AMERICAN LIBRARIES

REPORT OF THE U.S. FIELD SEMINAR
ON LIBRARY REFERENCE SERVICES
FOR JAPANESE LIBRARIANS

1960

U. S. Field Seminar on Library Reference Services
for Japanese Librarians
c/o International House of Japan, Inc.
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PREFACE

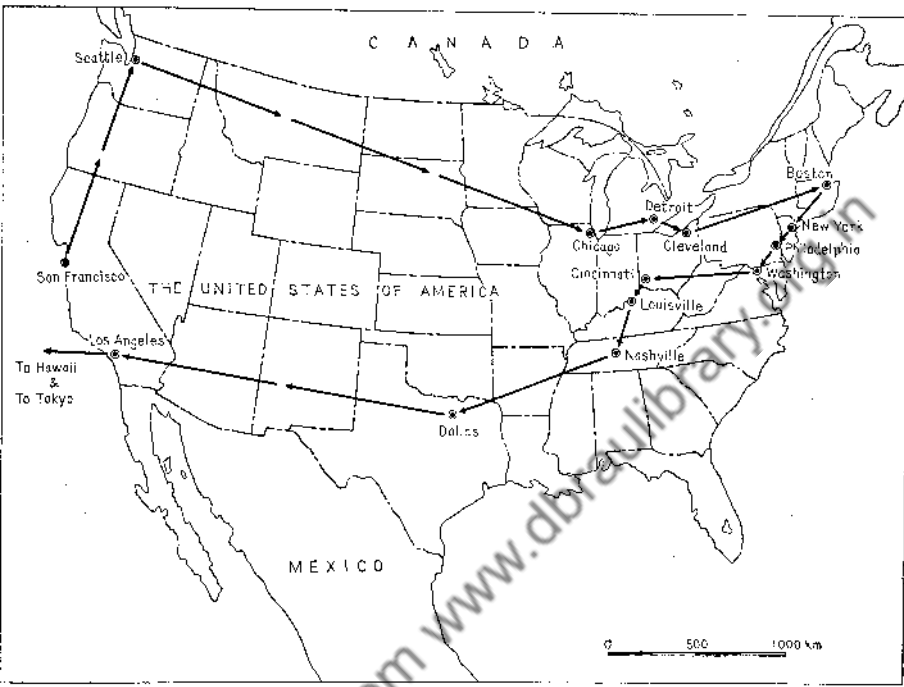
A few years ago, a small group of young librarians concerned with reference work met from time to time at the International House of Japan, in Tokyo, to talk about the growing need they saw for more and better reference services and the many problems involved. Not infrequently one or another of them would say that such and such was done in American reference libraries or that American librarians believed so and so or might have good ideas about this or that. Just as often, however, there was perplexity over how or why the Americans did some things. Despite much reading and questioning, it was obvious, their knowledge and understanding of American library reference services were fragmentary and even superficial. From their discussions emerged realization that it might be beneficial were representative younger reference librarians able to visit the United States to see and study reference services and talk with the librarians engaged in them to learn more than already was known of what there might be in the American experience of value to Japanese reference librarians and libraries.

The details of the proposals and arrangements which followed are relatively unimportant. The Rockefeller Foundation, receptive as always to useful ventures, was persuaded to finance what came to be called the U.S. Field Seminar for Library Reference Services for Japanese Librarians under the sponsorship of the International Relations Office of the world-minded American Library Association and a committee participated in jointly by members of its International Relations Committee and Reference Services Division.

We, the undersigned, had the good fortune to be chosen to take part in the project. In keeping with its title, we met in seminar sessions in both Tokyo and the Kansai area with ten distinguished consultants and numerous advisors and colleagues to intensify our familiarity with the library situation in Japan, to absorb as much information as possible about what there would be to look for and study in the United States, and to prepare ourselves in other ways for the trip so that we might take maximum advantage of it. We then spanned the Pacific and during October and November of last year not only inspected library facilities and services and talked with countless librarians but also were privileged to be the beneficiaries of seven seminars with selected specialists in which we reviewed and consolidated our findings.

We left Japan with problems and questions grouped in the following categories:

A. Administrative:
   1. How much is the operation rationalized and mechanized?
   2. Centralization vs. decentralization from the administrative viewpoint.
   3. Library budget for materials.
   4. Problems of inefficiency caused by red-tape and other procedures.
   5. Information concerning library organization, administrative schemes, etc.
   6. Organization of the reference department of the library.
   7. Long-term planning.



TRAVEL SCHEDULE

1959

Oct. 3, San Francisco
5, Field Seminar at University of California, Berkeley
7, Seattle
9, Chicago
12, First Field Seminar at American Library Association, Chicago
17, Second Field Seminar at American Library Association, Chicago
20, Detroit
22, Cleveland
24, Boston
27, New York

Nov. 4, Field Seminar at New York Public Library (Circulation
5, Philadelphia
5, Philadelphia
7, Field Seminar at Free Library of Philadelphia
8, Washington, D. C.
12, First Field Seminar at Library of Congress
14, Second Field Seminar at Library of Congress
17, Cincinnati
18, Louisville
19, Nashville
20, Field Seminar at Nashville
21, Dallas
23, Los Angeles
27, Field Seminar at UCLA
30, Honolulu

Dec. 4, Tokyo

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PART I

REPORT BY JAPANESE PARTICIPANTS

INTRODUCTION

Before leaving Japan, we endeavored to obtain from the considerable materials available to us some knowledge of the libraries and communities served by them which we were to visit in the United States. We learned much, but we came to realize that through printed matter alone one cannot grasp in full detail all the realities of American library services. Though well aware of this limitation, we hope that our reports will convey at least something of these realities as we saw them.

The number of libraries we visited, of course, was less than one per cent of the thousands in the United States. However, they were in all sections of the country—west, mid-west, east, north and south. We are confident that they were fully representative of American libraries. Moreover, we sat down with many, many librarians and heard their views on not only their own immediate functions and problems but also broad matters of concern to the library profession. We came away with the feeling that we had succeeded in understanding both general aspects of American libraries and the character and trend of reference services, which was the purpose of our trip. Now that we are attempting to pass on to others all that we learned, however, we must confess to misgivings. Because of the manner in which they have been organized and also because of space limitations, our reports probably fail to give in sufficient detail everything worthy of inclusion.

We first give in the following pages our impressions of the services of the various major kinds of libraries. Then we report on library cooperation and education for librarianship, giving emphasis to the latter as vital in providing the human resources essential to effective library services. Finally, we set forth in outline what was discussed in the reference service seminars held for us in several places to intensify our understanding of what we were seeing. These seminars, it might be added, were of major importance in achieving the objectives of our trip.

Unfortunately, into this scheme of reporting could not be fitted several matters of more than incidental interest. It must suffice to summarize here what we learned about them. One of these is the matter of publications. For effective reference work, American libraries depend heavily on such basic reference tools as dictionaries, bibliographies, publication lists, indexes, statistical reports, yearbooks, directories and specialized books. They therefore have a direct interest in their publication and insist that they be edited carefully and conscientiously. And their views are heeded by publishers because it is the purchase by hundreds of libraries that makes commercially feasible the publication of such non-popular reference works. Some publishers, such as H. W. Wilson Company, staffed with persons who have had professional education in librarianship, depend almost entirely on sales to libraries and accordingly strive to satisfy their needs and criteria.

A phenomenon of recent years in the United States is the appearance of literary classics, subject surveys and standard non-fiction titles in all fields in

low-priced paperback editions sold through drugstores and food centers as well as bookstores. Their availability has not lessened the use made of libraries. Rather, libraries are taking advantage of them to purchase multiple copies of good titles in order to serve more readers and treating them as expendables to be discarded when no longer readable.

Very deserving of mention is the American Library Association. With more than 20,000 members, it appears to function so effectively through its headquarters that it constitutes, in reality if not in name, a central administration of the American library network. Some members, it is true, may not be entirely satisfied with the organization and its policies, but one observes that they do not resign from it. On the contrary, most give evidence of pride in being members of this foremost association of their profession.

In the libraries we visited, in the seminars and in informal gatherings, we had the opportunity of meeting and talking with the men and women who as influential leaders in librarianship have made American libraries what they are today and will determine their development for some time to come. They believe fervently that the library, as an essential agency for realization of a better society, is the most stimulating and satisfying place in which they could be working. They have confidence in themselves and pride in their profession. Their spirit enables one to understand how, overcoming obstacles, they succeeded in establishing beyond all question the professional status of their work. The libraries which these professional-minded men and women have created have become a basic force in American culture. In their achievements, positive cooperation among the individual members of the American Library Association obviously must have played a significant part.

Had our reports been organized differently, attention would have been given in some detail to the handling of special materials by American libraries. Almost every library has and facilitates use of maps, old documents, music scores, recordings, pictures, clippings, especially of historically important persons, and government publications. Each kind of such special materials is treated in the way which experience has shown to be best suited to it. Letters and other manuscripts, for example, are arranged and maintained according to successive numbers and indexed by the writer, recipient, date, subjects, et cetera, on IBM punched cards. For use of recordings, the new university and college libraries have acoustically suitable music rooms. Such rooms at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Georgia Institute of Technology, University of Michigan and other places have dozens of tables equipped with record players and earphones. Public libraries, on the other hand, seem to place more emphasis on the lending of recordings for listening at home.

Among those who read our reports, there may be some who are likely to conclude that nothing much can be learned from American libraries because they differ so greatly from those in Japan. Or they may argue that only lack of funds keeps the libraries of Japan from being like those in the United States. Even though there may be some validity in such viewpoints, we hope that our readers will try to see to the heart of the matter. The error must not be made of seeing and being impressed by only the size, cost and broad social services of American libraries. There are problems to be seen as well, and in the final analysis these problems are not unlike those of Japanese libraries. The more that society learns to use and rely on libraries, the greater will become the volume

of demands made of them. Of the materials to be provided in libraries, there is no end, for new materials multiply daily. Such problems cannot be solved by larger budgets alone, and we may be certain anyhow that budgets never will be adequate. Faced with these problems, American librarians are striving to overcome them by such means as cooperation among libraries and the development of ingenious labor-saving and time-saving devices. It is not books that make a library, we are firmly convinced, but men.

PUBLIC LIBRARIES

In Japan, generally speaking, there has not yet been established any clear demarcation of the services of prefectural, city, town and village libraries. A city library, for example, is likely to differ from a prefectural library in only the scale of its organization or the size of its collection. In the United States, however, there usually are well defined distinctions between libraries at the different levels of local government in the scope of their services. A state library, in addition to meeting the needs of the state legislature, is expected to serve the people of the entire state. This it does through county libraries, each of which looks after the public and school libraries within its county. Thus we find that, contrary to the popular concept of libraries, the Cuyahoga County Library in Cleveland, Ohio, and the Los Angeles County Public Library, both of which are typical, have no accommodations for reading.

More direct and more adapted to the needs and interests of the individual citizen than those of the state or county library are the services of the city or town library. Those who use such a library vary widely in age and purpose, including children, the elderly, individuals who read for recreation, students and research workers. Depending on the size of the population, there may be both a main library and branch libraries. Directed and coordinated by the main library, the branches concentrate on lending books for home reading. The main library, fulfilling its responsibilities as an information center for the city or town, concerns itself mainly with providing reference and research materials and facilities. In such a system we see a good example of effective library services for the general public.

The reaching out to more and more people through branches of city and town libraries is but one manifestation of a national movement to provide libraries everywhere for everyone. On the urging of American librarians, acting unitedly through the American Library Association, Congress in 1956 legislated the Library Services Act, under which the Federal Government grants funds to needy state library systems. Its aim was to ensure library services for an estimated 80,000,000 Americans who were deprived of them because of the inadequacy of local funds, and its effect has been a marked expansion of library services throughout the United States since 1957. Passage of the law has significance comparable to that of the establishment of 1,700 public libraries some years ago with funds donated by Andrew Carnegie.

LIBRARY SYSTEMS IN LARGER CITIES

Markedly energetic in expansion are the public library systems in the larger cities. The New York Public Library plans enough branches to have one within half a mile of every citizen. Seattle, Chicago, Detroit, Boston, Cleveland, Philadelphia and Los Angeles are among the cities which intend to make it possible for everyone to have a branch library within one or not more than two miles.

The New York Public Library already has 84 branches, the Los Angeles

Public Library 52 and the Free Library of Philadelphia 39. In Chicago, though it has only 18 branches, the Public Library has 38 sub-branches. Residents not within easy reach of branch libraries are served by bookmobiles.

The expansion represented by such figures is not simply a quantitative matter. Library services must accommodate themselves to ever-changing social circumstances. Population growth, population shifts, development of new areas, changes in the character of old areas, economic and industrial developments, rising standards of living, and so forth, all must be taken into consideration in planning expansion and improvement of library services.

Among the experiments in library expansion to cope with changing needs is one being tried by library systems in some of the larger cities. To increase the materials and services at the disposal of branch libraries with a minimum of expenditure on physical facilities and staff, the city is divided into regions, each with a center to feed books and recordings and even, when necessary, to send supplementary staff members to the branches within the region. In keeping with the purpose of enabling the regional centers and branch libraries to concentrate on circulation and other public services, all the work of acquisitioning and processing books and other materials is done by the main library. With clippings of published reviews attached, each new publication submitted by publishers is commented on by a librarian who is a specialist in the field to which it pertains. Guided by such evaluations, representatives of the branch libraries meet periodically at the main library to select the books and other materials they want for their branches. Films under consideration are screened for them. The books and other materials chosen then are ordered collectively. As these orders are substantial, discounts from list prices can be negotiated, of which those for books may be as much as 40 per cent.

Delivery is made to the main library, where they are processed. Whenever possible, printed catalog cards of the Library of Congress and the Wilson Company are reproduced by copying machines to provide copies for insertion in all books distributed. Of a single title, the New York Public Library, for example, may purchase as many as 400 copies, of which from three to five will go to each branch library. Each copy must be marked with a call number, provided with a pocket for the card which is stamped and retained when the book is borrowed, and have its cover wrapped in vinyl. When it leaves the main library, it is completely ready for shelving. So "mechanized" is the processing that a book needs only five minutes on the belt-conveyor before it is ready to go to a branch, where it will be shelved within a week. Watching this work gives one the impression of being in a modern factory.

Central processing, among other advantages, obviously saves the branch libraries much time and labor, which they can divert to circulation and other public services. It becomes possible, for example, for a branch which lacks a book wanted by a patron to locate it in another branch, its regional center or the main library and arrange to borrow it. Through inter-branch loans, a small branch in New York with only 20,000 books of its own has access to 2,500,000 books for its clientele. So far has functional coordination been carried in the Chicago Public Library system that a book borrowed from one branch may be returned to another branch or the main library if to do so suits the convenience of the borrower. A reference question submitted to a branch which is unable

to answer it is referred to the regional center or the main library, from which the answer is mailed to the inquirer. Thus, except for communication delays, a branch library, regardless of its size, can serve just as effectively as the main library.

MUNICIPAL LIBRARIES

The municipal or city library is responsible for meeting the library needs of those who reside or work within the administrative area of the city concerned. They are of all ages and interests, not only ordinary readers but also specialized readers and research workers in many fields. For better services for all of them, American city libraries increasingly are separating their circulation and reference units. As most major public libraries have done, the Enoch Pratt Free Library, in Baltimore, widely known for its early adoption of subject departmentalization, has established a popular library for home reading. The Detroit Public Library has Home Reading Services and Reference Services; the Boston Public Library, a Division of Home Reading and Community Services and a Division of Reference and Research Service; the New York Public Library, a Circulation Department and a Reference Department. Such division strengthens each of the two different kinds of services, one concerned with popular reading and the public services rendered by branch libraries and the other with reference inquiries.

The tendency to differentiate between general public services and reference services is manifested also in the technical aspects of classifying materials. In the Detroit Public Library, the Home Reading Services Division uses the Dewey classification system, as do many general public libraries in the United States, but the Reference Services Division makes much use of the classification system devised by the Library of Congress. The New York Public Library, though the Dewey decimal classification system is used in its Circulation Department, has a classification code of its own for the Reference Department.

In the same library, the two departments are housed separately. And specialization of its public services has been carried so far that there are independent units for adults, young people and children, each of which prepares and distributes lists of recommended books, offers an advisory service to readers, holds lecture meetings, shows motion pictures and sponsors discussion groups and concerts. Some libraries have special units to serve school libraries and the blind. The Cleveland Public Library provides special service for the sick and physically handicapped, and its "Live Long and Like It Library Club" gives attention to men and women over 60.

MUNICIPAL LIBRARY REFERENCE SERVICE

A good example of how reference services are organized by a large city library is provided by Baltimore's Enoch Pratt Free Library. In addition to its "popular library," which concentrates on circulation, it has special departments for the following subjects: (1) general reference, (2) business and economics, (3) civics and sociology, (4) education, philosophy and religion, (5) fine arts, history, travel and biography, (6) industry and science, (7) literature and languages, and (8) Maryland. Also in separate departments are filmstrips and newspapers.

The Los Angeles Public Library has reference departments for the following: (1) fine arts and music, (2) novels, (3) foreign materials, (4) history, with special sections for California, maps and genealogy, (5) literature and languages, (6) city government, (7) periodicals and newspapers, (8) philosophy and religion, (9) science and technology, with a special section for patents, and (10) social science, divided into two sections, one for social affairs and education and the other for commerce and economics.

The Cleveland Public Library, perhaps second to only the New York Public Library in size, has still another reference organization, with departments for: (1) fine arts, (2) philosophy, psychology and religion, (3) business and technology, with separate divisions for science and technology and business information, (4) literature, (5) foreign literature, (6) John J. White folklore and Orientalia, (7) periodicals, (8) government, education and social science, (9) history, biography and travel, and (10) general reference, with a newspaper division. There also is a special municipal reference library to serve the city government.

In such an organization, each department or other unit concentrates on its assigned subject area, has a collection shelved on open stacks, provides reading facilities, and has reference librarians to help readers. Its collection usually includes related periodicals, but periodicals which do not clearly belong in any one special reading room are shelved in a general periodical reading room or the general reference room. When a question arises as to which of two or more special reading rooms is to have a book, the decision generally is based not on the classification number of the book but on its actual content. Ideally, of course, duplicates might be purchased so that each special reading room concerned with its content could have a copy, but to do so is costly. The practical solution adopted by many libraries is to have near the general reference room a comprehensive general card catalog, sometimes called the public catalog, in which the location of each title is shown. In each special reading room, moreover, entries on related subjects and where they may be found are included in an up-to-date shelf list of its own collection.

Such general reference tools as encyclopedias, yearbooks, cumulative book indexes, catalogs of the Library of Congress, periodical indexes, biographical records and directories generally are kept in the general reference room. This room is the pivot or hub of the reference services and therefore is located where visitors may find it easily. Here those inquiries which are beyond its own reference resources are referred to the appropriate subject units.

So numerous are inquiries which have to do with such matters as whether the library has such and such a book, what books it has on a certain subject and where a specific book was published, all of which usually can be answered by looking in the public card catalog, that the catalog is installed in or close to the general reference room, where it can be consulted quickly and easily by the staff. Many other questions can be disposed of with the help of such standard reference works as encyclopedias, yearbooks and biographical dictionaries. Some questions, however, require consultation of various printed catalogs and indexes shelved in the general reference room. When pertinent titles are found, the inquirer

probably wants to know whether the library has them, and there at hand is the public catalog to answer his question. The catalog and the related reference tools are indispensable in helping inquirers to obtain what they desire to know, and it is guidance in using these tools rather than the final information itself which the reference staff is expected to give.

The general reference room also clears telephone and mail inquiries. More often than not, they can be answered quickly by consulting its own reference collection or the public catalog. More complicated ones are referred to the appropriate subject departments. Found in some libraries is a service unit which does nothing but handle telephone inquiries. And in the Milwaukee Public Library, in its entrance foyer, is a reference counter with about 1,000 basic reference books, opposite which is shelved a collection of popular books ready for circulation. Always on duty are two or three reference librarians. Inquiries likely to require less than three minutes are answered at the counter, but those requiring more time are referred to the special reading rooms. Of the daily average of 200 inquiries, 70 per cent are handled at the counter.

NEW YORK PUBLIC LIBRARY

The Circulation and Reference Departments of the New York Public Library not only are housed separately but also differ in the character of their holdings. The former maintains a collection of general usefulness suitable for home reading and wide public service, while the latter has a more scientific and specialized collection. Those who go to the Circulation Department for books which it does not have or with questions which it is not equipped to answer are directed to the Reference Department, but it endeavors to handle as many inquiries as possible with its own resources in order to ease the burden on the Reference Department and allow it to concentrate on those services which it alone can provide.

The holdings of the Reference Department, totaling 3,900,000 volumes, are notable for not only their size but also the rarity and importance of about 30 per cent of the titles, many of which are found in no other library and therefore are much used by scholars and research workers from all over the world. Their richness may be gathered from the following brief descriptions of the special collections into which they are divided:

The *American History and Genealogy Division* has 100,000 volumes on the national and local histories of North, Central and South America. Its genealogical materials include histories of American and European families, as well as works on personal names, heraldry and British antiquities.

The *Arents Collection* comprises materials of all kinds relating to tobacco.

The *Art and Architecture Division* provides books, periodicals, pamphlets, clippings and other materials on the fine arts, as well as such related subjects as antiques, costume, fashion design, interior decoration, textiles and jewelry. There also is a collection of 110,000 woodblock prints.

The *Berg Collection* brings together rare books and manuscripts which are outstanding as source materials for the understanding of English and American literature from the 15th century.

The *Economics Division*, with books and periodicals covering all aspects of economics and sociology, is especially strong in materials on such subjects as public finance, statistics, transportation, communications, advertising and demography. Here also are government documents, foreign as well as American, and publications of the United Nations and other international organizations.

The *Jewish Division* makes available books, periodicals and newspapers in all languages dealing with Jewish subjects.

The *Manuscript Division* has much New York City and American historical source material, including letters, diaries and account books. There also are medieval and Oriental manuscripts.

The *Map Division* gives access to thousands of maps, plans, atlases and related texts, both American and foreign.

The *Music Division* contains books, periodicals, scores and clippings concerned with music of all kinds and the dance. Special alcoves are devoted to materials on American music and Beethoven.

The *Newspaper Division* offers files of newspapers of New York, many other American cities and major foreign cities. As its purpose is to further not casual reading but research, the latest issues of newspapers are not available until they have been bound.

The *Oriental Collection*, with materials in the languages of the Far, Near and Middle East, is particularly strong in Arabic and less so in Chinese and Japanese.

The *Periodicals Division* has current issues of general magazines, popular technical journals and most trade publications. Bound volumes of periodicals, newspapers and annual reports exceed 30,000.

The *Prints Division* maintains a notable collection of prints, caricatures, bookplates and similar material from the 15th century, as well as literature on printmaking.

The *Reserve Division* preserves rare books, most of which have been donated to the library rather than purchased, including incunabula, block books, early imprints, first editions of major authors and 18th century American newspapers and periodicals.

The *Science and Technology Division* has books and periodicals in English and other languages on almost all sciences except medicine and biology. In its Patent Section are the patent and trademark publications of about 35 nations.

The *Slavonic Division* provides books, magazines and newspapers, new and old, of the Soviet Union, Poland, Czechoslovakia, Bulgaria and Yugoslavia, as well as translations of materials from these countries.

The *Spencer Collection* consists of illustrated books and books in fine bindings from all over the world.

The *Theatre Collection* covers drama, motion pictures and the entertainment aspects of radio and television.

Surrounded by the public catalog, consisting of 10,000,000 cards in drawers, the information desk of the Reference Department is in the center of

the third floor of the library. More than ten reference librarians usually are on duty, with basic reference tools within easy reach. Beyond the information desk and public catalog is the main reading room, with 800 seats and walled with shelves of reference books.

Despite certain restrictions, imposed to prevent dissipation of energy on trivial matters, the information desk receives about 300,000 telephone inquiries yearly, two-thirds of which are answered directly by the librarians at the desk. Only those requiring extensive research are passed on to the subject divisions. It is the policy of the library to ensure that the subject divisions may function on the highest level of usefulness, and in keeping with this only college and university students and other adults are admitted to their reading rooms.

REFERENCE SERVICE IN SMALLER LIBRARIES

Though some may have special collections of reference value to satisfy the needs of their exceptional communities, most branches in a city library system and small independent libraries are designed primarily for home reading services. Nevertheless, as we observed while in the United States, some manage to make very effective use of their limited reference resources. In San Marino, near Los Angeles, with a population of 13,500, there is a library with only 52,500 volumes which yearly receives about 20,000 reference inquiries, of which some 18,000 are answered with information which the library does not need to seek beyond its own walls. More than 2,000, roughly 10 per cent of the total, are handled by telephone, a significantly smaller proportion than in some of the big public libraries, such as that in New York, where about half of the inquiries are handled by telephone.

In conducting their reference services, small libraries rely on the cooperation of nearby large libraries. The public library in Palo Alto, California (population, 54,000), for example, refers questions which it cannot itself answer to the Stanford University Library.

REFERENCE TOOLS

Winchell's *Guide to Reference Books* and similar publications had given us a general idea of how extensive were the reference tools used in American libraries, but as we visited one library after another and in each observed how many stacks were filled with reference tools we indeed were surprised and envious. In the larger public libraries, these reference materials generally are divided among the subject reading rooms. In the Library of Congress, however, 35,000 volumes of such materials are assembled in its central reading room, and Columbia University's reference room gives students free access to a similar collection of 20,000 volumes.

Though not all of the reference works in such collections are of American origin, it is obvious that publication of them in the United States has considerable dimensions. How this came about should be very encouraging to Japanese librarians, for in large part it is an achievement of American librarians through joint efforts of the American Library Association and the American Special Libraries Association. The former's Reference Services Division exerts influence

on the publication of bibliographical materials through three committees. The New Reference Tools Committee suggests, encourages and advises on the compilation and publication of reference materials needed by libraries. The Wilson Indexes Committee, created at the request of the H. W. Wilson Company, establishes criteria for and makes recommendations on the selection of periodicals to be included in the company's *Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature* and other indexes. The Bibliography Committee surveys new bibliographies, provides advice and guidance on bibliographical projects and points out bibliographical needs.

Abundant reference tools, massive collections, many special libraries and active interlibrary cooperation all help to make possible the high level of American reference services. No less important, however, is the large body of well trained and experienced reference librarians who know how to use to maximum advantage the resources at their disposal. It is essential for us to keep in mind the role of the librarian in reference work.

Found in some municipal libraries are special indexes and files devised to meet their own particular needs and supplement the standard reference tools. Examples of these are indexes or lists of songs, plays, radio-drama scripts, theatrical criticism clippings, children's songs, poems, short stories, quotations, book reviews, greetings, local events and personages, current events, places to go, adult education courses, vocational opportunities and individuals and organizations with language skills. The necrology file which the Cleveland Public Library has maintained since 1933 has proven invaluable to lawyers and life insurance companies. Indexed picture collections, which we found in many libraries, are very useful to designers, theatrical people and educators.

As a rule, reference books may not be borrowed for use outside the library. There is, however, a growing tendency to allow overnight borrowing. In the Detroit Public Library, duplicates of reference materials are available for circulation, and the Enoch Pratt Free Library permits borrowing of older sets of encyclopedias, for example, when they have been replaced on the reference shelves with new sets.

CIRCULATION

From one with 2,000 staff members to a small one with only a few librarians, the libraries we visited varied widely in size and character, but common to all of them was a surprisingly high rate of circulation. Perhaps more than anything else, this is what distinguishes American libraries from Japanese libraries. In New York, Chicago and Los Angeles, the public library systems circulate about 10,000,000 books annually. These 10,000,000 books in each of these cities exceed the total annual circulation of the some 750 public libraries throughout Japan. The small library in Murfreesboro, Tennessee (population, 25,000), with only two full-time librarians and one part-time librarian, lends out as many as 500 books on a busy day. A branch library in Detroit with a collection of 25,000 volumes and a dozen staff members, comparable to a medium-sized library in Japan, has an annual circulation of about 200,000.

