader-printers suitable for library use. It is a year which will probably witness some experimentation with microfilm retrieval systems in libraries, and there should be further and interesting developments in new photographic materials.

ALA CATALOG CODE REVISION AT MIDWINTER 1964

The ALA-CCS Catalog Code Revision Committee (Chairman, Wyllis Wright) met in Chicago for two days preceding the ALA Midwinter meeting. The Committee considered the latest drafts of Chapter I ("Choice of Entry") and Chapter II ("Names of Persons"). Also the Committee accepted "as an approved exception" the Library of Congress proposal for entry of most local "institutions" under place. Noel Sharp, Philip Escreet, and Mary Piggott represented the (British) Library Association at the meetings.

The ALA-CCS Descriptive Cataloging Committee (Chairman, F. Bernice Field) met in Chicago for two days following the ALA Midwinter meeting to discuss draft revisions of Chapters 3 ("Separately Published Monographs") and 5 ("Supplements, Indexes, etc.") of the *LC Rules for Descriptive Cataloging*. Miss Piggott, Chairman of the (British) Library Association's Descriptive Cataloging Sub-Committee, was present to explain the British point of view.

Changes approved will result in the simplification or clarification of the sections on imprint, collation, and notes in Chapter 3; and editorial changes were made throughout the chapter. A revised Chapter 5 was also approved. The Committee plans to complete its work on the descriptive cataloging rules in time for publication with the rules for entry in the revised catalog code.

The Year's Work in Serials: 1963

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ABSTRACT TO ZEITSCHRIFT, serial publications continued to demand large portions of each library's budget and effort in 1963. This article attempts to describe the profession's advances in acquiring and controlling serials during the year as well as to mention developments relating to government documents and the preservation of library materials.

Union Lists

The compilation of the third edition of the *Union List of Serials* was completed in 1963, and ALA's representative to the Joint Committee on the Union List of Serials, Bernice Field, reports that the ULS "was shipped to London last June, where it is now being photographed preparatory to binding. Edna Brown Titus, Editor, is in London proof-reading and editing the work as it is completed. The work will contain approximately 5,212 pages and will be issued in five volumes. It is expected that it will be ready for distribution in the spring of 1965. The H. W. Wilson Company will handle the distribution."

This was a signal year for the publication of regional union lists. Many of them are noted below, but this list represents only some of those which saw publication and national distribution. The cooperation among regional or mutual-interest libraries to make their serial resources available to each other is growing and the resulting lists are frequently never published or are made for limited distribution only. Examples of this cooperation are *The Houston List* and the unpublished list of serials in Grand Rapids libraries.

The Science-Technology group of the Boston Chapter, Special Libraries Association, published the fourth edition of its *Union List of Serial Holdings* in 1963. The list is a compilation of approximately 2,200 journals available in the 41 contributing libraries. Similarly, the Minnesota Chapter of the Special Libraries Association produced for publication a *Union List of Serials* covering the complete periodical holdings of 21 cooperating special libraries in the Minnesota area and listing approximately 3,500 titles of domestic and foreign publications. Southern California contributed to this growing list of lists when its Chapter of Special Libraries issued the fourth revised and enlarged edition of the *Union List of Periodicals in Libraries in Southern California*, covering

holdings of over 16,000 titles in 113 libraries in the greater Los Angeles area. The Maryland Chapter of the ALA Reference Services Division continued the publication of parts of a *Union List of Serials in Maryland*, begun last year and recording the holdings of 120 libraries in the state.

Rarely-Held Scientific Serials in the Midwest Inter-Library Center was published by the Center with the support of the National Science Foundation. It lists 2,500 periodicals that MILC has been acquiring since 1956. The titles listed represent periodicals cited in *Chemical Abstracts* and *Biological Abstracts* which were not already held by member libraries. The Hoover Institution published *A Checklist of Serials for African Studies* based upon holdings of the libraries of the Hoover Institution and Stanford University. In over 1400 listings, this checklist brings to light many titles held by no other library in the United States. It takes as its model the earlier *Serials for African Studies* compiled by Helen Conover and issued by the Library of Congress in 1961.

Outside the United States, three major union lists are noted. The monumental second edition of the Argentine union list of serials, *Catálogo Colectivo de Publicaciones Periódicas Existentes en Bibliotecas Científicas y Técnicas Argentinas*, edited by Ernesto G. Gietz, appeared late in 1962. Altogether more than 25,100 titles are located in Argentine libraries, of which about 4,100 represent Argentine publications. *Svodnyi Katalog Inostrannykh Zhurnalov Postupivskikh v Biblioteki SSSR*, a union list of foreign scientific periodicals issued in 1960 and located in 183 research libraries in the U.S.S.R., appeared this year. Similarly, the Netherlands University Press published volume one of the *Union List of Russian Scientific and Technical Periodicals Available in European Libraries* covering holdings in the Netherlands and edited by W. C. Smit and others.

Two prospective lists are of interest to librarians. In the Philadelphia area, the publication of a union list of serials has been arranged by the Philadelphia Chapter of the Special Libraries Association. The Literature Service Associates of Bound Brook, New Jersey, will distribute the list. In New York the Medical Library Center received a grant to conclude work on a union catalog of medical periodicals. The project is expected to reach completion by September, 1964.

Late in the year the Library of Congress announced, in cooperation with the Association of Research Libraries, the establishment of a centralized register of all master negatives of microfilms, a list which will be of major importance in the selection of serials. This is an extension of LC's Microfilm Clearing House and of the Philadelphia Bibliographical Center's *Union List of Microfilms*, and it is hoped the new register may be published eventually. Reference service will be provided by LC's Union Catalog Division.¹

Serials Reprints

This was a boom year for the reprinting of serial publications, with

each of the reprint houses announcing, almost weekly, new and valuable republication of important serials. Citing them would produce a major bibliographic tool here, and the reader can only be referred to the catalogs of the major serial dealers for listings of the titles and volumes available for purchase.

One reprint was announced late in 1963 which is good news to many reference and serials librarians, especially those in newer or rapidly-expanding academic and research libraries. This is the reprint of the *New York Times Annual Index* by the R. R. Bowker Company which will be begun early in 1964. The work will begin with the years 1930 to 1961 and ultimately go back to the paper's founding in 1851, making available previously un-indexed portions of the *New York Times*.

Indexes and Bibliographies

The major abstracting and indexing services, serials themselves and largely analyzing serials, also continued their burgeoning growth. That epitome of all of them, *Chemical Abstracts*, once again took the spotlight by changing its decennial index to a quinquennial publication. This *Sixth Collective Index* covers the period 1957 to 1961 and volumes 51 through 55 of the abstracts.

A Guide to the World's Abstracting and Indexing Services in Science and Technology, prepared by LC's Science and Technology Division, was published by the National Federation of Science Abstracting and Indexing Services, with both the preparation and the publication supported by grants from the National Science Foundation. The list comprises 1,855 titles originating in 50 countries and is meant to serve as a guide in searching the literature of science and technology. Nikolay T. Zikeev of LC's Science and Technology Division prepared *Scientific and Technical Serial Publication of the Soviet Union 1945-1960*. It is designed to provide an extensive listing of Soviet scientific and technical periodicals for the period, and it includes 5,091 serials, a keyword index of institutions, and a guide to the subject content. It also provides information about Soviet institutions and their locations.

Late in the year, *The Library Journal* announced that, beginning in January, 1964, it will provide an updating service for *Ulrich's Periodicals Directory*. Between editions of Ulrich's, lists of new periodicals in various subject areas, gathered by the *Directory* staff, will be published in *LJ*'s "New Periodicals" column, which will also continue to include reviews of some new periodicals of general interest.

A publication of late 1962 not previously cited here is the *Guide to Current British Periodicals* edited by Mary Toase for the Library Association, London. It gives descriptive information about 3,800 titles published in England, Scotland, Wales, Northern Ireland, and the Channel Islands and should be a useful acquisition as well as reference tool. The first cumulated volume of the new *British Technology Index* appeared in Midsummer. It cumulates current parts of the index which appeared month by month in 1962, arranging under subject headings

in an alphabetical sequence entries relating to technical articles in 400 British journals.

The list of review periodicals indexed by the *Book Review Digest* was changed by vote of its subscribers, the familiar but possibly deceptive plus and minus signs were dropped, and new standards for inclusion of reviews were established. The study leading to these changes was made by the Reference Services Division's Committee on Wilson Indexes. An index anniversary of note occurs this year. With the publication of Volume 49, in December, 1963, of its annual cumulated bulletin, *Public Affairs Information Service* will have entered its fiftieth year. This non-profit index is issued as a cooperative venture by librarians through its offices at the Economics Division of the New York Public Library.

Other Serial Activities

Prices of current serials did not decline in 1963! The ever-useful cost indexes for U. S. periodicals and serials appeared again this year, product of the work of the Acquisitions Section Committee on Cost of Library Materials Indexes.² Helen Welch's article, "Cost of Library Materials" in *Library Trends*³ can also be used to assist the librarian in support of his ever-increasing budget for serials.

Two major Council of Library Resources grants of money were made this year to further work already begun on the organization of serial records in libraries. The first was to the University of California Library, San Diego, for research in computerization of periodical records. The second was to the University of Illinois Undergraduate Division at Chicago for research in data processing. The activities and plans of both of these libraries have been reported and may well be corner stones in the control of serials and the information in them.^{4, 5}

The Board of Review of the American Standards Association approved a new American Standard for the Abbreviation of Periodical Titles on November 21. The new standard is largely the work of a Z-39 Subcommittee chaired by James Wood, librarian at *Chemical Abstracts*. It may in time replace the present international standard for periodical title abbreviations, ISO-4.

The New York Public Library Science and Technology Division released a preliminary report on, and list of, the 100 most-used scientific and technical periodicals. It is interesting to note that these 100 titles accounted for 47.8 per cent of the year's use of some 3,500 total periodical titles in pure and applied sciences, and the top 13 titles accounted for about one half of the use of the top 100.⁶

In December ALA published a list of international subscription agents, a comprehensive listing of nearly 200 agents who supply foreign serials. This is much more than an address list; it includes a notation of the types of publications each dealer can supply, the nature and extent of his service, and his pricing and billing policies. This publication is the result of several years of dedicated effort by a joint committee of RTSD's Acquisitions and Serials sections. It will be a valuable tool for academic

and research library serial acquisitions, and it should be of special interest to all libraries venturing into area studies programs.

In a similar vein, *A List of Book Dealers in Underdeveloped Countries*, compiled by Philip J. McNiff for the Acquisitions Policy and Research Committee and published by ALA, will assist serials librarians seeking names and addresses of dealers in what seemed to many of us remote corners of the earth only a few years ago.

A basic document for all new serials librarians, and recommended reading for older ones, reappeared in a revised edition this year, "The Literature of Serials" by Robert R. Holmes. This is part of the useful *The Literature of Library Technical Services* prepared by RTSD's Publications Committee and published as Number 58, Revised, *University of Illinois Occasional Papers*.

The United States Book Exchange altered the character of its operation in December, 1963, when the Agency for International Development postponed its decision on whether or not to renew its contract with USBE. The contract provided for the payment of handling fees for foreign libraries. USBE has become an entirely-cooperative and self-supporting exchange clearing house for the 1,078 libraries which pay handling fees to underwrite their share of the operating costs.

Binding and Documents

Activities related to the binding of library materials did not appear to be in the forefront during 1963, but this appearance was deceptive. W. J. Barrow, at his laboratory in Richmond, Virginia, continued his testing of binding in Phase II of the Project to Establish Performance Standards for Library Binding, further developing testing devices to simulate normal wear, and testing bindings under an extensive program involving the cooperation of many libraries. This project is financed by the Council on Library Resources and administered by the Library Technology Project. Details of this testing are reported in *Permanence/Durability of the Book*, a report of the Barrow laboratory which also includes reports of two other major projects of interest to librarians concerned with the preservation of materials: de-acidification of a book by spraying and the stability of polyvinyl acetate adhesives.

In the Spring of 1963, more than seventy-five additional libraries had been designated depositories for U. S. Government Documents under the new depository library law which was signed in August of 1962. At the end of 1963, many new depositories had not yet received publications, because congressional appropriations to accomodate them in the Government Printing Office's budget had not yet been made; and the distribution of non-GPO publications was not extended by the GPO for the same reason.

The State of the Binding Art, papers presented at the ALA Library Binding Workshop in Miami, 1962, was published by the ALA-LTP. And the Library Binding Institute issued its *Library Binding Handbook*, a work largely concerned with the LBI standards.

A very useful new guide for documents appeared in 1963. This is Andriot's *Guide to U. S. Government Serials & Periodicals*. Volume 1, the only volume to appear to date, covers all current serials and periodicals published by agencies in the Washington, D. C., area. Releases and other ephemeral material will be included in volume 2 of the series, while all of the publications of agencies outside the Washington area will appear in volume 3. The series will be kept up-to-date by frequent revisions.

This article can only touch the surface of serials activities for the year. The Library of Congress Serial Record Division recorded an awesome 1,693,276 serial issues in its last fiscal year, and libraries all over the country were beset by similar, if proportionately smaller, statistics. New titles, obscure titles, expensive and remote titles overwhelm acquisitions, catalog, and reference librarians and demand more interlibrary cooperation, more support for the investigation of the bibliographic and operational control of serials, and more effective reporting of the successes and failures of librarians in their attempts to get the right serial to the right person when he requires it.

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PUBLISHERS' LIBRARY BINDINGS

More than 8,000 books available in special publishers' library bindings are listed in the new, second edition of *Publishers' Library Bindings in Print*, issued by the R. R. Bowker Company at \$3 per copy. The books of 74 publishers are included in this revision, indexed by author and title with full information on publisher, price, and grade level.

An introduction outlines the methods and materials used in producing "publishers' library bindings" and a special section (reprinted from the *School Library Journal*) provides basic background information on the way books are bound, pre-bound, and re-bound.

A Cataloging Aptitude Test; or, Do You Really Know the Difference Between an Entry and an Imprint?

LENORE S. GRIBBIN
Chapel Hill, North Carolina

NOW THAT YOU HAVE COMPLETED a few courses in library school, including one in cataloging, you are probably wondering: should I or shouldn't I (go into cataloging, that is)? Sometimes the answer is so obvious you need not ruminate further. If, for example, your coordination is too poor to get the tray rod through all those little holes, you'd better go into administration. Or, if, at your tender years, you already show a marked tendency toward alopecia, consider another specialization—you can't afford to tear out your hair over details. On the other hand, some affinity for cataloging may be noted early in life, as in the case of a child who enjoys counting the beans in his bean bag, or grouping his yellow, red, green, and black gum drops.

Aside from obvious indications, the following questions are presented to help predict your success in this specialized field. You have a choice of three answers to each question. (Did you really think there could be only one correct answer to a cataloging problem?) Select the answer which most closely describes what you would do.

1. You have a book by John Smith. You need to establish your entry. In the catalog you find five other John Smith's—one born in 1817, one who died in 1900, one plain, one from Screeching Halt, Minn., and one designated as "astronomer". How do you handle your entry?
 - (1) Write John Smith to get his middle name or date of birth.
 - (2) Pretend your John Smith is one of those already in the catalog.
 - (3) Put it on the desk of the cataloger in front of you when she is away. Let her worry about it.
2. Your book gives no place of publication; however, you know that the author's residence is in New York, the printer in Chicago, and the bookseller in London. What do you use in your imprint?
 - (1) Heads, New York. Tails, Chicago. London if it stands on the rim.
 - (2) Scour the bibliographic sources for three hours. Then tails, Chicago, heads, New York, etc.
 - (3) Use n.p. and don't forget the brackets.
3. You are holding volume 2 of a set. According to four excellent bibliographic sources, volume 1 was the only volume ever published. How do you treat your volume?
 - (1) Prepare a card for the set, giving both vol. 1 and vol. 2 in contents.

- (2) Ignore vol. 1 and catalog the set as if only vol. 2 had been published.
- (3) Throw away your vol. 2. You have found sufficient evidence that it doesn't exist.
4. A husband and wife write singly and jointly under the same pseudonym. Their real names are unknown. How do you enter his, her, and their titles?
- (1) Under pseudonym regardless of authorship.
- (2) Under title.
- (3) Establish practice of community property cataloging.
5. John Henry Methuselah published his first book in 1868 at the age of 48. Seven years later he published a second book. Nine years later a revised edition of his first book. Six years later another revised edition of his first book was combined with a revision of his second book. Ten years later a condensation combining the two titles appeared. Twelve years later a new title was based on the expanded abridgement of the two previous books. What is your main problem?
- (1) To give a clear picture of the bibliographic relationships.
- (2) To establish Methuselah's dates.
- (3) Your problem is nothing compared to Methuselah's. He just couldn't make up his mind in all those years.
6. You have a serial which changed its title six times. Three of the titles are almost identical. How many cross references do you need?
- (1) 4
- (2) 6
- (3) None, if you can make it sound so complicated they decide to delay cataloging until publication ceases.
7. The title on your title-page appears in Swahili, Telugu, and English. How do you transcribe it?
- (1) Use just the English. Those other things are obviously meant to be decoration.
- (2) Put the book aside until someone who knows Swahili and Telugu can help.
- (3) Put it on the desk of the cataloger behind you when she is away. After all, didn't she slip you that nasty John Smith problem?