Even small libraries, we observed, have micro-photographic charging machines. This exemplifies the alacrity with which American libraries adopt

mechanization, wherever possible, to improve efficiency.

Though perhaps with some exaggeration, entering the New York Public Library or the Chicago Public Library, with the displays and throngs of patrons, gives an impression akin to that on entering a department store in Japan. When we visited a library in Dallas, Texas, it was just before the closing hour on a Saturday evening. Even then, a dozen people, both women and men, young and old, were waiting in line to borrow books. In Detroit, we were struck by the sight of a little girl, her arms filled with books, getting out of a car driven by her young mother and walking into the library.

Unlike the maximum of two books which most libraries in Japan allow to be borrowed at one time, from three to ten books, as well as such audio-visual materials as pictures, recordings and filmstrips, generally may be taken out at one time in American libraries. These may be kept for as long as 14 or even 28 days, not counting Sundays.

In keeping with the concept that the public library is the common property of all taxpayers, those who reside, work and study in the area under the government which finances the library may borrow books free of charge in the typical American community. Others also may use the library, but they are required to pay a small fee for a card entitling them to take out books. This would seem to be a much more rational approach to the use of libraries than we have in Japan.

Worthy of mention is the action taken when a borrower fails to return a book when the borrowing period expires. The applicable regulations are enforced strictly, and an overdue charge is imposed on the borrower in a most business-like way. The Detroit Public Library in 1958 collected $123,406 in overdue charges, roughly a third of the cost of its book purchases during that year.

WHO USES LIBRARIES?

To gauge the extent to which they are used, most libraries in Japan maintain statistics on how many persons enter them and their occupations. In the United States, we found, libraries are not much interested in such statistics. Instead, they measure their usefulness by the number of books circulated.

Through our own observation, however, we learned that the proportion of adults among those using libraries is far greater than in Japan. We saw, for example, elderly men reading in genealogy or historical rooms, men in the prime of life consulting materials in technology or business reading rooms, a middle-aged woman absorbed in a book from the New York Public Library in a subway, and mothers with children in children's rooms. While waiting about five minutes for an acquaintance in front of the public library in Seattle one cloudy afternoon about 3 o'clock, one of us counted 13 adults and two children entering the library. Many of the adults appeared fairly old.

In 1958, the Philadelphia Public Library had as registered borrowers 240,109 adults and 171,344 children. The combined total of 411,453 represented 19.8 per cent of the city's 2,000,000 population. We see in these figures, though for a single city, some indication of not only how many Americans use libraries but also the high proportion of adults among them.

SERVICES FOR CHILDREN AND YOUNG ADULTS

In meeting with the librarian in charge of a branch library in New York, we asked what he thought to be the most effective way to bring the non-reading public into libraries. It is basically important, he told us, to stimulate the interest of children. Reading is a habit, and it must be formed while one is young. To change non-reading adults into reading adults always is extremely difficult.

This idea is reflected in the emphasis which American libraries place on work with children. Each public library invariably has a special unit for them. In the cities we visited, many of the smaller libraries devoted from a third to a half of their floor space to their children's rooms, which were sunny, equipped with appropriate furniture and made attractive with displays of particular interest to children. The books in the typical children's room, all of them illustrated, seem to be of excellent quality. The care with which they are selected was demonstrated to us in more than one city at meetings of branch librarians to consider which new books were to be bought for their children's collections. Usually in a room or corner set aside for the purpose, story-telling and exhibits of picture books are common to children's units everywhere.

In some libraries, music is provided in the children's room. In Boston, for example, the Public Library has a collection of recorded music, poetry and stories from which children may take freely anything to their liking and put it on a player for listening by earphones so that others reading nearby are not disturbed.

The librarians who work with children always are women with special training. In addition to giving the children reading guidance, often they become friends of and advise their parents. To explain libraries and how they may be used, they frequently visit neighborhood schools and talk to classes.

Blind, near-sighted and hospitalized children are given special attention by some libraries. For circulation of books to the blind, the Federal and state governments provide financial support. In Louisville, Kentucky, books printed in large type are available for weak-sighted children. In New York, the Lexington School for the Deaf has a fine library which its pupils are taught to use.

While branch and other small libraries engage chiefly in services directly with children larger libraries often aim to help parents, teachers, publishers and others who are concerned with children's educational and cultural matters. Such a library may have a special room with an extensive collection of juvenile literature, American and foreign, for the use of adults who are studying children's problems.

The importance attached by libraries to reading by young adults is shown in the setting aside of space for their exclusive use, where the shelves hold not only carefully selected fiction but also such materials especially needed by them as vocational and school guides. To encourage reading, book lists are prepared for and distributed among them, with titles classified according to age-groups and themes. The earliest stage of literacy qualifies a child to borrow books for home reading.

GROUP ACTIVITIES

American public libraries generally sponsor or provide space for group

activities. Among those they sponsor, in some places with the co-sponsorship of neighboring colleges or universities, record concerts, film showings, exhibits and lectures are the most usual. At a branch of the Washington Public Library, a librarian told us that on a busy day it might have as many as three different meetings.

In Los Angeles, we had the opportunity to attend an evening meeting of a library-sponsored discussion group led by a member of the library staff and held in the home of a member of the group. The participants varied in sex, age and occupation. The subject was rather abstruse, "Power Politics as Expounded by Thucydides and Its Ideology," but the chairman, on whom the success of such discussion meetings largely depends, proved skillful in bringing out opinions and comments, often with a humorous touch. The atmosphere was most friendly.

Many libraries do much to help persons preparing to obtain American citizenship and may provide special courses in English and on the American Constitution for them. Where there are organized groups of elderly persons, libraries often make facilities available to them for meetings.

AUDIO-VISUAL ACTIVITIES

The popularity of the audio-visual services of public libraries is attested by the growing circulation of filmstrips and recordings to individuals. The recordings available are not only of music but also of plays, readings of poetry and stories, speeches and language lessons. When we visited the Washington Public Library, we noticed in the technology and medicine room a young woman with earphones who was writing something. On inquiry, she told us she was practicing stenography. Because of our interest, the librarian in charge of the room brought to our attention on the biological shelves a recording of bird calls.

The typical music section not only has a collection of books on music, scores and recordings but also gives record concerts and provides information on concerts and recitals in the area.

Many American libraries use radio and television as media for educating the public in better use of library services. The New York Public Library, for example, occasionally sponsors a television program. The library in Louisville, Kentucky, has its own television and radio stations.

WHY ARE LIBRARIES SO MUCH USED?

As already has been mentioned, much more use is made of libraries in the United States than in Japan. Why is this? Among the obvious reasons are the differences in national economic strength, national character and social circumstances. All of these are important, of course, but our observations lead us to suggest a simpler explanation. To put it briefly, the libraries we visited invariably were comfortable, useful and attractive.

First of all, American libraries are conveniently located. The main library in a big city usually is where it may be reached easily. In New York, Chicago, Boston, Los Angeles, Dallas and other cities, for example, it is close to subway or bus stops. In a smaller city, the library is likely to be in its center. Branch

libraries usually are on street corners. Philadelphia's Mercantile Library is in the busiest trade section of the city, and when we visited it, at about 3 o'clock in the afternoon, the automatic counter at its entrance showed that 1,600 persons already had entered since morning.

Library buildings, especially those of recent construction, not only have street-level entrances but also present a bright and friendly atmosphere within. Well located signs and notices enable visitors to find their way about easily. Buildings of many stories have elevators, and the Milwaukee Library has an escalator. Older buildings in many places have been remodelled to adapt them to the needs of modern library management and make them more convenient for the public.

Borrowing is made so simple that the procedure deters no one from using a library. As far as we could observe, no library requires its visitors to fill out admission slips as do Japanese libraries. More books may be borrowed for longer periods than in Japan. Non-residents may enjoy the privileges of resident users by paying a small fee for a library card.

Incidentally, whereas in Japan the Library Law requires that no charge be imposed on users under any circumstances, American libraries may impose various nominal charges. Some may ask a small fee for the issuance of a library card, entitling the holder to borrow books. Some rent popular new books, especially fiction, and recordings. Almost all libraries collect a small daily penalty charge when books are not returned when due. There are fees for the making of photostatic copies and microfilms of library materials, and some libraries have on sale such of their own publications as catalogs, books and pamphlets. The Philadelphia Free Library sells reproductions of beautiful illustrations in its rare collection. No one seems to question such charges and ventures, the object of which is not to make a profit.

In general, the shelves of American public libraries are open to the public, and the obvious convenience of this undoubtedly helps to increase the use made of libraries. In Japan, on the contrary, open shelves are exceptional.

The establishment of branch libraries also has encouraged greater use of library services. In a citywide system of branches, a card issued by one branch enables the holder to borrow books from any branch. The New York Public Library has 84 branches, the Chicago Public Library 40 and the Los Angeles Public Library 50. Each branch, freed of such tasks as the processing of books and backed by the resources of the main library and all the other branches, is able to concentrate on serving public needs. Effective management of such a system is well exemplified in New York, where the main Circulation Department, known as the Donnel Library, maintains a union catalog of branch collections totaling 2,750,000 volumes and an inter-branch loan unit which pools materials of limited use and fills requests from the branches from either its own pool or from the collections of other branches.

Finally, library hours are geared to public convenience. Though shops in the United States generally close about 6 o'clock in the evening, public libraries are open until 9 o'clock, except on Saturdays. Many libraries, however, are closed on Sundays.

WHAT IS A USEFUL LIBRARY?

Unquestionably the size of its collection determines how much information a library can provide. The public libraries in New York, Cleveland and Chicago have respectively 6,000,000, 3,000,000 and 2,000,000 volumes, and in most of the larger cities the library collections exceed 1,000,000 volumes. Thus those who turn to them for information may have confidence that they will be satisfied.

Regardless of its size, however, a collection is useful only to the degree that it is well cataloged. So well cataloged are the holdings of American libraries that there is little difficulty in locating wanted materials. A dictionary catalog is found in most libraries, but special catalogs appropriate to special needs are not rare.

Every library seems to assume that cleanliness is imperative. We found no dusty stacks. And attention is given to keeping books in good condition. The larger American libraries are likely to have their own binderies, in some of which we saw piles of books in bad condition awaiting renovation. Books in heavy use, such as popular novels, are protected in many libraries with transparent covers. Everything in the library is kept clean and tidy. The care taken by librarians is seen in even interior decoration and signs and notices. We were impressed especially by the Enoch Pratt Free Library, in Baltimore, which employs a commercial designer to meet its artistic requirements. In short, American librarians consider it an important part of their responsibility to create an environment which makes a favorable impression on patrons.

The extent to which librarians go in considering the public is seen also in their realistic shelving of books. In most branch and other smaller libraries where the emphasis is on lending books to be read at home, books are likely to be shelved not in strict accordance with their classification numbers but by groupings of interest to users. In a Boston branch library, for example, we saw books for young adults arranged under the following headings: Cues for You, People and Places, Sports, The Bright Side, Pageant of the Arts, Science—Fact and Fiction, and Information. In the children's room, some of the groupings were: Picture Books and Readers, Easy Reading Stories, Fairy Tales and Hero Stories, You and Others, Things to Do, The Arts, and United States Around the World.

COUNTY LIBRARIES

As the state in the United States often is likened to the prefecture in Japan, so the American county may be likened to our *gun*, though the likeness is not very close. Of the library systems serving these administrative sub-divisions of states, we were fortunate in observing those of Cuyahoga County, in Ohio, and Los Angeles County, in California.

The Cuyahoga County Library meets the needs of 500,000 people in the suburban and rural communities adjacent to the city of Cleveland. With headquarters in the County Office, in the city, it has four regional centers, under which there are 22 branch libraries. Affiliated with the system are 110 school

libraries. So coordinated are these units that even the smallest library commands the resources of a substantial library. The selection, ordering and processing of books and even the purchase of supplies are centralized, reducing costs and freeing the regional centers and branches to concentrate on public services.

Books are selected at headquarters meetings of branch and school librarians with the help of published reviews and librarians' comments. Purchased collectively by the headquarters in 1958 were 110,000 books chosen in this manner. In their processing, the books are provided with reproductions of Library of Congress catalog cards. This has the advantages of relieving the branches of the burden of cataloging, enabling the headquarters to maintain a union catalog and ensuring bibliographical uniformity for users. Also bought collectively are fixtures, stationery and other supplies, and pamphlets, posters and display materials for use on such occasions as National Library Week are prepared uniformly by the headquarters.

Relations between the County Library and the school libraries throughout the county are based on contracts entered into by the library and the boards of education. Until 1959, these contracts provided that the boards of education would pay the County Library a minimum of $1 per pupil yearly for the purchase of books for libraries in their schools and that the County Library, in addition to purchasing and processing the books, would send a staff librarian one day a week to each school with fewer than 500 pupils and two days a week to each with more than 500. The present contracts, negotiated in January, 1959, provide for wider coverage of 110 primary schools and junior and senior high schools. The boards of education assume all the costs of book purchases, personnel and services, and the County Library has the responsibility for technical work of the school libraries.

Part of the function of the four regional centers is to centralize and maintain subject collections. Regional Center A is responsible for materials on philosophy, religion, education, social science and business; Regional Center B for materials on languages, fine arts, music and literature; Regional Center C for materials on science, technology and popular fiction, and Regional Center D for materials on archeology, travel, history and biography.

Equipped with its union catalog, the headquarters handles most of the requests from branches for books not in their own collections. When a request cannot be filled by the nearest regional center, it goes to the headquarters, where arrangements are made to provide the book from another regional center or from the collection of the headquarters itself. And when, as often happens, a much needed book is not available within the system, the headquarters tries to borrow it from the Cleveland Public Library or some other library. Inter-branch loan books are delivered by an automobile which daily makes the round of the branches. To speed requests for books and information, teletype circuits are used.

From the Cuyahoga County Library, about 4,430,000 books were borrowed in 1958, more by 540,000 than in 1957, mainly because of a population increase of 20,000 and therefore greater school attendance. In addition, 10,000 filmstrips, 20,000 recordings and 2,000 mounted pictures were borrowed from its Audio-Visual Department. Information requests handled by the regional centers and the headquarters totaled 23,000 in the same year. Such inquiries

normally are answered by the regional centers, but those beyond their competence are referred to the headquarters by teletype or mail.

The system has an expanding program of community services. Its Young Adult Department, for example, initiates and directs discussion groups and other group activities both in and outside the branch libraries, the participants in which numbered 85,000 in 1958, more than in the preceding year by 16,000. For school librarians, workshops are conducted.

The library's Publicity Department in 1958 brought it to public attention through displays which used 21,640 books, pamphlets, posters, pictures and other items. It regularly provides the Cleveland and 30 suburban newspapers with press releases on club and cultural activities, and it has a weekly radio program, "Book Caravans." For the branch libraries and bookmobiles, as well as various community gatherings, the department prepares exhibits.

Though we could stay only briefly at the headquarters of the Los Angeles County Public Library, we were much interested in its mechanized cataloging. Instead of card catalogs, it uses loose-leaf catalogs in book form. The original cataloging is done on punched cards, with entries by author, title, subject heading and so forth. Then the cards are fed into an IBM machine which transcribes them into loose-leaf printed lists, and these in turn are reproduced by Xerox in sufficient numbers to go to all the branches. Prepared first as monthly supplements to the main catalog, these are bound later into annual cumulative catalogs. Regardless of the arguments for and against it, the card-form catalog is overwhelmingly predominant in American libraries. That the Los Angeles County Public Library, by highly mechanized means, is making a success of the book-form loose-leaf catalog seemed to us to be worthy of notice.

Not unnaturally, these county libraries have no extensive reading facilities for visitors. Reading facilities are required only for those relatively few users who live near enough to visit the library. The primary aim of the county library lies not in giving this kind of direct services to the public, but in coordinating and reinforcing the public and school libraries within its own county and thereby helping to provide all county residents with equal chances to make use of the facilities at those libraries. In other words, the county library functions as *a library for libraries* in the county library system.

STATE LIBRARIES

Though little has been known about them in Japan, state libraries in the United States go back quite a few years. The California State Library, for instance, established on January 24, 1850, when the State Legislature came into being, has been serving the Legislature, the State Government and the general public for more than 100 years. Perhaps one reason for our ignorance about

them is that the state capitals, where the state libraries are located, usually are remote from centers of communication, commerce and industry and therefore not often visited by Japanese. Another reason is that only recently have they had much to do with public library services. It was the Library Services Act, legislated by Congress in 1956 to provide better library services in sparsely populated rural areas with limited financial resources, which gave visible stature to the state libraries by imposing on them some measure of responsibility for all public libraries within their respective states.

We visited these libraries in only three states, California, New Jersey and Tennessee. Enough was seen, however, to enable us to conclude that all state libraries, regardless of the size of the state being served, are about the same in their objectives, though they may differ in the ways and means of achieving these objectives because of geographical, historical, political and economic peculiarities.

FUNCTIONS OF THE STATE LIBRARY

The major functions of the typical state library may be summarized as follows: (a) to provide library services for the State Legislature, state administrative agencies, state commissions, state officials and citizens of the state, (b) to promote and elevate the standards of public library services within the state, (c) to stimulate interest in and promote understanding of public library services among the citizens of the state, and (d) to cooperate with national libraries, other state libraries, foreign libraries and other institutions and organizations. In accordance with some of these functions, it will be apparent, the state library is likely to work especially with, through and in behalf of other libraries.

Not every state library sets forth its functions in quite the manner summarized above. The California State Library, for example, is required (a) to provide adequate reference and information services for agencies and employees of the State Government, (b) to provide supplementary materials and reference services for other libraries throughout the state, and (c) to preserve and make available materials concerning the history of the state. To fulfill these requirements, it maintains a collection of books, periodicals, newspapers, pamphlets, pictures, government publications and microfilms.

STATE LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

In a policy declaration adopted by the National Association of State Libraries in 1956, it is recommended that the state library be established not as an organization subordinate to any department of the state government but as an independent institution. Where it has such status, its administrative organ is usually a board of trustees, or its equivalent, consisting of several members appointed by the Governor. Its major responsibilities are to appoint the state librarian, establish policy for operation of the state library, and formulate the library's budget. In California, it is the State Board of Education which administers the state library, and in Tennessee, the State Library and Archives

Commission. New Jersey has an Advisory Council which consults with and advises the state librarian. This is exceptional, and in most states the administrative organ, whatever its name, functions in much the same way as Japanese boards of education. This form of administration, incidentally, is more or less common to almost all American public libraries. The rules under which these administrative bodies operate vary from state to state. The Tennessee State Library and Archives Commission is required to meet at least once yearly, with four meetings recommended. The frequency with which it needs to meet is reduced by the delegation of many of its responsibilities to the state librarian, whom it has chosen and may dismiss.

Most state libraries have three or four divisions, the number and nature of which are likely to be determined by the special needs and interests of each state. The California State Library has three bureaus, Technical Services, Readers Services and Field Services. The Reader Services Bureau has the following units: (a) the Administrative-Legislative Reference Section, which gives reference assistance to members of the California Legislature and officials of administrative agencies, (b) the Government Publications Section, a depository for publications of the Federal, state and local governments, as well as some from other states and foreign governments, (c) the Map Room, which maintains a collection of official and other maps, including old and rare California maps, (d) the California Section, which has current and historical source materials about the state and its people, resources and industries, and (d) the Law Section, with statutes and court records of the nation and the states, as well as legal materials of most countries in which English is the official language.

As of October, 1959, this library had 1,709,222 volumes of government publications, 610,093 other books and files of 2,216 periodicals. It employed 44 professional librarians, 44 clerical workers and three part-time assistants. For the fiscal year ending in June, 1960, its budget provided $580,579 for salaries and $74,819 for books and other materials.

The New Jersey State Library, the administrative uniqueness of which already has been mentioned, has four bureaus: (a) that of Public and School Library Services, which advises in connection with the establishment and operation of public, school, county and institutional libraries, augments their resources by lending books and other materials, sends traveling library collections to school and community groups, provides book exhibits and distributes state aid to school libraries; (b) that of the Law Library, which maintains a library for use by the legislative, executive and judicial branches of the state government, operates a legislative reference and research service for the Legislature, provides reference services for lawyers and the general public and exchanges materials and information with agencies of other states; (c) that of General Reference, which provides general reference services to all agencies of the state government, serves as the official repository of all official state publications, including records of legislative hearings and annual reports, as well as being an official depository for United States Government publications, and maintains collections of New Jersey history, genealogy and government, and (d) that of Archives and History, which acquires and preserves basic historical documents of New Jersey, exercises general supervision over public records at the state, county and local levels, authorizes destruction of obsolete public records, operates a center for the storage of inactive state records and provides microfilm service for all state agencies.

Independent of the bureaus, there is the Legislative Services Section, which prepares summaries and digests of laws and official reports, assembles and collates materials for the study of specific legislative problems, provides information on laws and bills of other states, supplies materials for use in writing speeches and makes available copies of New Jersey bills.

The staff of this library consists of 30 professional librarians, 36 clerical workers and two microfilm technicians.

The Tennessee State Library, which provides state-wide library services through eleven regional centers, is organized with the following divisions: (a) Archives, which is the official repository of all records of state agencies and commissions and preserves such rare and valuable materials as letters of Tennessee governors, papers relating to the state constitutions, the records of each General Assembly since 1796, old maps and manuscripts and books of the Tennessee Historical Society; (b) State Library, which collects materials on Tennessee and the South, official publications of the United States and all of the states, Tennessee newspapers, historical publications, genealogical materials and books and periodicals of general cultural value; (c) Public Libraries, which promotes the establishment and expansion of public libraries throughout the state and gives advice and help to counties which want to organize libraries, and (d) Restoration and Reproduction, which keeps in good condition the holdings of the Archives Division, the State Library Division and the Tennessee Historical Society and provides photo duplication service.

DISTINCTIVE CONTRIBUTIONS

Though it may be presumptive to generalize on the basis of what was observed in only three state libraries, there would seem to be certain distinctive contributions which perhaps they alone are able to make to library services. It is the state library on which members of the legislature and other branches, agencies and commissions of the state government must depend to meet their research and reference needs. The professional staff librarians concerned, it goes without saying, must be absolutely impartial and able to suppress their own viewpoints unless they have been specifically requested to express them. In fulfilling this obligation, the state library usually assembles materials which may be useful to not only legislators but also lawyers and others, and it will have a unit in the state capitol to give immediate service to the legislature and its committees and maintain liaison with the main library.

To meet the needs of not only the legislature but also the executive branch of the government, the library must collect publications of the state, of other states, of the Federal Government and of foreign governments. The agencies of its own state are obligated by law to deposit with it copies of all their publications. In New Jersey, for instance, all printed materials must be deposited in not less than 25 copies, and there must be at least one copy of typewritten reports. Agencies neglecting to comply with the law are reminded of their obligation by the state librarian. Copies not required by the library for its own purposes are exchanged for publications from outside the state.

The collection of materials on the history of the state is also a natural

responsibility of the state library. The California Section of the Reader Services Bureau of the California State Library concerns itself with not only strictly historical materials but also information about resources, industry, genealogy, and the biographies of pioneers, officials, artists, authors and musicians and even collects state telephone directories. The Tennessee Historical Commission, established by law, gathers together materials on Tennessee from its earliest days, including records of all citizens who took part in World War I, and all of these are kept in the state library. Each state library appears to endeavor to be the center for state historical research.

Cooperation with public libraries, to which not only advice but also substantial help are given, is another function which all state libraries apparently have assumed. The Field Services Bureau of the California State Library, in addition to aiding those who want to establish or improve public library services, advising on library organization and practices and sending out bookmobiles, maintains a state union catalog in conjunction with major public, university and special libraries and endeavors to strengthen state-wide library services through library cooperation.

The Bureau of Public and School Library Services of the New Jersey State Library, while giving such other cooperative assistance in common with most state libraries as lending books and providing local libraries with the advice of specialists, is outstandingly active in helping school libraries. In Tennessee, the eleven regional centers of the state library, supported by state funds, provide bookmobile service to all branch libraries and to small communities without libraries, lend books and give reference assistance to local libraries and make available the advice and assistance of their staff specialists. To summarize, the state library plays the important role of a library for other libraries within the state.

DUTIES UNDER THE LIBRARY SERVICES ACT

The work of state libraries with local libraries has been strengthened greatly by the Library Services Act of 1956, a major event in American library history, the purpose of which is to extend library services to areas where they are lacking, especially to sparsely populated areas with limited financial resources, and to strengthen those which are inadequate elsewhere. Under this Act, the Federal Government was authorized to grant to the states as much as $7,500,000 yearly for five years, beginning in 1957, to pay for the program. The grants in 1957 totaled $2,050,000, in 1958 $5,000,000 and in 1959 $6,000,000.

To qualify for assistance under the Act, an area must have a population of no more than 10,000. Funds allocated to it may be used for anything except the purchase of land or buildings or construction. They may be spent on salaries, administrative expenses and the purchase of books and other materials. Municipal public libraries are entitled to such funds if they extend their services to sparsely populated rural areas. The amount available to each state is based on the size of its rural population, but this must be paralleled with state appropriations in accordance with a formula involving the average per capita income in the state.

More than 800 counties throughout the United States, it is estimated, can qualify for this assistance, some 30 of which have been entirely without library services.

Left to each state is the manner in which the program is implemented. New Jersey is using the Federal funds and matching state funds partly to expand the services of the state library to impoverished rural libraries by adding three professional librarians and seven clerical workers to its Bureau of Public and School Library Services and by purchasing more books and supplies. Among the results are said to be much faster delivery of books loaned to the rural libraries, preparation of new books for circulation and handling of reference inquiries.

Some of the funds have been expended on establishment of a branch of the state library at a central location in three southwestern counties which are sparsely populated and never have had public library services. This branch is endeavoring to stimulate interest among the residents in library services, and it will assist in the establishment of local libraries when circumstances make them possible. It is hoped that the three counties will be able to assume full responsibility for the branch as soon as possible, and then the state library will attempt a similar project elsewhere. Still another use to which the funds have been put is the providing of more library service by means of bookmobiles.

In Tennessee, the program is permitting larger budgets for the eleven regional centers of the state library to spend in advising local libraries, providing them with materials beyond their means and sending bookmobiles into rural areas. However, only those counties with locally supported libraries are able to take advantage of the increased services of the regional centers.

Throughout the country, it is estimated that the Library Services Act has added 120 bookmobiles, 170 professional librarians and 300 clerical and other workers to expansion of library services. It is expected that this legislation will contribute substantially and permanently to the development of all American libraries.

THE LIBRARY OF CONGRESS

Established by law in 1800 for Congressional use, the Library of Congress today serves not only Congress but also the executive branch of the Government, other libraries everywhere, institutions, including universities, individual research workers and the general public. Facing the Capitol building in Washington and close to the Supreme Court, it occupies 13 acres of ground and has 36 acres of floor space. Its collection, totaling about 37,000,000 items, requires

250 miles of shelving, and its staff, as of June, 1958, had 2,556 members. There are six major units: the Administrative Department, the Copyright Office, the Law Library, the Legislative Reference Service, the Processing Department and the Reference Department.

ROLE AMONG AMERICAN LIBRARIES

The size of its collection, constituting one of the most important concentrations of library resources in the world, alone would ensure its predominance among American libraries, the second largest of which, the New York Public Library, has only 6,600,000 items. This has come about through vigorous growth since 1870, when the library had fewer than 250,000 titles. That was only two years before the establishment of Japan's first modern library, the Tokyo Library, which in time became the National Library and then was integrated into the National Diet Library as its Ueno Branch Library. Yet, even with the Ueno books, the National Diet Library has but 2,000,000 items.

However, size is not the only criterion of a library's status and value. The Library of Congress compiles and maintains the National Union Catalog, and this has much to do with making it the national bibliographical center and headquarters for inter-library cooperation. To it turn other libraries of all kinds and research workers when their needs can be satisfied nowhere else. For them, and of course for its own use, it publishes bibliographies or lists of additions to the National Union Catalog and to its own collection, new serial titles, state publications and other materials, all of which are standard reference tools recognized as indispensable in book selection, processing and reference services.

Another of its major contributions to other libraries is its preparation and sale of printed catalog cards, which we found in almost every library we visited. They do not cover all the materials in all libraries or satisfy in every respect all cataloging requirements, but in some public libraries from 70 to 90 per cent of new materials are processed with these cards. The resultant saving in the work of cataloging is enormous.

ACQUISITIONS

The library is indebted to the copyright regulations for about a quarter of its holdings, 9,427,249 items by the end of 1958. Since 1897, applications for registration by the Copyright Office have had to be accompanied by two copies of whatever is to be registered, such as books, periodicals, lectures, dramatic and musical compositions, maps, works of art and reproductions of them, drawings or plastic works of a scientific or technical character, photographs, prints, pictorial illustrations, labels and even motion pictures. The materials received in this way in 1958 alone totaled 238,935 items.

Other materials are acquired through exchanges or as gifts. In 1958, domestic exchanges yielded 17,822 items and international exchanges 440,108. Generous individuals and organizations donated 852,632 items in the same year.

Much, of course, must be purchased. What interested us especially in the library's purchasing arrangements is the placing of blanket orders to obtain foreign current publications more or less automatically under contracts with dealers abroad. Such a contract specifies the amount which may be spent and the kinds and number of copies of materials to be provided. To the dealer is entrusted the selection of items to be sent to Washington within the specifications of the contract. The contractor in Japan, the M. Company, provides copies of the National Diet Library's weekly list of current publications in which the titles purchased for shipment are marked. The Japanese Section of the library's Orientalia Division reviews the marked lists to determine whether other titles should be requested.

In the selection of materials for acquisitioning to strengthen the collection, every professional staff member of the Reference Division has some part. Subject experts among them have responsibility for building up the holdings in their respective fields of knowledge. They constantly are on the watch therefore, for gaps in the holdings which may be revealed in the giving of reference services or perhaps in the compiling of bibliographies, and they systematically scan bibliographies and catalogs of book dealers. In 1958, the staff reviewed 45,807 current bibliographies and catalogs for this purpose.

CATALOGS AND CATALOGING

The National Union Catalog, already mentioned, maintained by the library as the "central record of library sources in America," at the end of 1958 had 14,244,000 cards, representing part of the holdings of 700 major libraries in the United States and Canada. Included are microfilms of entries in the regional union catalogs in Philadelphia, Cleveland, Chapel Hill, Atlanta-Athens, Seattle and Denver. Under what is known as the Farmington Plan, cards for foreign titles in 66 libraries are filed.

In 1958, the library received by telephone, telegraph, teletype and mail 24,270 requests for the location of titles, and of these 79 per cent were found in the National Union Catalog. If their number seems small in relation to the size of the catalog, it must be remembered that most of them were requests which previously had been referred without success to local and regional union catalogs. Incidentally, titles brought to the attention of the library through such requests which cannot be located through this catalog or the catalogs of other libraries are compiled into a list of unlocated research books which is circulated by the Association of Research Libraries to all libraries in the United States and Canada. Some libraries use it in determining their wants for purchase.

In cataloging its own acquisitions, the Library of Congress in a real sense is cataloging also for thousands of the American libraries. In 1958, nearly 10,000 subscribers purchased 28,351,083 of its printed cards. Included among these subscribers are almost all university, college, research and large public libraries. We observed the use made of them in many places. Larger libraries requiring multiple copies often purchase a single copy from the Library of Congress and mark their own Zerox duplicates. The New York Public Library takes proof sheets of these cards, revises the entries on them to comply with its own classification schemes and then has cards reproduced by photography.

The Library of Congress sells its cards not for profit but as a service to help librarians to save time in cataloging. It is a service which requires 219 of the library's 2,556 staff members. Speed in producing and distributing the cards is imperative, and in this the library seems to be favored by very cooperative printers.

Our own National Diet Library, as we know, also makes its printed cards available. However, they are not great demand among other libraries, principally because it takes from a month to a month and a half from the time a book is published before the card for it is ready for distribution. Libraries cannot wait this long to process new books. Slowness in the processing procedure of the National Diet Library is partly to blame, but there also is slowness in the delivery by publishers of new books to the library. As American publishers send in publications to be copyrighted in advance of the date of issue, the Library of Congress often is able to have the cards for them printed before the books are in distribution. Seen in many American books, on the verso of the title page, is the Library of Congress card number printed with the copyright date. In 1958, this was made possible in 11,166 titles from 1,600 publishers. An incidental advantage of having the card number printed in a book is that a card ordered by number costs only seven cents instead of the eleven cents charged when it is ordered by author and title.

With a grant from the Council on Library Resources, the Library of Congress is experimenting currently with what it calls "cataloging in source." This is cataloging before publication so that the complete catalog entry may be printed in the book, from which a library may reproduce or compile a file card and thereby save the time and cost of purchasing one.

REFERENCE SERVICE

Utilizing its huge collection of materials, the Library of Congress provides a wide variety of reference services. In compliance with the intent of the basic law which brought it into existence, it not unnaturally gives a high priority to serving the reference needs of the two Houses of Congress, their committees and their members. This it does primarily through its Legislative Reference Service, with a staff of 195 regular members which is increased to about 240 by adding temporary employees when Congress is in session. What it does would seem to be limited only by what Congress and its members request of it. It will assemble, for example, the complete historical background of a problem facing Congress, proposals which have been made for its solution, and the arguments for and against these proposals. It reports on legislative practices of the Federal and state governments and in foreign countries, or it may cull from newspapers, the *Congressional Record* and documents what has been said on a specific subject. It provides information for speeches, translates, indexes minutes of committee meetings and compiles bibliographies. In 1958, it received from Congress and its members 68,879 reference and loan requests by telephone and 7,199 by letter. It prepared in the same year 3,888 special reference studies or reports totaling 27,878 typewritten pages and translations totaling 4,306 pages.

The Reference Department, with 309 staff members as of September,

1959, in 15 divisions or other units (exclusive of 244 in its special Air Information Division and 204 in its Air Research Division), endeavors to satisfy the reference needs of not only government agencies, non-official organizations and other libraries but also individual research workers and the general public. The nucleus of this department is its General Reference and Bibliography Division, with 60 staff members, which, among other responsibilities, handles reference correspondence and has charge of the main reading room. This room, with 250 seats, is walled with alcoves of shelves containing 35,000 reference volumes and houses part of the public catalog, the rest of which is in an adjoining room which leads to the National Union Catalog. Within easy reach of the catalog are the desks of the reference librarians. The arrangement is one which Japanese libraries might study to advantage.

It is to this main reading room that the usual visitor first comes to state his need and seek assistance. Thus it is extremely important that those who staff it be thoroughly familiar with the collection and organization of the library in order to be of effective help. One thing always to be determined is whether the reference applicant can be served best through the general collection or should be referred to one of the special divisions or perhaps to another library.

Some of the principles adhered to of necessity to ensure that the energies of the staff are not dissipated on requests which are trivial or could be handled equally well elsewhere are embodied in the rules which govern the telephone reference service of the General Reference and Bibliography Division. Calls from official agencies understandably receive special deference, but requests are turned down which have to do with school assignments, bets and arguments and which are likely to require more than half an hour of researching, especially if the purpose is to spare an individual the effort which the average person in quite capable of exerting on his own. Except when for official use, the staff declines to look up information in telephone directories.

Since September, 1958, the main reading room and other reading rooms have not admitted high school students unless they present letters from their school principals certifying that they are in need of materials for special projects which are not in their school libraries or local public libraries. For many years, the library encouraged use of its facilities by anyone over 16 years of age, but gradually high school students, especially on weekends and holidays, monopolized all seats and so congested the areas around the card catalog and reference collection that other patrons and the staff itself were greatly inconvenienced. Their requests for books and services, moreover, exceeded the capacities of the staff to handle them. The library therefore decided, after consultation with the school authorities and others concerned, to exclude high school students in order that it might serve better the needs of others.

Letters of inquiry are assigned by the Bibliography and Reference Correspondence Section to the Public Reference Section for answering. The necessary research and the drafting of replies are done by assistant librarians as time permits, but such work is not allowed to interfere with their responsibilities to those who come to the library in person for help. Some reference correspondence, depending on its nature, is handled entirely by the Bibliography and Reference Correspondence Section itself or referred to outside agencies.

BIBLIOGRAPHICAL SERVICES

We were impressed by the extent of the bibliographical work engaged in by the Bibliography and Reference Correspondence Section. Though it has a staff of only eleven persons, it constantly is compiling bibliographics on general library reference works and in the social sciences and humanities, most of which are intended for publication. It also reviews bibliographies and other publications of the Reference Department for bibliographical accuracy and conformity to established style. Many of its staff members are frequently called into consultation outside the library concerning the content, organization and form of projected bibliographies and efficient use of library resources.

We are able to appreciate that its published bibliographics, as is true also of many of its other publications, are designed both to strenghten its references services and to extend them beyond the library itself. They are guides to its resources, but at the same time they are basic reference tools with wide usefulness. Among them are topical bibliographies, such as one on the International Geophysical Year, which expedite the work of the Library of Congress in answering reference inquiries and enable other libraries everywhere to provide equally good answers to similar inquiries. Some bibliographies are by-products of routine efforts to improve the reference services of the library by organizing descriptive lists of groups of materials, including some which may not be cataloged, such as *Maps of Antarctica: An Annotated List of Recent Maps in the Library of Congress* or *Registers of Collections of Personal Papers in the Library of Congress*. Lists of this nature often prove of great value to scholars in helping them to decide whether it would be worth their while to go to Washington for research in the library or to arrange for reproduction of materials. They also help in establishing gaps in collections and thus are good acquisitioning tools.

Obviously, however, the compilation of bibliographies covering a collection as large as that of the Library of Congress is very time-consuming. It is justified only when a bibliography is essential to some governmental purpose or when it will serve substantially the interests of the library and other libraries and research institutions. When one is requested or proposed, the Bibliography and Reference Correspondence Section calls a conference of all staff members concerned. If preliminary approval is given, the bibliographer to whom the project is assigned first makes a thorough survey to establish the potential usefulness of such a bibliography and its relationship to existing research tools, the availability of pertinent literature, especially in the library's own collection, and the subject controls which might be used and their adequacy. The findings, estimates of the time and expense required, and recommendations are reviewed by the Section. If the project still seems desirable, it goes to the library's Committee on Bibliography and Publications for final approval.

We previously had heard it said that "the library is the center of the university." The truth in this is what we observed in the United States, giving us realization that the statement not only sets forth what the university library should be ideally but also describes accurately what it is today in the typical university.

Though we cannot show more than part of the whole picture, we shall endeavor in this report to present those of our observations which help to clarify the role of the library in both education and research in American universities. But first a word of caution would seem to be in order. When foreign institutions and practices are introduced to us, perhaps we tend to judge them solely on the basis of superficial difference between the social circumstances or wealth of the country concerned and those of Japan. We sometimes neglect to interpret them realistically and thereby overlook part of what might be learned from them. It would be a mistake, for instance, to ignore the vital part played by the sincere efforts of librarians over many years in bringing American university libraries to their present firm position. Nor should we fail to appreciate that those efforts were not confined within the walls of their libraries but reached out to professors, students and society at large.

TEACHING METHODS AND THE LIBRARY

Without going into details, the teaching method in American universities may be termed "Teaching with books," to borrow the title of H. Brauscomb's book. Instead of a very few textbooks, it requires the use of many books. Teaching which depends entirely on lectures and specific textbooks, limited in number, such as we often see in Japanese universities, is criticized by its American opponents as likely to impose on students certain partial interpretations in any field of scholarship. Moreover, it discourages voluntary pursuit of learning and curbs independent thinking. To avoid such dangers, lists of reading materials are compiled for each course, and students are required to read them within a certain period. The role of the professor, therefore, is not to communicate a limited amount of substance concerning a particular subject but to interpret a wide range of facts and opinions in many books. In doing so, of course, he probably will endeavor to clarify his own point of view and to stimulate student thought and discussion.

Professors who teach in this way are naturally much interested in reading materials and rely on the university library not only to acquire, organize and maintain such materials but also to provide services for their use. The very effectiveness of their teaching requires close integration of the library with the teaching program of the university.

Where students must seek out and use reading materials instead of listening passively to lectures, the library obviously must adjust itself to their needs.

It provides open access to books to facilitate their use, for instance, establishes a system of reserve books to ensure fairness in the use of materials for assigned readings, and purchases duplicates to meet the need for certain titles.

At the same time, because the amount of the materials which must be read is too great for purchase by the individual, students are forced to become library users, and the consequent familiarity with its resources and how to take advantage of them through its bibliographies and indexes stimulates students to turn to the library for materials beyond those they are required to read. What there is to be gained through use of the library is well understood in college and university circles, as classroom discussion often reveals, and there can be no doubt that desire to learn is invigorated by it.

We observed concrete evidence of this at the University of Michigan, where, with an enrollment of 14,000 undergraduate students, the library, with a seating capacity of 2,250 and open from 8 o'clock in the morning to 1 o'clock the next morning, is used daily by from 7,000 to 10,000 except during vacations. Such use is matched at many other universities. It is achieved, we would emphasize, because of thorough planning by the univresity library to satisfy the demands made on it. Beautiful architecture, a pleasant atmosphere and a rich collection are not enough. In the final analysis, the status of the library is determined by what the librarians have done to facilitate effective use of its resources and to provide all of the necessary services. The college and university libraries which we visited stayed open from 8 o'clock in the morning to midnight or even 1 o'clock. Not all of their units functioned so late, but certainly maximum use was made of their facilities. If this be dismissed as merely materialistic richness, our reply is that it would be nothing without the vitality given by the librarians.

Following the war, education in Japan wholeheartedly took on many aspects of American educational methods. As a result, libraries in primary and secondary schools have developed enormously. However, in the colleges and universities which came into existence under the new system the teaching in the classrooms continues to rely on lectures and textbooks as in the past. Thus our college and university libraries have but little incentive for development.

COLLECTIONS

Teaching methods and their requirements, it will be realized, exert considerable influence on the character of library collections. Accordingly, the collections of American college and university libraries tend to be vast in comparison with those in Japan. The materials for them are selected on the basis of clearly defined policies and then are thoroughly organized. Of necessity, there is much cooperation in the use of them.

Their richness has been made possible because of wide appreciation of the importance of libraries to not only colleges and universities but also society as a whole and because of a general feeling that a college or university is no better than its library. Grants from foundations and individual contributions have helped. The library of Harvard University, which began with fewer than three hundred books and a fund of about £700, has grown in three hundred and some years to 6,500,000 books. That there are more than twenty American

university libraries with more than a million volumes each helps us to realize how great the difference is between the situation there and that in our country.

These collections, it is worthy of note, are not only quantitatively big but also superior in quality. For quality to be enhanced, it is essential to select materials very carefully. One of the reasons for the strength of American university libraries is that this is done by committees in which professors and research seniors work closely with professional librarians who suggest desirable acquisitions and comment on requests. The successful functioning of these committees is rooted in the close relationship of the libraries to teaching methods. Decisions on such matters as the division of funds between materials needed for teaching and those for research scholars are arrived at smoothly because of basic agreement on what the library must do. Consequently, a proper balance is maintained between well-rounded materials of value to undergraduates and more specialized materials essential for advanced scholars without wasteful duplication.

We found much that was worth learning about the ordering and technical processing of books, such as ways to minimize the overlooking of new publications, to correct errors in acquisitioning and to replace missing titles. The processing of new materials, we discovered, is not always done in the central library. At Harvard, for example, where the library has more than eighty branches, it is done in each departmental or institute library. However, the general trend is toward centralized processing before distribution of materials to the units where they are to be shelved.

Departmental and other branch libraries are common. The University of Michigan has 29, and the University of Illinois 34. Each branch has the right to determine what it wants. Orders are placed through the central library, which passes on the new materials after registering and possibly processing them. Through the files in the central library, whatever is in any branch can be located easily and made available for use. One way of facilitating cooperative use is to establish a union catalog of everything in all the libraries of the university.

Organization of materials through a union catalog not only helps the many-branched university library to function more effectively but also facilitates interlibrary loans, which have contributed markedly to the expansion of library use in the United States. Aided by the development of relatively inexpensive modern copying techniques, the larger university libraries, as well as other libraries, send in to the national union catalog maintained by the Library of Congress and often exchange with one another listings of their new acquisitions. Increasingly it is possible for a scholar or research worker to locate any materials of interest to him anywhere and to arrange to use them. Rarity or scarcity of materials soon will present no problem.

Even if administrative red tape tends to ensnarl full inter-library cooperation, American librarians, imbued with loyalty to the principles of library service, can be counted on to devise ways to get around it. Is it not true that all that is needed to surmount barriers is determination?

REFERENCE SERVICES

In a Japanese university library, the reading room is literally a room in

which books are read. It has no other function. The rooms so designated in the libraries of Yale, Columbia, Michigan, Harvard and other American universities, however, are rooms walled with shelves of reference books and staffed with reference librarians. More exactly called at the University of Illinois the "General Reading and Reference Room" and at Princeton the "General Reference and Reading Room," the American room most like the Japanese university library's "Reading Room" is actually a reference center. Books of general nature which the Japanese student is accustomed to reading in the library usually are read by the American student outside the library. Thus there is no need for a room devoted only to such reading.

The reference-reading room, in most places the largest room in the library, has on open shelves the so-called basic reference books, beginning with encyclopedias and dictionaries and arranged by subjects. There may be an area for new serial publications, together with newspaper and periodical indexes. At the reference desk are professional librarians who in day and night shifts answer inquiries and give assistance, often by telephone. Arranged conveniently behind them are such reference books as they most frequently need to consult. Here a printed guide on use of the library is available, which the librarians are always ready to supplement with oral explanations.

We were able to observe the most recent trends in the development of these reference rooms at the Lamont Library of Harvard University and the new undergraduate library of the University of Michigan. The latter, completed in 1958 at the cost of $3,105,000, has 2,250 seats and provides open access to its materials. On the first floor is the general reference room, and the social sciences, the humanities and the natural sciences each have an entire upper floor. Reference librarians are on duty at all times on all floors. Also for undergraduates, the Lamont Library has its general reference room immediately inside the front entrance. Reserve books for general education courses are on the first floor, and reserve books on general cultural subjects and related materials have the fourth and fifth floors. On the remaining floors, other specialized collections, each staffed with reference specialists, are located. A similar arrangement is used at the University of California in Los Angeles and the Drexel Institute of Technology in Philadelphia.

Libraries in older buildings commonly have a single large reference-reading room along the inside walls of which are shelved 10,000 or more reference works. In one corner is a desk at which reference librarians give assistance and advice. Here also may be tools and services for reference use of periodicals or government publications. This pattern is found at the University of California in Berkeley, the University of Washington, the main library of the University of Michigan, Columbia University and other universities.

As the libraries of large American universities originally had been organized to serve mainly professors and graduate students, in many instances it proved difficult to adjust themselves to the needs of undergraduates. Harvard pioneered in overcoming this problem by planning its Lamont Library for undergraduates exclusively. The University of Michigan has followed this example. Some universities, such as the University of Illinois, though they do not yet have separate undergraduate libraries, have provided special facilities to take care of undergraduate requirements.

As it is evolving in the United States, the undergraduate library has not only the reserve books assigned for reading by the teaching staff and general reference books but also basic books relating to each undergraduate course, periodicals and such other books as students are likely to want for cultural enlightenment or recreational reading, all of which are on open shelves for ease of access. The Lamont Library now has about 100,000 volumes, and Michigan's undergraduate library has 66,000, with plans to increase the number to between 125,000 and 150,000.

The educational significance of such a library can be very great. Because of open shelves throughout, the student approaches books directly and thereby has the opportunity to become familiar with not only those assigned for reading but also many others which may or may not be related to his or her courses, including classics in all fields. If he has interest and time, all knowledge is there for him to absorb.

There are many advantages in departmentalization of materials, with each division staffed by reference specialists. They may be divided in accordance with their form, such as serial publications, government publications and maps, or by subjects. Many university libraries, especially those with new buildings, have favored division by subjects, such as Michigan, Wayne, Western Reserve, and the Massachusetts, Georgia and Drexel institutes of technology. However, departmentalization is not without its problems. It may require expensive duplication of materials and increased personnel, and ways must be devised to maintain liaison between divisions and route inquirers to them smoothly, perhaps with the general reference room assuming responsibility for coordination and routing.

At the University of California at Berkeley, with 1,000 faculty members and 20,000 students, the main library handles only general questions. Those in special fields are referred to the departmental libraries or specialized branch libraries. Here the main reference room, with 13,000 reference books, in 1958 received 47,000 inquiries in person, 11,000 by telephone and 225 by mail. Western Reserve University, with 8,200 students, has in its main library a reference department with about 10,000 reference books and with four full-time professional librarians, two part-time librarians and two clerical workers. Independent of it are rooms for the humanities, the social sciences and government publications. The number of questions received by the department in 1958 was 6,834. This may seem to be a relatively small number, but reference services must not be judged on the basis of statistics alone. Students familiar with a library and how to use it do not ask as many questions as do those who do not know how to use it. Some faculty members instruct their students so thoroughly on what to look for that they require no help. The degree of assistance given by librarians also may make a difference in the nature and volume of inquiries.

The main duties of the librarians in such a reference department may be summarized as follows: (1) to look after persons who come to the reference desk, (2) to deal with questions and to organize and prepare materials useful in reference work, (3) to provide general information, (4) to help in use of catalogs, unless this is done by a separate cataloging department, (5) to handle requests for the copying of materials, especially in smaller libraries, and (6) to

arrange interlibrary loans. Within our observation, librarians were both efficient and kind in their performance of the first, third and fourth of these duties, those which brought them most closely into touch with students and other library users.

We found consideration for those using libraries to be high everywhere. One manifestation of this is the providing of library guides in pamphlet or leaflet form. The library of the University of Illinois has two kinds, one for undergraduates and the other for graduate students and faculty members. There are, of course, Japanese university libraries which distribute so-called guides, but usually they are no more than the regulations for reading or borrowing books. The American guides are designed first of all to be attractive, as their titling often shows—"This Is the Yale Library," "Your Library. A Guide for Undergraduate Students" (Illinois), or "Know Your Library" (California). Though concise, they give a wide range of information helpful to students, including instructions on how to use the catalog, explanations of the reference services available and their main tools, and floor plans of the building showing the location of rooms and facilities. In some schools, new students are invited to the library in groups to learn how it functions and what it offers.

As in many American libraries of other kinds, the materials used by university librarians are not limited to the usual reference books. They include clippings, pamphlets and pictures kept in vertical files, magazine articles, government publications, maps and almost anythings else which experience has shown to be useful. The skillful reference librarian knows not only all of these materials but also to which of them to direct the attention of an inquirer to serve his purposes best.

Basically, however, reference services depend on reference books, and American librarians are especially fortunate in that so many such books are available in their country. Pointed out in one of our seminars was the lamentable paucity of authoritative reference books in Japan, where publication expenses deter commercial publishers from undertaking them. Not only is the market for reference books in English much wider than for those in Japanese, but also there is much more likelihood in the United States of having them published by non-profit university presses or with a grant from a foundation. A major reason, however, for the great number of reference books published in the United States is the increased demand for them, especially from libraries, with the vast expansion in reference services. Since its establishment in 1876, the American Library Association has made impressive efforts to stimulate the publication of more and better indexes, lists, catalogs and other reference tools.

It is not out of place to stress here that such achievements were not brought about in one night. Of this we were reminded in hearing Miss Constance M. Winchell, of the reference department of the Columbia University library, tell us about the evolution of her *Guide to Reference Books*. It began with Miss A. B. Kroeger's *Guide to the Study and Use of Reference Books*, which the American Library Association published in 1902. This was revised and enlarged from 1910 by Miss Isadore G. Mudge to make it more helpful to general research workers, and it took its present form under Miss Winchell in 1951. Each of the many titles in the most recent edition was chosen on the basis of her use of it during thirty years of reference work at Columbia University, and in

consequence the book represents a crystallization of long and exacting experience.

Many American librarians, it should be pointed out, are not content to rely solely on what is available to them in printed form. They constantly are evaluating and indexing new materials to meet the needs of their patrons. Perhaps their compilations are circulated within a small circle of interested librarians and scholars and then are revised on the basis of the opinions of these persons. Other libraries, well aware of the importance of such reference tools, may make constructive criticisms. There emerge finally reference tools worthy of publication on a commercial basis. We need to realize that it is through continuous and routine efforts that better reference books come into existence.

INSTRUCTION IN THE USE OF PRINTED MATTER

As already has been mentioned, use of books and other materials by American university students is furthered by reading assignments and encouragement of additional voluntary reading. Intensive instruction within the university in the use of library resources means that the students acquire considerable knowledge about them and facility in taking advantage of them. Our sight of a professor explaining to his students what they could find in each of a number of reference books in the reference room of the Columbia University library made us realize forcefully what it means to be truly an educator.

Primary responsibility for teaching students to use literature in learning rests with their professors, lecturers and instructors, but those in charge of library reference services also have some responsibility for it. In schools of large enrollment, new students are likely to receive general instruction, usually by librarians, in use of the library, followed by individual instruction by their professors. Or students with questions may take them to librarians. In many of the private universities, however, especially in the East, such instruction is entrusted to the teaching staff alone. At Harvard, it is done by the tutors in its tutorial system. Yale, Princeton and even the University of Indiana follow approximately the same practice.

Students learn also from guides to literature in an increasing number of subjects, such as those in the humanities and social sciences which recently have been added to those in the natural sciences which for some time have been available. They provide reliable and useful information, pointing out the characteristics and problems of research in their respective fields, commenting in detail on reference tools of various kinds, including outlines, histories and periodicals.

PERSONNEL PROBLEMS

The development of American libraries often is ascribed to expanding social affluence, the high prestige of research and the excellent organization of the libraries themselves. Perhaps more recognition should be given to the contribution made by library administrators. Our meetings with them convinced us that head librarians and other administrators in general are far-visioned individuals able and eager to accomplish ambitious programs. No more than libraries in Japan can American libraries escape the problems of inadequate

budgets, shortage of personnel and difficult relations with governmental agencies and university administrations. To cope with such problems and at the same time to improve library organization, obtain new buildings and recruit able staff members requires much astuteness and energy on the part of the men and women in charge of libraries. Many of the university librarians have been trained professionally for just such labors or bring to them long and rich experience, and they realize fully how much is at stake for not only their libraries but also their universities in their planning. And it is only under such administrators that subordinate librarians can be expected to give their best efforts to their work.

As members of an established profession, university librarians on the whole enjoy permanence of employment and can look forward to promotions or salary increases if their performances warrant them. At the same time, they know that good records will help them to obtain advantageous appointments elsewhere. Thus they have every incentive to work well.

There is, we observed, a movement to achieve for librarians the same status and treatment as universities accord to faculty members. These they want, it seemed to us, not because they have any feeling of being discriminated against or looked upon as inferior in any way to faculty members but mainly because they believe themselves entitled to full recognition of their responsibilities and their contributions to their universities. Within the profession of librarianship, it may be added, university librarians are on the same level as other librarians.

We might ask ourselves whether in our university libraries, if we had as much to spend as some of the wealthier American university libraries, we could match what they are doing. We could have, it is true, buildings, facilities and collections comparable to theirs. But would we have the same range of library services or the same degree of library utilization? We must not forget that American university libraries owe their present high status to librarians who have worked hard and built up experience of from ten to twenty years in the same place. To have better libraries, we must develop in parallel the ways in which they are organized, the capacity of students and faculty members to utilize them, and the training of librarians to staff them. Such developments will require careful examination of where we now stand and what we want for the future.

SPECIAL LIBRARIES

Special libraries, which gather and organize materials on perhaps only one subject or unified by a single purpose and help research workers to use them,

serve the reference needs of organizations and groups, private and public, of all conceivable kinds. Those we visited in the United States, however, happened to be concerned almost exclusively with science and technology, and accordingly they are emphasized in this report. This must not be taken to imply that there are few special libraries in the United States devoted to subjects in the humanities and social sciences or that such libraries are of little importance.