Diagnosis of answers. Are your answers predominantly (1)? The cataloging field needs you. You unimaginative types are the backbone of the profession. Are your answers predominantly (2)? The cataloging field needs you, too. And anyone else willing to go into it. Are your answers predominantly (3)? You'll go far. Possibly to another field.

EDITOR RECOMMENDS:

Benjamin, Curtis G. "Book Publishers' Interests in Reprographic Copyright." *Library Journal* 88:2837-41. August, 1963. Very important discussion on the copyright question, on "fair practice," particularly in regard to rapid copying of materials for library and public use.

The Reference Function of the Catalog: Some Questions Concerning Responsibility

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MISS PIERCY'S EDITORIAL (Fall 1963, p. 406) on the proposed study, by the Reference Services Division, of the reference use of the card catalog raises a number of interesting points. Her remarks stress the problem of *what* information the catalog should provide; equally important, perhaps, is the question of the possible difficulties encountered in retrieving from the catalog such information as it stores. We can surely agree with Miss Piercy that "positive evidence" is needed more than is "opinion." Nevertheless it may be worth while to consider the following hypothesis (which, one supposes, an objective study will tend to support or to refute): namely, that in attitudes toward the implementation of the catalog's reference function there is a suggestion—perhaps not always misleading—of neglect, even evasion, of responsibility (my assumption being that the success of the catalog as a reference tool is the *joint* responsibility of those charged with its construction and of those charged with its interpretation). At the risk of wounding, though not mortally, two worthy groups—reference librarians and cataloging librarians—I should like to develop further this somewhat distasteful possibility.

What follows presupposes conventional administrative organization, e.g., without assignment of single specialists (in subject, form, or language) to *both* cataloging and reference operations, as well as conventional technology, e.g., without catalogs converted to punched cards. It would seem that such developments would cause cataloging and reference operations to "mesh"—or, if one prefers, "entangle"—even more than they do under conditions which now prevail.

If there is neglect, even evasion, reference librarians bear part of the guilt. Are there not reference librarians who think, or seem to think, that a really good catalog will require no interpretation, i.e., that by some miracle of technology it will automatically adjust itself to the idiosyncracies of readers? Are there not some who, aware of the catalog's inevitable complexity and of its inevitable limitations as a communicator, seem to feel under no real obligation to master its subtleties and who, when unable to interpret the catalog, blame the cataloger? The difficulties which such reference librarians experience *may* point to obscurities

which call for clarification and to errors which call for correction; is it not, however, possible that some of their difficulties stem from pure ignorance, e.g., of possible entries for conferences?

I have occasionally encountered reference librarians who have suggested (how seriously?) that interpreting the catalog is, while necessary, not *their* responsibility—is this one reason why catalogs are so often placed where reference librarians cannot see them? They seem to consider assistance at the catalog a luxury item, as though *Reader's Guide* and the *Encyclopedia Britannica* were more difficult to use and *Granger's Index* were more in demand. One even hears it suggested that catalogers, having knit all this complexity, should preside at, not merely assist at, its unravelling; but of this view one should be wary. First, good catalogers are not necessarily good reference librarians; and, second, reference service at the catalog should, if possible, be integrated with other reference service, since a person going to the catalog in search of material may need not so much to be helped at the catalog as to be directed to other tools. Is there not, moreover, a suggestion that specialists are needed to catalog, but that *anyone* can wait on the public? (Surely this last is not what any reference librarian intends to convey: perhaps it results from the human tendency to rationalize away such depressing facts as staff size.)

Catalogers, at least those whom I have encountered at professional meetings, often complain of "unreasonable" requests from reference librarians, by which they generally mean, *not* requests for really useless practices (although such do occur!), but requests for practices the usefulness of which is, in the catalogers' judgment, outweighed by their cost in terms of man-hours and/or by the fact that they seem to set costly precedents. Does this suggest that reference librarians are sometimes guilty of requesting work which would require drastic—and unlikely—staff increases? Are the "mental sets" of some reference librarians too much conditioned by the immediate needs of immediate patrons, not enough conditioned by realization of possible consequences of *ad hoc* decisions? Finally, do some reference librarians underrate the ability (indeed, the obligation) of readers to grow, change, and learn? In school and college libraries, particularly, but elsewhere, too, should we not accept the basic premise that *nothing* comes naturally in using a library—that all must be learned?

Let us hope that these questions, even if, upon investigation, they are answered in the affirmative, suggest a picture blacker than its subject! In any event, catalogers may not emerge from the Judgment unscathed. The "old-fashioned" cataloger delighted, we are told, in making added entries, analytics, and cross-references and in working out special filing and classification schemes. The problem today seems to be that few catalogers can take time to give this sort of service. What consequences flow from decisions to reduce the expenditure, per book, of cataloging effort? Do we find useless enterprises abandoned? No longer, we hear it said, do catalogers engage in pursuits of no conceivable practical value. Is this true? On the other hand, is (as is so often claimed) the cost saved in cataloging

transferred to reference service, which not only takes time to teach the catalog but also prepares the analytics, etc., which the catalog department no longer prepares—possibly at greater expense, too, the cost thus being not only transferred, but perhaps raised—and incorporates its knowledge into tools, e.g., query files and reading lists, apart from the catalog, where it is needed, thus further impairing the value of the catalog? Our answers to these questions should reflect our acceptance of the premise that processing begins, not at the moment of ordering, but at the moment of selecting and that it ends, not at the moment of filing catalog cards, but at the moment of the reader's opening the book. Does the extreme difficulty encountered in measuring the early and late stages in processing justify, in the long run, one's ignoring them?

Furthermore, are there not catalogers who, falling victim to the natural human tendency to convert necessities into desiderata, deny not only the practicability but also the intrinsic value of corrections, adjustments, and additions which reference librarians request? Some requests are, to be sure, foolish; still, nothing is more irritating to a conscientious reference librarian than to be told by an economy-driven cataloger that a proposed modification would "serve no useful purpose" when he is convinced that it *would* serve a useful purpose and suspects that if the powers were as lavish in their support of libraries as in their support of—you name it!—the very cataloger who now denies the value of the proposed modification would then cheerfully undertake it. This sort of behavior on the part of catalogers can give the impression (false, one hopes) that they will help if forced to do so, but not otherwise. At its extreme, it implies that the *entire* burden of responsibility should rest with the reference librarians, who are supposed to "know the collection" (it being apparently no longer the catalogers' job to make it known!).

Fortunately, we encounter this extreme position but seldom—and then, perhaps, when catalogers, harried by demands for gallons when they feel lucky if they can serve ponies, are badgered into saying more than they mean. A position more commonly taken—and, in the end, more nearly just—is that it is the job of reference librarians to interpret the catalog. But there are those catalogers who seem to think that having delivered themselves of this idea, they have said all there is to be said; are they not neglecting certain facts? Is (to cite one problem) reference service always available? And do readers always ask for help?—or do they sometimes, having looked and not found, conclude that there is nothing to find? Moreover, can the cost of a patron's bewilderment and dissatisfaction be measured as one measures processing costs? From this last question it need not be inferred that the patron's happiness necessarily outweighs other considerations; the point is simply that ten minutes of confusion on the part of the patron should not be compared with ten minutes of staff effort: it may count for much more; it may count for much less. Finally, are there catalogers who exaggerate the problem of precedents? Are they perhaps too quick to assume that having taken action in one instance, they must take action in all?

Assuming that the situation to which these questions point does exist, is a possible factor in its development a tendency in library education to train in the *construction* of catalogs and in the *interpretation* of other reference tools on the mistaken assumption that one who has learned to catalog will automatically, through "transfer of training," become a competent interpreter of catalogs? Is another possible factor an inadequate *amour-propre* on the part of the profession as a whole—leading to a too-ready acceptance of economy measures? Be all that as it may, it would seem to be the duty of catalogers and of reference librarians to accept their separate and joint responsibilities, to study each other's activities, to understand the pressures which are brought to bear upon the various library units, to respect the intellects and the motives of their colleagues, and to make their requests and their decisions in light of the whole processing operation (defined above) as it exists now and as it seems likely to develop. Shared work, "lending," etc., are superficial solutions to the problem of achieving coordination between cataloging and reference activities; nothing, it seems to me, can replace, in this as in any joint effort, ability to understand and will to cooperate. The proposed study of the reference use of the catalog may shed light on how it now is, and may be, used and, through the reports of happy and unhappy situations, suggest how those who contribute to the success or failure of the catalog as a reference tool can do their work most effectively.

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The Library and the Academic Community*

CHARLES BURDICK, *Assoc. Prof. of History*
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TODAY, WHEN A newly-appointed faculty member arrives on a college campus, he normally undertakes two visitations. First he makes a courtesy call upon a senior member of the administration. After exchanging pleasantries with his superior, the neophyte excuses himself and hastens to the school library. That establishment, in contrast to newer classroom buildings, is normally lodged in a time-scarred monstrosity of late nineteenth century design. Inside, the new instructor encounters the library staff and, despite ugly rumors to the contrary, discovers that they are human beings sincerely interested in scholarship. The building, the staff, even the physical appointments give every evidence of progress, efficiency, and scholarship in the best traditions of librarianship.

After this delightful reception, the scholar is totally unprepared for the shock he receives from thumbing through the card catalog. When he discovers the vast gaps in essential books and periodicals, the new appointee questions his wisdom in accepting the position. He has encountered the basic problem confronting all libraries today; a difficulty which is of recent vintage but one which promises to be around the academic community for many years. This issue stems from a fundamental change in the orientation and purpose of the modern library.

In times past the library served as a simple reading room, a haven for fatigued members of the faculty, and a lonely hearts convention hall for students. The practical activities of this institution were multifold and diverse in the extreme. The librarians were the first seeking to create and maintain an image of public service. In order to implement this concept, they modernized the furniture, increased the lighting facilities, and enlarged the staff to cope with the innumerable questions posed by users.

The basic preoccupation of the librarians was to fill every shelf with books. Concepts of quality were often disregarded in favor of slavish attention to best seller lists. Librarians competed with each other in purchasing multiple copies of *Gone With The Wind*, *Beyond Sing The Woods*, and *Anthony Adverse*. A library's value was in direct correlation

* Paper read at the November 16, 1962 meeting of the Northern California Technical Processes Group, held at San Jose State College.

to the number of volumes listed in its catalog; little attention was given to the collection as a whole, since current publications were most needed in order to satisfy public demand.

Because of this quantitative measurement of progress, most citizens in their minds tended to divide libraries into functional units. The high school library served to entertain the young with childish historical studies, cartoon books, and literary masterpieces of romanticism. The public library sought to help adults with their general education, culture, and relaxation. College book collections were reading repositories needed as adjuncts to instructional purposes, while the university library assembled books for elderly scholars. Few academic leaders saw any connection between these various libraries and permitted each one to go its separate path.

Above all else, these libraries were aloof to the normal pressures of time. They were areas of quiet repose where people spoke in whispers, and the staff resembled the caretakers of the local morgue. A sense of urgency, a missionary zeal for the future was not considered gentile nor in the best practices of professionalism.

This rudimentary image of libraries and librarians has, in this writer's view, changed during the past decade. The library is no longer an intellectual pleasure palace catering to man's sensual nature. Today, with the speed and complexities of modern living, every library has become a research center. No person can rationally hope to master the knowledge of our time; he must turn to basic research for subjects varying from marriage to international conflict to market trends to garbage disposal. Man has taken science as the key to knowledge and a better life. The approach of every mental discipline must reflect this trend and adopt the principles of scientific research.

This process requires the essential tools, and the weapons of the mind are books. As research drives ahead in revealing new wonders of the unknown, it must be put down in printed form. Inevitably this process forces the printing presses to publish an ever-increasing number of books. Great Britain and the United States each print over 20,000 new titles a year, while France and Germany are only a step behind. By sheer numbers alone these books force libraries to reconsider their immediate aspirations and future dreams. Any effort to purchase all of these volumes is obviously utopian. The library's role in the academic community must be redefined in a realistic fashion and with the shortest possible time lag.

The new library evaluation must begin with the technical services which form the backbone of any book collection. In the new age the burden of both leadership and control will fall on this area of the library.

The general observer must start by surveying present library conditions. This analysis should begin with book selection. This function has been largely delegated to the faculty. The responsibility for expanding the holdings is divided among twenty to thirty souls, some interested, others oblivious, and a minority intellectually dead. They order whatever happens to strike their fancy, what they selfishly desire for their personal

esoteric projects, and what they find reviewed in current journals. These members of the faculty have little comprehension of the over-all collection; they are current but no more. They are further limited by their research field of competence, from which they seldom emerge. The product is uneven, questionable on every hand except quantity, and of dubious value to future generations.

In recent years the entire concept of a library's collection has changed from quantity to quality. While a library containing several million volumes has unquestioned merit, its mere size is not positive proof of competence. With care and proper selection, a library can build a superb collection in a given study area. The Hoover Institution at Stanford University, with fewer than 200,000 volumes, ranks as a world leader in its fields of endeavor. No longer need a library hide its collective head because of the limited number of books on its shelves.

Time is of the essence in this search for material. While new books continue to be published in profusion and scholars increase their demands for materials, libraries have fallen behind in their cataloging processes. Most libraries require six to seven months for placing a book on the shelf. Many institutions have a backlog in excess of 1,000 volumes. By the time a book is available, it is often neglected and not used because the user has grown tired of searching for the title.

Even if the required study does reach the stacks, it is often unavailable to all but the initiated few because of the confusion inherent in the present cataloging system. Unless one has mastered the intricacies of "libraries," he is entering a vast maze when he searches through the catalog. The entries used are no longer sufficiently detailed or cross-referenced for the uninformed. They reflect the cataloger's wisdom or ignorance and frustrate the scholar's drive and search for truth.

The technical services of libraries have fallen into the well-trod ruts of tradition. They are concerned with the techniques of handling materials, satisfying the whims of the aggressive faculty and staving off student complaints. The collections have fallen into disrepair and obsolescence. Libraries and their technical services have not kept pace with other areas of education. The library is relegated to an obscure role in the academic community—the community which is founded on the bed-rock foundation of that library's resources. Librarians have delegated their responsibility to faculty committees, the administration, and public-spirited citizens. A solution to these assorted ills must be found and found in the immediate future.

To start with, librarians must become more nationalistic and bury their pleasant, quiet, and ineffective manner. They must seize control of acquisitions and construct decent collections. It is already too late to assemble a vast all-inclusive library, but definitive collections in specific areas are still within reach. Librarians must cease serving as paper-pushers and become subject curators operating within boundary lines determined by the faculty. The librarian must be trained in areas of specialization in addition to the technical skills of his profession. He must demand

salaries commensurate with these responsibilities in order to attract properly-qualified individuals in the future.

This radical suggestion is by itself not enough to solve the library difficulties. A general conference of librarians, faculty members, and school administrators should undertake a realistic evaluation of their current position and future hopes. Once they have a cohesive and comprehensive program, librarians can begin an intensive effort to fulfill the assigned goals. They can satisfy most assignments through careful selection, wide use of microfilm facilities, and individual collection trips. Coordination with neighboring institutions can prevent duplication of effort and concentration on the same subject areas.

The cataloging process must be completely over-hauled. Procedures must be instituted which will put books on the loan shelves within six weeks of the order date. Whether this be accomplished through mechanical means, central cataloging, or publisher's accession cards is presently a matter of dispute, but a solution must be found. Likewise the entire catalog needs careful attention. Subject entries must be expanded and simplified. They should permit full use of the catalog by even the most poorly-informed student.

As the academic community approaches another crucial stage in its development, every school must examine its library resources. That vital repository of human learning must assume a more potent role in the community of learning. The library needs to revamp its selection procedures, cataloging techniques, and general planning. Above all else, time is of the essence. Librarians must unite in a crusading zeal if they are to make adjustments to the new research age. In fact, one might corrupt an older slogan to fit a new demand: "Librarians of the world unite. You have nothing to lose but your books."

COPYRIGHT PROBLEMS

The Committee to Investigate Copyright Problems Affecting Communication in Science and Education has received a grant of \$700 from the Council on Library Resources, Inc., to aid in a feasibility study of a clearing house to serve as an intermediary between owners of copyrighted material and scientists and others wishing to make one or more photocopies of it.

The proposed clearing house, or copying service, would routinely collect royalty payments from those making photocopies, according to a fixed scale of rates, in behalf of publishers and their authors. Publishers' participation would be on a voluntary basis. Presumably such a center would reduce "paper work," increase royalty payments, and facilitate communication in science, education, and other fields.

Howard A. Meyerhoff, Chairman of the Department of Geology at the University of Pennsylvania, is President of the Committee, and Gerald J. Sophar, of Jonker Business Machines, Gaithersburg, Maryland, is Secretary-Treasurer. Laurence B. Heilprin, Staff Physicist of the Council on Library Resources, Inc., is Chairman of the Study Group.

Why Allocate?

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MOST ACADEMIC LIBRARIANS will no doubt agree with Lyle's statement that the book fund is one of the most important items in the library budget.¹ Fewer academic librarians, however, are likely to agree with the view that in their handling of the book budget, college and university librarians for the most part have not been living up to their professional responsibilities.

It is paradoxical that the book budget, which is so inextricably intertwined with the quality of every book collection, should not have been the subject of closer scrutiny and analysis than it has been. It is just as paradoxical that it should have received so little attention in library literature. To the best of the writer's knowledge, Muller's twenty-two year old *Administration of Book Funds in College Libraries* is the only thorough study that has ever been made of the subject.² Practically all of the other better writings also go back to that period. Lyle's 3rd edition of *Administration of the College Library*¹, Richards' *Academic Budgets and their Administration*³ and Danton's *Book Selection and Collections: A Comparison of German and American University Libraries*⁴ constitute the only recent noteworthy contributions to this topic.

To allocate or not to allocate is a decision that all academic libraries have to make at one time or another. Among the 48 college and university libraries studied in the Land-Grant Survey of 1930, in only 5, or 10.4%, was there any supervision exercised by the librarian over the expenditure of book funds.⁵ Among the 105 college libraries surveyed by Muller in 1941, 28, or 26.6%, operated under the non-allocation system.⁶ In 1942 Ellsworth reported that 11 out of 53 college and university libraries, or 20.7%, made no formal division of the book fund.⁷ Lyle eighteen years later found that 8 out of 27 leading colleges, or 29.6%, did not allocate.¹ Finally, Richards in 1962 questioned 95 librarians. Among these 17, or 17.8%, did not distribute their book funds among the instructional departments.⁸

From these figures it can clearly be seen that essentially there have been no significant changes among academic libraries over the last twenty to thirty years in their manner of handling their book funds. It is sad to note that by so overwhelmingly favoring allocation over non-allocation, academic librarians are making it clear that they believe the responsibility for the development of the library collection is not truly theirs. There is

little doubt that allocation, notwithstanding the general library fund under the direct supervision of the librarian, means faculty control of selection policy, whereas non-allocation means library control. The position of the librarian who advocates both library responsibility for the development of the book collection and allocation of funds seems hardly tenable. The librarian who favors faculty responsibility for the development of the book collection must by implication favor book allocation. The librarian who favors library responsibility for the development of the book collection must by implication favor non-allocation.⁸ If a trend exists in librarians' philosophy from the former concept to the latter, it obviously has failed to manifest itself. In a large majority of academic institutions, librarians still prefer materials to be selected by the faculty with the aid and advice of the library rather than by the library with the aid and advice of the faculty. Why is this so? Because of human weakness? The erroneous belief that if gaps in the collection develop, then the library cannot be blamed? Fear of faculty-library friction? Tradition? Or are the advantages cited for apportionment so incontestably overpowering as to relegate to oblivion the good points of the other system?

The advantages reported by Muller for the allocation of book funds become even greater when applied to non-allocation! "Apportionment", he says, "ensures the obtaining of an evenly distributed and well-rounded book collection."² This is questionable. If under non-allocation the library assumes responsibility for book selection, the collection should become even more evenly distributed and well-rounded. Librarians are much more likely than the faculty to engage in systematic, thorough, and impartial book selection. Librarians have at their disposal both a greater variety of selection tools and more time. Something is wrong if they don't!

Apportionment "stimulates the faculty to participate more actively in book selection, since it enables departments to feel that there is some money available which they can call their own." Could it not be argued just as well that under non-allocation the faculty would be encouraged to an even greater extent to participate in book selection since faculty members genuinely interested in building up a good library would no longer feel restricted by an arbitrarily-determined departmental quota? Furthermore, what is even more important, should a library secure faculty interest and participation by formula? Wouldn't an effective communications system and sound personal relations between librarians and individual instructors be more workable by far and achieve better results?

Allocation "provides a safeguard against unreasonable demands of certain faculty members." "It guards the librarian against the possible charge that the expenditure of book funds has been unjust to some departments." May it be observed that at a college or university where such acrimonious charges and counter-charges are made, an unwholesome spirit must prevail, a spirit that a change-over from non-allocation to allocation would not likely alter? May it be further observed that in any faculty-library dealings the matter of allocation or non-allocation of funds is

purely secondary? What must exist to begin with are the basic ingredients of faith and confidence in the librarians's integrity and good judgment. If those are there, then it should not be too difficult for the librarian to say "no" to some faculty members on occasion. As Muller points out, apportionment may reflect a lack of confidence in the librarian's ability on the part of the faculty and the administration of the college.

Librarians agree that there is no such thing as a perfect or even satisfactory formula for the division of funds. It is difficult, therefore, to see why under the allocation system some departments should never feel that they have been unjustly treated! Under non-allocation, with its far greater flexibility, if departments in the course of the year come up with legitimate complaints, they can work their problems out with the librarian. Under the frozen rules of the allocation system they could not get satisfaction before the beginning of the following fiscal year. And then it would still be dubitable unless the allocation formula were changed to include new factors.

Library literature refers to the following additional disadvantages of the allocation system:

1. Those plans that seek a scientific basis of a distribution require a great deal of faculty and library time to prepare. Furthermore, there is a considerable shift in the factors involved which may require constant revision of the index of apportionment.⁹

2. Allocations have the tendency to remain fixed for too long a period in disregard of changes in the curriculum.⁶

3. Allocation leads to a waste of money. Some departments are bound to be allotted much less money than they need, whereas others have too much money to spend.¹⁰

4. The allocation plan involves an excessive amount of red tape and book-keeping.¹¹

5. Under allocation of funds it is extremely difficult to convince any department that its allotment should be reduced and unless more money becomes available, it is equally difficult to increase the allotment of a department which has increased needs since this must be done at the expense of other departments.¹²

Stated positively, why then should academic libraries keep their book funds unallocated? They should keep *all* book funds under their own control because:

1. As Danton so emphatically asserts "allocation tends to remove the responsibility for book selection from the library, where it administratively, philosophically and usually legally belongs, and places it on the faculty, who cannot be responsible or accountable".⁴ This is the most important reason. Strangely enough, however, most previous writers have failed to see, or at least to point out, the close connection between book allocation and book selection policies.

2. They are more rather than less likely than the faculty to develop a superior book collection:

- a. They command a larger variety of book selection tools.

- b. They can be expected to be more responsible, reliable, systematic, and impartial.

- c. They can be expected to buy essential titles in fields outside their own interests and also in subjects not offered by their institutions.
3. They will benefit from the greater flexibility and freedom of decision that will be theirs. They will be able to:
 - a. Meet unexpected library *and* departmental needs without having to wait for committee action.
 - b. Engage in long-term planning and take advantage of favorable opportunities in the book market.
 - c. Adjust more easily to changes in publishing trends and any other unexpected changes.
 - d. Prevent the hoarding of funds by departments which often results in unwise last minute spending.
4. Their position in the academic community will be enhanced.
5. The step will simplify administrative procedures:
 - a. It will save a great deal of faculty and library time. It will eliminate the need to reconsider annually some of the factors that go into the making of the "scientific" book allocation formula, *e.g.*, number of courses in each department, number of faculty, number of lower division students, number of upper division students, number of graduate students, number of units taken in each department, number of book titles published in each field, cost of material, etc.
 - b. It will save time and money spent in bookkeeping.
6. Faculty participation in book selection by means of a good library-instructional department communications system and smooth personal relations will still remain of inestimable value.

To quote Danton again: "Of the basic American system, the core of which is the allocation of a majority of the 'free' book funds to departments of the instruction, and primary reliance upon members of the faculty for the selection of books, we may say that in pursuing it, the library has in large part abdicated from one of its major, if not its most fundamental responsibility and professional task, that of building a sound book collection."⁴ Why allocate?

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Regional Groups

DORIS RANSOM, *Chairman*
Council of Regional Groups

FIFTEEN GROUPS have reported meetings in the last three months. Papers read at these meetings covered a wide range of subjects, from ALA Headquarters to Xerox.

At its spring, 1963, meeting, the Northern California Technical Processes Group heard a panel consisting of Roberta Stevenson (University of California, Davis), Elizabeth K. Bodie (Sandia Corporation), and Annie Laurie Beary (Richmond Public Library) discuss the problems of serials in libraries from the viewpoint of university, special, and public libraries. Chairman of the discussion was Donald Davisson (San Francisco State College).

The Florida Resources and Technical Services Roundtable heard a report on the first year's operations at the Orlando Book Processing Center by Clara Wendel (Albertson Public Library, Orlando). This was followed by a paper on centralized cataloging for schools by Dorothy Darrow (Dade County School Libraries).

The Resources and Technical Services Division of the Connecticut Library Association ranged widely in the two papers presented at its annual meeting. Patrick Penland (Southern Connecticut State College Library School) spoke on the need for continuing education for catalogers, making the point that catalogers must keep up with changes in the inter-

ests of library users. Frances Lubovitz (Yale University) explained the purpose and aims of the Filing Code Revision Committee. Discussion of the filing code revision followed, and the group expressed by vote its preferences in the arrangement of matter in the projected new edition.

The Technical Services Section of the Wisconsin Library Association heard E. Bernice Gibson report on RTSD programs at the 1963 Chicago Conference. The remainder of the two-day meeting was devoted to combined meetings with members of the Iowa and Minnesota Library Associations, including workshops on physical preparation of books, phonorecords, periodicals, and pamphlets.

The Resources and Technical Services Section of the New York Library Association sponsored a general session of the Association's fall conference. Carl Mellinat (Syracuse University School of Library Science), Vernor W. Clapp (Council on Library Resources) and Forrest F. Carhart, Jr. (Library Technology Project) discussed the background, activities, and services of the Library Technology Project. A whole day of the conference was devoted to catching up on recent developments in Xerox and Eastman Kodak equipment used in libraries. The Group's final session was held jointly with the School Libraries Section and was devoted to centralized processing in public and school libraries, including a panel discussion of equipment and services in the various processing centers in the state.

The Technical Services Section of the Michigan Library Association heard Barbara Westby (Detroit Public Library) report on RTSD activities at the 1963 Chicago Conference.

At the biennial meeting of the Resources and Technical Services Section of the Georgia Library Association, John David Marshall (University of Georgia) presented an interesting glimpse of the troubles of the anthologist in a paper entitled "Mistress, Master, Monster." Marella Walker, Peggy Kline, and Marion R. Walker (all of Emory University) participated in a panel discussion of the changing character of library catalogs, based on the 28th annual conference of the University of Chicago Graduate Library School.

Elizabeth Rodell (Executive Secretary, RTSD) spoke on current trends in technical services as seen from ALA Headquarters to the members of the Resources and Technical Services Section of the North Carolina Library Association. Mrs. Rodell was followed by Michele A. Wiederkehr (student at the University of North Carolina School of Library Science) who discussed the corporate entry concept and its impact on European librarians, and John A. Bridges (Pack Memorial Library, Asheville) who spoke on problems in acquiring non-book materials for public library collections.

Frederick H. Wagman (University of Michigan and President, ALA) spoke on library service to students at the annual meeting of the Resources and Technical Services Section of the Illinois Library Association.

Mrs. Rodell spoke also at the annual meeting of the Potomac Tech-

nical Processing Librarians. She discussed activities of ALA of interest to technical service librarians, including the Catalog Use Study and studies of library statistics, book catalogs, and acquisitions and cataloging routines. James Skipper (Executive Secretary, ARL, and President RTSD) described the organization and activities of the Association of Research Libraries. A series of twelve small discussion groups ranged widely among the problems of technical services and was followed by a panel composed of Frank Bertalan, moderator, Bob Jones (St. Louis Junior College District), Joseph Richardson (Compos-o-List Systems) and Ljubo Lulich (National Agricultural Library) which discussed low-cost catalogs and photographic data retrieval.

The Catalogers Section of the New Jersey Library Association heard Milbrey L. Jones (Rutgers University) speak on technical services in school libraries and afterwards toured the new Douglass College Library.

Philadelphia Area Technical Services Librarians heard Elizabeth Tate (National Referral Center for Science and Technology) read a paper entitled "Which Code Finds the Book?" which compared the present rules for entry with the draft revised code to determine which rules were most effective in creating catalog main entries which made a particular book easy to locate.

The Southern California Technical Processing Group heard two papers with an international theme: Elizabeth Norton (University of California, Los Angeles) spoke on the recent ALA publication, *International Subscription Agents*. John E. Smith (University of California, Irvine) spoke on the problems of the American librarian abroad, basing his remarks on his two years in an American project library in Pakistan.

The Chicago Regional Group of Librarians in Technical Services called on ALA Headquarters staff members to rescue their program meeting when the scheduled speaker fell ill. Ethel Fair was introduced as the new acting Executive Secretary of the Library Education Division. Myrl Ricking spoke on ALA recruiting activities, and Elizabeth Rodell gave a brief summary of activities of RTSD committees.

AREA STUDY

Harvey Mudd College has received a grant of \$5,000 to investigate the possibility of establishing a science library and information center in Claremont, Calif. The grant was made by the Council on Library Resources, Inc., to make a "study of the bases, including the possible use of the techniques of automata, for providing the capability for a science library for academic and industry service." Announced as one of the principal objects of the survey is to find a feasible means of "speedily placing in the hands of an engineer or scientist the documents which answer the questions he has asked, or, failing that, of informing him where such documents can be located."

The investigation will be carried out by Harvey Mudd College, Honnold Library, and representatives of industry in the area, and will result in a detailed report.

Bind or Film: Factors in the Decision

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"Libraries have also tried to use microcards and microfilm to reduce binding costs, but this practice is regarded by some librarians who work closely with their research workers as a last resort. Faculty members do not like to use microreproductions, and some state they *will not use them*."—Frances Warner, "Current Binding Policies at Iowa State College," *Serial Slants* 3, October 1952, p. 40.

MORE THAN TEN YEARS have passed since the above was written, but the question "bind or film?" still continues to trouble librarians, if the number of inquiries we have received at Staten Island is any indication. In our case we were fortunate in being a newly-established college (1956) without "centuries of tradition" as a complicating factor in making a decision between the two forms of preservation. But perhaps even the "some librarians" referred to in the quotation are beginning to wonder if the last resort shall not be first, as storage space continues to shrink and Ulrich continues to swell. There are various factors to be considered in deciding; the remainder of this article will list these factors and indicate how we evaluate and apply them in specific cases.

One such factor is the likelihood of mutilation or theft of a given title. Until 1984, when every home will have its own microviewing device, no patron is as likely to remove reels as he is to remove issues. Every library can provide its own list of titles on which the razor and the scissor have wreaked frequent havoc; for such titles film would diminish the problem.¹

A second element to be considered might be called the nature of the material—including both physical aspect and content. A weekly magazine of the size of *Business Week* or the *New Yorker*, in which the advertising matter cannot be removed will take up large amounts of shelf space in bound form. On the other hand an abstract journal is much more convenient to use when it is bound; one must turn from index in the back to abstract(s) in the middle, and it is far easier to do this with a printed volume than to reel and unreel continuously. A periodical with many illustrations, maps, and diagrams, especially if they are in color, will not be as suitable for microreproduction as one with text only. A periodical already in hard covers (*Horizon*) or one which can be purchased in hard cover form (American Academy of Political and Social Science. *Annals*) can go directly from current shelves to stacks without being sent to the binder.

A third element in the decision is the user of the material. Students at Staten Island, for the most part, never have seen a microfilm reader before coming to the college and are usually enthralled to use one. Not so their instructors. The quotation at the beginning of this article still represents the attitude of the professor; he prefers to take the periodical to his home or office rather than to be tied to the machine. The same is true of the serial cataloger. Good cataloging requires that each back volume be inspected; it is far easier to do so at one's desk where the ALA—LC rules are at hand than to have to go to some other area of the library where the film readers are. The division of location that microfilm requires may also be a hardship. If one has a long run of a periodical in bound form and then switches to microreproduction, the title is now shelved in two places. Even though the information about the switch is in the card catalog, the reader will often overlook it—especially in an open-stack library. In such a library it would be desirable to place a dummy after the last bound volume with some such statement as, "vol. _____ to date on microfilm."

For extended reading it is certainly true that print is much easier on the eyes than film, and the bound volume is more convenient for note-taking. In short, from the point of view of the user, the only advantage of film (and it is not an insubstantial advantage) is that the title is never absent at the binder or never on a processing shelf awaiting receipt of a missing issue so it can go to the binder.