COMPANY LIBRARIES

Many companies or their laboratories maintain libraries to provide information vital to their research workers and other employees. In general, they are not open to outsiders, but there are some which provide services for customers or clients and affiliated firms. The Stuart Company Library, in Pasadena, California, for example, offers reference service to doctors.

In such a library, the most important materials are likely to be serial publications, especially proceedings, journals of scientific bodies and technical periodicals. In the selection of these, the librarians almost invariably consult with the research workers who are to use them. The library of the Goodrich Laboratory, which is concerned with chemical products, places subscriptions on the basis of replies to a questionnaire distributed to all research workers. In this way it is learned how great the demand is for any title, and a separate copy is obtained for each ten workers who desire to use it.

The procedure for the selection of books is usually similar. At the Goodrich Laboratory Library, all new books sent for inspection by publishers and dealers are placed in a special stack, and it is one of the duties of research workers to go over them and recommend those they believe should be purchased by inserting in them slips bearing their names. The librarian, checking closely *Publishers' Weekly* and other sources of such information, endeavors to bring to the attention of the research workers other new books which might be helpful to them and obtain their comments on them. To keep users informed of what has been added to the library, accession lists are distributed weekly.

We observed that in almost all of the libraries of this nature which we visited the books were mainly encyclopedias, dictionaries, bibliographies, periodical indexes and patent specifications of the United States, the United Kingdom, Germany, Switzerland and other countries. So important are patent specifications to research workers that new information on patents is reported to them promptly. The Goodrich Laboratory Library prepares for them a bi-monthly bulletin of patent abstracts.

We found it of interest that serial publications, which bulk large among the materials of these libraries, are likely to be discarded as soon as librarians consider them out of date or of little further usefulness. If needed later, they can be borrowed from a nearby university or public library. The General Motors Laboratory Library, in Detroit, subscribes to more than 700 periodicals but keeps back files of only 75 which experience has shown to be of continuing value. The availability of the periodical collection of the Detroit Public Library, with 1,500 titles, makes it safe to discard the others.

Among the most valuable materials in a library of this kind are the reports of the laboratory's own research workers. Reports of all research projects, including those which have ended with negative results, are cataloged by subject and author and carefully preserved, usually in a separate room to which only research workers and higher staff members have access.

Such libraries, as well as other special libraries, make much use of inter-library loans. In this they are aided by such publications as the *Union Catalog of Books on Science and Technology*, compiled by the Oak Ridge Nuclear Study Library, the *Union Catalog of Periodicals on Science and Technology*, containing about 3,000 titles, prepared cooperatively by the Oak Ridge National Laboratory, the University of Tennessee and other libraries, and the union catalog of periodicals on medical sciences kept in the John Crerar Library and the libraries of Chicago, Illinois and Western Reserve universities.

JOHN CRERAR LIBRARY

The John Crerar Library, founded in 1895 with an endowment by the prominent Chicago industrialist whose name it bears, is a special library which at the same time is a public institution, for its extensive materials on the natural sciences, technology and medicine are for public use. Yet such of its expenses for maintenance and operation as are not covered by the income from its endowment are provided by industrial and commercial companies in the form of membership fees, ranging from $100 or more for a contributing industrial member to $1,000 or more for an industrial associate member. In return, the member companies receive such privileges as book loans without charge and a discount of 25 per cent on publications and research services.

The library publishes three journals of abstracts, on metallurgy, technology and medical sciences. More than ten abstractors are employed for these, and their work is widely and highly esteemed.

Here, separate from the library but nevertheless tied closely to it because of its functions, is located the translation center sponsored by the American Special Libraries Association with some financial support from the National Science Foundation. Established in 1957 in succession to the Scientific Document Translation Center in the Library of Congress, in Washington, it engages mainly in the collection of materials translated from various languages and in the translation of Russian scientific documents for the benefit of libraries and the general public.

CATALOGS

The problem of catalogs for special libraries came to our attention when we saw the public catalog of the John Crerar Library. It is a classified catalog, supplemented by subject index cards for use in finding the classification numbers of subjects in which one is interested and by an author catalog. The classification table, based on the Dewey decimal system, is expanded minutely down to six or seven digits below zero, and each item is assigned from one to five classifica-

tion numbers. The cards are made for each classification number and filed in numerical order in the main catalog. As an item may have several classification numbers, the classification numbers cannot be used as call numbers. A separate call number therefore is given on the right shoulder of each card.

One such call number is MEII-407. The first letter, "M," indicates the subject, and the second, "E," tells the decade of publication. Each decade since 1900 has its own capital letter. The "II" shows to which of the five sizes into which books are divided this one belongs, for books are shelved in the stacks according to size and can be located only if their size is known. The concluding number is the accession number. All materials are arranged by subject, size in the stacks and accession number. The arrangement by size makes for economical use of stack space, and the designation of the period of publication seems especially appropriate for scientific and technical materials, the recency of which is likely to have some bearing on the demand for them.

Among the other libraries we visited, Biomedical Library of the University of California in Los Angeles also has a classified public catalog. The University of California Library at Berkeley has a dictionary catalog, with the usual author, title and subject entries, but there also is a classified catalog for materials in literature, languages and law.

There has been considerable discussion of the comparative merits of dictionary and classified catalogs. Speaking with assurance obviously born of long experience with it in his own library, a librarian of the John Crerar Library told us that the classified catalog is much better for special libraries. A dictionary catalog with subject headings may allow faster location of much of what a library has on any subject, but this advantage is lost if one must look elsewhere for related materials. Use of a classified catalog, on the other hand, may take more time, for first one must establish the classification number of the subject in which one is interested. However, once the number is known, what one wants to find is located easily, for the cards are filed in rational sequence. This would seem to be especially convenient in seeking materials for scientific research, and therefore many special libraries may prefer the classified catalog to the dictionary catalog, which with its alphabetical entries is satisfactory for public libraries which handle relatively simple reference questions.

NATIONAL SPECIAL LIBRARIES

Among the special libraries of the Federal Government which serve the nation as a whole, we visited the National Library of Medicine and the Department of Agriculture Library, both of which are known and thought of highly throughout the world. The National Library of Medicine began in 1836 in the office of the Surgeon-General of the Army. After World War I, it became the Army Medical Library, which in 1952 was renamed the Armed Forces Medical Library. In 1956, it came under the jurisdiction of the Department of Health, Education and Welfare as the National Library of Medicine. As of June, 1959, it had 957,345 volumes, including bound periodicals, pamphlets and reports, 15,000 serials and 1,898 microfilm reels. Though it obtains many materials as gifts or exchanges, about 70 per cent of its yearly acquisitions are purchased. They

come from all parts of the world, and about three-fourths of its holdings are in languages other than English.

With regard to what it collects, it has entered into agreements with the Library of Congress and the Department of Agriculture Library. To it go duplicate copies of whatever relates to the medical sciences which the Library of Congress receives through international exchanges. Under other arrangements, the Library of Congress prints its catalog cards and sells them to other libraries and publishes as a supplement to its own printed catalog the annual *National Library of Medicine Catalog*, the costs of which are met by the National Library of Medicine.

The library serves the whole country, but it does so primarily through services to other libraries, including those of universities, laboratories, institutions and other organizations, rather than to individuals. Usually the individual in need of something which this library alone can provide arranges for use of it through the library which meets his other needs. One of the major services it provides is the publication of bibliographies. Especially worthy of mention is its monthly *Current List of Medical Literature*, or rather *Index Medicus*, as it is to be titled from 1960, indexing articles in medical science periodicals published in all parts of the world, the number of which in 1959 amounted to 1,633. The American Medical Library Association has published for it the quarterly cumulation of this index and now will publish the annual cumulative volume. Its compilation, facilitated by IBM machines, requires 32 employees.

With some exceptions, the materials of this library are available to other libraries on loan. If books cannot be sent, photographic reproductions of them are provided without charge. Only in such reproductions are periodicals available.

The Department of Agriculture Library, established in 1862 at the same time as the Department itself, has the fuctions of gathering and disseminating agricultural information. It serves, of course, as a research library for the staff of the Department, but it also endeavors to be useful to other government agencies and the general public. In accordance with a policy which is coordinated with the Library of Congress and the National Library of Medicine, to avoid overlapping, it concentrates on collecting from throughout the world materials on agriculture, agricultural techniques and related fields. The materials which it purchases are second in volume to those which it obtains through exchanges.

Its Bibliography Division, which undertakes the processing and indexing of acquisitions from all over the world, brings out a number of publications. The most important is the monthly *Bibliography of Agriculture*, issued since 1942, in which approximately 100,000 important articles on agriculture and related subjects are listed yearly. Also valued by researchers are its *Index to the Literature of American Economic Entomology* and *List of Serials Currently Received in the Library of the United States Department of Agriculture* and their supplements.

SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY DIVISION, LIBRARY OF CONGRESS

Since 1866, when records and proceedings of academic societies through-

out the world and many valuable periodicals were given to it by the Smithsonian Institution, the Library of Congress has assembled about 1,500,000 volumes relating to science and technology and takes 15,000 current periodicals in the same fields. Nowhere outside the Iron Curtain are there richer materials on science and technology in Russian and other East European languages. The division in charge of these employs 78 persons, seven for general affairs, 22 for reference services, 26 for bibliographical services, 20 for special projects, two for special research and one for ordinary research.

The division provides general reference service and also uses its specialists to handle special reference inquiries. The research workers mentioned above were added to take care of questions received increasingly from both Houses of Congress.

Special importance is attached by the division to bibliographical services, the primary aim of which is to enable the American people to use effectively its vast scientific and technological holdings. Examples of the publications which have resulted from these services are its *Bibliography of the International Geophysical Year*, *World List of Aeronautical Serial Publications* and *An Accessions List of Scientific and Technical Serials Received in the Library of Congress*. Since World War II, with funds provided by the Defense Department, it has compiled an extensive series of highly specialized bibliographies, of which the *Bibliography on Snow, Ice and Permafrost, With Abstracts*, published in twelve parts between 1951 and 1958, contains abstracts of 16,000 titles in 24 languages dating from the 18th century.

Abstracts prepared by the division which are likely to be needed urgently by other reference libraries usually are distributed in card form in advance of their publication in book form.

RELATIONS BETWEEN SPECIAL LIBRARIES AND PUBLIC LIBRARIES

Some of the larger public libraries have special collections which are matched nowhere else. The Detroit Public Library, for example, has a notable collection on the history of automobiles, and the New York Public Library has one on tobacco. Much use is made of these by specialists. Stimulated by the Soviet launching of Sputnik I, many public libraries, especially in large cities, have intensified their efforts to provide more scientific and technological materials. However, this does not mean that they are duplicating or competing with the collections and services of the special libraries. They are building up broad collections, including patent specifications and other government publications, on which the special libraries can rely for materials which they need only occasionally. The special libraries thus are freed to concentrate on very specific current materials. Through inter-library loans, the relationship between the two kinds of libraries is increasingly one of close cooperation.

LIBRARY COOPERATION

For the high level of the services provided by American libraries, there are, of course, many reasons, of which not the least is the broad and intensive cooperation among them. Each library seems to have its own individual character in keeping with the community or institution which it serves, but this does not mean that it functions in complete self-contained independence. All libraries, as though sharing a common responsibility for the development of library services, are as ready to help other libraries as they are to seek their help.

We have endeavored to understand why it was that this close horizontal relationship among American libraries came into being and why it has endured. Our conclusion, though there is nothing original about it, is that it must have originated in and been nurtured by the needs of an expanding society, by recognition of its economic advantages and by a strong spirit of willingness to work together. As the benefits of such cooperation have proven great for all concerned, it is only natural that vigorous efforts are made to maintain and strengthen it.

Library cooperation takes varied forms. An example of it on a small scale is the joining together of two or three libraries in making their acquisitions. On a considerably larger scale, it is seen in the National Union Catalog, maintained in the Library of Congress with the direct or indirect help of all libraries in the country. Not always is the cooperation on straight lines; it may be on circular or radial lines. Whatever the form or substance, however, we are of the opinion that it is the cooperation among them which keeps vitalizing blood coursing through the veins of all American libraries.

LOCAL AND REGIONAL COOPERATION

In many communities, two or three libraries enter into agreements that only one of them will acquire expensive or little-used materials in certain fields in order to avoid unessential duplication and make their purchase funds go further. The Detroit Public Library and the Wayne State University Libraries, which are very close, organized in 1957 a joint acquisitions committee which meets every two months to curtail purchase duplications. It recently worked out, for example, a division of responsibility between the two libraries for the buying of periodicals dealing with automation and computation, materials which the heavy industry, especially the automobile industry, in the Detroit area makes especially important.

In Chicago, the Public Library, the John Crerar Library and the Newberry Library have followed since 1895 an agreement on acquisitions. The Public Library must have basic materials in all subject areas for students, teachers and the general public, but it refrains from trying to match the special materials of the John Crerar Library for research in science and technology and those of the Newberry Library in the fields of literature, history and the fine arts.

Though cooperation in a city library system between the main library

and its branches is taken for granted, the Free Library of Philadelphia has developed a form of cooperation which merits notice. Its branches, each with about 20,000 books, were not always able to serve adequately the citizens of their immediate communities, and the main library was inconveniently distant for many persons. To correct the situation, the library established five regional libraries, each with about 200,000 books not found in the branches. These not only supplement and strengthen the branches but make it possible for the main library to concentrate more effectively on research and reference services. A similar system adopted by the New York Public Library is described briefly in the report on public libraries.

Within each state, the center of cooperative effort is likely to be the state library, partly as a result of the responsibility assigned to it under the Federal Library Services Act of 1956 to improve public library services. The New Jersey State Library, for example, is using the funds made available to it under this Act not only to build up public and school libraries but also to cooperate with them by circulating materials by bookmobiles from its headquarters in Trenton.

COOPERATION IN SPECIAL FIELDS

As interlibrary cooperation permits specialization in acquisition and reference sevices, it is not surprising that special libraries tend to work together closely. To facilitate their cooperation, they have compiled many union lists in special fields.

A recent development is cooperation between university libraries and the libraries and laboratories of nearby companies. In 1958, the Stanford University Libraries instituted a technical information service which is being used by about 200 companies, which pay fees in proportion to the volume of their demands on it, such as $250 for borrowing 50 items or $10,000 for borrowing 2,000. In addition to borrowing materials for use in their own laboratories, they may consult on management of their own libraries, indicate materials which they desire to have acquired for borrowing, and arrange for such special services as abstracting, translation, compilation of bibliographies and location of literature. Such an information service is practicable only when a university has a very strong science and technology collection, but the income from it helps the university library to augment its materials for use by not only the subscribing companies but also the university's faculty members and students.

The Massachusetts Institute of Technology has a somewhat similar "Industrial Liaison Project," through which more than 90 companies and other organizations obtain information help, including lists of periodicals in its library from which photo-reproductions of articles may be ordered.

A good example of cooperation in a special field is provided by the Translation Center in the John Crerar Library, which under a contract with the American Special Libraries Association collects translations of articles and reports in foreign languages, especially those of a technical nature, sent in by Government agencies, companies and other organizations. In its collection, classified

and open to the public, are more than 25,000 translations.

UNION CATALOGS

By its very nature, a union catalog requires cooperation in its compilation and serves cooperative purposes. *Union Catalogs in the United States*, published in 1942, lists 117 such catalogs which even then were in existence, but here we shall confine our observations to some of the more important regional union catalogs and the National Union Catalog in the Library of Congress. The regional catalogs are maintained in regional bibliographical centers which use not only them but also the National Union Catalog and other sources to locate materials in response to inquiries from the participating libraries.

The California Union Catalog, in the State Library, in Sacramento, has been functioning since 1909. To it 64 libraries—47 county, 14 municipal and 3 university—report their acquisitions, sending in nearly 135,000 cards yearly. From these libraries it receives monthly about 300 inquiries for the location of about 2,500 titles, of which 65 per cent are located. Among the participating libraries is an agreement on discarding books. When a library decides to eliminate materials from its collection, it informs the State Library, which checks the union catalog and requests that it be given any titles which are in no other library. Thus at least one copy of everything in the catalog regains permanently available.

The Pacific Northwest Bibliographic Center, located at the University of Washington, in Seattle, has a union catalog with more than 3,840,000 cards showing the holdings of about 200 libraries in Washington, Oregon, Montana, Idaho, Alaska and even British Columbia. The Bibliographical Center for Research, Rocky Mountains Region, established in Denver in 1935, maintains a union catalog of about 6,000,000 cards for books and other materials in 70 libraries.

Serving a more limited area, a union catalog of about 200 libraries in the Philadelphia metropolitan area, housed at the University of Pennsylvania, has 4,000,000 cards. In 1958, it received 130,000 new accession cards. This was one of the busiest catalogs we saw, and the teletype and telephone inquiries for the location of titles seemed to be coming in unceasingly. It handled 11,500 inquiries about 36,000 items in 1958.

In all of these, as well as the Cleveland Regional Union Catalog at the Western Reserve University Libraries and the Union Catalog of the Atlanta-Athens Area at the Emory University Library, card files are used, not book-form catalogs. Except for the California Union Catalog, they are self-supporting with funds contributed by the participating libraries. Their staffs number from three to seven persons. Though most of them present to the casual visitor little evidence of great activity, the participating libraries evidently consider such union catalogs to be important and well worth their cost.

There is, however, some question as to the future of these regional union catalogs and the bibliographical centers which use them. When the National Union Catalog reaches proper dimensions, it is argued, the regional catalogs no longer will be necessary and can be abandoned as uneconomical because highly

developed modern communications will enable the big catalog to serve quickly all libraries throughout the country. Yet there are librarians who believe that the regional centers will continue to serve their libraries more effectively than the National Catalog and will develop new ways of promoting regional library cooperation.

The National Union Catalog is divided into two parts, one for pre-1956 imprints and one for 1956 and later imprints. The former consists of some 14,000,000 cards assembled through the close cooperation of more than 700 American and Canadian libraries, including the major participants in the regional union catalogs. It is claimed that through this catalog can be located nearly 80 per cent of all American and Canadian library holdings. This truly is a monument to library cooperation. Coupled with the system of interlibrary loans, the catalog permits a great saving in the efforts of individual libraries to amass collections, and its other benefits are many.

The other part of the catalog, that for 1956 and later imprints, is located in a separate room. Here one sees card drawers on desks at which staff members are busily recording the locations of new books in the Library of Congress and other major libraries in the United States and Canada. These labors lead to publication of *The National Union Catalog, a Cumulative Author List*, first in monthly parts and then in quarterly, annual and quinquennial cumulations.

INTERLIBRARY LOANS

Materials needed by a scholar or research worker in a place where they are lacking may be obtained for him easily and without much waiting from libraries which have them under a system which for the most part operates uniformly under the Interlibrary Loan Code adopted by the American Library Association in 1952. This nationwide system, facilitated by the location of materials through union catalogs, means in effect that the whole of American library resources is available for public use anywhere in the country.

There are, however, several important libraries which have special regulations for interlibrary loans or decline to lend books. It is the policy of the University of Illinois Libraries, for example, not to accept requests from other libraries for the lending of books which are current, rare or costly to pack and insure. Nor does this library system undertake to borrow materials from other libraries which are wanted by those of its users who are not faculty members or graduate students. The Reference Department of the New York Public Library sends out on loan only photo-reproductions of any of its holdings.

In 1958, the American Library Association formulated a procedure for international interlibrary loans and arranged for participation by American libraries in the international loan system instituted by the International Federation of Library Associations. Thirty-three major American libraries have signified desire to cooperate with and receive cooperation through this system.

An example of how interlibrary loans may contribute to large-scale cooperation in the acquisitioning of materials is the Farmington Plan. The 60 libraries participating in the plan have arranged among themselves assignments of responsibility for the collection of foreign titles of each of which at least one

copy will be available for borrowing by the other libraries. Yale University, for example, is responsible for Indian and Pakistani books, Harvard University for Dutch books and Northwestern University for African materials. Originally limited to materials in roman-alphabet languages, the plan recently has been expanded to include those in Oriental languages. All titles acquired under the plan are reported to the National Union Catalog and are available for borrowing by libraries other than those taking part in the plan.

INTERLIBRARY DEPOSIT CENTERS

A comparatively recent development in cooperation which is receiving much attention is the establishment of so-called interlibrary centers or deposit libraries. There are three of these, the Midwest Interlibrary Center, in Chicago, the New England Deposit Library, in Boston, and the Hampshire Interlibrary Center, at Mt. Holyoke College, in Massachusetts. They differ in many ways, but all are deposits of little-used materials of the participating libraries and all are maintained by payments from these libraries.

The New England Deposit Library, established in 1942 on the initiative of the director of the Harvard University Libraries, occupies a building with five floors and a basement, 88 by 64 feet, which Harvard donated. The 14 libraries making use of it, including the Harvard University Libraries and the Boston Public Library, send here materials which seldom are required. For the storage and handling of them, they pay yearly twenty cents for each foot of shelving occupied. This is, then, essentially a warehouse for the storage of books. The materials are arranged by owner library and size, and cards presented with them are filed for reference. If there are duplicates, they are retained. Interlibrary loans are not arranged.

The Midwest Interlibrary Center, often referred to as MILC, came into being in 1951 with seven floors of stacks in a building 90 by 96 feet. Twenty university libraries use it for cooperative housing of little-used materials and as an agency for coordinating their acquisitioning policies. There are four categories of deposits. The first, consisting of about 90 per cent of the materials in the center, is outright gifts, ownership of which belongs to the center. In the second category are materials to which the depositing institutions retain title but which they have agreed to leave on permanent deposit. The third category covers materials on indefinite deposit, and the fourth comprises materials deposited only temporarily or for which storage space is rented. Duplicates among the materials in the first category are sold, and the proceeds help to meet management expenses.

For use by all of the member libraries, MILC has collected doctoral theses from the Library of Congress, state and municipal government publications, foreign governmental documents and scientific journals not already possessed by the member libraries.

Of the total budget, about 70 per cent is divided variably among the member libraries on the basis of their book budgets and the numbers of doctorate degrees which their universities confer. Because near and able to make more use of the center than the others, the University of Chicago pays an additional

$1,000. The balance is shared equally by the members.

The Hampshire Interlibrary Center, supported by Mt. Holyoke and three nearby colleges, is a small-scale MILC. Western Reserve University and other schools in the Cleveland area have been considering a similar center, but it has not yet materialized.

There also has been talk since 1954 of creating an interlibrary center like MILC somewhere in the New York area to be participated in by the libraries of such universities as Yale, Princeton, Pennsylvania, Columbia and Cornell and such large public libraries as the New York and Philadelphia's Free Library. So far there has been no unanimity of views, and the prospect is not very promising.

SHARING OF DUPLICATES

Still another way in which American libraries cooperate is by making their duplicate or surplus periodicals available to one another. The Medical Library Association, for example, has facilitated this among its members since 1899. The cooperating libraries send in lists of the periodicals for which they have no further use, and these are consolidated for distribution to the libraries, each of which then applies for whatever it may want. There also is the Periodical Exchange Union, created in 1940 by the Association of College and Research Libraries. It circulates lists of duplicates among the participating libraries in the order of the size of their annual periodical budgets, on the theory that so rare and difficult to obtain must be anything needed by a library which spends heavily on periodicals that such a library should have it rather than one which spends less.

Among other agencies for the exchange of duplicate materials, the United States Book Exchange is especially prominent. In 1957, from duplicates offered by its 798 participants, it arranged the distribution of more than 100,000 volumes. It also makes duplicates available to institutions abroad.

PUBLICATION EXCHANGES

One way of building up collections is to exchange publications, and often important materials which are not on sale cannot otherwise be obtained. Many American university and special libraries with publications to offer engage very actively in such exchanges and through them, we were told, may obtain as high as 60 or 70 per cent of their acquisitions. The libraries with which they exchange are foreign as well as domestic.

We observed that in institutions with more than one department or laboratory publishing bulletins, report and other materials it usually is the main library which handles all exchanges. Not only is it likely to know a wider range of exchanging organizations than each highly specialized publishing unit, but also it can ensure maximum utilization of what is received in exchange. In Japan, on the contrary, exchanges are left to the publishing units.

Some American libraries send their exchange materials to foreign libraries

directly, but most of them utilize the international exchange service of the Smithsonian Institution, which yearly sends and receives about 1,2000,000 packages of such materials.

Outstandingly energetic in international exchanges is the Library of Congress, which in 1958 received through them 440,000 pieces of foreign materials. It reciprocated in part by sending abroad 105 sets of United States Government publications through the Smithsonian Institution.

These publications deserve a few words. Without exception, anything prepared for publication by any Government agency is produced by the Government Printing Office, where the Superintendent of Documents is able to assemble sets of them for deposit in 563 public and university libraries. That these depositories usually provide special sections in which the documents are readily accessible for public perusal means that they receive very democratic distribution. The Superintendent of Documents also is responsible for preparing 105 sets of such publications for international exchange purposes. The Library of Congress handles all of the pertinent correspondence and arrangements, and the Smithsonian Institution sees to it that the materials are shipped. Such cooperation is very typical of the ways in which American libraries further their purposes by working together.

EDUCATION FOR LIBRARIANSHIP

Anyone visiting American libraries of various types for the first time cannot help being impressed by the amazingly high development of the services they render. To understand how this has come about, it is essential to realize the part played by American library schools, which not only enrich the profession with many excellent librarians but also have much of the initiative and leadership in evolving the theories and practices of library science.

LIBRARY SCHOOL

The professional library schools in the United States are graduate schools which require a bachelor's degree for admission and confer the master's degree on successful completion of their program after at least one year in residence. They conform to the standards for the accreditation of schools for professional librarians laid down by the Board of Education for Librarianship, stipulating that professional status may be attained only by those with a minimum of five academic years of study beyond the usual secondary education. These standards were adopted in 1951 to take the place of minimum requirements which had been in force since 1933, and under them the Committee on Accreditation of the American Library Association evaluates and accredits library schools. More

than 570 schools offer library science courses, but fewer than 5 per cent of them are fully accredited professional library schools.

In Japan, most comparable "standards" are merely bare essentials, specifying the lowest permissible requirements. Those applied in the United States usually are designed to stimulate improvement or advancement and therefore set high goals. This difference between the two concepts of standards seemed very significant to us when we acquainted ourselves with the efforts of the Committee on Accreditation.

As of September, 1959, this committee had accredited 30 library schools. Of these, the following are in a class by themselves because they offer courses leading beyond thhe master's degree to the doctor's: School of Librarianship, University of California at Berkeley; Graduate Library School, University of Chicago; School of Library Service, Columbia University; University of Illinois Library School; Department of Library Science, University of Michigan; Graduate School of Library Service, Rutgers University, and School of Library Science, Western Reserve University.

Also covered by standards whereby they may be evaluated are the undergraduate library science programs found in many universities and colleges. These progressively have been made higher. In their present form they were adopted last year by the American Library Association to replace the "Standards for Library Science Programs in Teacher Education Institutions" of 1952, which supplanted the "Minimum Requirements for Teacher-Librarian Training Agencies" of 1934.

Education for librarianship in the United States has a long history. The oldest of the professional schools, Columbia's, was founded by Melvil Dewey in 1887. The newest is that at Rutgers, but it will lose this distinction with the emergence this year of a school at the University of California at Los Angeles.

CURRICULA

The curricula of most library schools are very much the same, partly because they follow the specifications outlined in the standards. That of Columbia's School of Library Service is typical. It has five essential subject areas: library resources, reader services, technical services, the organization and administration of libraries, and the history and function of libraries in society. Students enrolled for the regular program normally are required to earn at least 36 hour credits in the basic courses in these subject areas. Once they have satisfied this requirement, they may add courses in such subjects as work with children, science libraries and music libraries.

Published by the Carnegie Corporation in 1923, C. C. Williamson's *Training for Library Service* enunciated certain ideals and prescribed how they could be realized. To give concrete form to his thinking, the Graduate Library School of the University of Chicago was established in 1926. Instead of the vocational training provided by most library schools until that time, this school placed its emphasis, over and beyond instruction in the basic principles and practices of librarianship, on theoretical and scholarly aspects of library science,

training in the teaching of library subjects, research in professional problems and other such matters. What it then pioneered in has been taken up by other schools, but it continues to display leadership in training along these lines. Five of its eleven faculty members, it is interesting to note, hold doctorates.