Fourth is the element of cost, and here a computer would be necessary to put into a proper formula all the factors involved. University Microfilms takes many of them into account in stating that to store a current periodical for a 30 year period by binding would cost \$240.00, while to acquire and store the same periodical on film would cost \$106.65.² Ford suggests that even more can be saved by using a microfilm splicer to combine in one box on one reel three or four volumes of a periodical. He states that his library in this manner succeeded in reducing 72 boxes of film to 40 which saved "almost 45 per cent of housing space plus the cost of splicing."³ The clerical costs of preparing a volume for binding and checking the bound volume on its return no longer exist. The missing issue problem mentioned above is also a factor here. Frequently a missing issue is not noted until it is time to send the periodical to the binder. In many libraries this means that the title, *sans* missing issue, must be set aside until a replacement arrives, which means more storage space, more adjustment of records—in short, more cost. Further, when microreproduction is used, one can, in the case of some titles, sell the superseded issues to a second hand dealer and thus recoup part of the initial investment.

A direct comparison of the cost of binding a title against the purchase of the same title on film shows little difference. Ford did this comparison with 33 titles selected at random; his results were \$129.45 on film as against \$116.81 bound.⁴ Our experience indicates that the scholarly quarterlies are always less expensive on film. It should be noted that the

word "binding" as used here always refers to class A library binding. A library doing its own binding or using less expensive commercial work will change its costs accordingly. At Staten Island the question of "home binding" vs. microfilm cost is academic. The only material we bind ourselves is of a specialized nature not filmed now and not likely to be filmed in the future by any commercial company.

On the other side of the cost picture is the necessity of buying the extra readers required for an increased film program, and the additional space necessary in public areas to place those readers and the film cabinets that go with them. Another expense is for extra staff time, since each user of film or card must be instructed, the first time, to use the machine—time which is, of course, not spent with the bound form. And even if there were a reader in the Catalog Division, it would take more time to catalog a periodical on film than if it were in bound form. If time is money, more time is more money.

Those are the factors then; how they are evaluated will depend on the situation of the individual library. Some general comments can be made, however. Sad experience has taught that the faculty member who takes the periodical to his office is, in many cases, the faculty member who leaves it there after he has finished with it—sometimes to the despair of his students, as well as the librarian, since he has assigned a reading in it. The desire of the individual user to have the material at hand is, in this instance, counterbalanced by the desirability for the potential user of having the material at all. Good working relations with the faculty are important, and certainly no change from binding to film should be done without asking the opinion of the instructional department in whose field of interest the periodical lies. Ford also suggests the use of a portable reader, and a library attitude of enthusiasm for film as a means of overcoming faculty resistance to the idea.⁵

As indicated above, the question of cost is one for which each library will have to find its own figures. As also indicated above, to attempt to work out a monetary value for each of the factors mentioned under the cost heading would be a task of staggering complexity. For a small college the size of Staten Island⁶ such an accounting would not be worth the time it would take to set it up. We simply accepted the University Microfilms formula as indicating that we would save considerably on storage costs and set down side by side for every title on our list the price for binding and the estimated price for film. If film is cheaper, the same price, or even slightly more expensive, then as far as the cost factor is concerned, film is favored.

The cost factor is, of course, only one of four; to indicate how our evaluation process works, two actual examples will be given—*Time* and the *Scientific American*. Both of these are much-used periodicals; indeed, by the time they are ready for binding, back issues often look as though the Four Horsemen, both of Blasco Ibanez and Notre Dame, had had a go at them. They both bulk large; in order that they not buckle a shelf or a fragile student's fingers and also because of the heavy use, we would

bind each in three-month groups—Jan-Mar one bound volume, Apr-June another, etc. Both are between 10 and 12 inches in height; for such periodicals our binder charges \$4.25 per volume. Four volumes per year would therefore cost \$17.00 if we bound them; the University Microfilm estimate for *Scientific American* is \$7.10 per year and for *Time* \$16.20. Both are general periodicals; there is no instructional department of which we need ask an opinion.

In spite of these similarities, our decision was to bind *Scientific American* and to get *Time* on film. Colored illustrations and diagrams are an important part of articles in every issue of the former. The reader needs these illustrations if he is to get full value from the article; he would not get that value from black and white film.⁷ Colored illustrations also appear in *Time*—often in its Art section and occasionally in a special article. In our opinion, however, the reference use of *Time* for art was not sufficiently great to justify the extra binding expense.

There is no easy road to making a decision between microreproduction and binding. At Staten Island we have chosen the former in the majority of cases, but we are a small junior college with not too great a demand for back issues of periodicals. Libraries with such a demand who like the idea of microfilm may find it desirable to follow Ford's suggestion of using microforms only after the high use period of a periodical—the first five years of its life—is ended.⁸ Each library should evaluate the factors according to its own situation, but all should be considered in coming to a final decision.

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1. Conversations with other librarians and past experience has taught the author that, aside from the general magazines of the *Life/Scientific American* breed, the most frequently-stolen periodicals are those in the area of psychology. This might either be a sad commentary on the moral values of our future psychiatrists, or an indication that psychology departments everywhere make such heavy periodical reading demands on their students that, to use the jargon of the field, a need situation is set up which cannot be met, in the students' minds, by the usual "library use only" rule.
2. University Microfilm catalog 14, Ann Arbor, Michigan, pp. 2-3.
3. Ford, Stephen. "Microreproductions of Periodicals in a Small University Library," *Serial Slants* 5, April 1954, p. 63. Ford listed the price of a splicer as "about \$35." Nowadays in New York it is \$47.50 for a 35mm. splicer, to which must be added the cost of splicing tape (\$11.00 a roll) and the cost of relabeling the boxes combined.
4. *Ibid.*
5. *Op. cit.*, p. 64
6. 750 day session students; 866 evening session students; 250 currently received periodicals.
7. A hasty scanning of the University Microfilms catalog indicates that only for *Life* and only since 1960 are color plates on color film provided.
8. Ford, *op. cit.*, p. 62.

Toward the Seventeenth . . . Dewey

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This report on the Dewey Decimal Classification was prepared at the invitation of Mrs. Ilse Rothrock, Chairman of the Texas Regional Group of Catalogers and Classifiers, for the 1963 annual meeting. Some of the questions posed by the Group indicated an interest in the practical application and use of the 16th edition as well as concern over the forthcoming 17th. Both to obtain some information reflecting the opinions of the Regional Group and to secure data on the use of Dewey, an inquiry was distributed. Its analysis furnished the nucleus of the study.

The report is divided into three parts: (1) The Dewey Decimal Classification; Its Vulnerability and Durability; (2) The Dewey 16th . . . in Texas; (3) The Seventeenth: Some Anticipated Changes.

The Dewey Decimal Classification: its Vulnerability and Durability

THE MOST USED and, at the same time, the most revised classification, the Dewey Decimal, finds itself being readied once again for a new edition—its seventeenth version. While there is not likely to be an epitaph disclaiming its continuity, there will be reviews bemoaning its classificatory limitations. It is reassuring that the responses will neither create gloom nor insure demise; for critics since 1876 have tended to castigate rather than to praise, to propose improvements rather than to commend. Yet the *Classification* has survived, one among many so to do.

Melvil Dewey was not the only librarian to devise a classification system in the latter part of the nineteenth century;⁸ many of his associates created and fostered their own schemes, primarily through the pages of the *Library Journal*. Understandably enough, the early critics were among those creating new schemes, the most distinguished being Charles A. Cutter, who produced his own *Expansive Classification*. Others included Jacob Schwartz of the New York Apprentice's Library and F. B. Perkins of San Francisco, who devised "A Rational Classification of Literature," and thereby perhaps implied that all others were irrational.

Much of the early criticism was personal, opinionated—and, at times, ungallant. The personal tone may be noted in the criticism of Perkins and Schwartz who identified their observations and themselves as a "Duet."¹² In their paper they characterized the classification as being "A nosegay of flowers with nothing of [Dewey's] but the string that binds them," and concluded:

Having carefully and critically examined every one of the alleged 'inventions' of Mr. Dewey, we may . . . sum up our examination in a sentence: 'that which is new in his system is not good, and that which is good is not new.'

Dewey later responded: "The Duet complains that it fails to find *Jealousy* in the DC index. I wish I could say as much for the Duet."⁵

Further enumeration of the critical reception accorded the various editions would become repetitive. It is evident, however, that from among the nineteenth century systems known about, only Dewey has survived and has become widely used.⁸ Its nearly universal use re-confirms the oft-quoted appraisal made by Ernest Savage in his *Manual of Classification*:

No other book has had a more powerful influence upon library administration than this invention of Melvil Dewey . . . Puck-like he put a girdle round the earth with his 'damned dots' . . . and with them American library methods were carried from Albany to the Antipodes.¹⁴

Perhaps he should have said from Amherst to the Antipodes, for it was there, as every librarian knows, that Dewey structured his classification between 1873 and 1876.

From the modest, first edition entitled *A Classification and Subject Index, for Cataloguing and Arranging the Books and Pamphlets of a Library*,⁸ may be extracted some of the characteristics which have contributed to its vulnerability and its durability:

Among those contributing to its vulnerability are:

1. Its decimal notation. Yet it is well to know that while Dewey structured his notation decimally, he recognized from the beginning and so stated in the scheme (p. 4) that theoretically the division of every subject into just nine heads is absurd. Few, if any of the critics, deploring the confinement of knowledge to the "procrustean bed of the decimal tens" have acknowledged Dewey's own appraisal of 1876.¹⁵

2. Its pragmatic basis. Dewey was essentially a pragmatist in devising his scheme. In his first edition, he emphasized:

In all the work, philosophical theory and accuracy have been made to yield to practical usefulness.

Theoretical harmony and exactness has been repeatedly sacrificed to the practical requirements of the library or to the convenience of the department in the college (p. 4).

3. Its order of the classes and divisions. Dewey openly acknowledged his indebtedness for the order of both and to that extent he assumed responsibility. He noted not only that,

in filling the nine classes of the scheme, the inverted Baconian arrangement of the St. Louis Library has been followed [i.e. the scheme of William T. Harris] (p. 10).

but also that

much valuable aid has been rendered by specialists in many departments, and

nearly every member of the [Amherst] Faculty has given advice from time to time (p. 9).

Thus, while Dewey's own contribution was practical notation, nevertheless from the scholarship of his time he pre-empted a philosophic basis for his subject analysis and thereby perpetuated the influence of Francis Bacon on American classification.

4. Its Anglo-American bias. Because the *Classification* was designed originally for a collection of books used by English-speaking students, it was inevitable that it would emphasize western culture, Christianity, a capitalistic economy, and the history of the United States. But the sustained interest in Dewey throughout the world implies that the originally pragmatic bias may be modified, and the changes in the forthcoming edition indicate that major expansions and/or alternatives are being made in the subject areas of history, geography, philosophy, local languages, literatures, and religions.

Even now Dewey is being used in more than one hundred countries and has been translated into all the principal languages. Further, the fact that the American Library Association and Forest Press, Inc., are co-sponsoring "A Field Study of the Use of the Dewey Decimal Classification Abroad" attests to its universality.²

Among those characteristics contributing to its durability have been the following:

1. Its classification of the book rather than of the shelf. While it does not seem revolutionary today, Dewey found it necessary to defend his approach that books rather than shelves could be classified and that by using the decimal concept, materials added later could be inserted at their proper places on the shelves.

By numbering the books rather than the shelves, Dewey abandoned fixed and introduced fluid location, and he offered freedom from fixity to those who recognized its worth. Among those not convinced, was the famous Justin Winsor who continued to support fixed shelf arrangement.¹

2. Its use of arabic numerals, mnemonic features, form divisions, and geographic subdivisions, evidences of which appeared in the first edition. Not only have these remained constant, but they have contributed in large part to the universal acceptance and applicability of the scheme.

3. Its subject index. Dewey's preparation of the index was both ingenious and practical, for, as he carefully demonstrated, it could aid both in classifying and in finding materials on the shelves. In the second edition, Dewey changed the title to *Decimal Classification and Relativ Index*, significantly emphasizing the two characteristics by which it was to become known. Though there is some question as to what Dewey meant by "relativ," in later editions he was to refer to the Index as the "most important feature of the sistem . . . on which all else hinjes," and further maintained that investigation by others had failed to show that it "had

ever before been used as here to index by a single reference most diverse material" (Dewey 14, p. 11, footnote 2).

4. Its inclusion of directions. Not only did Dewey create a new classificatory concept, he also formulated some directions for assigning class numbers. As of 1876, five were included; however, within a few years, Dewey had amplified his original statement and codified eleven principles for assigning class numbers. The first reiterated his original concept and is familiar to all classifiers:

Practical usefulness is the chief thing. Put each book under the subject to the student of which it is most useful, unless local reasons 'attract' it to a place still more useful in your library. (Dewey 7, p. 26)

Both in the 15th and the 16th editions the permissive note "unless local reasons 'attract' " was deleted. Yet it appears that Dewey anticipated the development of special collections or special libraries and assumed, for example, that a book on school hygiene might be placed in a medical library under the subject 613, Hygiene, or in an education library under 371.7, School Health (Dewey 7, p. 28). It seems unrealistic to ignore Dewey's recognition that the subject specialty could "bias" or attract the classifier's decision.

Recently the Editor of Dewey has discussed "Classification by Attraction" (*DC&*, I:14/16, p. 3-4), but not, it seems, as Dewey originally intended. According to the Editor, "many classifiers have mistakenly reached the conclusion that a given subject is to be classified only where named" and he cited as an example the classification in 296 of books on Jews, whatever the subject. Other possibilities are the grouping of all books on railroads under 625.6; on meteorology under 551.5.

"Classification by attraction," as thus described, would delimit development within the main classes and distort its basic ten concept, and it would seem wise to endorse the Editor's suggestion that classifiers adhere to the concept of classifying within the ten disciplines of Dewey rather than grouping aspects of a subject scattered through the ten disciplines under one arbitrary number assigned. Nevertheless, Dewey's earlier concept might well be reviewed.

While the characteristics identified as contributing to the vulnerability and durability of Dewey permeated the system, there was no comment in the first edition on preserving the meaning of numbers. Because of the current concern over this problem, it is interesting to note that Dewey quickly added in the 1876 report on *Public Libraries in the United States*¹⁸ an advantage: the classification "is unchangeable in its call numbers" (p. 641).

Yet in the second edition Dewey himself was making revisions, for example: "Move Book Rarities from 020 to 090, and make 020, Library Economy, thus getting it next to 010, Bibliography" (Dewey 2, p. 45). At the same time he attempted to allay the fears of those who might have been objecting to change with the encouraging statement that:

Librarians making the necessary changes for the revised edition need not fear that a series of editions have begun each of which will call for such changes.

He also urged that his scheme be adopted as developed, advising that "it is vastly wiser for any man whose time is of the slightest value, to use it in something practically useful to himself and his library than in trying to construct a 'satisfactory' scheme of classification" (p. 49).

This might be called the germination of the concept of integrity of numbers which has been a guiding, though not an inviolate, principle. Contained in it, however, is the core of obsolescence when there is no recognition of the intellectually-demanding concept that a classification keep pace with knowledge. No one is more aware of the compromises which must emerge when conflict occurs than the Decimal Classification Office and the Editorial Policy Committee, and there is every reason to suppose that the 17th edition will reflect continuing compromises.

The Dewey 16th . . . in Texas

The brief review of the Dewey characteristics furnishes a background for a report on an inquiry* concerning the use of the 16th Edition in Texas, the respondents of which were members of the Texas Regional Group of Catalogers and Classifiers. The informal inquiry was sent to all members of the Regional Group, both institutional and personal: to the latter, for information; to the former as respondents. Both the promptness of the returns and the data itself confirmed the assumption that the Group would be Dewey oriented and acquainted with the activities and the problems relating to classification.

Of the thirty-one libraries responding in part or in whole, thirty used Dewey; one used the Library of Congress Classification. Twenty-two consider the Dewey 16th the authoritative edition; five, the 14th. Other editions cited as authoritative were the 6th abridged, the 8th abridged, and the 13th. These figures may be compared to those cited in the study, "Looking Forward to the Seventeenth Edition," undertaken by the Catalog Advisory Committee of the Los Angeles County Public Library, which appeared in 1962.¹¹

From the responses, data on the following have been selected: (1) the reading of *DC* and the recording of its decisions; (2) use of the *Guide to Use of Dewey Decimal Classification*;⁹ (3) use of Dewey numbers on Library of Congress cards; (4) decisions as to form divisions and preferred treatment of biography; and (5) relocations and consequent problems.

The Reading of *DC* and the Recording of its Decisions Questions

4. Do you read *DC*? _____ Yes _____ No _____ Sometimes
5. How do you keep yourself informed of the changes in *DC*?
 - (a) Note the *DC* citation in the 16th edition _____
 - (b) Record each decision in the 16th edition _____
 - (c) Keep a card file of additions, corrections, etc. _____
 - (d) Keep no record other than *DC* _____
 - (e) Other: _____

* Twenty questions were included in the Inquiry, some of which provided background information only.

On the basis of the thirty responses, the contribution of *DC&* seems to be recognized since nineteen indicate that they read it; seven that they *sometimes* read it; no response from four. The methods for keeping informed of the changes in *DC&* varied as follows:

	Number of Libraries responding
Note the <i>DC&</i> citation in the 16th	12
Keep no record other than <i>DC&</i>	8
Record each decision in the 16th	6
Record some decisions in the 16th	5
Keep a card file of additions, corrections, etc.	6

Since the responses total more than twenty-six, it is obvious that some libraries employ more than one method of keeping informed.

Other procedures cited were: (a) to note accepted or intended changes; (b) to check when the number is suggested on an LC card; (c) to clip notes from *DC&* and tip them in the 16th; (d) to place guide cards in the shelf list and to record notes in each cataloger's copy of Dewey; (e) to record when we stumble over the changes via LC.

While the responsibility for integrating the *DC&* decisions into the classification takes precedence over consistency in recording the data, for those contemplating an approach the procedure developed at the Denver Public Library should be studied.¹⁶

Use of the *Guide to Use of Dewey Decimal Classification*

Question

6. Have you read the *Guide* . . . ? Yes No Plan to
- (a) If you have read the *Guide*, have you consulted it?
 Often Sometimes Never
- (b) Have you recommended it to your staff?
 Yes No Plan to

Fourteen reported having read the *Guide* and six use it often; whereas ten indicate a "sometimes" use, one reported never consulting it. Seven had not read it, but six of these include a reading of it in their plans for the future. One candidly stated, however, "But I'm in no hurry." Only eleven had recommended the *Guide* to staff members.

As usual in statistical studies of this kind, four words can really summarize the findings: Some do; some don't. While it must be recognized, therefore, that each person must fill his professional day with the literature most appropriate to his needs, the *Guide* may well be recommended as an aid of eminent practicality. Careful study and application might indeed be more rewarding than is supposed, and those six who plan yet to read it may find it informative and adaptive to their needs.

Use of Dewey Numbers on Library of Congress Cards

Question

3. Do you use the Dewey numbers on Library of Congress cards?
 Yes No Sometimes

- (a) If you answer other than *No*, do you
- (1) accept them without revision _____
 - (2) shorten the numbers _____
 - (3) find it necessary to expand them often _____
 - (4) use them simply as a guide because of local variations _____
- (b) In general, do you consider the numbers expanded in too great detail?
- _____Yes _____No _____No opinion

It appeared from the responses that the libraries were exploiting the adaptability of the DC notation both in reducing and expanding; for example, fifteen reported shortening the numbers, whereas five found it necessary on occasion to expand them. Three sometimes accepted the numbers without change, but seven were unwilling to do so. One library stressed, "We do not accept them blindly." Only two libraries reported making no use of the numbers; in contrast, out of the twenty-seven which used the numbers, twelve modified their use to "sometimes." Seventeen also noted that the numbers served simply as guide because of local variation.

Though the libraries both reduce and expand the numbers which appear on LC cards, there was no uniform feeling that the numbers were either too long or too short. While, for example, sixteen did shorten the numbers sometimes, twelve did not consider the numbers themselves too long. Eight felt that they were too long; one that they were sometimes too long; two had no opinion on the matter.

In view of the respondents' answers, it is possible to assume that Texas classifiers do not "tend, to too great an extent, to accept literally the numbers assigned" and that they had already implemented the advice given by the Editor in 1962 concerning "Long Numbers":

If the numbers assigned by us . . . are too long to suit you, or if your collection in a given subject is small, do not hesitate to cut back judiciously (*DC&*, 1:14/16 p. 3).

Decisions as to Form Divisions and Preferred Treatment of Biography

Form Divisions Question

7. When do you use form divisions?
- (a) Always when applicable _____
 - (b) When the Dewey number includes no more than five figures _____
 - (c) Only selected ones, such as *o1*, *o8* _____
- (1) Do you use form division *o4*? _____Yes _____No _____Sometimes
- (2) Would you be willing to abolish form division *o4* and use *o8* for "Essays and Lectures"?
- _____Yes _____No _____No opinion

The consensus was that form divisions were used only when applicable or especially helpful; however, only selected ones were used, such as *o1* and *o8*.

Seven used the form divisions when the Dewey number included no more than five figures. This decision was in conformity with that made by the Decimal Classification Office in January, 1959, that form divisions would not be added to base numbers more than five digits long unless they were significantly provided for in the schedule (*DC&*, 1:1, p. 2).

Perhaps those seven had not been fully aware that three years later the Decimal Classification Office announced that it would reverse the short-sighted policy, both because it fails to make necessary distinctions in subjects having extensive literature, and also because, as a result, our shelflist supplies insufficient differentiation to be a realistic guide to expansions needed for later editions (*DC&*, 1:14/16, p. 2-3).

Libraries, studying Dewey numbers on the LC cards, no doubt have observed the change in policy and have either reversed their own policies or have adapted the expansions according to local decisions.

The application of form division *o4* varied considerably. Of the thirteen libraries which used it, seven limited the use to "sometimes." Four indicated that it was never added. In response to their willingness to abolish *o4* as a form division, ten were willing to do so; seven, unwilling; and one expressed no opinion.

The responses conformed to the national pattern, however; for, according to *DC&*, a survey of some time ago revealed little interest in the retention of *o4* and a majority opinion that it be combined with *o8* (*DC&* 1:14/16, p. 4). As of this date, therefore, the form division has been abandoned, and those unwilling to relinquish it must be especially observant to insure its continued application.

Preferred Treatment of Biography

Question

11. By which of the following plans do you classify individual biography:
- (a) Throughout *920-928* _____
 - (b) In one sequence under *B, 92*, or a similar symbol _____
 - (c) Throughout the entire classification according to subject _____
 - (d) Local plan: (indicate briefly)
 - (1) Which plan do you prefer: _____(a) _____(b) _____(c) _____(d)

As was to be expected, the traditional plan of grouping individual biography in one sequence under *B, 92*, or a similar symbol proved most popular with fourteen out of the twenty-eight libraries identifying that method as the one being used. Ten indicated, however, that they preferred classifying individual biographies throughout the entire classification. One library indicated the use of a local plan.

In view of the decision that in the 17th edition of Dewey the preferred treatment of biography is that form division *o92* will be added to the subject and that *920-928* will be optional (*DC&* 1:14/16, p. 5), it was interesting to note that fifteen indicated that they preferred classifying biography with the subject. At least fourteen of those were the libraries already using the plan.

For those preferring to continue the use of *B*, 92, or 920-928, the assuring news is that the Decimal Classification Office will show on LC cards whether the work is considered individual or collective biography.

Relocations and Problems

Questions

Several questions were asked concerning relocations including twenty-five specific relocations from Dewey 14th to Dewey 16th; thirty relocations from Dewey 15th to Dewey 16th. The questions are omitted because of their length.

Data on specific relocations from Dewey 14th will not be enumerated other than to note that in every instance but one the 16th edition was preferred; only in the classification of Eugenics (Dewey 14th: 575.1; Dewey 16th: 613.94) was the decision divided equally, with fourteen using one or the other.

Since many of the relocations cited simply obliterated a 14th edition alternative which may or may not have been adopted by a library originally, it is possible that it was the conformity of the 16th to the 14th that accounted for the apparent dominance of the 16th. For those libraries which reported that they hoped to move toward the use of the 16th, this confirmation of continuity between the 14th and the 16th is reassuring.

Though no library indicated the 15th edition as an authority, some 15th edition numbers were being retained, for example, *Research* (Dewey 15th: 001). In general it would seem that a statement made by Mary Stone of The University of Texas in 1951 was prophetic in its evaluation of the 15th edition:

It is an interesting curiosity, which would probably be an ideal tool if one intended to start a small public library next week.¹⁷

While relocations within Dewey 16th were adopted freely, of the four relocations and/or expansions extracted from *DC*² and included in the Inquiry, only one had been widely adopted and that by eighteen out of twenty-seven libraries. The relocation was for Astronautics: 629.4-457. It is possible that the unused numbers for Hawaii (996.904) and Germ warfare (341.675) reflected an absence of literature on those subjects rather than a failure to consider them. The fourth classification number was 910.1, Topical geography. Its rejection by twenty-five out of twenty-seven libraries implied that the inclusion of the optional provision in the Seventeenth edition of Dewey does not seem worthwhile for Texas libraries.

Several provocative replies were made in response to the question concerning the impact of the conflict sometimes occurring between the classificatory responsibility of maintaining the "principle of integrity of numbers" and that of adhering to the "principle of keeping pace with knowledge." Some follow:

1. 'Integrity of numbers' does not matter much in closed stacks, such as ours, especially as books get older and finally obsolete. Subject-books are not much used in college and university libraries, when they are more than 20 years old (cf. L. C., Merritt). If retained, they will be withdrawn for storage (by size, not by subject classification). As long as they are on the shelves, they can be found by a borrower who fills out his call slip properly. Rigid classification is solely for the delight of catalogers (or the birds).
2. The public service departments are ordinarily more interested in having all the material on a subject in the same number than they are in keeping pace with knowledge. . . . Unless there is little reclassifying involved, we usually decide in favor of integrity of numbers over keeping pace with knowledge.
3. Conflict recognized; glaring inconsistencies noted . . . discrepancies accepted. Books can still be located with the aid of the catalog. Classifiers *do* complain a great deal.
4. The public is generally silent on matters of classification; the catalogers, privately uncomfortable. The impact of the conflict is mostly felt by the alert catalogers who develop guilt feelings. The striving to re-arrange books according to changing relationships of knowledge is strengthened by the hope that the public will benefit from it however unconsciously; it is diminished by the suspicion that such rearrangements hinder people from finding useful material. It seems to me that some depth studies are . . . needed to establish the respective merits of collections classified rigidly and those which try to reflect the changing relationships.

It appears that a major deterrent to the acceptance of a relocation is the feeling of responsibility to reclassify—the compulsion for consistency. The feeling has been intensified in American librarianship because of the open shelf concept, the purported advantages of which have been magnified. Two factors, among many, diminish these advantages: (1) the book retirement program for obsolete and little used books; (2) increase in the size of libraries.

While the phenomenal increase in the book collection makes it impossible to browse comprehensively, the fallacy in the approach has been that selection tends to be made from that which is on the shelf in a given place at a given time. Librarians know that only through a well-designed catalog, with its analytics, its multiple subject entries, manually or electronically responsive, can the total resources of the library be made available. While accidental selection in no way diminishes the personal joys of browsing, it may be regarded objectively as an "uncivil waste of readers' time and a repudiation of exact scholarship."¹³

When the catalog assumes its proper function, maintaining the integrity of the classification number, which would perpetuate, in many instances, outmoded concepts, seems less noteworthy than the responsibility of revealing through classification a profile of scholarship in a given decade or an era.

The Seventeenth: Some Anticipated Changes

The information contained in this section was obtained from *DC6* and from data received from Benjamin A. Custer, Editor, Decimal Classification, The Library of Congress.

It may be revised or expanded as new reports appear, such as *The Annual Report of 1962/63 of the Decimal Classification Office* and current issues of *DC*♣.

As the publication date of the 17th edition draws nearer, classifiers cannot help but know that there will continue to be relocations; for as long as classification reflects the knowledge of its times, the reviewing of outmoded, revised, and/or newly-emerging concepts is inevitable. It is also an enduring responsibility assumed by the makers, not only of the 17th edition, but of others yet to come. Meanwhile the vitality of the responses to the Inquiry offers the assurance that Texas classifiers recognize the responsibility of librarianship to keep pace with knowledge.

Since the publication of the 16th, it has been known that the 17th was to appear in approximately seven years. Ample warning was given that the complete revision in the fields of organic and inorganic chemistry (546 and 547) would be the preferred analysis in the 17th and that the obsolescent schedule based on the 14th would be dropped. In Texas, for example, twenty of the libraries responding have already adopted the revision; seven have reclassified earlier titles; one has reclassified 'as they cause trouble'; another, "partially."

The Editor of the 17th has sought the advice of librarians as problem areas have been identified; for example, through the pages of *DC*♣ requests have been made concerning (1) form divisions; (2) biography; (3) *g10.1*, topical geography; (4) railroads. While the extent of the response has been no indication of the real concern, there is always the question, both tantalizing and practical: What changes may be expected in the 17th edition?

On the basis of information extracted from *DC*♣ and from correspondence with the Editor, Benjamin Custer, the following may be noted briefly: (a) the form and style for the schedules; (b) the index; (c) expansions in preparation; (d) preferred and obsolescent schedules; (e) re-use of numbers; (f) relocations; (g) form divisions.

Form and Style for the Schedules

The Editorial Office has structured editorial style rules which will add clarity to the meaning and simplify the study of an entry and its subdivision. Among the rules are those relating to:

Headings: "Each heading should consist of a word or a phrase so inclusive that it will cover all the topics subordinate to the heading."

Cross references: "Use at the point of widest applicability. Do not create a series of parallel cross references."

Comprehensive works: Use of term to be avoided because it was overused in the 16th edition.

Wording: "Do not use terms that will so limit the scope of a number that future expansions will be impossible without relocation."

Spelling: *Webster's New International Dictionary* is to be the major authority except for the spelling adopted by the National Education Association in 1898 for such words as catalog, tho, thoro.

One simplified spelling is to be used: Simplify *ed* to *t* in the past tense and past participle of verbs.

If the rules are adhered to strictly, the 17th edition should elicit praise from the severest editorial critic.

The Index

There will be changes in the index. Dissatisfaction with the index in the 16th edition has prompted a total re-study, and the proposed objectives in the current preparation are: (1) relativity; (2) reasonable, and preferably reduced size; (3) increased significance of subject content.

Concerning relativity.—There have been different interpretations of the meaning of *relative* as well as of Dewey's intent when he used the word for the first time on the title-page of the second edition. The consequence, therefore, has been an uneven development in the index throughout the years. The definition which is now the *guiding* one in preparing the index is:

A relative index does not recapitulate the schedules in alphabetic order, but actually reverses the process. Aspects scattered throughout the schedules are pulled together under each topic.

Concerning size.—There is no doubt but that the rate of growth of the index far exceeds the rate of growth of the schedules; indeed the growth is gargantuan. For example, the nine new subdivisions of *248* increased the index by 65 entries; the 27 subdivisions under *629.14* added 187 entries. Obviously there must be some control over the minute analysis, and the question can well be asked as each entry is made: Is this index entry necessary?

Concerning subject control.—This is, of course, the crucial area for which criteria have been established, such as (1) use terms that conform with subject usage; (2) be consistent in the development of parallel subjects. It will be in the successful implementation of these criteria that the worth of the index can be measured.

Meanwhile, the Editor, aware that it is impractical to index everything and also that it is impossible to satisfy all users on the amount and kind of indexing necessary, has recommended the possibility of publishing the index with interleaves, perforated so that sheets bearing the user's own entries can be moved from one edition to the next.

Decisions concerning the proposed limited indexing have not yet been made or are not yet available. Whatever the structure of the index to the 17th, however, it should stimulate comment and an emergence of interest in indexing theories and practice. (Such a discussion is long overdue, for it is time that American librarians explore the British concept of chain indexing and the merits of relative, alphabetic, and classified analysis).

Expansions in Preparation

Expansions in any classification system acknowledge an awareness

of the complexities of knowledge as well as the proliferation of publication. Since an expansion presupposes also the possibility of a logical or a practical analysis of that recorded knowledge, the 17th edition will continue to test its expansibility in the following disciplines and/or subjects:

133.5	Astrology	551.5	Meteorology
200	For Roman Catholic needs	576	Microbiology
290	For Buddhism, Hinduism, Judaism, Islam	580-590	Botony and Zoology
350	Public administration	621.381	Electronic engineering
362	Public welfare services	629.3	Ground-effect machines
370	Education	629.4	Astronautics
400	Language	658.4	Executive management
530	Physics	796	Rugby, soccer, cricket
550	Earth sciences	800	Literature
551.46-49	Hydrography	900	History (i.e. Historical periods)

New areas are being developed. Dewey is being projected into the space age; and new subjects such as space biology and space physiology, space in warfare, "geology" of the planets are to appear. No longer will Dewey be "earthbound," for as man explores and reports his journeys and findings, Dewey will intercalate new concepts in their new dimensions.

Perhaps the most welcomed expansion is that in Psychology for which a long-anticipated schedule has been prepared. Henceforth 130-139 will retain only those topics which are not true psychology. Some topics will be relocated elsewhere, for example, Clinical Psychoanalysis from 131.34 to the 610's.