REFERENCE SERVICE COURSES

It used to be that reference materials and services were covered only in general courses. The present trend is toward treating the literatures of the humanities, social science and natural science in separate courses, at least two of which are required of each student. Even greater specialization is found in courses on the reference materials in such fields as medicine, engineering, law, music and the fine arts.

Familiarization with and training in the use of general reference books and bibliographies of course are not neglected. Also given attention are the teaching methods which give rise to reference demands on school, public and university libraries. It is a common practice to assign typical reference questions for the students to answer. In the Library School of Simmons College, where the case study method has been used with success in the teaching of library administration, it is intended to introduce in the near future the case study method in reference courses. After receiving background information about the questions involved, students will listen to tape recordings of conversations between inquirers and reference librarians and then will analyze the questions and study how they should be answered.

FACULTY RESEARCH

As graduate schools, most library schools, especially those which have programs leading to the doctor's degree, attach importance to research projects. Chicago's Graduate Library School, as one would expect from what already has been said about it, and the University of Illinois School of Library Science actively encourage research by their faculty members. They publish the results of such research, as well as reports of workshops, institutes and other projects which they have sponsored. Chicago has its *Library Quarterly* and Illinois its *Library Trends*.

There are schools, however, such as that at Simmons, which adhere firmly to the principle that the primary duty of the faculty member is to teach. Individual research or participation in the activities of outside organizations is secondary.

LIBRARY UTILIZATION

Even though we were not unfamiliar with the prevalence in American colleges and universities of instruction through reading assignments and other projects requiring use of library materials, for this had been pointed out to us as one of the causes of the expansion of college and university libraries, we were very much surprised to observe in the library schools we visited how many such

assignments and projects were given to students. Instruction in this manner is found to some extent in some universities in Japan, but beyond compare in Japan was the tremendous volume of assignments of this kind which we saw posted on library school bulletin boards. At Berkeley, for example, students in the reference and bibliography courses seemed to be under pressure to complete an assignment every other day with no more than a week or so in which to work on it.

At Rutgers, where the Graduate School of Library Science does not have its own library and its students use the main library, the reference librarian told us that they make far greater use of library materials than do the students of any other unit of the university. Obviously individuals who as students have had intensive experience in this utilization of library resources and facilities can be expected to bring to librarianship some understanding of what is needed of them.

FACULTIES AND STUDENTS

In the library schools we visited, the faculties seemed to have at least five or six full-time members and about half as many part-time members, but Illinois had 14 and Columbia and Rutgers 12 each. Student enrollments varied. Illinois had about 300, of whom approximately 100 were taking the regular master's degree program and nearly 30 were working toward doctorates. Rutgers, also with an enrollment of 300, last year awarded the master's degree to about 100. With more than 400 students, Michigan had about 250 seeking the master's degree and 16 the doctor's. At Chicago, where the enrollment averages about 50 each year, we were told that from ten to 15 students usually are permitted to work toward doctorates.

PLACEMENT OF GRADUATES

As graduates of library schools are substantially fewer in number than the positions which libraries want to fill, they are much in demand. At the University of Southern California School of Library Science, for example, we were informed that for the 100 members of its graduating class it had received 300 requests. One graduate had difficulty in choosing among six positions, all good, which had been offered to him. The problem is not placement but recruitment of promising young people for careers in librarianship, and to attract them the American Library Association has been circulating booklets and pamphlets.

In 1957, library school graduates received starting salaries averaging between $4,000 and $4,400 if inexperienced and between $4,500 and $4,800 if experienced. At the University of Washington, Seattle, it was said graduates of its library school received at least between $4,000 and $5,000. Those qualified as law librarians could command between $5,000 and $6,000, and in some of the special libraries there were positions which paid from $8,000 to $10,000. The Boeing Company, with five engineering libraries, might offer even more than $10,000.

We were convinced that any able graduate of a library school who has the necessary professional qualifications is ensured of favorable employment in the United States without reliance on clique influence.

SCIENCE LIBRARIANS

The special libraries of companies like Boeing, mentioned above, seek librarians whose training has been primarily for work in science and technology libraries or at least in special libraries in general. Ideal would be persons who had studied library science after having majored in science and technology as undergraduates, but such persons are rare. Just as in Japan, most of those enrolling in library schools have majored in literature or history. To compensate somewhat for this, many American library schools attempt through courses on special libraries to prepare their students for effective work with materials on subjects about which they have no deep or comprehensive knowledge. Of the 30 accredited schools, 23 provide programs for those who want to qualify for work in special libraries. Almost all of them have courses on science and technology literature, which in ten of them are compulsory for all students.

As to whether professional librarians with such training are preferable to science specialists without training in library science for the staffs of scientific and technological special libraries or the science and technology departments of large libraries, there is no unanimity of opinion. The John Crerar Library, a special science and technology library with a collection of about 1,500,000 titles, privately supported but open to the public, favors graduates of schools or departments of science and technology, to whom in-service training in library work is given after employment. They already have, it is argued, the specialized knowledge which is essential for bibliographical and translation services, surveys on patents, research work and other duties, whereas the library school graduate without a scientific background cannot easily or quickly acquire scientific and technological knowledge as highly specialized as this library needs. A similar view was expressed to us by the head of the Reference Section, Science and Technology Division, in the Library of Congress. Persons who have specialized in some field of science or technology and possess language skills, he said, are the most desirable.

In the Science and Technology Department of the New York Public Library, however, we heard the opposite opinion. The policy here in the past had been to employ subject specialists. It was found that they tended to look upon their employment as temporary and were averse to the non-specialized duties required of them until they could be trained and gain enough familiarity with the library's science materials to be capable of specialized subject work. As most of the reference inquiries received in this library are of a somewhat general nature, the department believes that it functions better with staff members who have had professional training in librarianship and are interested in scientific matters. We consider it likely that many of those in charge of science and technology collections would endorse this view.

The problem, of course, is not limited to science and technology. In the growing numbers of large departmentalized public libraries, there obviously is

need in each department for staff members who combine subject knowledge with professional skill in librarianship. If they are not available, a choice must be made between subject specialists and professional librarians. At the Los Angeles Public Library, one of the administrators told us that when faced with the necessity of such a choice she would take the professional librarian. There may be now and then reference questions which only an advanced subject specialist can answer, but most of the questions with which a public library must deal are usually broad in nature and well within the competence of the professional librarian who knows how to use reference tools.

We have gone into this matter in some detail because sooner or later it must be faced in Japan, where the larger university and public libraries gradually are becoming departmentalized and industries are establishing more special libraries.

In a paper presented at an institute conducted by the University of Illinois Library School in 1957, Dr. Robert B. Downs stated: "... Along with the divisional set-up have come changes in staff requirements. For example, in reference work, the divisional library for science does not want a specialist, say, in chemistry, nor a general reference librarian who knows something about everything but has no exhaustive knowledge of any area. What is needed is something in between, what might be called a generalized specialist, a person who has some familiarity with all the principal branches of science, without being an expert in any particular branch." We well may find this statement very suggestive.

DOCUMENTATION COURSES

In documentation, which recently has become of growing interest to Japanese librarians, quite a few American library schools provide instruction. At the University of California at Berkeley, Rutgers, the University of Southern California and elsewhere, this is limited at present to a single course. As documentation covers not only the organization of information sources (or the finding of primary information sources, the technical processing of them and the production of secondary sources) but also the searching of such sources to obtain information, some librarians have wondered whether it would not be logical to devote a separate course to each of its two parts. When we raised the question at Rutgers, the opinion we received was that there is convenience in handling the subject in a single course.

Western Reserve University's School of Library Science has a special unit called the Center for Documentation and Communication Research, which engages in research on the effective use of documentation and at the same time offers courses on documentation, machine searching of literature, linguistic technology and related subjects.

IN-SERVICE TRAINING

As indicated previously, a library school may have from 300 to 400 or more students, only about 100 of whom complete the regular master's degree

program yearly. Many of the others are librarians who have enrolled for one or more courses, some of them at night or in summer sessions, to improve their work performance or qualify for advancement. To strengthen their staffs, special libraries often urge their librarians to take library school courses, especially in metropolitan areas with schools such as those at Columbia and Rutgers. For other librarians, there are various types of workshops and institutes to improve their training.

Even full-fledged professional graduates of library schools who have learned the fundamental principles and practices of librarianship may require in-service training to enable them to cope effectively with the specific problems of the libraries which employ them. However, American libraries as a whole have not yet developed systematic and adequate training of this sort. A survey made in 1950 showed that in less than 30 per cent of libraries of all types was there any provision for in-service training. It is estimated that not even half of the metropolitan public libraries do anything about it. And the smaller the library the less likely it is to have it.

In several places we were told that training on the job is of course important and that it is the responsibility of every supervisor. Much emphasis is placed on familiarity with staff manuals, which usually describe in comprehensive detail every required procedure. At the Los Angeles Public Library, we learned, new librarians are given an orientation course of from eight to ten weeks about six months after they start to work. This includes lectures on the organization and services of the library and inspection of its units and facilities. There also is individual training by supervisors, and some departments may train new staff members in special matters, as the Social Science Department here does in the use of documents, through lectures and practice sessions. For department heads and senior librarians, courses on such problems as personnel and branch libraries are given occasionally.

Whenever we mentioned the problems of Japanese librarianship, our problems in education for librarianship, say, or the administrative problems of our public and university libraries, American librarians were likely to tell us: "Your problems are just the same as ours. As we have the same problems, let's advance arm in arm toward the common goal." Possibly they were only flattering us. Realistically, though several decades ago they may have had problems not unlike ours, those they have today are not the same as our problems, despite a few superficial similarities. They differ from our problems mainly in a quantitative sense, and so great is this difference that we must consider the relationship to be only homonymous.

By no means, though, should this be taken to imply belief that there is nothing in the American experience with librarianship from which we may learn. From our observations in the United States, we realize more clearly than ever before that we must have more library schools which meet at least the present standards in education for librarianship adopted by the Japanese University Accrediting Association. To have them, there must be many more adequately qualified full-time teachers of library science. Not so many years ago, even in America there were few good library schools. Yet eminent educators and

librarians, though few in number, were moved by high aspirations to work together to establish the foundations on which American librarianship has built its present strength. Smallness of scale does not prohibit growth. The original *Guide to Reference Books* painstakingly compiled by Miss Mudge only after years of experience and today's large-scale National Union Catalog both had their origins in needs which at first could be satisfied very meagerly. Neither was achieved overnight. From this we may draw encouragement.

Especially recommended for reading and study is the report on our last formal seminar meeting, devoted to the professional education and training of reference librarians. As the chairman said in his summary, the subjects we had discussed, professional education of reference personnel and the basic bibliographical tools for reference work, were perhaps the two most essential elements for good reference services. We agree. Enrichment of our professional education and the compilation and publication of good bibliographical tools are surely two of the most important tasks before the librarians of Japan.

PART II

SUMMARY REPORT OF THE SEMINARS

AN ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

The committee wishes to express its appreciation to the many American librarians who helped make the seminar both profitable and pleasant for its participants. In addition to the formal consultants who assisted the liaison personnel, it is grateful for the volunteer services of a good many other distinguished participants in the seminars: Julia Ruth Armstrong, Lester Asheim, David Clift, John Connor, Jack Dalton, Robert B. Downs, William Eshelman, Herman H. Fussler, William S. Geller, Rudolph Gjelsness, Gertrude Gscheidle, Tyrus Harmsen, Katharine G. Harris, Herman Henkle, David Heron, Hannah Hunt, Richard Krug, Harold Lancour, Raymond C. Lindquist, Alice Lohrer, Peter J. McCormick, Charles McMullen, Janice Miller, Robert A. Miller, John S. Mills, Jens Nyholm, Stanley Pargellis, Martha Parks, Gertrude Parsley, Margaret I. Rufsvold, Margaret Russell, Jesse H. Shera, Kathleen Stebbins, Gordon Stone, Yukihisa Suzuki, Tamotsu Takase, Ralph Ulveling, Rose L. Vormelker, Frederick Wagman, Gordon Williams, and Jane Wilson, as well as the librarians, too numerous to mention by name, who received the Japanese at their libraries.

To various members of the ALA Headquarters staff we are greatly indebted, especially to Miss Cora M. Beatty, former Executive Secretary of the Reference Services Division, who worked with the committee in its planning stage, and to Mr. Richard Harwell, now Acting Executive Secretary of this division. Mr. Harwell directed the editorial work on this report, enlisting the assistance of William Vernon Jackson.

Particular thanks are due the reporters for the several seminars: Ruth N. Teggart for the Berkeley seminar; William Brace for the Chicago seminars; Louis Mintz for the New York seminar; Theodore C. Hines for the Philadelphia seminar; Mary Louise Engel for the Washington seminars; Priscilla FitzGerald for the Nashville seminars; and Richard Zumwinkle for the Los Angeles seminar. To these same reporters are due apologies for certain liberties which had to be taken with their reports in order to compress the over-all report to publishable limits.

Finally, we wish to thank the Rockefeller Foundation, which provided funds for the seminar and made possible the publication of the report, as well as a more exhaustive one which will be published in Japan later this year.

John M. Cory
Robert L. Gitler
Everett Moore
Frances Neel Cheney, Chairman

ALA Committee on the U. S. Field Seminar on Library Reference Services for Japanese Librarians

February 1960

LIAISON LIBRARIANS AND CONSULTANTS

SAN FRANCISCO AND LOS ANGELES, CALIFORNIA

Liaison Librarian: *Mr. Everett Moore*, Head, Reference Department, University of California Library, Los Angeles.

Consultants, Berkeley Seminar: *Miss Margaret Klausner*, Librarian, City of Stockton and San Joaquin County; *Dr. Fredric J. Mosher*, Associate Professor, School of Librarianship, University of California; *Miss Elizabeth Reynolds*, Librarian, Mills College; *Mrs. Helen M. Worden*, Assistant Librarian, University of California; *Miss Barbara White*, Librarian, Stanford Research Institute; *Mrs. Carma Zimmerman*, Librarian, California State Library.

Consultants, Los Angeles Seminar: *Dr. Martha Boaz*, Dean, School of Library Science, University of Southern California; *Dr. Andrew H. Horn*, Lecturer, School of Library Service, University of California; *Mrs. Thelma* Jackman, Head, Social Science & Business Department, Los Angeles Public Library.

CHICAGO AND VICINITY

Liaison Librarian: *Mr. Robert L. Gitler*, Executive Secretary, Library Education Division, American Library Association; Secretary, ALA Committee on Accreditation.

Consultants: *Mr. Ben C. Bowman*, Assistant Librarian, Newberry Library; *Mr. William S. Budington*, Associate Librarian, John Crerar Library.

NEW YORK AND VICINITY & PHILADELPHIA AND VICINITY

Liaison Librarian: *Mr. George Bonn*, Chief, Science and Technology Department, New York Public Library.

Consultants: *Miss Constance Winchell*, Reference Librarian, Columbia University Library; *Mr. John Mackenzie Cory*, Chief, Circulation Department, New York Public Library; *Mr. Emerson Greenaway*, Director, Free Library of Philadelphia; *Mr. Roger H. McDonough*, Director, Division of the State Library, Archives and History, New Jersey Dept. of Education.

WASHINGTON AND VICINITY & NASHVILLE

Liaison Librarian: *Mrs. Frances Neel Cheney*, Associate Professor, Peabody Library School.

Consultants: *Miss Mary N. Barton*, former Head, General Reference Department, Enoch Pratt Free Library, Baltimore; *Mr. Paul Berry*, Chief, Serials Division, Library of Congress; *Dr. Estelle Brodman*, Assistant Librarian for Reference Services, National Library of Medicine; *Mrs. Margaret Schindler*

Bryant, Chief, Division of Bibliography, U. S. Department of Agriculture Library; *Mr. Charles Gottschalk*, Head, Reference Section, Science and Technology Division, Library of Congress; *Miss Isabel Howell*, Director, State Library Division, Tennessee State Library and Archives; *Dr. A. F. Kuhlman*, Director, Joint University Libraries, Nashville; *Mr. Foster Mohrhardt*, Director, U.S. Department of Agriculture Library; *Miss Lucile Morsch*, Deputy Chief Assistant Librarian, Library of Congress; *Mr. John Nolan*, Associate Director, Reference Department, Library of Congress; *Mr. Legare Obear*, Chief, Loan Division, Library of Congress; *Mr. Thomas Shaw*, Head, Public Reference Section, General Reference and Bibliography Division, Library of Congress; *Miss Rose Vainstein*, Public Library Specialist, Library Services Branch, U.S. Office of Education.

ABOUT THE PROCEEDINGS

The proceedings of the seminar meetings in the United States are presented in the following pages. Though a wide range of topics, both broad and specific, were discussed in an effort to convey a fuller understanding of the type of library service which American libraries consider to be the core of their professional contribution to the support of scholarship, research, instruction, and popular education, an effort was made to center the discussion in the various seminars in order to emphasize specific types of libraries or services.

Mr. Moore and consultants at Berkeley considered some methods and procedures followed by various libraries, public, academic, and special, in acquiring and organizing reference collections, and discussed ways in which library cooperation may extend reference resources. Meeting on the Berkeley campus of the University of California, they gave particular attention to the organization of reference services in both the general and specialized libraries they had visited there. Comparisons were drawn with procedures in the California State Library, with those in a representative medium-size city and county public library at Stockton and in a special library at the Stanford Research Institute.

At the Los Angeles seminar, Mr. Moore and consultants took up the question of how reference librarians should be trained and discussed some problems of supplying librarians who can offer expert reference assistance in a variety of libraries and in specialized fields. Some present practices in the teaching of reference courses and some changes in recent years were discussed. Also considered at this session were problems of improving and extending the reference resources of libraries in Japan, which the Seminar members pointed out are relatively poor in these materials. Means of promoting the preparation of reference works in Japan and getting them published were discussed, and analogies were drawn to the ways in which they are developed in the United States.

In Chicago, prior to the three formal seminars scheduled with consultants Ben Bowman and William Budington, a day was devoted to two sessions of a seminar nature: a meeting led by Mr. Gitler who outlined and discussed with the seminar members the program to be followed during their stay in Chicago and the Middle West area October 9–24, and a session for discussion

of the ALA organization by David H. Clift, ALA Executive Director, in which he delineated the structure, program, objectives of ALA, and responded to many of the seminar participants' inquiries.

The first formal seminar focused on the administrative aspects, the framework, in which a reference function and service are established, developed and carried forward in dissimilar types of large, special reference organizations such as the Newberry and John Crerar libraries. Consideration was given to the factors to be considered, the problems to be met in long-range planning of such reference programs. Turning from the administrative factor of staffing—personnel—the seminar turned to the problem of recruitment. The participants raised questions on the comparative merits, advantages, disadvantages of staffing with subject-trained specialists rather than professionally educated (library science) personnel, and vice versa, as well as combinations of both. Consultant Bowman spoke on the place of the subject specialist in special reference library service, while Mr. Budington added cogent observations on the strength brought to such services by the professional library-school graduate. Mr. Gitler and Mr. Budington reviewed the nationwide programs (ALA and SLA) for recruitment to librarianship with attention to the personnel needs in the types of libraries under discussion, both general and special.

Throughout the seminar the Japanese members introduced illustrative points bearing on the subject being discussed, indicating certain practices in the Japanese reference services scene. Miss Fukuda and Mr. Shimizu, for example, in connection with determining materials available in Japan, described some of the methods used in Japan for book selection and the issuing of annual lists by the Japan Library Association.

The second and third Chicago seminars tended to run much of the range of the reference function, including case illustrations of reference services as delineated by the consultants of the libraries they represented. At both of these sessions the ALA Reference Services Division chairman of the project, Mrs. Cheney, was present and responded to inquiries from the Japanese seminar members.

In the morning session, Mr. Bowman discussed the in-service training of staff in reference service as carried on at Newberry; the discussion, moving from the subject of staff compilation of bibliographies, turned to a consideration of the various methods and sources of reference publication in the United States. Mrs. Cheney reviewed further aspects of reference materials control in this connection. The latter half of the morning seminar concerned itself with library cooperation in relation to reference services and materials, with attention to the several factors bearing on this—geographical, political, administrative, etc.

The afternoon seminar, at which Mr. Budington was consultant, continued the discussion of library cooperation following Mr. Gitler's recapitulation of the morning's treatment of the subject as it relates to the reference function. The Chicago library scene in this connection was described rather fully with illustrative examples by Mr. Budington in speaking to the main points raised by the seminar participants and their chairman, Miss Fukuda.

Attention was given to the non-print processes of materials reproduction and the implications for libraries with respect to copyright legislation.

This final Chicago seminar closed with a discussion of the library's responsibility—particularly the reference librarian's—for stimulating library use, and providing orientation and guides for users in all types of libraries; a further extension of this topic was the seminar's consideration of the developing by reference librarians of printed guides to the library's holdings as well as special subject guides.

In the New York seminar emphasis was on the development of reference service in the United States, its early history as exemplified by the pioneer work of Miss Isadore Mudge at Columbia University and its growth in materials and in varieties of service in both academic and public libraries. The importance of cooperation in reference service among libraries of all kinds was discussed at some length as was the question of subject-trained *vs.* library-school-trained reference personnel in the various kinds of libraries. The implications of these various aspects of reference service for Japanese libraries and librarians were brought out as they became evident during the discussion.

Cooperation among libraries at the national, state, and local levels was the theme of the Philadelphia seminar. The application of the Library Services Act in New Jersey and in Pennsylvania was considered in some detail: the tri-county project in southern New Jersey and the state library survey for Pennsylvania. The work of New Jersey's Public and School Libraries Bureau in spreading information about good library service throughout the state was described and specific examples and results were noted and commented on. A summary of the new state plan for Pennsylvania was integrated into a description of the new regional library system plan for Philadelphia. Again, implications for Japan were brought out as they came up during the discussion.

In Washington, emphasis was placed on the organization and services of a large municipal library, especially the relationship of a general reference department to subject departments. Here it became apparent that it was considered wise to develop subject departments as the need arose either from the demands of the clientele, as in business and technology, or from the nature of the materials, as in music and art. That a general reference department is needed to maintain an adequate collection of bibliographies and indexes, general encyclopedias, directories and other reference materials cutting across several fields, as well as to direct users of the library to general and specific sources of information, was evident from Miss Mary Barton's account of the development at Enoch Pratt Free Library.

Also pertinent was a discussion of the role of the federal government agencies in reference and bibliographic services. The advisory and consultant services of the Library Services Branch of the U. S. Office of Education and its important responsibility for statistical reporting were stressed by Miss Rose Vainstein, Public Library Specialist in that division. Outlined in some detail were the activities of the Library of Congress, the U. S. Department of Agriculture Library, and the National Library of Medicine, in which the increasing importance of the federal government in bibliographic work was most evident.

In Nashville, the role of the state library agency in the improvement of statewide services was demonstrated by the organization and activities of the Tennessee State Library and Archives in general library services, archives, extension, and in developing important collections of documents, newspapers and

the materials of state and local history.

What can be accomplished through cooperation among colleges in the same neighborhood was illustrated by an account of the building of the Joint University Library and the preliminary planning necessary to bring about the organization, financial support and administrative control of joint library services to George Peabody College for Teachers, Scarritt College, and Vanderbilt University.

SUMMARY

The seminar discussions revealed a number of prevailing conditions and attitudes affecting reference and bibliographic services in American libraries today. Especially worthy of note are the following:

1. The increasing emphasis on larger areas of service.
2. The increasing importance of the federal government libraries in bibliography and research activities.
3. The strengthening of the state library agency, with a clearer definition of its responsibilities in general library services, preservation of archives, library extension, legislative reference, and in the collection of materials on state history, and state, federal, and local government publications.
4. The lack of qualified personnel needed to carry out extended programs of service made possible by the Library Services Act; also, the over-all need for more professionally trained librarians with strength in subject fields.
5. The need for further cooperative effort among libraries in defining responsibility for building up collections in specific fields.
6. The need for continuing attention to problems of bibliographical organization, to provide more complete access to information.
7. The need for the development of standards intended to decrease the existing inequalities between the kinds of reference service provided in large metropolitan areas and in small or medium-sized libraries.
8. The need for better methods of measuring the quality and quantity of reference service.
9. The recognition that good reference service must be built on strength in materials, personnel, and administrative leadership and that strong libraries must widen their areas of service.
10. The need for extending and strengthening professional education for reference librarians.
11. The effect of a growing body of reference materials, especially bibliographies and indexes on methods of locating information.
12. The importance of continuing the study of needs for new reference books and of means for effecting their publication.
13. The rapid expansion of specialized reference service in the fields of science and technology.
14. The increasing use of microfilm in interlibrary loans.

THE BERKELEY SEMINAR

OCTOBER 5, 1959

The first formal meeting of the Seminar in the United States was held on Monday afternoon, October 5, on the University of California campus at Berkeley. Mr. Moore presided at the discussion in which twenty librarians participated. The nine visiting librarians from Japan were joined by six consultants from California libraries, each representing a different form of library organization and service, and by the four members of the committee which arranged the Bay Area program.

Mr. Moore reviewed the development of the idea for the Seminar, both in this country and in Japan. It is perhaps the first such project in the field of international librarianship so minutely planned in advance, with the result that the visiting librarians arrived remarkably well-informed about American libraries and thoroughly prepared with a program of inquiries for their observations in the United States. In addition to holding meetings of their group at International House in Tokyo to read and study materials sent to them from American libraries, they had consultations with other librarians in Japan and with members of the American Library Association who have been closely associated with the program. Among the latter were Mr. Jack Dalton of the International Relations Office of the ALA who made several trips to Tokyo; Mrs. Cheney, chairman of the ALA committee for arrangements in the United States; Mr. Cory; Mr. George Bonn; and Mr. Gitler.

The objective of the meeting at Berkeley was to define the functions of the reference librarian in the United States, and to clarify those functions in specific terms, relating them to experience in various types of libraries. As a point of departure, Mr. Moore presented an outline of responsibilities formulated after conferences with librarians and observation of reference departments. The chief function of the reference librarian was defined therein as the "offering of every possible assistance to readers in using libraries profitably and pleasurably." The implementation of this function involves the following six responsibilities:

1. Collection and organization of information materials for efficient and ready use.

   (a) Adding systematically and regularly to the collection to keep it active and up-to-date; keeping informed about current publishing activity; (b) providing convenient bibliographical facilities for use in combination with library catalogs and indexes; (c) organizing miscellaneous and ephemeral source materials for convenient use in yielding ready information.

2. Assisting readers in using the library.

   (a) Describing and interpreting organization of the library through handbooks and other guides, personal assistance, group instruction; (b) helping readers in finding information by suggesting specific reference sources, advising as to their uses, and proposing techniques for searching for data.

3. Answering requests for ready information, in person or by telephone.

   (a) By consulting ready reference sources; (b) by referring to more direct sources of information.

4. Preparing reading lists on specific subjects and bibliographies for study and research.

5. Promoting and providing for cooperation with other libraries.

   (a) Through exchange of information about collections, through union catalogs, union lists of special holdings, cooperative acquisitions; (b) through interlibrary loans.

6. Preparation of exhibits.

   (a) To advertise the library's collections; (b) to demonstrate uses of books and other library materials.

Mr. Iwazaru requested a discussion of the limits of the first responsibility listed above and of the specific ways in which book selection is accomplished.

Miss Klausner described the Stockton Free Public Library as one developed entirely around the reference function—that is, bringing people and materials together for the purpose of communicating ideas. In this sense, each librarian on the staff participates in reference service. Book selection and the actual ordering procedures are coordinated by one professional librarian whose ultimate decisions are made in concert with the Head of the Reference Department and the Head Librarian. However, all members of the staff are invited to make recommendations for purchase and all have equal access to lists of published material and reviewing media through a routing system. Staff members are not assigned responsibility for specific subject fields; but they are, however, relied upon for suggestions if they have special competence in a subject, as are members of the community (e.g., the staff of the Health Department); however, the reference librarian makes recommendations in all fields at present.