Preferred and Obsolescent Schedules

The policy of the 16th edition, to include the preferred schedule in its normal place and the obsolescent schedule in the appendix, is to be abandoned. (See *Dewey* 16, p. 2429-2439: 546-547.) Instead, all changes are to be shown in the schedule proper. In the 17th edition, the reappraisal of Psychology (150) will demonstrate the anticipated convenience of having the preferred and obsolescent schedules readily available.

Such a policy will continue to make it possible for a library to become thoroughly acquainted with the preferred analysis before making a decision concerning its adoption. That Texas librarians tend to endorse the preferred concepts can be observed, as earlier noted, in the adoption by twenty out of twenty-five of the revisions in 546 and 547, 16th edition.

Re-Use of Numbers

Complications could quickly arise if numbers vacated by relocations or otherwise should be used indiscriminately. The following rules guiding revision, therefore, insure conformity in meaning and integrity of vacated numbers:

- (a) If the number has been vacated at least 25 years, it may be used. For example, if the number was vacated in the 13th edition, the 17th may use the number for another meaning.
- (b) If the number has been vacated for less than 25 years: Re-use can be justified only on the basis that the proposed new use is imperative to provide for the literature. Its use must be endorsed, moreover, by the Editorial Policy Committee.

Such a cautious policy certainly should lessen concern over acceptance of re-location for new acquisitions without the reclassification of older materials. Explanatory notes, placed strategically within the shelf classification areas, could direct and warn the user, desirous of browsing through the literature, both that another classification number should be consulted for earlier materials and also that the catalog would reveal *all* the holdings within the subject area.

Relocations

Relocations from the 16th edition will be shown by some kind of formalized note. No reference is to be made, however, to changes in the 14th and 15th editions as is now done in the 16th.

While recognizing that relocation is a characteristic of a classification of disciplines whatever its structure, the Editorial Office nevertheless has identified its guiding principles as being:

- (a) Relocate only as a last resort. Check other devices before recommending relocation, e.g.,
 - (1) Can heading be broadened or limited to tolerate the location of the item in question?
 - (2) Can references be used to reconcile the location?
- (b) Relocate when present locations are so absurd that the foregoing measures are inoperative.
- (c) Relocate when present location makes it impossible to provide for the literature.
- (d) Relocate to secure proper subject relationships and sequences and uniformity in development only if and when the amount of material to be relocated is insignificant.
- (e) Relocate to eliminate dual provision.
- (f) Relocation may be partial or total.

Essentially, then, it can be concluded that relocations are to be made within the cautious confines of "only as a last resort." Thus again the conflict between fossilizing a concept and relocating it emerges as a continuing characteristic of classificatory analysis.

Form Divisions

Two changes may be cited thus far, the first of which is minor, the second major. The first merely makes the use of two zeros uniform in the form divisions. In editions through the 16th, some subject numbers have required one zero and some two zeros for the introduction of a form division. In the 17th, however, the decision is to be that all form divisions

under one subject number be treated uniformly: use one zero if possible for all; if not possible for all form divisions, use two.

The second change relates to the creation of a "Table of Standard Subdivisions" which will supersede the traditional "Form Division" table. The main divisions will remain the same, however, other than that *o4* has been eliminated and *o2* is to be called "Miscellany." There will be some expansions, some changes, for example: *o22*, Illustrations (formerly *o84*); *o19*, Psychological aspects.

The most striking difference is the addition of an area table (e.g., *U.S. 73*) which is to be consulted instead of the 900's from which the area number has been extracted in the former editions when historical, regional, or geographic treatment is to be indicated. The area table will be similar to the "Local List" of Charles A. Cutter's *Expansive Classification*⁴ and to the floating tables in the Library of Congress Classification, Schedule *H*.¹⁰

The expansion promises to be practicable and readily applicable. It should be especially welcomed in library schools where the introduction of the "divide like" structure has been somewhat involved for the beginning student who frequently suffers from the "dangling nine complex."

Changes, then, may be expected in the 17th, but they are evolutionary rather than revolutionary; such a statement is merely a truism, for change is the natural order of things. The awareness of the permanence of change, however, makes Dewey's warning of 1876 as applicable today as when he first made the statement:

A [classification] scheme can be satisfactory in use only to those who realize . . . [its] inherent difficulties and are satisfied because of their knowledge that a plan free from annoying difficulties is wholly unattainable (Dewey 16, p. 27).

It is with such a realization that classifiers, it is to be hoped, await the 17th.

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The National Union Catalog of Manuscript Collections

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SCHOLARS AND LIBRARIANS have for decades been concerned with the problem of locating manuscript sources. There has been no central bibliographic control of this rich research material. No one has known how many manuscripts are preserved in the United States, what subjects they cover, or where they can be found.

Now, at last, there is a partial solution to this predicament: the National Union Catalog of Manuscript Collections. Following the receipt, in November, 1958, of a \$200,000 grant (later supplemented by \$100,000) from the Council on Library Resources, Inc., the Library of Congress recruited a staff to compile a list of the repositories of manuscripts accessible to the public, to solicit from each of them a detailed description of its individual collections, to edit this information, to present it in consistent form on catalog cards, and to assemble a union catalog of the collections in dictionary form.

The number of manuscripts is so great that the only feasible bibliographic control is through the description of collections rather than of single items. A collection for inclusion in the NUCMC is defined as: A large group of papers (manuscript or typescript, originals or copies, of letters, memoranda, diaries, accounts, logbooks, drafts, etc., including associated printed or near-print materials), usually having a common source and formed by or around an individual, a family, a corporate entity, or devoted to a single theme.*

The repositories were invited to supply, on prepared forms called "data sheets," descriptions of the separate collections in their total holdings which were covered by the above definition. They were advised that small groups consisting of a highly limited number of pieces should be taken care of by reports covering many such groups.

The announcement of a national union catalog stimulated local interest and gave impetus to lagging energies in organizing manuscript

* The project has been guided by this definition from the beginning but is feeling the need for its refinement, particularly to clarify the meaning of "large." The problem is currently under study.

collections. The solicitation of nearly 3,100 repositories brought replies showing a desire to cooperate from 850, and descriptions of collections began to arrive in a steady stream. The staff transforms these reports from the repositories into uniform catalog entries according to *The Rules for Descriptive Cataloging in the Library of Congress: Manuscripts; Preliminary Edition, Preprint of Rules for Collections of Manuscripts, September, 1954*, and cards are printed as the "MS" series by the Library of Congress.

These cards were originally designed for a dictionary card catalog, but the importance of making the entries available in book form was soon recognized. In November, 1962, the initial volume of the catalog (1959-1961) was published by J. W. Edwards, Ann Arbor, Michigan. This volume contains reports for 7,300 manuscript collections from 317 repositories. It has 706 pages, with 352 pages of index, in three alphabets. Priced at \$9.75, it was called by the Librarian of Congress "one of the biggest bargains of the year for research institutions."** Its preface announced that annual cumulations were anticipated, and the second volume (only a little late) is scheduled for publication in March, 1964, by the Shoe String Press, Hamden, Connecticut. It will be in two volumes, and is another bargain at \$13.50 for the set. Volume one will describe 5,028 collections (these were printed in the 1962 MS card series) from 208 repositories, 81 of which were not represented in the previous volume. Volume one will also contain a cumulated repository index to the 12,257 collections in 398 repositories. Volume two will have a cumulated index of names, subjects, and places, in one alphabet covering the entire 12,257 collections. This index, containing approximately 156,400 citations, is wholly new, since the subject index in the first volume was based on the list of *Subject Headings used in the Dictionary Catalogs of the Library of Congress*, and this was not found flexible enough for a book index or appropriate for manuscript material.

The new index had to be derived from the text of the catalog entries; it attempts to bring out all names (personal, corporate, and place), subjects or topics, and events that are given or implied in the catalog description of the manuscript collections. The indexers have kept in mind the fact that the material itself is in manuscript form and have attempted to use the most applicable words and phrases. Subjects are given in specific terms modified if possible by place. Since scholars working with manuscripts are particularly interested in information about places, a pattern of triple headings is followed whenever suitable; for example, a topic or subject which is connected with a specific city is indexed under the topic, under the city, and under the state in which the city is located. The pattern adopted and the detail cited have resulted in a large index even though the nature of the material and the variation in the reports make it uneven in coverage. For example, the Adams family collection in the Massachusetts Historical Society, which covers 260 years and extends to 175 feet, has 16 index entries, as does the William Bliss Pine collection in

** U. S. Library of Congress. Report of the Librarian of Congress, 1961/62, p. xvi.

the University of Oklahoma Library, consisting of only 106 items written during a 17 year period. The names of the correspondents supply the index entries for the Adams family papers, while the topics and locations of Bliss's civic, political and business interests provide the approaches to his collection.

With the abandonment of the subject heading system and the availability of the catalog entries in book form, the cards are no longer intended to be used in a dictionary card catalog. They are printed only for use in producing the photographic copy for the volumes and to supply to the contributing library or repository, in quantity, for any use it wishes to make of them. Libraries that had standing orders for the cards before this change was made agreed unanimously that the approach to the contents of the nation's manuscript collections was more effective and more economical through the volumes. The NUCMC is, therefore, a series of volumes designed to provide the scholarly world with access to a wealth of material available only in manuscript form, wherever it may be in the United States, unless they are in private hands.

Further improvements are under consideration for the third volume. The two major changes proposed are the use of larger type (10 point throughout), and arrangement of the entries by repository. This arrangement would not only present the entries in a logical order, but would obviate the need for a repository index.

Cataloging The Exhibition Catalog

DONALD L. FOSTER, *Cataloger*
University of Illinois Library, Urbana

ONE OF THE MOST significant aspects of the current art book explosion is the new stature gained by exhibition catalogs. No longer mere listings of the works represented in shows, they are today beautifully illustrated books (often issued in hard covers) written by experts in the field. Lifted out of the souvenir category these catalogs are now being bought by both museum visitors and libraries as important additions to their collections. However, important as they may be to the art student and scholar, exhibition and museum catalogs present a variety of problems to the cataloger.

The choice of main entry is certainly one of the most perplexing of the problems which confront the cataloger, and no doubt is a source of frustration to the patron. Where is a particular catalog to be entered—under the museum, artist, editor, sponsor or title? All are possible and in glancing through the Library of Congress, National Union, and other catalogs we find all are used as main entries. Even when attempting scrupulously to follow the LC-ALA rules, the numerous exceptions and varieties of possible entries to be considered in many cases make the task of consistent cataloging seem hopeless.

Generally, exhibition catalogs are entered under the museum (ALA rule 71). Often, however, the Library of Congress and other libraries will enter a catalog under the compiler or editor, especially if the catalog is considered to be "unofficial" (ALA rule 13c). If the catalog is of a private collection, it is to be entered under the name of the owner (ALA rule 13) or under the museum if the collection has passed into the possession of a museum (ALA rule 13b). Many libraries prefer to follow ALA rule 19 and enter their catalogs, as with other books on art, under the artist. Often a sponsoring body or the organization circulating the exhibition is considered responsible for the catalog, and the main entry is made for it. As if this were not confusing enough, many catalogs, especially those of Italian origin, follow ALA rule 136 and are entered under the name of the place where the exhibition is held.

When an exhibition catalog is re-issued by a commercial publisher, as is often the case, more complications can arise. Recently a catalog of the

exhibition, "Forty Artists Under Forty", was published. The art works were from the collection of the Whitney Museum of American Art, the exhibition sponsored by the New York State Council on the Arts and circulated by the American Federation of Arts, with the catalog edited by Edward Bryant, thus the choice of entry was wide. The Library of Congress decided to enter it under the organization that circulated the exhibition, the American Federation of Arts. Subsequently, Praeger published a hardbound edition of the catalog in its "Books that Matter" series. This time LC entered the work under the Whitney Museum of American Art. The choice of two different authors for the same title demonstrates how chaotic the cataloger's job can be; one can only guess how mystified such practices must leave the average patron.

Probably in no other field is the library patron confronted with so many seeming inconsistencies than when looking for an exhibition catalog or general art book on a particular artist. The discrepancies between the modern usage of artists' names and the entries found in the catalog as set up according to ALA rules are astonishing. What patron would think to look for Le Corbusier under Jeanneret-Gris, El Greco under Theotocopuli, or Michel-Angelo under Buonarroti. He will find Leonardo da Vinci filed under Leonardo, while Vincent van Gogh will be found under Gogh. And, such entries as Uccello, Paolo di Dono, *known as*, 1396 or 7-1475, or Gelée, *called* Claude Lorrain, 1600-1682, must completely baffle the average library user. Cross references should, of course, cover all possibilities, but, nevertheless, confusion is present.

Even more problems exist for those who must establish these entries. If the entry of a particular Renaissance artist has not already been established, the cataloger can only guess at the name and dates. Not only do authorities disagree on dates, but one even finds inconsistencies in the names themselves.

Because of the unorthodox format of many exhibition catalogs, the information given on the title page (if, in fact, there is a title page) is not always sufficient to prepare an accurate catalog card. In many cases the title is even misleading. It is, therefore, usually necessary either to incorporate in the body of the entry or to add in the form of a note data which does not appear.

The word "exhibition" or its foreign equivalent, mention of the fact that the work is a catalog, as well as the dates and place of the exhibition should all be bracketed in the body of the entry if these facts are not already present. Or, if this information cannot be satisfactorily intergrated with the data in the body, it can be recorded in the form of a note, e.g.

* Exhibition to be held at the Fogg Art Museum and other places.

Based on the exhibition Kunst und Naturform, held in 1958 in the Kunsthalle, Basel.

Catalog of the exhibition at the Guggenheim Museum, Jan.-Apr. 1963, later to be circulated in Europe.

* All examples have been taken from Library of Congress catalog cards.

Catalog of a series of exhibitions opening Nov. 17, 1961, at the Metropolitan Museum of Art, New York, and closing May 15, 1964, at the Detroit Institute of Arts.

Whenever possible, a personal author (editor, compiler, etc.) should either be added in the body or included in a note, e.g.

Text signed: Lloyd Goodrich.

Catalog prepared by Ralph F. Colin.

"An introduction to the Fauve movement [by John Rewald]": p. 5-14.

Although it might appear that an individual is simply carrying out his routine duties as a member of the museum staff by writing seemingly unimportant introductory material, he may well be an authority in his field offering a significant contribution to a certain aspect of art, not merely attaching an "introduction" or "preface" as is usually the case with other works on art. Whether a personal author added entry is to be assigned must be determined in light of the merits of each individual case and the policies of the particular library.

The cataloger must also be cognizant of any special material not mentioned in the title. This applies primarily to the bibliographies and listings which often accompany exhibition catalogs and which could be of special interest to the student and scholar. These should be noted, e.g.:

"A bibliography of art nouveau, by James Grady": p. 152-161.

"Toulouse-Lautrec: a chronology, by Anne Dahlgren Hect": p. 3-5.

"Books illustrated by Miro": p. 107-108.

Special care must be taken to describe in the collation as accurately as possible the physical make up of the work. The complicated and irregular pagings as well as the preponderance and variety of illustrations can make any attempt at a brief and accurate description of an exhibition catalog very difficult. This, of course, applies not only to catalogs, but to most works on art.

Because of the many and varied media employed by artists today, confusion can easily arise in regard to where to classify a particular catalog and what subject headings to employ. A title may clearly state that an exhibition is of the paintings of a given artist or group of artists. However, on close examination it becomes clear that over half the "paintings" are really drawings, lithographs, or other graphic media.

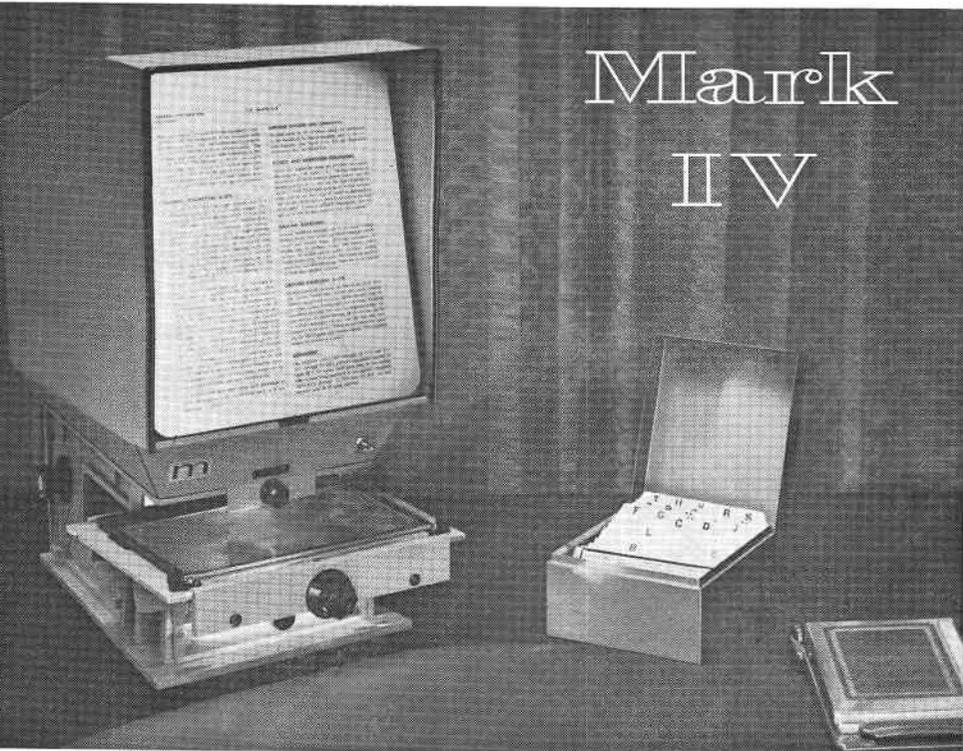
Even more ambiguous is the use of the term "art." What subject headings should be used and where should a catalog on African, Oceanic, or Greek art be classified—in art as the title and text imply, or under sculpture since by far the greatest portion of the illustrations is usually in this medium? Or, should the subject be considered "antiques" and classified as such?