Mrs. Zimmerman reviewed the policies and organization of the California State Library at Sacramento with respect to the acquisition of materials. The State Library assembles books for two purposes: (1) to serve the State government and its departments, and more recently the legislature, and (2) to supplement the book collections of other libraries in the state, especially public libraries. Local libraries acquire the more popular books; the State Library buys less frequently used or more expensive materials as well.

The State Library services are administered by three bureaus: (1) the Readers' Technical Services Bureau, (2) the Administrative and Legislative Reference Bureau, and (3) the General Reference Bureau. The General Reference Bureau is the largest and handles questions received by telephone or by mail as well as personally. It answers mail (three hundred author-title and fifty subject requests a day). Its staff includes six professional librarians who answer questions—both historical and current—on California alone. In each of the three bureaus the staff members are assigned definite subject areas in which they are responsible for book selection.

Besides the three service bureaus, there are several other sections of the State Library: the Law Section with two professional librarians; the Government Publications Section, which collects the publications of the U. S. federal govern-

ment, the state of California, most of the other states in the United States, local governments in California, and a selected group of foreign countries—mostly English-speaking countries; the Sutro Branch in San Francisco which is a more static collection of material on California history and is staffed by two professional librarians; and a section devoted to services to the blind in California and Nevada for which materials are largely supplied by the Library of Congress. Each division of the State Library has its own budget, and all are coordinated by the Chief of Readers' Services.

The building of the collections of the University Library at Berkeley was described by Mrs. Worden, who pointed out the different policies in regard to selection for the general, or research, collection and for those collections which are composed specifically of reference materials. Selection of books for the general collection has traditionally been the responsibility of members of the faculty with various subject specialities. More recently this function has been shared cooperatively by faculty and librarians. Responsibility for the reference collections themselves, however, belongs quite specifically to the librarian. The faculty rarely makes suggestions for purchases of this sort.

The University Library system has departed from a single central reference collection. The Biological Sciences Library, for example, has its own reference collection which is selected by the subject specialists working in that library. The Reference and Bibliography Collection in the Main Library is essentially a large humanities collection and additions to it are the responsibility of the staff of the General Reference Service. It serves also as a central bibliographical facility, and suggestions for purchase are made by bibliographers and catalogers to the General Reference Service staff. Little used or out-of-date materials (manuals, Who's who's, etc.) are removed periodically from all reference collections to the stacks and replaced by current publications.

The Library budget includes a Reference Materials Fund which has two purpose: (1) to keep the general reference collection in the Main Library upto date, and (2) to add to branch libraries certain general "ready reference" materials (a general encyclopedia, unabridged dictionary, world atlas, etc.) which are needed because of the geographical remoteness of the branch from the Main Library but which could not suitably be bought from subject allotments. (These funds, appropriated each year for the various teaching departments, provide for the purchase of books for the general collection of either the Main Library or its branches, not for the reference collections.) Titles suggested by faculty members must be approved by the chairman of the teaching department or his library representaitve unless this has been delegated to a subject specialist on the library staff.

Mr. Amatsuchi inquired whether there were any librarians on the University Library staff whose sole responsibility was the selection of books. Mrs. Worden replied that there are special cases where one librarian may have a large responsibility for book selection. For example, purchases made on the Farmington Plan sometimes present difficult language problems. The staff of the Acquisitions Department includes language specialists who select the materials to be purchased after consultation with two or three faculty members who have particular interests in research. The music librarian, too, assumes a large responsibility for purchases in his field. However, no one librarian on the staff

is responsible for all selection. This would be unfeasible in a library which purchases over 80,000 volumes a year. On the other hand, in the small college library the reference librarian is not only responsible for the choice of reference books, but is expected to supplement the selections of the faculty for the general collection in any field where the library's resources seem inadequate.

Mrs. Worden mentioned the problem of duplication where funds are limited, and the members of the seminar were acutely interested in possible solutions. The University of California Library, with twenty branches—many of them in the fields of science, is purchasing twelve sets of *Chemical Abstracts*, the cost of which is $150 each per year. Miss Fukuda and Mr. Goto stated that this sort of duplication is common in Japan, but the sets are paid for from independent branch budgets, or from funds for seminar collections. The central library cannot always afford copies itself. There is no central source of information about the location of copies, so they often remain available to only a few. At Berkeley, on the other hand, the Acquisitions Department of the Library acts as purchasing agent for books for the entire University, for whatever purpose. This policy gives the Library knowledge of the number of copies available and thereby some control. Books are bought on various funds outside the Library's budget—research grants, special appropriations for institutes, bureaus, etc. The existence of small scattered collections has, however, been discouraged in the last three years as a result of a directive from the president of the University requesting each campus to attempt better coordination and use of books. Most departmental collections have now been incorporated into the Library system and are staffed by professional librarians.

Mr. Amatsuchi, in order to correct any impression that all university libraries in Japan are decentralized, and by implication disorganized, asserted that several of the national universities—among them Kyoto, the second largest, and Nagoya—are very good and have a centralized library system. He agreed, as Mr. Moore suggested, that the superiority of the new national universities may be due to their relative independence of older institutions and systems. Mrs. Worden pointed out that America's best university library is at Harvard, with a decentralized system including sixty units, but suggested that such a system can only operate effectively when there is cooperation and good will among them.

The special library has somewhat different objectives in securing materials than any of the others. Miss White explained the operation of the Stanford Research Institute Library as being comparable to running a business, with all of its activities geared to tangible production. The Institute covers several fields: economics, physical sciences, engineering, and more recently the biological sciences. Its library staff has learned to anticipate needs and to have materials available when they are required. An item requested by one patron is usually useful to several others, so the library does not hesitate to obtain it. The budget is based on the previous year's expenditures, supplemented by special appropriations where needed. This sort of collection must be a dynamic one to be valid; materials are intended to circulate constantly and unused items are weeded out periodically.

The discussion turned next to Point 4 in the outline: *Preparing reading lists on specific subjects and bibliographies for study and research*. Mr. Goto's impression was that this seemed to be an almost universal practice in the United

States and he and his colleagues had wondered whether American librarians view it as the core of reference activities. Mr. Moore pointed out that such lists have various purposes—to announce additions to the library, to encourage reading, etc. Miss Klausner outlined the three main purposes they serve in the Stockton Free Public Library as (1) promotional, to encourage use of the library, (2) to serve special study groups, and (3) to serve individuals who desire a recommended list on a given subject.

Mr. Suzuki announced the intention of the National Diet Library to designate two libraries in the United States as depositories for all Japanese government publications, (1) the University of California Library at Berkeley on the West Coast, and (2) the Library of Congress on the East Coast. The problem of making these documents available as widely as required involves a definite responsibility as stated in Point 5 of the outline: *Promoting and providing for cooperation with other libraries.* Mr. Suzuki inquired about the origin of the concept in this area—whether it arose as a result of California's isolation from the extensive library collections in the eastern United States—and about the implementation of the policy by such means as exchange of materials, compilation of union lists, etc.

Mrs. Zimmerman illustrated the effectiveness of cooperation by describing the development and function of the union catalog at the State Library—the oldest such catalog in the United States. It lists holdings of all the county libraries and all the major city libraries in the state (and for a limited time included those of the University of California and Stanford as well). The contributing libraries send one card for each book in their collections to Sacramento where a special staff keeps the catalog up to date. They also inform the State Library of their intention to discard titles, and the staff assumes the responsibility of assigning one copy to be retained permanently.

Mr. Moore questioned whether cooperation is always a primary concern of libraries in bibliographically isolated areas; it is possible that their concentration on building adequate independent collections may actually impede the practice of cooperation. Mrs. Worden agreed that while the concept of cooperation is a commendable one, there are many aspects to be considered and certain definite limitations. For example, there is no alternative to owning the books needed for the teaching programs in a university; it is often satisfactory, however, to borrow books for purposes of research. Most university cooperative programs involve the exchange of unusual materials—those that are ephemeral, or expensive, or in some little known language.

Mr. Moore suggested the probability that in the near future we can expect sufficient alternatives to actual borrowing—photo copies, film copies, simultaneous reproduction, etc.—to make the location of physical copies unimportant. However, Miss White acknowledged the present dependence of the Stanford Research Institute on loans from other libraries and the necessity for cooperation in order to negotiate smoothly and promptly over a thousand such transactions every year.

Mrs. Zimmerman cited two additional examples of interlibrary cooperation: (1) the arrangement whereby the Bureau of Public Administration of the University of California at Berkeley sends to the State Library one copy of each slip made for the Bureau's index to documents, thus eliminating the need for

duplicating indexing at Sacramento, and (2) the Demonstration Reference Project, just evolved, which will include all libraries in six San Joaquin Valley counties on a voluntary basis. The project was conceived to enable smaller libraries to answer more reference questions directly without the necessity of referring them to the State Library. A sum of $50,000 has been made available to cover the cost of buying reference books, adding professional staff, promoting a public relations program to publicize increased service, and to pay for the various forms of communication (telephone, teletype, copying devices) necessary for conveying information quickly to patrons.

Miss Fukuda concluded the session with a gracious expression of appreciation for herself and her colleagues to their fellow librarians for the opportunity of meeting with them in the Seminar. She stated briefly the impressions she had received of American libraries in the course of her initial observations. First, while American and Japanese reference librarians are agreed on their responsibility to impart information to those who seek it, Miss Fukuda saw a difference in the scope and method of accomplishing this objective. Librarians in Japan must usually use the reference sources themselves to answer the questions they receive, whereas American librarians can expand the concept of service to include making reference materials directly accessible to patrons of their libraries and to instructing them in their use. The lack of reference tools in Japanese libraries precludes their extensive use by the public at present, but this situation is gradually being remedied with the acquisition of a greater number of volumes. Secondly, Miss Fukuda viewed cooperation among American libraries as a reality resulting from an underlying good will on the part of librarians toward each other and toward their patrons. Cooperation makes possible such systems as interlibrary loans and union catalogs. She called the American attitude a "gift of service" and although she did not feel that Japanese librarians had yet achieved it to the same degree, she said it is one of the goals toward which they aim.

THE CHICAGO SEMINARS

OCTOBER 12, 1959

Mr. Budington suggested that the categories of the problems and questions presented at the second Tokyo session serve as a guide for further discussion, inasmuch as the problems of American and Japanese libraries seem very similar.

Mr. Bowman suggested as a seventh question, "How does an administration or top administrative committee determine long-term plans in view of inflation, personnel turn-over and building problems?", might be added under Section A (Administrative). Specifically, Newberry and Crerar libraries are faced with a change in use pattern, buildings which are filled with books, and have endowments which do not provide sufficient money for all necessary expenditures.

Mr. Budington discussed the long-range planning of Crerar which has

resulted in a recent major change of policy. The board of directors faced a number of alternatives, among which were: to reduce the collection and services and remain in the present location; to remain in the present location and seek other affiliations to provide adequate support; or to move to another location and also seek some affiliation with an institution able to provide support. To answer such questions as Who uses the library? What materials do they use? and Where do the library patrons come from?, an analysis of call slips was made by using IBM equipment. After a consideration of the findings, the board of directors decided last spring to affiliate with the Illinois Institute of Technology primarily because the survey revealed that students and faculty from IIT constitute the largest single body of users of Crerar. Mr. Budington briefly compared the Tauber survey of the Columbia University libraries with the Crerar survey as an attempt to determine present conditions and long-term possibilities.

Then Mr. Bowman called attention to the merit of keeping records and statistics. In stressing the value of meaningful statistics, Mr. Budington outlined the statistical record form which Crerar had used to analyze reference questions during the survey, and Mr. Bowman pointed out that Newberry does not keep such an elaborate system for reference service as does Crerar but, as an antiquarian book center, it does maintain elaborate accession records for budget purposes and for determining costs of books purchased.

Mr. Oda, commenting upon the classed catalog at Crerar, asked Mr. Budington which catalog, classed or dictionary, was better for which kinds of libraries. Mr. Budington replied that Crerar as a special library found the classed catalog advantageous, because it permits more specific subject analysis than an alphabetical system. Classed catalogs are good for special libraries, though their use requires a training period for users to accustom themselves to a new type of library tool. Also, there are no guides for the formation of classed catalogs. While Crerar used U.D.C. as a basis for its catalog, it has its own system for chemistry and variations for other subject areas. Further, within each subject area, filing in the catalog is done on a chronological basis which will permit the library to retire the older cards to a less used area. Perhaps these older cards will be combined into a printed catalog. Later, Miss Fukuda pointed out that, while U.D.C. in conjunction with N.D.C. might be useful for company libraries in Japan, the lack of a relative index limits its use. Mr. Bowman noted that the Newberry thinking is in almost opposite terms since the subject areas do not subdivide into compact areas as do the sciences. Newberry, instead of using pinpoint analysis, is attempting to keep the costs of cataloging down by larger, more encompassing subject headings.

The discussion then turned to Section B (Personnel) of the second Tokyo session and to the problem of recruitment. Both Mr. Bowman and Mr. Budington felt that subject specialists working in special libraries need not have library school training. The Crerar Research Information Service, which prepares long bibliographies, translations, patent searches, etc., requires the use of such persons, but they are given only such training in library procedures as will affect their work.

Mr. Sawamoto commented upon the high morale of the librarian in his work in the U. S. and asked whether this resulted from different concepts in American librarianship. Mr. Budington felt that U. S. librarians have now

largely emerged from nonprofessional status and that Japanese librarians are merely a few years behind the U. S. Replacement of retiring librarians with professionals, public awareness that a good city requires a good public library, personal dynamism of American librarians, the development of specialized information service in industry—all are factors that have contributed to making librarianship more professional. Mr. Budington suggested that Japanese libraries make use of the experiences of businessmen who have successfully used library services to spread the concepts to other businesses.

Mr. Gitler reviewed the nationwide program for recruitment for librarianship which now includes an expanded program for illustrating the advantages of librarianship to high school counsellors who, it is hoped, will pass the information along to high school students. Mr. Budington and Miss Fukuda both noted that library schools in their respective countries tend to attract (but not accept) malcontents. Mr. Budington then described the SLA recruitment program, which now encompasses thirty-two chapters of SLA, and the recent institution of professional standards for membership in SLA. Through these programs SLA hopes to exclude the undesirable and to make the profession more attractive for good persons, as well as to establish levels of excellence to determine what constitutes good and bad librarianship.

OCTOBER 17, 1959 (MORNING SESSION)

Miss Fukuda began the formal discussion by restating the purpose of the conference which is to learn of the development of reference services in the U. S. by concentrating upon specific case studies of a librarian's development of reference service and the solving of related problems rather than through general discussions about reference services. Mrs. Cheney said that this is one of the major gaps in the library science literature; that we need a body of literature on reference problem solving which, if available, would be valuable to our own library school students.

Mr. Bowman described the system of reference training at Newberry Library, which is centered around a loose-leaf notebook into which all information to be passed on to other persons working at the reference desk is noted. The notebook serves as a journal for interesting and unusual reference problems and contains an outline of their solution. This notebook provides a continuum of information for all the various staff members as well as an outline of reference methodology. Periodically weeded, the notebook also is a permanent record for those items deemed worthy of preservation. Commenting on this, Mrs. Cheney said that the major problem with recording reference experience is developing a set of subject headings which will always be satisfactory regardless of the form of the question, even though the question remains basically the same.

In answer to Mr. Sawamoto's question about record keeping in college library reference departments in comparison with those of public libraries, Mr. Bowman commented that there was probably a greater need for records in the latter since all questions are possible and the record of the department must be utilized to exploit the collection completely. On the other hand, the college librarian depends upon the classroom to limit reference work, and the student is urged to become somewhat self-proficient in the use of the collection.

To Mr. Goto's query about the propriety of the reference librarian compiling bibliographies for students and faculty, Mr. Bowman replied that in American colleges, particularly graduate institutions, this is frowned on by the faculty. Mrs. Cheney felt that the problem of the reference librarian's developing bibliographies in the two countries was not completely comparable, since the U. S. libraries have a large range of subject indexes and abstracts whereas the Japanese librarian lacks these reference tools to show to students.

Mr. Oda commented upon the large numbers of reference books which he has seen here and then opened the discussion to the problem of publishing reference books in the U.S. Since the development of reference services depends largely on the development of reference books, who pays for and who writes reference books?

Mr. Bowman reviewed the variety of methods of publication such as 1) agency or association publication as ALA's publication of Winchell's *Guide to Reference Books*, 2) the publication of items by university presses, and 3) the commercial publication activities of companies similar to the H. W. Wilson Company which is the largest U. S. publisher of library reference materials. Mrs. Cheney continued with a review of reference control in the U. S., wherein we are passing from the compilation of small inefficient, incomplete indexes on the local level to the publication of nationally useful materials. Two achievements in this connection are the ALA Committee on Needed Reference Works and the ALA Liaison Committee with the H. W. Wilson Company which has achieved a marked change in the character of *Readers Guide* and other Wilson publications. The reference librarian should spend his time doing things other than indexing. He can give advice, but should not attempt to do the actual problem solving of bibliographical inadequacies. Later, in reviewing the publishing activities in the U. S., Mr. Iwazuru felt that the foreign market for U. S. reference books contributed to their commercial successes. Mrs. Cheney disagreed, pointing out that American encyclopedias have little sales activity outside the U. S. but yet are very profitable commercial undertakings. She and Mr. Gitler then noted the effect that American librarians have upon reference book publishing through such publications as *Subscription Books Bulletin*.

Miss Fukuda inquired about the special features, if any, of reference service in special libraries. Since the company pays for a specific type of information, Mr. Bowman said, reference service acquires some different aspects, but it is basically the same. Some phases of operation such as cooperation are more highly developed.

Mr. Goto wanted to know what colleges and universities expect from the Newberry reference desk and if the schools expected from Newberry the same services they would require of their own libraries. Since Newberry is a free public reference library located very close to a number of colleges and universities, the problem as Mr. Bowman described it is essentially one of limiting services and encouraging the student to learn library procedures to help themselves.

In a similar vein, Mr. Goto wanted to know the amount of help and guidance given users of the genealogy collection at Newberry. Here was an instance wherein Mr. Bowman felt that the library was justified in curtailing the services of the librarians, inasmuch as there are commercial genealogists willing to spend the hours of searching necessary to prove a particular point.

Mrs. Cheney noted that Japan does not have the problem of the genealogist but does have the extensive problem of determining to which of many activities the library can most profitably confine itself. Mr. Bowman responded that any library must formulate a policy of how far it is willing to go to meet public demand. To some extent, he felt that this was determined by the special aspects of the individual collections even though the American public libraries are stewards of books for all groups. Discrimination in the selection of services is something the librarian must undertake.

Mr. Suzuki turned the discussion to that of library cooperation which is highly developed in Chicago as opposed to Japan where the will (the first principle of cooperation) to engage in cooperation is not widespread. Mr. Bowman said that the problem of cooperation is receiving a great deal of attention not primarily because of the economic advantages and that there is no well established philosophy for the Chicago cooperation though the Midwest Interlibrary Center exists as a cooperative storage facility and may possibly develop further its cooperative buying policies. Changing circumstances prohibit some long-range irrevocable commitments in this area. To this point, Mrs. Cheney reviewed the cooperation between the sponsoring agencies of the Joint University Libraries in Nashville which was primarily the outgrowth of economic necessity. Mr. Gitler then reviewed the interlibrary cooperation of California. He also briefly discussed the pilot project for cooperative cataloging in Missouri and called attention to the report of this activity written by Brigitte Kenney* which might be a serviceable guide for other libraries. The legal difficulties of cooperation were noted by several of the participants.

The seminar then turned to a consideration of geography as an aspect of library cooperation. The feeling was that once the will to cooperate becomes apparent, cooperation in Japan will go much faster than in the U. S. because distances are not so vast as to justify rigid, independent collections. Mr. Bowman suggested that, since in Japan independence seems to be faculty centered, it might be well to show the problems created by the lack of cooperation to the faculty who might then themselves become interested in furthering cooperation.

Mrs. Cheney pointed out two obstacles to Japanese library cooperation: the lack of a union catalog and the failure to understand what constitutes a basic collection for colleges and universities. At present small libraries tend to borrow items which they really should purchase for themselves. Mr. Gitler and Mrs. Cheney reviewed several interlibrary projects in California, Washington, and North Carolina, which were able to spread the burden of interlibrary loans over many libraries because of the existence of union catalogs.

OCTOBER 17, 1959 (AFTERNOON SESSION)

Mr. Budington began by saying that no formal agreements for cooperation exist for most Chicago libraries. Between the John Crerar and Chicago Public

* Brigitte L. Kenney. *Cooperative Centralized Processing, a Report of the Establishment and First Year of Operation of the Southwest Missouri Library Service, Inc.* Chicago, American Library Association, 1959. 98 p.

Libraries there is no exchange of holdings or union catalog, though it is normally considered that the two libraries cooperate by buying different types of books. The CPL science and technology department (established a few years ago without notification to Crerar) does not compete with Crerar in that CPL tends to buy the how-to-do-it series, the more elementary non-fiction, and generally limits its collections to English works in science and technology. Crerar purchases only research materials and concentrates on advanced materials including foreign language materials. The areas of subject concentration or specialization among CPL, Crerar and Newberry is a result of cooperation among the three libraries, not of the bequests which established the two privately supported libraries. Another aspect of cooperation in the Chicago area is between Crerar and the Chicago Natural History Museum. The Museum maintains a research library in botany and zoology primarily for its curators for use in systematic botany. The Crerar library has given on permanent loan volumes and long serial sets to the Museum; it pays for acquiring the journals, but the Museum pays for binding costs and for the maintenance of the collection. Midwest Interlibrary Center has future plans to enter cooperative storage along subject lines, as contrasted with the previous purchase of materials mainly by form. The plan currently under consideration is to acquire the less used materials of the fourteen medical schools in the area served by MILC. Cooperation in the special library field has resulted in the exchange of duplicate materials which is facilitated by the use of a monthly newsletter and the recent development of a union list of periodicals for company libraries covering items not listed in the *Union List of Serials*, and including the specialized holdings of some seventy-five libraries. Crerar does not utilize the services of the Library of Congress other than to consult the National Union Catalog to locate materials. Crerar loans considerably more through interlibrary loan than it borrows and consequently is interested in photoduplication, which it prefers to loans.

Mention of photoduplication brought up the question of copyright violation, which was discussed at length. Mr. Budington stated that there have been no legal actions on the problem, but Crerar attempts to emphasize the concept of fair use and performs the copying service in lieu of manual copying. The Library of Congress is probably the only library in the U. S. which follows the law strictly and performs no copying without proper permission.

Based on the observations of members of the seminar, the discussion turned to a consideration of the promotion of interest in and use of libraries by student bodies of various schools through tours, lectures, guides, etc. Mr. Budington described Crerar's orientation services to students and to industry and business and also reviewed the library's "Guides to the Collections" series, which is currently composed of the acquisition policy guide, the guide to the collection on metals, the guide to materials on cancer, and the guide to pediatrics literature. This series is designed to aid the patron, although it is also helpful to librarians in other institutions.

The members of the seminar then discussed and compared various aspects of their own Japanese libraries and reviewed some of the information given in their individual papers for a comparison with U. S. practices. In a comparison of acquisition policies, Mr. Budington pointed out that the Crerar statement of acquisition policy was a policy worked out by the library in cooperation with agencies outside the library and with subject specialists. Following such a policy

was felt to be very beneficial to the library and to the community it serves. It was suggested that the Japanese colleges and universities might develop such a policy in conjunction with their respective faculties such as was done at Western Michigan University as a result of an accreditation visit wherein the library came under severe criticism. Mr. Gitler asked what changes would be necessary in the Crerar acquisition policies because of the forthcoming move to the Illinois Institute of Technology campus. Mr. Budington felt that many changes would be necessary for both Crerar and Chicago Public, but that Crerar will expect more extensive changes, because it will be obligated to serve undergraduate students. Probably a student services division will be created.

THE NEW YORK SEMINAR

NOVEMBER 4, 1959

After several brief introductory remarks, Mr. Bonn turned the meeting over to Miss Winchell. In presenting the development of reference work in the United States, Miss Winchell stated that she would discuss the developments that have taken place in the Reference Department at the Columbia University Library, since it was her firm conviction that reference work at Columbia and the United States in general has progressed along fairly similar lines.

In 1911, there was little or no reference work as we know it today at Columbia. In that year, Miss Isadore Gilbert Mudge became reference librarian and immediately set upon the task of building up an adequate reference collection. The following are three of the methods she employed: the checking of bibliographies for materials that had reference value and value in a university collection; "building on failure", a system of obtaining books that would answer unanswered questions; the "note book system", a device used to get suggestions from students and faculty. Thus, in a fairly short time, Miss Mudge was able to build up one of the first comprehensive real reference collections in the country. She determined the kinds of materials that have since become the main props of reference work. Her collection also formed the basis of her *Guide to Reference Books* and its many editions. As these resources grew, reference service to the Library's public increased by leaps and bounds. By 1920, Miss Mudge had three trained professional assistants on her staff. During her thirty years at Columbia (1911–41) she always made it a point to work closely with the students and faculty.

Bringing the discussion up to the present, Miss Winchell went on to say that the collection is still growing and developing; however, due to certain limitations such as space and funds, materials are ordered on a more selective basis. She also pointed out that the Reference Department still attempts to get national bibliographies, biographical dictionaries from all over the world, outstanding subject bibliographies in the humanities and social sciences, and a

representation of historical bibliographies in the field of science and technology (up-to-date bibliographies in science and technology are in the Science Library).

Commenting on the actual reference work at Columbia, Miss Winchell feels that it is very interesting and exciting mainly because the reference inquiries tend to be more original and nonrepetitious. This, of course, is due to the fact that the Library's public is made up of a greater proportion of graduate students. The repetitious inquiries of the undergraduate curricular needs are handled by the undergraduate college libraries, the Barnard College library for the women and the Columbia College library for the men. The undergraduates can use the general library if their needs cannot be fulfilled in the college libraries. Commenting on what makes a good reference librarian, Miss Winchell thought the following qualifications to be the most essential: he must have a knowledge in the use of reference tools; he must know how to use the card catalog (a major reference function); he must be familiar with the library's collection; he must never take things for granted; and finally, he must know how to probe because most questions are asked indirectly.

Miss Winchell felt that reference work in the public library has developed along different lines, but, after some consideration, Mr. Cory came to the conclusion that there are more similarities than differences in the development of the two different types of libraries. Differences are chiefly in emphasis. Like the academic library, public libraries throughout the country have built up central core collections. They have also developed collections by ranges of difficulty, for example, the specialized collections and the general reference collections. The curricular and academically related work done by the public library is, of course, obvious. Statistics alone show that 50% of work with children is school related. Other similarities noted by Mr. Cory are the small number of repetitious questions, the increasing integration of reference service and readers' advisory service, and the importance of orientation, guidance, and evaluation as the heart of public library reference service. The major difference, as he sees it, between the public library and the academic library is that the public library "tends to serve a more widely diverse non-school public of all ages with more widely diverse general information and reference questions." He also pointed out that the public library usually can meet a need beyond the schools and colleges and thus can back up the academic institutions. In concluding this part of the meeting, Mrs. Cheney pointed out that the above generalizations pertain only to large metropolitan areas and would not hold in smaller towns and communities.

The discussion then turned to the problem of cooperation among libraries. It was Mr. Bonn's view that cooperation becomes a necessity because of certain limitations such as space, funds, and staff. He also felt that there should be more cooperation between the public library and the college library so that the community can be provided with the best possible library service with the least amount of waste and duplication. In Miss Winchell's opinion, the union lists are the most significant feature of cooperation among libraries. The up-to-dateness of these lists is of extreme importance to reference librarians.

All expressed the hope that some day Japanese libraries will begin to cooperate with each other either on a national basis or an island basis. Mr. Bonn and Mr. Cory suggested that they take as an example the state cooperative

ventures, since Japan is about the same size as many of our states. They also pointed out that cooperation among libraries can best succeed on a state level, since difficulties tend to arise when there is an attempt at interstate cooperation.

As spokesman for the group of Japanese librarians, Mr. Sawamoto raised the following question: "In recruiting, would you choose a subject specialist or a trained professional librarian?"