As in many fields there often exist discrepancies between the popular use of art terms and the subject headings as employed by LC. For example, LC has no subject headings that adequately cover the many exhibition catalogs of original prints that are being published today. The term

prints is not used. GRAPHIC-ARTS is too broad, covering as it does drawings and other media, and such headings as COLOR PRINTS, ETCHINGS, WOOD-ENGRAVINGS, etc., represent only one type of print. The heading generally employed by LC for books containing prints or on print-making is ENGRAVINGS. However, to the student and artist this term again represents only one aspect of print-making not including such important graphic media as woodcuts, etching, and lithographs.

The variety and the subtle differences that exist between the Library of Congress subject headings by means of which the geographic aspects of a subject are expressed can offer still more problems, e.g. PAINTINGS—FRANCE; PAINTINGS, FRENCH; PAINTERS, FRENCH; PAINTING—FRANCE; PAINTING, FRENCH. The cataloger may or may not have a clear understanding as to the subtle differences between such headings, but it is doubtful that the average patron knows whether he wants a catalog on French paintings, French painters, French painting, or on all three and whether what he needs is a work on paintings, painters, and/or painting in France or on paintings, painters and/or painting of French origin. Then when one considers those catalogs which include more than one art medium and/or country as well as the various subdivisions, confusion is compounded.

With the notable increase in both the quantity and quality of museum catalogs, their presence will continue to occupy a prominent place in college and special library collections. However, unless more guidance is given to catalogers, the inadequacy of present rules will make the task of cataloging and classifying these works difficult and perplexing. Special attention must be given to the special problems that accompany the exhibition catalog in order to alleviate both the task of the cataloger and the confusion of the patron into whose hands this material must eventually find its way.



Mark IV

The New Standard in Microfiche Readers

is the Mark IV, the new desk-top reader
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same quality standards as Microcard's
ous Mark VII opaque-card reader, this
microfiche reader places the same em-
sis on comfort-in-use. For example, the
e images are projected by a six-element
rocard® lens onto a large 9½" x 11"
en. The enlargement is 18x allowing a
page of 8½" x 11" text to be read at
time from material filmed at the stand-
18x reduction ratio. The screen, hooded
tinted for viewing comfort, has a light
rol to adjust screen brilliance to exist-
ng in light.

ow Available on Microfiches
om Microcard Editions:

1. Index Medicus
2. Chemical Patents
3. A.E.C. Reports

The microfiche holder opens automatically, and paging is controlled by a single scanning knob. The ultra-quiet internal blower assures cool, comfortable operation even when used for long periods of time. The cast aluminum base of the Mark IV provides rigidity and balance, yet occupies table space of only 9" x 13".

The Mark IV reads both positive and negative microfiches in any size up to 5" x 8". This reader, destined to be the standard by which all other fiche readers are measured, gives new utility to microfiche systems. For additional information on the Mark IV, or a microfiche system, write to Dept. L, Microcard Corporation, West Salem, Wisconsin.

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One Picture is Worth a Thousand [Typed] Words

WILLIAM E. JORGENSEN, *Librarian*
U.S. Navy Electronics Laboratory
San Diego, California

"PICTURES" INSTEAD OF typewriters are now being used to make catalog card sets at the U.S. Navy Electronics Laboratory Library. "Pictures" means that photo-images of catalog cards are being reproduced on a Xerox Corporation Model 914 Copier to make card sets, similar to the Library of Congress printed card sets. Thus, one "picture" on the Xerox 914 will reproduce six sets of cards simultaneously, directly from the corresponding array of six master, or main-entry, cards.

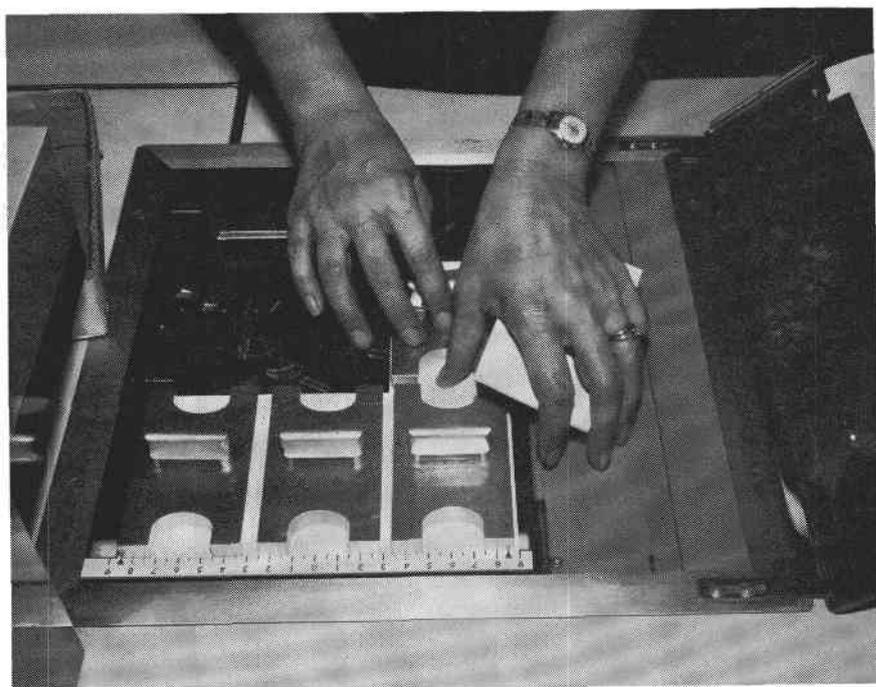
The Xerox 914 Copier is a desk-size, general purpose copying machine which is excellent for office use, but is not designed to reproduce library catalog cards. Hence, some special techniques and equipment must be used for copying cards. The necessary methods and equipment to adapt the Xerox for use here were devised by Carroll Thompson, Photographic Manager at the Navy Electronics Laboratory, inspired by a similar procedure for making library card sets developed by George Luckett, Librarian of the U.S. Naval Postgraduate School in Monterey, California, and still in use there. The writer worked closely with Mr. Thompson and Professor Luckett to develop procedures which would result in a useful product for this library. The reproduction of catalog cards, as well as the trimming and punching, is done in the NEL Photographic Laboratory, under the direction of Mr. Thompson.

The quality of Xerox-copied cards is comparable to typed cards, for all practical purposes. With careful workmanship and some supplementary equipment, which is described below, Xerox cards which are about as good as typed cards can be produced. An additional advantage is that Xerox cards, being photo-images, are completely accurate copies.

Additional cards for catalog card sets can be produced on the Xerox 914 at the rate of approximately 200 per hour, counting all the operations involved: machine time as well as cutting, punching, and assembling the cards into sets. It takes about four times as long to type the same number of cards. About 25,000 additional cards per year are prepared at the NEL Library from some 8,500 unit cards.

A brief description of the NEL method is as follows: First, the master card itself, which will later be filed in the card catalog as the main-entry card, is prepared by typing. The master cards are sorted into groups,

according to how many copies of each card are required. Six master cards requiring the same number of additional cards are placed at one time on the "exposure window" of the Xerox 914, as is shown below. The cards are placed face down in an exact position so that the margins will be correct on all copies. The cards are held in place by specially made aluminum weights, which prevent the cards from slipping or curling during the process. A separate exposure is made for each copy needed; for example, four exposures are made to produce four copies. The machine does this automatically, of course, after the operator makes the setting for the desired number of copies. The NEL method is advantageous in making up to about ten copies of a card. Beyond that point other methods of reproduction should be considered, such as offset printing or mimeographing, if the work load warrants use of an addition process.



Six master cards are placed at one time on the "exposure window" of the Xerox 914 Copier. The aluminum weights for holding the cards in exact position for proper printing register have end holes and handles for easy manipulation.

The cards are reproduced on light-weight catalog card sheets, .007 inch thick, and of 100% rag content. Standard weight card stock would not feed well through the machine, in fact, the Xerox Company does not recommend the use of paper thicker than .006 inch. The sheets are bought in nine by ten-inch size, wrapped 200 to a package to keep the stock clean and flat until ready for use. The nine-inch width is used be-

cause it is easier to set the machine to feed paper this size, rather than 8.86 inches (22.5 centimeters), which is the combined width of three standard catalog cards. We obtain the card stock for about two cents a sheet. This makes the individual cards cost about one-third of a cent.

The total cost of the NEL method averages about two and a half cents for each card copied. The Xerox 914 Copier is furnished on a rental basis only; machine rental will run about three-fourths of a cent per card. Labor cost averages a cent and a half per card and card stock a third of a cent. The machine is also used for other purposes, which helps to bring down the unit cost of each exposure.

After being run through the Xerox 914, the sheets are cut into standard-size catalog cards: 7.5 by 12.5 centimeters, which is slightly less than three by five inches. Cutting the cards to exact size has been one of our principal difficulties in utilizing card sheets run on the Xerox 914. If the cards vary as much as one-sixteenth of an inch in height, they become very hard to work with in a catalog drawer. To help solve this difficulty a hand-operated paper cutter with fairly accurate settings is used to cut the sheets into cards. A pile of cards about an inch thick is cut at one time. To aid in getting accurate settings and precise cuts a stainless steel gauge, the exact size of a standard library catalog card was made at NEL.

When the cutting of the sheets into cards is completed, holes for the retaining rod in the card catalog drawer are punched. An inexpensive paper punch (with guide pins added at the NEL machine shop) is used to punch the holes in the proper place. This equipment will take only a few cards at a time and is fairly slow; a better punch would be helpful.

It has been demonstrated at NEL that catalog cards can be reproduced on the Xerox 914 with satisfactory quality and at a lower cost than typing. Improvements in this method and equipment can be and doubtless will be made, but what is really needed is a new machine to copy library catalog cards directly—without special techniques, skills, or supplementary equipment. This machine should be of modest size and cost, adaptable enough to replace the typewriter for “custom-tailored” card copying and with sufficient capacity to reproduce card sets for most libraries.* Such a card reproducing machine would not, of course, replace the various printing devices now being used by many large libraries for high-volume reproduction of card sets. There is certainly a demand for such a machine, as attested by the fact that millions of catalog cards are produced or copied by libraries every year. More millions are printed and sold by the Library of Congress: over 42 million last year, according to the 1961/62 *Annual Report of the Librarian*.

* Editor's note: That is, The Cataloger's Camera?

European Report: Reprography Congress Document Reproduction Activities in French and British Libraries.

[Editor's note: Hubbard Ballou has kindly agreed to allow substitution of this report for his regular feature, COPYING METHODS NOTES, which will be resumed in the Summer issue.]

ALLEN B. VEANER

*Specialist for Document Reproduction
Harvard University Library
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COLOGNE, A CITY OF remarkable contrasts, was an ideal choice for the First International Congress on Reprography. Nearly every city block reveals the unexpected juxtaposition of the new and the old, and strangely enough, the composite is not inharmonious. Relics of the Roman town of Colonia are still well preserved, as are fragments of the medieval wall which once surrounded the city. But as the visitor enters the modern Fair Grounds he loses all sense of being in a city that recently celebrated its two thousandth anniversary.

Contrasts such as these served to reinforce and heighten the sense of progress that has taken place in document reproduction since the first meeting of the National Microfilm Association was held in 1952. For unlike that gathering which drew only 100 attendants, the First International Congress on Reprography immediately attracted more than ten thousand visitors and delegates from over thirty countries, so far had the art and science of "reprography" advanced in little more than a decade.

Sponsorship of the Congress was divided among Unesco, the International Federation for Documentation, the International Federation of Library Associations, the German Society for Photography, and Centre International de la Photographie. Held concurrently with the Congress was the International Trade Exhibiton for Reprography, undoubtedly the largest and most successful trade show ever held which displayed reproduction equipment exclusively. No comparable show has ever been mounted even in the United States. While half of the nearly one hundred firms exhibiting were German, a substantial number of the German exhibitors were either American affiliates (Kodak and 3M, for example) or were agents for American manufactured equipment and products.

Other European exhibitors were distributed as follows: Britain: 14; France: 6; Netherlands: 7; Switzerland: 2; Japan: 1; Italy: 1; Belgium: 1. No equipment or materials were displayed from the Soviet bloc.

Over a hundred papers were presented in two groups, one devoted to scientific and theoretical aspects, the other to applied technology. The two sessions ran concurrently, and simultaneous translation service was available in English, French, and German. There was considerable variation in the quality of the papers delivered, and there was a tendency for certain manufacturers' representatives to exploit the platform for the promotion of their own products. Some of the papers which centered around library reproduction covered ground which has already been dealt with in the literature, and in a few cases the existing coverage was superior. A number of the better papers have been cited at the end of this report. An eagerly-awaited paper on self-service copying in academic libraries never materialized, unfortunately. The Verlag Dr. Othmar Helwich, Darmstadt, has arranged to publish all of the papers in abbreviated form.

Evidence of the increasing competitive significance of European microfilm capability was seen in the increased degree of automation being built into the new equipment. Previously the emphasis had been on the combination of simple and inexpensive equipment with a large labor factor. Rising labor costs in Europe and increased competition from the highly automated American-made equipment have doubtless brought about this development. The influence of the American microfilm industry was in evidence from two major viewpoints: first, much of the European equipment exhibited at the Congress was patterned after the type of equipment which has been available in the United States for a number of years; secondly, the laboratories of two great national libraries, the British Museum and the Bibliothèque Nationale, were equipped almost entirely with the long-established, reliable Recordak cameras made by the Eastman Kodak Company.

Now being automated is the microfiche process, a sheet microfilm useful where interfiling is necessary and which was long hailed as a means of cheap, individual documentation. Although several American firms have already taken an important lead in automating the large scale production of the microfiche, no automatic equipment had been manufactured for use by individual libraries. This gap is beginning to be filled: one fully-automatic French-made microfiche camera, the Microfilmex *Damier*, was exhibited at the Congress, and at this writing the Japanese have announced a similar device. As with all new equipment, a certain amount of field testing and actual use will be required before these cameras are ready to serve library purposes. Still badly needed is agreement on standards of size and format of the microfiche; until the present chaotic conditions of production have been settled, equipment manufacturers will be reluctant to market readers at reasonable prices. Technical Committee 46 of the International Standards Organization scheduled a meeting in Cologne for the week following the Congress to discuss these matters, and

during the Congress the Board of the Microfiche Foundation met for the same purpose.

At the conclusion of the Congress, I went to Paris where I visited two commercial laboratories, Microfilmex and Societe International de Microfilms (S.I.M.), and the reproduction facilities of the Bibliothèque Nationale, the Association pour la Conservation et Reproduction Photographique de la Presse (ACRPP), the Maison des Sciences de l'Homme, and the Centre National de la Recherche Scientifique (CNRS). Most of these laboratories were well-equipped and were doing work of excellent quality. The BN, the ACRPP, and S.I.M. were all partially or wholly equipped with the American-made Recordak cameras.

I was quite surprised to find no Photostat camera at the Bibliothèque Nationale. For the reproduction of continuous tone illustrations, both matte and glossy, I was shown a microreproduction technique using conventional equipment and film but with a variation in processing. The prints made by this process were indistinguishable from ordinary Photostats, and there was the further advantage that a direct positive paper print was produced. Later, I was able to see a similar technique producing equally good results at the Service du Microfilm, Chateau de Versailles.

All the Recordak cameras at the Bibliothèque Nationale had been rebuilt by the library to incorporate an excellent book holding device as an integral part of the camera itself. This design is the best bookholder seen by this writer and fulfills very well most of the requirements for a device to hold library materials beneath the camera effectively and without damage. However, the expense of reconstructing the camera to accommodate this holder is likely to be prohibitive for most libraries.