Miss Armstrong's statements indicated a middle of the road view. She felt that library school training was important and that the trained professional librarian would be the type of person to have in a well-rounded library. However, if you needed someone in a specialized field, she thought that possibly the subject specialist would be the better choice.

The advantages of having trained professional librarians were expressed by Mr. Bonn and Mr. Cory. The former felt it is more advantageous to have the trained professional because he is a more versatile person, whereas the specialist is not. Taking the Science and Technology Division of the New York Public Library as an example, he pointed out that the emphasis in the past had always been on recruiting subject specialists; however, it was found that they did not stay too long because of the higher salaries offered by industry, and secondly, they did not like to do the nonspecialized work. Since the majority of the questions asked are of a general nature, it seems only natural that the Division should have a more general staff, which in due time can learn the literature of the field.

Mr. Cory stated that the library trained person has two distinct advantages over the subject specialist. First of all, he is a broader specialist; secondly, the trained librarian has a better chance to become a specialist in the literature of the subject. Special libraries have begun to realize the importance of library training and are beginning to press library schools to have subject courses added to their curricula. Mrs. Cheney was of the opinion that the choice between a subject specialist and the trained professional librarian would depend on the state of the literature in the subject field. If the guides to the literature and the indexing and abstracting services are quite advanced, the trained professional librarian would be the likely choice; however, if the alternative is the case, then you would probably want the subject specialist.

Mr. Suzuki asked, "Do interlibrary loans play an important role in U. S. libraries?" Miss Armstrong answered in the affirmative and went on to say that it is even more important in the academic library. Miss Winchell commented that the volume of interlibrary loans has been increasing tremendously because of the location information provided by the Union Catalog at the Library of Congress. Mr. Cory then commented on the confusion about interlibrary loans as far as the New York Public Library is concerned. The regulations of the Trustees restrict material in the collections of the Reference Department to use within the building; thus, it cannot participate in interlibrary loans. The Circulation Department, on the other hand, can and does participate as much as any other library.

Mrs. Cheney suggested as a final question, "Would it be possible to start to locate titles without a union catalog in a country like Japan?" In answer to this, Miss Winchell gave an emphatic yes. She went on to say that the libraries

could circularize lists until a central list could be established. This list could eventually be used as a basis for a union catalog. The start of these circularized lists would also mean the start of library cooperation on a large scale.

THE PHILADELPHIA SEMINAR

NOVEMBER 7, 1959

The meeting in Philadelphia was opened by George S. Bonn, who noted that the visiting librarians were seeing and hearing more than American librarians themselves usually do, since programs of this kind are quite infrequent and are usually the result of the presence of distinguished visitors.

Mr. Bonn first presented Mr. McDonough, who would comment on the Library Services Act, on aid to libraries in general, and would also discuss a specific cooperative meeting which he had attended the previous day. He would be followed by Mr. Greenaway, who would discuss the new state plan for Pennsylvania and how it affected the Free Library of Philadelphia.

Mr. McDonough began by pointing out that the Library Services Act has as its purpose the encouragement of library services in rural areas. Its philosophy is to assist those areas of the country most lacking in service at present—areas with populations of ten thousand or less. It took twenty years of effort to get a bill of this kind passed and the present act is very important despite the fact that the funds involved are not great. In the first three years of the Library Services Act, for example, two million, five million, and six million dollars, respectively, were appropriated. For the nation as a whole, this is by no means a large sum of money. But the matching funds added to this by the states, and the new efforts called forth by the act, have had great consequences. Among these has been the changed attitude of Congress toward libraries. Congress is more receptive because the act has brought forth so much approval. This means that other measures affecting libraries—such as lower postal rates for books and changes in the method of distribution of federal documents—have been given more favorable consideration. State legislators have been similarly impressed.

Mr. McDonough referred to the report on *State Plans under the Library Services Act*, which brings out the diversity of ways in which federal funds have been used by the various states. This in itself is clear evidence that the federal government is not dictating the use of the funds. In fact, the only stipulation made by the federal government has been that good accounting procedures be used. Pennsylvania used its money to carry out a state survey, headed by Dr. Lowell A. Martin, former Dean of the Graduate School of Library Service at Rutgers University. New Jersey had already had a survey conducted under the auspices of the New Jersey Library Association, so part of the proposed program was implemented and the Tri-County demonstration set up. There have been

many different patterns in other states, including the establishment of state agencies and regional libraries.

Emerson Greenaway then spoke to the group, recalling the presentation of the problems of the Free Library of Philadelphia on the previous day. He noted that although the library had gone through a number of stages and was now sixty-five years old, it had never had a trained librarian as director until 1951.

Any consideration of the Free Library's structure and services makes one realize that he needs more information about other libraries in the area. The Bibliographic Center and the Union Catalog at the University of Pennsylvania mean a great deal to the library, especially in book selection. Expensive items are not purchased without determining whether they are readily available to library patrons elsewhere in the area. The Free Library, for example, can refer readers concerned with science and technology to the Franklin Institute just across the street for some materials; or to the Academy of Sciences across Logan Square, which has notable serial holdings in the natural sciences. There are many other examples of cooperation. The Free Library has a joint recruiting program with the University of Pennsylvania, which is designed to encourage students at the University to consider librarianship as a career. This program is aimed at recruitment for the profession in general, not just for the libraries involved. Free Library staff members also participate actively in the local chapter of Special Libraries Association, through which valuable contacts, co-operation, and rapport have developed.

In choosing the direction for the Free Library to take, many problems arise. The central library is the wrong building in the wrong place. It is a large building of six million cubic feet, but has a great deal of waste space in ceilings and corridors and is not functional in design. It was planned before World War I, but did not open until 1927. Mr. Greenaway contrasted it with Enoch Pratt (in Baltimore) which had opened just a few years later but was a functional building. The location of the central library is also unsatisfactory; it should be much closer to the downtown area. Can the Free Library find another use for this building by the city, and get a centrally located new building?

In 1956 the Free Library developed a new idea for a regional library system, which has been endorsed by the City Planning Commission and accepted by the Mayor and Council. This regional system envisages five major divisions of Philadelphia, each with a main regional library. These five divisions may be thought of almost as separate cities, since they range from 350,000 to 800,000 population. The regional libraries will emphasize reference service and non-fiction materials. They will be open longer hours than most branches. Regular branch libraries in the same area will be under the administrative direction of the regional librarian. Mr. Greenaway will also recommend a new central library. The need may be gauged by the fact that the growth of reference work and reading in Philadelphia has been at such a rate that by 1964 the annual circulation will be over nine million as compared to six million this year. By 1966 it should reach eleven million. There are now about four hundred thousand reference questions per year, but there will be an estimated one million in 1964. Planning is urgently needed.

This information about Philadelphia has been given as a prelude to the

discussion of the state situation in Pennsylvania. In library support, the state is fifteenth from the bottom of the list, with a level of expenditure like that of the South. Since the federal aid program applies only to areas of ten thousand population or less, it should be noted that Pennsylvania has more of these rural communities than any other state. It seemed obvious that the state should use its federal funds for a state survey. This was recommended by the Library Development Committee of the Pennsylvania Library Association. The survey would cover the existing situation and present a plan for development of better library service. Dr. Lowell A. Martin, then Dean of the Rutgers University library school, was in charge of the survey, working closely with an advisory committee from the Pennsylvania Library Association. Some of the things found in the survey were almost unbelievable. Two million Pennsylvanians were totally without any library service. Five million had sub-standard service. If Pittsburgh and Philadelphia were not included, the total state picture was deplorable.

The recommended program for the state has many similarities to the regional program recommended by the Free Library to the city of Philadelphia. It provides for three levels of service, to be established without disturbing the tradition, pride, and legal responsibility of the smaller libraries. The small independent library which serves over 4,000 population is to be retained as the first level of service. To get state aid under the plan, each library accepts certain responsibilities and advantages. In general, the most advantage is given to the smaller library and the greater responsibility to the larger. The second level of service will be based on not more than thirty existing public, college, or university libraries which will become district library centers. These libraries must extend free access to their collections to all in the region. The regional libraries will be so distributed that no part of the state will be more than one hour's driving time to the nearest one. At the third level, there will be four major resource libraries: the state university, Pittsburgh, the state library, and the Free Library of Philadelphia. These libraries will receive state funds to be spent in building their resource collections. What would the cost of the program be? At present the libraries of the state spend eight to ten million dollars a year. The planned program would cost about twenty-four million. This is not a large sum, since Pennsylvania has a population of eleven million. A number of states now spend more than $2.00 per capita, including Massachusetts, New York, and California. This is a practicable proposal, not a dream.

Mr. McDonough began his next remarks with some general observations. Mr. Greenaway had mentioned the large number of existing libraries in Pennsylvania and had also compared library support in Pennsylvania with library support in some of the Southern states. However, the South does not have an extremely large number of existing small libraries, so that it does not have the same problem of getting cooperation which exists in the North. In the northeastern United States, there are libraries in most towns, but many of them are not very good libraries. New libraries are frequently started with contributions from the attics of the community. Even in rich states new libraries often begin with orange crates for shelving. It will take a number of years to remake a library of this kind. Although such regional demonstrations as Tri-County have done much to improve them, it still remains very hard to get cooperation. The basic aim of the New Jersey Library Services Act is to encourage federation and it

provides financial inducement to speed this up. The New Jersey bill offers seven times as much aid to those libraries which join in federations. One feature in the Pennsylvania plan which is not in that for New Jersey is the lump sum payments to strong libraries. Mr. McDonough noted that he was somewhat envious of Pennsylvania in this respect.

Mr. McDonough had been asked to discuss a meeting in which he had participated the previous day. A group of twenty school superintendents in Essex County met to consider the report of a committee studying facilities for library service available to exceptionally able high school students in the country. This is the Newark area of New Jersey. Newark has a very strong public library system. The group discussed what school districts should do to provide service beyond the scope of the school library. The discussion itself had originated in problems in the Newark Public Library where Newark residents had been almost crowed out on some days by nonresident use of the facilities. Was this use limited to the exceptional student? Should Newark give service to these nonresidents? How can this use by nonresidents be controlled? The problem is not an isolated one. There are many communities in New Jersey in which school demands are so heavy that there is no room in the public library for additional readers in the evenings. Mr. McDonough then turned to Mr. Greenaway and asked if school libraries in Philadelphia were open at night. Mr. Greenaway answered that they were not. Mr. McDonough then noted that the time was coming when the school library can no longer be closed when the school closes. There will be difficulties in administering this expanded service program where students are attending regional high schools and are brought by bus. However, one library in New Jersey is experimenting with staying open until six in the evening with extra buses to take students home at that time. This is, unfortunately, an exceptional case. This meeting of the superintendents did not come to any definite conclusions. The group made the recommendation that it knew too little to go ahead with any program as yet, and that a total survey of the library picture in Essex County was necessary first. Public, school, college, and special libraries in the area should be considered. The basic idea of payment to Newark as a resource for the total area is a useful one and should not be lost sight of. However, other steps would seem to be justfied also. It is heartening that this group has made the effort to study the problem. It is an able group, and the effort is cheering.

Mr. Bonn thanked Mr. McDonough and noted that in the discussion so far federal, local, and state problems had been presented by librarians intimately concerned with them and that all types of libraries had been mentioned. He suggested that Mr. Greenaway as a member of the Steering Committee should make some comments on National Library Week. Mr. Greenaway said that National Library Week is an interesting phenomenon. It was first held in 1958. It is sponsored by the National Book Committee, and dedicated to the idea that more people should do more good reading. The steering committee includes librarians, publishers, and laymen. It seeks to focus the attention of all Americans on their libraries. This is done in thousands of ways, through radio, television, local newspaper articles, and through magazine articles in journals from *Atlantic* to *Life*. The topics covered include the whole spectrum of library services. The emphasis is on the importance of libraries and their need for public support. The results have been electrifying. There are more friends of libraries than we

have realized. In two states there are now new state agencies. Many new town libraries have been founded. National Library Week has helped librarians. It has given them more confidence in launching and conducting and enlarging programs. It is now international, as the Canadian Library Association participates. Some European librarians have expressed interest. As the program continues—it has been endorsed by ALA for five years—Mr. Greenaway thinks we will see great advancement and noted that there was a very good published report on National Library Week.

Mr. Suzuki said that he would like Mr. McDonough to comment with some more practical examples from his experience with the Tri-County project. Mr. McDonough replied that Tri-County is in the southern part of the state and that the area has the poorest library coverage in New Jersey. Under the Library Services Act program, New Jersey has strengthened the state library, set up a service agency to process material for the demonstratoin project, initiated direct bookmobile service in the Tri-County area, and established a loan service to existing libraries in the same three counties. It took some time to get this program set up—until February 24, 1958, in fact. It is easy to underestimate the amount of preparation needed. It now seems possible that the program has tried to stretch the budget too far geographically, to cover too large a physical area. It might have been better to have been able to give more intensive service in a smaller region, perhaps in a single county. Ideas about the project itself have changed as time went on. It was originally believed that the state could hand over its program to local support and move on. This is not so simple to do, and takes more than one, two, or three years to accomplish. Are counties to set up individual libraries? Should the state establish a branch library in the area? How could this latter action be justified to the rest of the state which does not have such service? We know that the existing county libraries are now weak, that they have inadequate support, and that too much of their effort is channelled into service to schools. We don't want to repeat that pattern in the Tri-County area. How do we achieve a good transformation to local library service? We hope and believe that people will not want to give up library service now that they have experienced it for the first time. Mr. McDonough noted that extension librarians must remind themselves that bookmobile service, no matter how well conducted and received, is only partial service. Bookmobiles alone are certainly not the answer.

In conclusion, Mr. McDonough added that he had forgotten to mention another important example of cooperation in New Jersey. This is a film circuit, started by ten libraries which contribute $500 a year each and jointly select films for purchase. This has been very successful. More than one hundred thousand persons have seen these films during the first year. There is another example of cooperation which might be mentioned. The Philadelphia Free Library serves the blind in New Jersey. Mr. McDonough has been trying to persuade New Jersey to pay for this service, but has so far not succeeded. New Jersey should pay, and not depend on the charity of Philadelphia. It should be pointed out that Pennsylvania, West Virginia, and Delaware do not contribute either, Mr. Greenaway said. Mrs. Cheney remarked that Cincinnati received payment from Tennessee for service to the blind. Mr. Greenaway indicated that he had heard that Cincinnati said it might be forced to cut off service to the state as a whole, but that the Free Library was reluctant to take this action. Mr. Bonn added that the pattern varied widely.

THE WASHINGTON SEMINARS

NOVEMBER 12, 1959 (MORNING SESSION)

Before describing the Pratt Library's reference department, Miss Barton called attention to three basic concepts and problems in public library reference work: 1) the pattern of organization; 2) the role of the general reference department; and 3) the need for cooperation among all departments giving reference service.

A library may be completely or partially departmentalized by subject. In complete subject departmentalization all fields of knowledge are allotted to a subject department, the only materials not so assigned being the generalia. The smallest number of departments possible in such a plan would probably be three —the humanities, social sciences, and the sciences—though often the breakdown is more minute with eight or more departments. In partial subject departmentalization, which is an older pattern and one which undoubtedly has some advantages, certain specific subject fields which lend themselves well to this treatment are formed into subject departments. Frequently science and technology, art, music, and local history are among the first subjects to be so treated. Under this plan the reference work in the other topics is handled by the general reference department.

The function of the general reference department differs somewhat according to which of these two plans is chosen. Many such departments are now called General Reference and Bibliography departments, a more descriptive title than the shorter form. Since all general reference departments include and service the large and important collection of generalia, they are generally very busy departments. In cases of partial departmentalization they also include the more specialized reference materials in the fields of knowledge which are not allotted to a subject department. These departments supplement all departments because of the nature of the materials and should be accessible to all, and they also perform a very useful service in coordinating reference policy and procedure throughout the library and in handling certain responsibilities common to all reference departments, as will be indicated in discussing the Pratt Library.

The fact that, regardless of the form of organization, inquiries will never fit neatly within departmental boundaries and that overlapping will always occur was stressed and the need for generous cooperation among departments giving reference service. The advantages of subject departmentalization are well known but the difficulty of maintaining the obvious advantages without succumbing to the primary danger—a lack of integration and unity—is sometimes overlooked. As Dr. Wyer has said, "The essential articulation which shall make certain that a student approaching any department will get into touch with the resources of all departments is difficult to achieve and maintain."

Miss Barton then described the development and work of the General Reference Department of the Enoch Pratt Free Library. It started as a poorly equipped, poorly staffed department attempting to do reference work in all fields, except those covered by three long-established subject departments—Technology,

responsible for two kinds of activities, the basic program and the Library Services Act. In the basic program are specialists for college and research libraries, school libraries, and public libraries; they are "reference" librarians in their specialities and each has many responsibilities, of which the most continuing and basic are statistics and research. In addition, they are responsible for advisory and consultant services and for participating in conferences. They are careful not to infringe on state and local rights, recommending good practices, and serving in an advisory capacity. They can request, but not require, libraries to supply statistics. They also prepare many articles and publications, having the advantage of a national viewpoint. Another important area is research. The Library Services Branch both does research and stimulates others to do it. To avoid duplication, it has just begun to publish *Library Research in Progress*, which will include individual research, some masters' theses, doctoral dissertations, and projects of the Council on Library Resources.

The Library Services Act was passed in 1956 after some twenty years of work by ALA. Among its good features is the fact that the money does not go directly to local libraries but through state libraries, thus strengthening the state libraries and encouraging them to plan for future development in their states. Money is spent on a matching basis, and the states may not spend less than the amount they spent in 1956, the base year. Thus they cannot avoid their own responsibility and let federal funds substitute for state funds.

The Library Services Act has provided "seed money." Each state has done something different, and the Office of Education has imposed fiscal regulations. The states could spend the money as they chose, and all have added staff to their state libraries, improved their book collections, held conferences, training sessions, workshops, and institutes, some on reference and public relations. Another important expenditure has been for scholarships, which have been made available in a number of states to library science students who would agree to work at least two years in the rural libraries of the state supplying the scholarship.

Miss Vainstein commented that library service is often judged by circulation statistics, but reference service is important too. Only 23.4% of the libraries supplied the Library Services Branch with statistics on reference questions in the latest national study (1955–56), but these libraries had answered over nineteen million questions. These were "reference and reading aid transactions," excluding directional questions. The largest number came from the largest libraries, which had more reference resources and kept better statistics. New York, Illinois and California each reported over two million reference questions answered.

Miss Vainstein suggested that visiting foreign librarians did not always get a typical picture of American library service because they tended to visit only the largest and best libraries; she suggested they visit some average ones to learn how they are meeting their problems and upgrading service.

NOVEMBER 12, 1959 (AFTERNOON SESSION)

Mrs. Cheney introduced Mr. Mohrhardt whose topic was the policy of the U. S. government with relation to bibliographic organization. Over a period

Miss Fukuda then asked if there was a limit for subject departmentalization, and Miss Barton replied that the more departments you have, the more costly the staff becomes. Miss Vainstein said this was a real problem in middle-sized public libraries when they put up new buildings; often they divide into too many departments and cannot get competent subject specialists in all of the areas, such as science and technology, art and music. Miss Barton said specialization was the whole purpose of subject departments. While the public does not expect the general reference staff to know everything, it does expect the staff in the subject departments to know that subject.

Miss Fukuda asked about in-service training, and Miss Barton said training was the responsibility of the library schools, where students should have courses in subject bibliography. Mrs. Cheney remarked that the library schools could teach the technique for searching the literature of a field, but some subject literature knowledge had to be acquired on the job, and training is a heavy burden on the regular staff. Miss Barton remarked that it was hard on the patrons and discussed the old "sifting up" theory that every patron approached the person on the staff who knew the least, while the experts remained behind the scenes. Miss Vainstein said the information desk should be in a very obvious and central spot and staffed by experts.

Mr. Amatsuchi asked about the disposition of out-of-date reference material. Miss Barton said Pratt is not allowed to sell anything, but did not keep back copies of yearbooks or duplicates of book-trade bibliographies. Miss Vainstein said it was no longer quite so sacred to keep books, especially when out-of-date.

Mrs. Cheney asked about the committee recommendations which assigned the responsibilities of the general reference department. Miss Barton said the committees had recommended a telephone reference service, and the supervisor of branches had recommended that general reference should take the branches' unanswered questions. Committee work is very time-consuming but worth while and helps to educate the staff.

Mr. Goto asked what was the borderline between the information desk and the departments. Miss Barton replied that the information desk was in charge of the public catalog, is adjacent to the general reference room, and is always staffed by reference librarians. Directions to the various departments are given at the information desk, as are call numbers of specific books. If the patron will need to visit several departments he is told this, so he will not think the departments are "passing the buck." Miss Vainstein said that too often experienced people were not available at the information desk as they should be.

The next speaker was Miss Vainstein, whose topic was the history of the Library Services Branch and current trends and problems, emphasizing the middle-sized and smaller public libraries. The Library Services Branch is a comparatively new unit in government, starting in 1938, although the Office of Education had been interested in libraries before that and had done statistical studies since its inception. The Library Services Branch now has a staff of twenty-two.

Organization of the Library Services Branch in 1938 was partly due to the efforts of the American Library Association. The Library Services Branch is

of years specialized services have developed in some government agencies where the collections of publications are exhaustive and world-wide—e.g. the National Library of Medicine with its complete coverage of medical literature and the U. S. Department of Agriculture Library with its coverage of agricultural and allied sciences. In each of these libraries there has developed a traditional responsibility for providing up-to-date indexing service. On the other hand, where such outstanding abstract services as *Chemical Abstracts* have been developed by the American Chemical Society, it would be absurd to suggest a change. The net result is that we have in this country a system of independent indexing and abstracting services. However, in 1957 the National Federation of Science Indexing and Abstracting Services was formed with the assistance of the National Science Foundation. This Federation coordinates the various independent indexing and abstracting services and develops plans for their improvement as well as for coverage of scientific fields that do not now have adequate indexing or abstracting services.

The group next considered the role of the Department of Agriculture Library, which in theory is expected to supply bibliographies for any USDA research need. This is not possible, however, because of staff shortages. The Library's prime responsibility is to employees of the Department of Agriculture and to other government agencies. It also has a responsibility to meet the needs of research workers and advanced students in Land-Grant institutions. As a national library, it also serves the general public.

Mr. Amatsuchi asked about overlapping, and Mr. Mohrhardt said the Agriculture Library is responsible for all agriculture including technical agriculture and the Library of Congress only for general agriculture. While the Library of Congress has a great agriculture collection, it does not have to collect technical material in depth. When there is duplication, it is justified, and the Library of Congress gives Agriculture some of the copyright material on agriculture which it does not need to retain; it also gives material to the National Library of Medicine. Mr. Gottschalk mentioned that there is also reference cooperation between Agriculture and the Library of Congress.

Mr. Nolan discussed the role of government libraries in reference and bibliography. The role of the Library of Congress in this respect is not confined to the Reference Department. Important bibliographic services are also performed by the Legislative Reference Service, the Processing Department, the Copyright Office, and the Law Library. The services of the Library of Congress are first to Congress, second the government, and third to the nation—scholars, universities, etc.

Mr. Berry said that serials require special handling because of the currency of the information they contain, the lack of immediate bibliographic control over their contents, their paper-bound form, and their state as only part of a volume. The Library of Congress feels a national responsibility for reference work in serials, especially government publications and newspapers. The Library of Congress has the strongest single collection of documents of the federal government and of foreign governments, and to some extent this is true of state government publications. Depository libraries, however, relieve the Library of Congress of some pressure for U. S. government publications. In newspapers, as in local state publications, there are stronger local collections. The Library

of Congress collects only a small part of the U. S. newspaper output but this is a geographical coverage to give a total picture. For foreign newspapers the Library of Congress has in the past accepted a great responsibility, but the Association of Research Libraries is now microfilming major foreign newspapers.

Miss Fukuda asked about reference service on serials, and Mr. Berry said many of the questions were where to obtain them or were identification questions. Often the Library of Congress refers people to the nearest depository library. She then asked about service on foreign government publications, and Mr. Berry said the Library of Congress will sell photoreproductions, will perform searches if not too extensive, and that many people come to use the collections personally.

Mr. Suzuki asked about scientific and technical journals, and Mr. Berry replied that the reference work on them is done by people from the Science and Technology Division, although the Serial Division has them. Mr. Nolan added that the general policy was to assign the custody of materials to the division responsible for handling that type of materials, although there are some exceptions to this policy.

Mr. Obear observed that the Library of Congress lends some two hundred thousand publications per year, more than half on interlibrary loan to government, university, public and special libraries. The need to be met rather than the type of library determines the lending policy, which attempts to supply unusual books for unusual needs. The Library of Congress has also pioneered in the field of international interlibrary loans, following the IFLA adaptation of the interlibrary loan code and transmitting requests from abroad to holding libraries. Mr. Suzuki asked about the volume of such loans, and Mr. Obear said about seven hundred, including those going to Canada and Mexico, were made last year, but they are expensive and the books are absent for two or three months at least. However, the Library has borrowed nothing from abroad for eight years.

Mr. Gottschalk said the reference and acquisition activities contribute heavily to bibliography, and vice versa. Since the United States has a decentralized library program, the Library of Congress is unique in being able to derive its strength from its vast collections. The largest part of the funds for bibliographies comes from money transferred to the Library of Congress by other agencies, so that the bibliographies are tailor-made for them.

A bibliography is sometimes initiated by the Library of Congress in anticipation of a demand for a particular subject, such as the one on the International Geophysical Year. In another type the Library of Congress cooperates with a professional society such as the Air Pollution Control Association in a bibliography prepared for the Public Health Service and distributed by the *Journal* of the Air Pollution Control Association. Still another type is the very comprehensive report done for Congress and sometimes made available to constituents. There is also an extensive program of abstracting foreign periodicals, especially Soviet ones. Books and articles are analyzed on 5×8″ cards, and are distributed by the Office of Technical Services in bound form by journal issue.

Miss Fukuda asked if the staff were divided into reference and bibli-

ography groups, and Mr. Gottschalk said yes, the larger group being bibliography, divided into life and physical sciences units. She asked how many bibliographies are published yearly, and he said there are some twenty in progress, some of which continue from year to year.

Mr. Shaw spoke on public reference service at the Library of Congress, explaining that while the majority of readers come in person, 40% of the reference questions are telephone requests, and that 13,000 questions per year are answered by correspondence. Sometimes a form letter is sent, while on other occasions the Library may do extensive research to answer questions, especially for librarians. Many questions are answered for the press and for embassies (the Legislative Reference Service handles questions from Congress). As for automation, some IBM equipment is being used, and there is a committee studying the retrieval of information. The Library also keeps in close touch with the ALA Reference Services Division and attempts to stimulate the production of needed reference tools.

The problem of how far to go in answering reference questions was considered. Although the Library of Congress does most for members of Congress, a good deal for government agencies, and somewhat less for the public, both Mrs. Cheney and Mr. Shaw commented that it is more liberal than most other libraries in its reference service. Mrs. Cheney mentioned the problem of high school students, and Mr. Nolan said their exclusion had worked out well at the Library of Congress. The problem was first presented to the congressional Joint Committee on the Library before the school principals were notified of the exclusion. Students are still admitted to prepare special work such as the Science Fairs. The Library of Congress provided the D. C. Public Library with a list of the books requested by high school students.

NOVEMBER 14, 1959

Dr. Brodman began the meeting by discussing the role of federal government libraries in reference and bibliographic services. Her three main topics were the background of federal libraries, their reference and bibliographic services, especially their publications and direct services, and the training and appointment of librarians to government libraries. She began by sketching the legal authorization of government libraries, of which there are two groups—those which serve primarily their own agencies and those which give wider service. Three national libraries—the Library of Congress, the U. S. Department of Agriculture Library, and the National Library of Medicine—serve the entire population. She pointed out that each of the three has a different legal basis: the Library of Congress officially serves the Congress and is not legally the American national library; the organic act for the Department of Agriculture Library (1863) provided that "the Secretary of Agriculture shall procure and preserve all information which he can obtain concerning agriculture . . . and shall have charge of the Library"; the National Library of Medicine came into being as such only in 1956, although it was originally founded to aid army surgeons and physicians.