The Centre National de la Recherche Scientifique is geared to supply extremely-rapid copy service. Besides a Xerox Copyflo printer and several Xerox 914's, CNRS had two French-made rapid copiers using silver emulsion papers to produce positive prints of continuous tone illustrations; these prints were probably stabilized and not of archival permanence.

The CNRS employed a number of Andre Debrie microfilm cameras which are used to supply short films of brief articles. The cameras are unloaded hourly and the film processed immediately so that a microfilm of a brief article can be in the mail two hours after it has been requested. The Debrie cameras are very well suited to this application, but, because they can use only double-perforated film, have a fixed film advance, and cannot film small books in position 2A (the most economical position for further copying), they are not suitable for general, all-purpose use. An efficient book holder is part of the camera itself. I was told at the CNRS that the Andre Debrie firm had delivered similar cameras to the Soviet Union; most Russian films appear to have been made on cameras that feature these limitations.

The Maison des Sciences de l'Homme plans to expand its reprographic activities after occupying new quarters now in the course of construction. At that time it will undoubtedly become one of the major centers of

documentation and document reproduction in the social sciences. The Maison is exerting a major effort in the area of republishing Slavic research materials; a new union catalogue of such material in both microform and full-size format was in press at the time of my visit.

In England the outstanding library reproduction facility is the British Museum, which operates two laboratories, one in Bloomsbury and one at the new newspaper library in Colindale, forty minutes away by subway. All film processing is done at Colindale; unfortunately space is at such a premium in the main building that no archival film processing equipment of sufficient capacity could be accommodated there. Quite independently of the French developments described above, the British Museum had also substituted microfilm enlargements for Photostats, and in so doing were able to remove this bulky and expensive apparatus from the laboratory. Even with continuous tone illustrations, the staff of the British Museum laboratory is able to produce photoprints of a quality comparable to that formerly requiring the Photostat camera.

The Map Room of the British Museum is currently working on a system which should for the first time make it easy and economical for libraries to exchange maps and which will facilitate and simplify ordinary consultation by the scholar. The plan calls for creating master aperture cards from the maps by means of precision microfilm techniques. Aperture cards are far less expensive than full-size, conventional photocopies and, furthermore, are easily and cheaply duplicated for distribution. The card can be inserted into an 18" × 24" reader/printer and examined on the screen; paper prints can be made at the press of a button. This is of particular economic importance to those who may not need a copy but merely have to consult a map. The system should also do much to minimize wear on fragile or rare maps.

Oxford and Cambridge are less well equipped, having no facilities for processing or duplicating films; such work is carried out by a commercial firm in London. The reproduction shop at Oxford, while housed in the library, is actually managed by the Oxford University Press. The Press' need for photographic illustrations earlier in its history led to this arrangement which has been continued and carried throughout all the reprographic activities—including Photostats and microfilms—involving the Library's holdings.

The Recordak cameras in use at Oxford were of the type used in this country, but at Cambridge I encountered a different kind, the Recordak "Williamson" model. The Williamson version features the same limitations as the French Debie camera and hence is not as well suited to microfilming a wide range of library materials as is its American-designed counterpart. Cambridge offered rapid copy service with several Xerox 914's; Oxford did not have a Xerox 914 at the Bodleian Library, but there was one at one of the science libraries.

Except for the National Library of Science and Technology, no British library had a Copyflo printer; most librarians employed the services of an outside contractor. The British Museum actually does not need its

own printer, for as a facility of the British government the Museum is entitled to obtain Copyflo service without charge for its own official use from other government agencies, such as the War Office, Treasury, and H.M.S.O.

Delivery time for photocopies is a universal problem not confined to the libraries of any one country. Generally, in Britain about thirty days were required for photoprints and thirty to ninety for microfilm. Still more time is required for Copyflo service taken from outside contractors. Constantly mounting requests, cramped quarters, the expense of new equipment, plus the inherent difficulties of microfilming older materials in research libraries account for much of the delay. At the opposite end of the scale is the two hour service of the C.N.R.S. in Paris, which films only materials from its own small collections; usually the requests are for short articles from current technical journals, a type of work very suited to rapid handling.

Rank/Xerox, the European affiliate of Xerox Corporation and its subsidiary, University Microfilms Ltd., were in the process of moving into new quarters where their operations will henceforth be carried out in the same plant. An interesting feature of the Rank/Xerox Copyflo printer is its ability to print an image 13" wide on paper up to 15" wide, a capacity made greater than its American counterpart, to accommodate a different standard paper size. The significance of this feature is apparent for reprinting oversize books, newspapers, or other material of large format. One Xerox official did indicate that the Rank/Xerox printers might one day be available in the United States.

The Rank/Xerox 914 Copier has two features that could well be imitated by the parent firm in this country. One is a resettable print counter located near the delivery tray, a handy way to keep track of individual jobs as they are done. The second feature is a red light that flashes whenever a jam occurs.

In East Ardsley, Yorkshire, is Micro Methods Ltd., one of Europe's foremost micropublishers. Micro Methods is part of a larger enterprise which is heavily engaged in a variety of educational publishing activities aimed at the secondary school level. The firm is an active promoter of the microfiche, which it uses to publish periodicals and British university theses. At present the firm uses a Goebel camera which requires hand processing of each microfiche; the forthcoming generation of automatic microfiche cameras and processors will be welcome at Micro Methods, for even now the manual microfiche system is kept busy around the clock. Newspapers are photographed on roll microfilm as this format is believed best for sequential material not requiring interfiling. For reading microfilm the firm has developed several compact, portable readers, one of which offers motorized film transport. A dual-purpose reader has also been built for reading opaque or transparent sheet microforms. Indicative of the rapid growth of microreproduction in England were the preparations by both Micro Methods and Rank/Xerox for moving to new, enlarged quarters during the very same week.

The new word "reprography," a marriage of Latin and Greek, is intended to be a generic term embracing all facets of document reproduction and graphic science. The term originated in Europe; in the United States it has been achieving slow and reluctant acceptance. Resistance to the word ranges from etymological objections to accusations of cacophony. However one feels about the word itself, there is no doubt that a generic term for the field of document reproduction has been badly needed. The rapid growth of new processes and the development of new devices for reproducing documents mean that we can no longer afford the imprecision which results when trade names are freely used as generic terms. There will be little cause for opposition to the new term if it facilitates better communications by forcing us to use the proper terminology in discussions of technical processes.

The operation of this first Congress was characterized by certain flaws which can easily be corrected at the next Congress. For example, there was no luncheon break in the program; papers were scheduled continuously from 8:30 A.M. to 5:00 P.M. There was no effective message center so that delegates who had not previously met could arrange to see each other; this difficulty was accentuated by the requirement of turning in one's name tag in exchange for a translation headset. Issuance of a registration list during the Congress itself would have been most helpful. But by far the most important task for the Second Congress will be tightening of the editorial requirements to assure papers of better quality.

In the rapidly changing field of reprography, international meetings not only constitute a forum for the exchange of information, but may also influence standards, systems, materials, and equipment design. The first step has already been taken in furthering international communication in the field that is communication itself. The next step will be the convening of the Second International Congress on Reprography in 1966, in Cologne. One wonders what contrasts may then be observed.

RECOMMENDED FOR READING

1. Correa-Aguirre, Eduardo. "Microfilm pour l'Archivage et l'Expédition des Documents d'Etat Civil."
2. Offenbacher, E. "Introducing Reprography in Less Developed Countries."
3. Kay, Ronald H. "Reprographic Methods in Data Processing."
4. Prinnet, Jean. "Presse Microfilmée: Reconstitution de Collections Complètes de Journaux et de Revues sur Microfilm de Long Métrage."
5. Taubes, Ernest P. "Microfilm as a Systems Tool."
6. Kohte, Wolfgang. "Anwendung der Reprographie im Archivwesen."
7. Voss, Juan. "La Microfiche 75 x 125 mm à images multiples."

REVIEWS

(Editor's note: Reviews published in this magazine have a deliberately-chosen viewpoint. That is, reviewers are asked to consider publications primarily on the basis of their meaning and contribution to the areas of our interest: the building of library collections and the absorption, care, and control of the materials comprising the collections.)

Conference on Classification in Law Libraries, Chicago, 1961. *Proceedings; Fourth Workshop on Law Library Problems* [Sponsored by] Chicago Association of Law Libraries, University of Chicago Law School, November 10-11, 1961. Chicago, 1963. 62p. \$2.75.

The lack of a generally-satisfactory classification scheme for law library collections has long been a cause of concern to law library administrators. In the absence of the development of Class K by the Library of Congress, various classification schemes have been developed and applied by as many libraries, while many law libraries have remained virtually unclassified. As the collections have grown, there has been an increasing awareness of the necessity of classification for the maintenance of bibliographical control. In view of this need, the Chicago Association of Law Libraries called a conference "to enable interested librarians to engage in a study of recently developed and applied schemes of classification for law libraries."

The papers presented at this conference ranged from the somewhat theoretical approach of Max Rheinstein, Max Pam Professor of Comparative Law at the University of Chicago, whose thesis in his paper, "Classification: Its Role in Legal Learning and Law Libraries," he summarized: "My thesis is that if we have a really systematic classification of the law, a classification worked out not by external or in empiric tests, but by intrinsic criteria, it would also be the most useful

classification for law library purposes," to the completely practical "how-to" approach of Dan F. Henke in his "Application of a Classification Scheme to a Law Library" in which he describes the actual procedures and equipment used in classifying the collection of the New Jersey State Law Library according to the Los Angeles County Law Library Class K-Law scheme.

The historical background of some of the efforts at law library classification, along with a selected bibliography, was presented by Iris J. Wildman who then went on to describe the use and modifications of "The Hicks' Law Library Classification at Northwestern University Law Library." Then followed descriptions of various schemes in use at some of the larger law libraries: the system at New York University Law School Library was presented by Julius J. Marke, Elizabeth V. Benyon of the University of Chicago Law School Library described the Class K scheme in use there, and Earl C. Borgeson spoke on "Classification in the Harvard Law School Library." By far the greatest emphasis was placed on Class K-Law as developed at the Los Angeles County Law Library with fully a third of the proceedings being devoted to this scheme. In addition to the Henke paper mentioned above, William B. Stern, in his "The Adaptation of Class K at the Los Angeles County Law Library," gave a full analysis of the scheme as did State Law Librarian of California, Carleton Kenyon, in his paper, "The Use of Los Angeles County Law Library Class K in a Medium-sized Law Library."

The final paper, "Electronic Legal Research; Its Impact on Classification," by Jessica S. Melton, pointed out that the impact will be through the capability of new tools to open up many more points of access to various aspects of the contents of legal literature than are now capable of being reached through the traditional bibliographic tools. However, she concluded that the use of these new tools in law libraries will depend on "whether the legal profession finds them economically advantageous, technically reliable, and intellectually and emotionally acceptable."

In one respect it is unfortunate that this Conference was held such a short time before work was to begin on the development of its K schedule by the Library of Congress, for it would seem that in the last analysis, however effective the various existing schemes of classification may be in the libraries which have developed them and however convincingly they may have been presented by their champions, most administrators of unclassified collections will prefer to continue to wait to see the Library of Congress product before committing their libraries to a classification scheme. However, since these Proceedings bring together in one place descriptions of the schemes in use in some of the major law libraries in the United States, they will serve as a valuable aid in the appraisal of the various schemes when the Library of Congress schedule does become available.—*Frances Karr Holbrook, Head, Catalog Department, School of Law Library, University of California, Los Angeles.*

Ellinger, Werner B., ed. *Subject Headings for the Literature of Law and International Law*. South Hackensack, N.J., Rothman, 1963. xv, 380p. (AALL Publications Series no. 6). \$17.50.

The lack of a comprehensively-prepared list of subject headings in the

field of law, separate from the general *Subject Headings Used in the Dictionary Catalogs of the Library of Congress*, has been a standard need for law libraries. The Committee on Cataloging and Classification of the American Association of Law Libraries, under the able direction of Werner B. Ellinger, Senior Subject Cataloger at the Library of Congress, began in 1955 the lengthy process of extracting and coordinating law and international law subject headings from the unmanageable Library of Congress fifth edition list. Publication of the Library of Congress sixth edition, with subsequent supplements, made it necessary to commence the operation over again. The present volume is the result of the Committee's work. The reviewer, a member of the volunteer Committee, can attest to the great amount of time and work which has gone into its preparation and checking in order to make it as inclusive, accurate, and self-contained as possible.

In preparing this extraction of legal headings from the Library of Congress sixth edition, and supplements, no attempt has been made to add explanations, resolve discrepancies and inconsistencies, nor to present changes in terminology or other revisions other than those necessary to render the list a complete tool in itself. Generous interpretation has been given to what is included as a law term. Although some headings for non-legal materials found in law library collections are present, they are kept to a minimum.

One valuable part of the work is the observations made by the Editor in the introduction on Library of Congress practice, the list's departure therefrom, and the suggestions for application—by omissions and modifications—in autonomous law libraries.

The format of the volume is attractive, durably bound and easy to handle. Subject headings, their subdivisions and cross references are listed in two columns to the page with the

main subject headings in boldface type. The ample margins, along with the excellent production by an experimental photographic offset process possible by a Council on Library Resources grant, make it agreeable to use.

Even though one would like such a list, which is directed in the main to law libraries, to omit the superfluous term law and its variants and to contain added annotations, it is realized that such modifications would be a hazardous undertaking in view of the wide use of Library of Congress cards. It is predicted that the list will become a highly used tool in law libraries and it is hoped that the promised future supplementation will be forthcoming soon.—*Carleton W. Kenyon, Law Librarian, California State Law Library, Sacramento.*

Palmer, Bernard I. *Itself an Education: Six Lectures on Classification.* London, The Library Association, 1962. 68p.

This slim volume includes six lectures on classification presented by the author in Oslo, Sweden, and Copenhagen, Denmark, in 1961, which were later published by the Library Association. The first paper briefly traces the socio-historic development of classification theory from Aristotle to Ranganathan and Faradane. The concluding paper attempts to demonstrate the importance and ramifications of classification to the profession of librarianship. Sandwiched between these two papers is the heart of the work: the evolution, rationale, and current dissatisfactions with main classes; the development of notational schemes from the simple schemes of John Duff Brown to those of Ranganathan and Coates, which are anything but simple; and finally, a tribute to Ranganathan, his work and contributions to classification theory and practice, and to librarianship in general.

The sum total of these lectures pro-

vides us, not with a textbook on classification theory, but rather with selective readings on some of the more interesting "facets" of classifications. This work is well worth an examination. It definitely is a contribution to the literature on classification. Furthermore, it is short, readable, and will evoke more than one chuckle. For example, after resorting to several lengthy quotations from the writings of Faradane in an effort to explain his theories i.e., isolates, operators, analets, etc., the author confesses:

I would much prefer not to have quoted, but to have explained Faradane's system of indexing with examples offered by my audience; but I must now confess that I cannot although I have tried to grasp the full significance and use of the individual operators, and to apply them by constructing analets for myself, I have been quite unsuccessful. Others in the Classification Research Group confess to the same inability. (p. 28)

Has anyone who has attempted to employ Faradane's techniques not experienced the same inability?

For American readers, the work's major contribution lies elsewhere. It illustrates the central role accorded classification theory by our British colleagues, or at least those associated with the Classification Research Group. An American reader can not help but begin making comparisons.

In his introductory lecture Palmer defines "library classification" for the purposes of his lecture series: ". . . the object of library classification is so to group books and other library material that their subject contents can be related to each other in the most helpful order." (p. 12) But as the author proceeds, his definition becomes increasingly difficult to apply. There seems to be some confusion regarding the roles of and relationships between such concepts and techniques as: classification schemes and subject classification; notation as a means of codifying subject content and nota-

tion as a technique for displaying books on shelves. This difficulty in part is due to differences in library practice.

To illustrate, the classified catalog has not gained wide acceptance in this country, and as a result notation and notation development play a minimal role. Call numbers are used primarily as finding devices. We rely on subject headings in our dictionary catalog to supplement call numbers. The result has been that the catalog has taken precedence over the book, primarily because a book can be physically located in only one place. Were the classified catalog to gain favor in this country, a reassessment would be necessary.

In his concluding lecture Mr. Palmer sets out:

to show how classification technique and theory (particularly that developed by Ranganathan) pervade the whole work of the librarian, whether he be book-buyer, cataloguer, research librarian, or administrator. I hope to convince my hearers that this subject provides a structure for the body of the librarian's professional skills, and that when his training and experience fail him, classification can offer principles which will guide him.

While a reader might accept the author's thesis, one is left with a feeling of "so what." Classification may be an education in itself, but the graduate of such an education would closely resemble the librarian who substitutes reviews for reading: the bare bones with little substance.—*Richard Dougherty, Head of Acquisitions, University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill.*

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