Then Dr. Brodman sketched the executive, legislative and judicial system of the American government. Miss Fukuda asked about the budget power of

Congress, and Dr. Brodman explained how budgets are prepared by Executive Departments, go to the Bureau of the Budget, then to the President and finally to Congress. Miss Fukuda inquired how much voice the librarians had in getting appropriations, and Dr. Brodman replied that that depended on the librarians and the weight they had in their departments. The three national libraries participate in budget hearings, but others do not.

Mr. Shaw remarked that the budgets do not provide for emergencies since they are prepared several years ahead of time; the Library of Congress is now preparing its 1962 budget. Mr. Suzuki said that in Japan the Minister of Finance has very great power to decide the budget. The Diet is in session from January to March, during which the budget is formally decided.

Mr. Shaw asked Mr. Suzuki what percentage of the budget goes for books and what percentage for salaries and upkeep. Mr. Suzuki said he would estimate that more than half goes for personnel. Dr. Brodman asked about the budgets of Japanese universities. Mr. Iwazaru said the National University gets its money from the government and that the budgets for salaries and library materials are separate. The salaries are decided by law, and when they have enough money for materials they lack staff. Mr. Sawamoto said that private universities, while more flexible, follow the general pattern of the government. Mr. Amatsuchi said public libraries also get their budget from the government but received donations, and that their budgets had increased.

Dr. Brodman said the thing which distinguished the Agriculture Library and the National Library of Medicine from the libraries of some other agencies is their tremendous use of the printing press. The latter issues two kinds of publications—continuing indexes to the literature and individual publications, usually a bibliography or pamphlet. Mrs. Bryant said Agriculture Library's chief project was the *Bibliography of Agriculture*, which indexes world literature of agriculture and related sciences, basic and applied. Its primary purpose is use by the Department of Agriculture, but it is sent also to libraries, particularly those of the land-grant colleges and to foreign libraries on exchange.

It was pointed out that there now seems to be a trend toward federal libraries compiling indexes whose publication and distribution are handled by other organizations. Two instances of this type of project are the *Index to the Literature of American Entomology*, prepared by the Agriculture Library and distributed by the American Entomological Society and the new plan for *Index Medicus*, to be compiled by the National Library of Medicine for distribution by the American Medical Association.

Dr. Brodman asked Mr. Amatsuchi about the *Japan Medical Review*, and he explained that it is partly a cooperative project of the Science Council of Japan and the Ministry of Education. Mr. Suzuki said Japan had a government printing office but it does not print all the government publications, some of which are done commercially, which makes exchange programs difficult. Mr. Amatsuchi said there is a monthly list of government publications.

The National Library of Medicine publishes many monographic items, especially for information which is requested repeatedly. Another source of subjects comes as the staff observe trends in the literature of the field, so that bibliographies are ready when needed. The Library also cooperates with private

organizations and other government agencies in bibliographic work. Mrs. Bryant said that the Agriculture Library does less publishing. Some bibliographies are prepared on the library's initiative, but most are done to meet the research needs of the Department. The detailed indexes of the Department of Agriculture publications formerly prepared in the Office of Information have been discontinued; these publications are now given only the less detailed indexing of the *Bibliography of Agriculture*.

Dr. Brodman and Mrs. Bryant then contrasted the reference service of the National Library of Medicine and the Department of Agriculture Library. The former receives most of its questions from physicians looking for research material or for information on specific diseases; few of the requests are for specific facts. The latter receives many inquiries for specific facts. In the former library, few questions come from the readers, while in the latter most are made in person.

When the National Library of Medicine is unable to fill a request, it sends lists of commercial research workers. Mr. Suzuki asked whether staff members were permitted to hold outside jobs, and Dr. Brodman answered that there were many regulations on this subject. On the subject of services to and through other libraries, she feels that it is the responsibility of the national libraries to help to raise the general level of library service by sending people to library meetings, writing papers, working with library associations, giving advice about bibliographic service, etc.

Mr. Sawamoto asked about machine sorting. Dr. Brodman said that they had received a grant of $74,000 from the Council on Library Resources to experiment with mechanical indexing machines. The new *Index Medicus* will be published this way. Mr. Sawamoto asked if a cost survey would be available, and Dr. Brodman said it would be in their annual report, cautioning, however, that the first year would be the most expensive. Mr. Suzuki asked about the status of temporary staff who work on foundation grants. This brought up the matter of personnel in general.

Mrs. Bryant said the Civil Service regulations for employment of librarians are elaborate and explained about the merit system and the registers of eligible employees. The Library of Congress does not have to use the registers, but follows the same general rules. People with library degrees no longer have to take the verbal ability and abstract reasoning tests, and for the beginning grades, five and seven, there is no specialization. Above grade seven a specialty is added to the job description. There is no register of available librarians presently and the agencies do their own hiring, but the employee must meet Civil Service standards and must get Civil Service status to become permanent. Librarians with undergraduate degrees start at grade five, those with master's degrees at grade seven. Within each grade there is a salary increase every year to eighteen months.

Dr. Brodman explained the provisions of the retirement system for a pension, annual and sick leave benefits, and the system for eliminating unsatisfactory employees. Mr. Sawamoto asked whether the National Library of Medicine had in-service training, and Dr. Brodman said they had both an internship program and an expanded internship training program for new librarians, as well as outside schooling. Mrs. Bryant mentioned the Department of Agriculture Graduate School's evening classes for government employees, supported by

student fees. Agriculture Library provides no formal training for its librarians, but many take these courses. Many other agencies pay for courses which their librarians take.

THE NASHVILLE SEMINARS

NOVEMBER 20, 1959 (MORNING SESSION)

Miss Howell presented Dr. Dan M. Robison, Tennessee State Librarian and Archivist, who spoke briefly on the various ways in which state libraries are organized in the United States, noting that in Tennessee the State Library and Archives is a part of the Department of Education. The library, he said, was formerly located in the State Capitol, but was moved in 1953 into its own building. When the first appropriation of $1,500,000 was made in 1947 it was seen to be inadequate, and on the advice of the Attorney General, plans were delayed until other appropriations raised the amount of money available to $2,500,000. This proved to be sufficient both for the building and for the furnishings. Dr. Robison then spoke about the Archives Division's handling of state records and the use of microfilm to preserve county records which are collected by the Division.

Miss Howell outlined the organization of the State Library and Archives as follows: I. Archives Division. II. State Library Division. III. Public Libraries Division. IV. Division of Restoration and Reproduction. Division IV is a service division for the other three, able also to take on a small amount of commercial work. Activities consist of the preservation of documents by lamination, photostating, microfilming, and the production of pieces by methods called, in general, near-print. Without this division, the work of all divisions would be greatly slowed down.

She then discussed the variety of activities pursued by the whole organization, introducing exhibits of publications and staff routines to demonstrate the work of each division. She illustrated how cooperation between the educational institutions in the state, the state executive departments, and the State Library is secured by the preparation of written agreements similar to the one worked out for the State Division of Geology, the Vanderbilt University Department of Geology, and the State Library Division. Other agreements deal with Agriculture, Education, Public Health, and Public Welfare. Moreover, the State Library Division proposes to encourage interlibrary loans by the use of memoranda to inform the libraries in the regional system about the resources of the State Library, and eventually about the resources of other libraries in the state, both large and small. There is much work to be done, Miss Howell said, in the making of an index to special collections and in cooperative purchasing.

Next covered were the activities of the Public Libraries Division. The collection of statistics constitutes one of them. Some of these figures are reported

to the American Library Association, but there is much room for improvement in the number of libraries covered and in the range of the statistics included. This division responded to the demand for information on laws and regulations about libraries by publishing the pamphlet *Library Laws of Tennessee*, of which new editions will be issued from time to time. This division also administers the grants-in-aid for public libraries. Mrs. Cheney explained the organization of the state's counties into multi-county units. The Tennessee plan was compared with those of New Jersey and California.

The State Library is a depository for federal documents. A comprehensive collection is kept, but certain little-used series have been dropped and others are acquired according to a survey which indicates the receipts of other libraries in the region. In the making of this survey the over-all responsibilities and purpose of the library received full consideration. The State Library Division also collects the documents of Tennessee counties but in this area there is room for considerable expansion. The program for the acquisition of the documents of other states is being worked out systematically by means of exchanges whenever possible. The cards prepared by this assistant were borrowed from her desk to illustrate the method.

The State Library Division cooperates in the work of the Library of Congress by supplying copy for the *Monthly Checklist of State Publications*; it also sends in cards to the *National Union Catalog* and will contribute to the *National Register of Manuscripts* when that is assembled. Contributions were made to the *Southeastern Union List of Serials* and will be made to the new edition of the *Union List of Serials*. Cards are sent to the Nashville Union Catalog.

Although the State Law Library is not a part of the State Library and Archives organization, a close cooperative relationship is maintained. The *Preliminary Checklist of Tennessee Legislative Documents*, which contains a checklist of statutes as well, is an example of what the State Library Division can do for legal bibliography and documentation. The State law reports and current codes are in the Law Library; the law journals, legislative documents, old codes, and many law texts and reference books are in the State Library.

Mrs. Parsley, Reference Librarian in the State Library, described the various types of reference questions answered as follows: 1) those originating in government agencies—federal, state, or local; 2) those asked by university or college students usually connected with term paper or thesis writing; and 3) those asked by the general public. The latter are either general reference questions or problems relating to local history or genealogy. The first of a series of Manuscript Registers has been prepared by the Manuscripts Section of the Archives Division. The publications of the State Historical Commission are especially valuable.

Miss Parks, Director of the Public Libraries Division, then came to talk briefly about the use of federal funds to demonstrate the development of library service in counties not previously affiliated with the state program. Such demonstrations in seven counties, she said, have been especially successful. Miss Parks further commented on the survey of public libraries requested by the Tennessee Library Association which is being conducted by the Legislative Council Committee. The problem will be to persuade the General Assembly to increase the

State Library appropriation to take care of the new counties when the federal aid is discontinued.

NOVEMBER 20, 1959 (AFTERNOON SESSION)

Dr. Kuhlman opened the discussion with a review of some of the factors which led to the establishment of the Joint University Libraries, a cooperative enterprise of three institutions in Nashville (George Peabody College for Teachers, Scarritt College for Christian Workers and Vanderbilt University). Their campuses are contiguous and compact, making it geographically practical to pool their total library resources and services so as to avoid unnecessary duplication, and to make the maximum use of available library funds and facilities.

The major objective in establishing the Joint University Libraries was to provide a library basis for a University Center qualified to do creditable work on the Ph.D. level in sixteen academic fields and in a series of professional schools, in addition to the undergraduate liberal arts offerings. The survey of resources for graduate instruction in America, by the American Council on Education in 1934, had disclosed that nowhere in the vast area between North Carolina on the east and Texas on the west and between the Gulf and Indiana was there an adequate university graduate center.

After a self-survey in 1935–36 of available instructional and library resources and needs by the faculties and librarians of these three institutions, an interim agreement was reached under which Dr. Kuhlman came to Nashville in August 1936 to direct the library program of the three institutions and to perfect a plan for the joint ownership, administration and control and expansion of the library facilities. In 1938, two million dollars were raised to provide and endow, at least in part, a central library building and its services.

The cooperative enterprise was then formally and legally established in a *Trust Indenture* (charter) in December 1938. It provided that, as of September 1, 1939, the total library resources and services of the three institutions were to be consolidated and jointly owned, controlled and administered for the mutual benefit of students and faculties in this University Center, and as far as feasible, of research workers in the South-Central region centering in Nashville. The plot of ground on which the central library building was erected was deeded by Vanderbilt University to the Joint University Libraries.

Among the achievements of this cooperative enterprise, the following are noteworthy:

1. A Union Catalog of holdings of the several units in the Joint University Libraries and of the other large libraries of Nashville was completed in 1936 and has been kept up to date. It is located in the central building and operated by the Joint University Libraries.
2. A Library of Congress depository card catalog was also secured in 1936 and was kept up through 1948 when it was continued in printed book form.
3. In 1941 an air conditioned general library building, with a book capacity of 750,000 volumes and seating capacity of 850, was completed.

4. Endowment funds now total $1,250,000 yielding an annual income of about $55,000. The operating budget for the current year is $435,000. As of May 1, 1959, assets (books, periodicals, building and equipment and endowment) of the libraries (acquired since 1938) are estimated at $5,750,000.

5. The book stock of the Joint University Libraries has been increased from 270,000 volumes on May 1, 1936 to 760,159 on May 1, 1959. It now includes an excellent working reference collection and the scholarly periodicals and separate works to support the instructional programs of the three schools including Ph.D. work in sixteen academic and eight professional fields.

6. Last, but not least, there is a sound working plan for a single cooperative library system that is jointly owned, controlled and administered that can serve the three neighboring schools effectively and, to some extent, the scholars of the South-Central region.

The physical plants and organization of library materials represented by the Joint University Libraries are as follows:

I. Central Division (General Library, Joint University Libraries)
   A. General library
      1. Religion section
      2. Science and Engineering
   B. Departmental libraries, housed in separate buildings
      1. Chemistry
      2. Biology
      3. Geology and Physics

II. Peabody College Division
   A. General Library
   B. Library School collection
   C. Demonstration school collection
   D. Music Library

III. Other Professional Divisions
   A. Vanderbilt Law School
   B. Vanderbilt School of Medicine
   C. Scarritt College collection

In determining the requirements for housing, it was felt that one general library would not be sufficient for the three institutions. For example, Peabody as an outstanding teacher's college needed a separate library because of its large enrollment and the extent of its graduate work in psychology, education and music.

Mr. Amatsuchi asked about the policies of service. Dr. Kuhlman replied that the Joint University Libraries cannot serve undergraduates in schools other than Vanderbilt, Peabody and Scarritt, but it will help the faculty of other institutions in Nashville.

Mr. Goto raised the matter of the book budget and was told that in addition to the general budget, special funds are appropriated by the School of

Medicine and the Law School. Centralized ordering and cataloging is not attempted, for as long as you have a unit large enough to order and catalog your own books with a professional staff, there is no need to centralize. Thus Peabody has separate order and catalog departments.

Separate budgets are drawn up for the J.U.L. central division, for Peabody, Law School, and School of Medicine. Items include amounts spent for salaries, annuity plans, social security, Blue Cross hospitalization, group life insurance, hourly help, books, binding, supplies, equipment, travel, and physical maintenance of J.U.L., the latter being $30,000 a year.

A tour of the building included an examination of the reference room, with its ready reference collection behind the reference desk, its many indexes shelved close to the reference desk, its large collection of current periodicals, and its reference collection which is strong in basic bibliographies, encyclopedias, and special materials in the humanities and the social sciences. Most of the science reference materials are housed in the departmental libraries, though there is some duplication of basic directories, dictionaries and handbooks. The reference librarian works closely with the faculty in giving instruction in the use of the library. Interlibrary loan work is characterized by an increased use of microfilm instead of the originals.

The easy flow of materials from the delivery room to appropriate divisions of the processing department was noted, the long room being set up so that materials may be routed in an orderly fashion.

THE LOS ANGELES SEMINAR

NOVEMBER 27, 1959

The Seminar held its last formal meeting in the United States on the Los Angeles campus of the University of California with Mr. Moore serving as chairman.

Mr. Moore remarked that as the final seminar, this meeting was designed to follow the interests of the visiting members, and so no prepared remarks were scheduled.

Seminar members had suggested their interest in the professional education and training of reference librarians. Two of the consultants present were, appropriately, library educators. Mr. Moore observed that the effectiveness of reference services will ultimately depend on the caliber and training of reference personnel. How do we train reference librarians? Are we doing a good job in our programs of library education? What elements of these might be appropriate for Japan?

Miss Boaz stated that she had observed a change in the teaching of reference courses during the last ten years, particularly since about 1952—a trend

toward more specialized reference courses. At the University of Southern California, for example, the School of Library Science offers three reference bibliography courses, according to subject field: humanities, sciences, and social sciences. In addition, there is one basic reference course, prerequisite to the foregoing specialized courses, which is concerned with reference methods in general and with some of the fundamental reference works, such as dictionaries and general encyclopedias. At present, the basic reference course and at least two of the specialized bibliography courses are required of all students. Should all three of the specialized bibliography courses be required? Not all students will become reference librarians. This question is under consideration by the School, and it is possible that all three courses may be required in the future. In regard to this, Mr. Moore remarked that, by requiring courses for all students, there might be less selection in the training of reference librarians. If all students must take the reference courses, is there a danger that these courses will be watered down, or standardized on a lower academic level?

Miss Fukuda asked whether students were required to compile bibliographies and, if so, what background would be necessary. Would such bibliographies complement a subject or bibliographical specialty of the student? There would seem to be great value in teaching subject bibliography by having students compile lists. Are there special difficulties in teaching form of entry for such things as serial publications and periodical articles? In response, Miss Boaz said that bibliographies were compiled for the students' term papers. Background training in bibliographic form is supplied in several courses. Students are not given assignments to compile bibliographies which will complement their subject specialities, although ideally it should be done this way. Topics for term papers usually allow sufficient choice for the student to follow his special interests.

Mr. Moore then turned the discussion to the conditions of library education in Japan. There the problems are more complex: the Japanese librarian, far more than his American counterpart, must be concerned with literature in both Eastern and Western languages. How does the Japan Library School at Keio University organize its training of reference librarians?

Mr. Sawamoto described the reference courses offered at Japan Library School; all are one-year courses, and all students are required to complete all of the reference courses, a total of ten units.

A. 5 units (3 hours weekly). Basic course in general reference tools for Japanese and Western languages.
B. 2 units (1 hour weekly). Reference tools and bibliographies of classical Japanese and Chinese languages. (Especially valuable for academic librarianship. It should be noted that a great many early Chinese books have been preserved in Japan.)
C. 3 units (2 hours weekly). Advanced course in subject bibliography of humanities, sciences, and social sciences.

The Japan Library School is organized as a department within the Faculty of Literature of Keio University, and all of the training is at the undergraduate level. Library courses occupy the third and fourth years of college education, and graduates receive a degree equivalent to the Bachelor's degree in the United States. College graduates occasionally will enroll in the School; upon graduation,

they receive the same Bachelor's degree as do the other students, but they are likely to command higher salaries when employed as librarians, as if they held a higher, or Master's degree. There are no difficulties in placement of the School's graduates.

The Director of the Japan Library School hopes to develop, and gain acceptance for, a graduate program of library education. The present status of the School may be considered transitional. A major difficulty in attaining graduate standing is that, in Japan, a graduate program requires that there also be an undergraduate program in the same field of study.

Mr. Sawamoto then discussed other programs of library education. Although Keio University is the only university having an accredited library school, about seventy other universities have library courses, offering from one to sixteen units of class work.

The Ueno Library School, which is supported by the Ministry of Education, is not affiliated with any college or university. It has two programs, one of which enrolls graduates of high schools, and the other graduates of colleges and junior colleges. In either program, more than six units of reference courses are given, and thus more units of reference work are offered at Ueno than anywhere else except at the Japan Library School at Keio. In the other colleges and universities, generally speaking, the equivalent of about one unit of reference education is available, usually scattered in courses on other aspects of librarianship.

Japanese laws governing the certification of librarians specify eight units of library education for school librarians and sixteen units for public librarians. (No certification—and thus no library education—is necessary for academic and special librarians.) These legal requirements are far too low, and create the tendency for universities and colleges to give the minimum number of course units necessary for certification.

A major drawback in Japanese library education is the small number of full-time faculty members teaching. Mr. Sawamoto estimates that there are only about fifteen full-time professors of librarianship in Japan; five of these are at Keio. Other library educators are university librarians, language teachers, or other faculty members who incidentally teach library courses. Mr. Goto and Mr. Iwazaru, for example, teach library courses in their universities, in addition to their regular library responsibilities. Japan needs more library schools, in addition to Keio, but the shortage of full-time educators will make accreditation difficult. Students in Japanese universities, Mr. Goto continued, lack experience in the use of reference tools, even the basic dictionaries and encyclopedias. This situation, in large part, is a consequence of two conditions; the lack of good reference tools, and the failure of professors to require or even to encourage the use of reference tools or of the library collections. Elementary training of the students in the use of reference tools is certainly necessary.

An additional difficulty is that many Japanese librarians do not believe university courses in reference tools are necessary. They tend not to value reference tools because they have come to rely on their experience, and thus their memory, in supplying books to patrons. The neophyte librarian, therefore, cannot readily learn the practice of reference, and may well be discouraged because so much experience is necessary in order to do good reference work.

Mr. Goto and Mr. Iwazaru reported that the reference staff members of the libraries at their respective universities, Nihon and Kyoto, are supplied from among the graduates of their own schools. This is a matter of rather consistent practice. Some in-service training is given.

Mr. Amatsuchi stated that the Ministry of Education has no regulation requiring the national universities to hire only their own graduates for service in the libraries. As it happens, the two major national universities, Tokyo and Kyoto, have a large number of excellent graduates, from among whom library staff members may be recruited. But the libraries are free to obtain their personnel elsewhere.

The National Diet Library, according to Mr. Oda, requires no library training of its employees. Most of the staff members are subject specialists, and not graduates of library schools. While some of the personnel may have received library education, none of the reference librarians have had professional training in librarianship. Because Japan lacks reference books, reference questions are not answered by the use of such tools, but rather by the subject knowledge and experience of the subject experts. Mr. Horn pointed out a similarity with the Library of Congress, where many specialists do not have professional library training.

Mr. Amatsuchi, referring to the Science and Technology Reference Section of the National Diet Library, said that his section has a distinct need for staff members who are both scientists and trained librarians. Mrs. Jackman has found the same need for personnel who are both specialists and librarians in libraries organized by subject divisions, such as the Los Angeles Public Library.

Mr. Goto asked for recommendations from American librarians on library education in Japan and asked whether Japanese librarians should continue to press for graduate professional education without accompanying undergraduate courses in library science. In Mr. Horn's opinion, American librarians are not fully agreed as to the ideal status of professional education, but we are largely committed to a definite course; the establishment of professional training at the graduate level. The student is, therefore, not required to elect the career of librarianship early in his undergraduate education; in fact, much recruiting of students to enter the profession occurs in the midst of their college careers. At one time, the fifth year of professional education led to a second Bachelor's degree; it has now been established as a Master's degree. Graduate professional education is designed to provide the requisite general training; it is an essential, basic course, but it is not the ultimate education of a professional librarian. Further education is desirable and may take several forms: there may be some training on the job; a graduate might work toward the Doctor's degree in librarianship; or he may study for advanced degrees in another subject field.

Practicing librarians, Mr. Horn continued, are often very critical of the professional education of their field. There are encouraging signs of closer relationships developing between the library schools and their graduates, and between library educators and practicing librarians.

Mrs. Jackman observed that much of our library work does not require professional education. Professionally trained librarians resent having to do clerical tasks. Libraries have a need for an intermediate level of personnel, with

preparation and duties falling somewhere between those of the clerical worker and the librarian. To Miss Boaz, this gives evidence that libraries may be misusing their staff members. Better studies of the division between clerical and professional work are certainly needed. In any case, the graduate library schools must endeavor to maintain high academic standards.

Some junior colleges now have a curriculum for "library assistants." Introductory courses in librarianship are offered, together with secretarial classes, in an attempt to train knowledgeable clerical workers for libraries. The terminology for such a career has been a problem: should one who has completed such a course be called "library clerk," "library assistant," or "library technician?" He would not be a professional librarian. Mr. Horn said he had found that some library workers, trained in such an intermediate curriculum, prove to be highly successful in libraries and show professional promise. And yet such persons, because they lack a four-year liberal education, would not be accepted for further study in a graduate library school.

The discussion then returned to reference service. The success of this work in American librarianship rests upon two essential conditions, in Mr. Horn's view. First, the Library of Congress produces catalog cards for the profession. This has resulted in national bibliographical standardization, in all aspects of cataloging practice. Cataloging, then, can be taught in the library schools with a fair amount of certainty, and more of the students' time can be devoted to the study of reference. Second, superior manuals for the teaching of reference are available—the *Guides* compiled by Mudge and Winchell are outstanding examples. Basic tools for general reference work are essential.

Miss Fukuda agreed that Japan has the same need for reference manuals. While most reference work is done by specialists relying on their own experience and memory, Mr. Oda, in his work at the National Diet Library, has been compiling indexes to reference questions which have been asked there. By using such indexes, perhaps in relation to the reference courses given in the library schools, it might be possible to compile some kind of reference manual. The Naitonal Diet Library has made a list of its own reference collection, but this list is not selective nor is it designed for the use of reference librarians generally.

In the opinion of Mr. Goto and Miss Fukuda, the National Diet Library would be the logical place to gather an outstanding collection of basic reference works. It has the advantage of financial support from the Japanese government, which would enable it to buy needed books and to publish bibliographies and manuals. Further, centralized cataloging for Japanese libraries is done by the Library.

In the role played by government, there are differences between Japan and the United States, Miss Fukuda said. In Japan the government has a stronger voice in national activities. The National Diet Library thus plays a role of great prestige and leadership. The Library will be expected to lead in the publication of reference works, particularly since the publishing of bibliographies and other reference tools is not commercially profitable; these books do not have a wide sale, and there are no publishers in Japan comparable to such American firms as R. R. Bowker and the Wilson Company. Mr. Amatsuchi added that in Japan commercial firms will not publish basic reference tools unless subsidized by the government. In order to publish the *Medical Science*

Abstracts, for example, the Science Council of Japan administers a government subsidy whereby a certain minimum number of purchases are guaranteed. Mr. Suzuki referred to similar arrangements for a periodical index, compiled by the National Diet Library.

Mr. Goto remarked that, with the exception of teachers of library science, Japanese professors do not rely on articles in periodicals for their teaching and assignments because they themselves generally lack experience in the use of periodical literature. Thus they have no sense of the value of periodical indexes, nor do they recommend the use of such tools to their students. Some of the younger professors in the sciences and technology, however, now seem to be getting more interested in reference tools.

In response to a question from Mr. Goto, Mrs. Jackman described the types of in-service training provided at the Los Angeles Public Library. In the first type, an orientation course lasting from eight to ten weeks, is given for all new librarians, usually about six months after they have joined the staff. The course includes general lectures on the Library, public services, extension services, and technical services. During visits to each of the subject departments, staff members give lectures on departmental organization, special files, indexes, and other tools developed by the department, published reference works in the subject field, and selected books or collections of special interest. The new librarians will visit branch libraries, bookmobiles, and the municipal reference branch in the City Hall. In the second type of in-service training, the new staff member is given individual training in his duties by his supervisor. A third type of specialized training in certain aspects of the work may be given by some departments. The Social Science Department, for example, gives training in the use of documents during several practice sessions and lectures. Occasionally the Library has also had courses designed for supervisors, department heads, and senior librarians. The subject matter might be personnel problems, or a study of the branch library system, as examples.

The activities of this Seminar have been of great value, Mr. Moore noted, not only for its Japanese members, but for American librarians as well, by causing them to analyze and to understand some of their own problems. The opportunity to exchange ideas has been rewarding.

Miss Fukuda concluded the meeting by reviewing briefly the progress of the Seminar during its previous sessions. Many subjects have been studied, among them: building of reference collections, interlibrary cooperation, specialized services, training of special librarians, the Library Services Act, cooperative library systems, reference services for academic and public libraries, subject departmental division, and now, finally, the professional education of reference librarians and the supplying of basic reference tools. She observed that Japan still has a long way to go in the training of reference librarians and supervisors of reference services, as well as in the development of competent teachers of reference in library schools. Throughout Japan good reference collections must be built; new reference tools must be created where necessary; and better cooperation among librarians must be achieved. Japanese librarians hope to give greater service to the Japanese people and to the world.

PART III

STUDY PAPERS ON JAPANESE LIBRARIES

SOME ASPECTS OF JAPANESE LIBRARIES

Naomi Fukuda
International House of Japan Library

THE IDEA OF A LIBRARY

Our libraries in Japan, some of them of great antiquity, are of many kinds, with widely divergent concepts and practices, more divergent now than they were ten or fifteen years ago. Some are totally resistant to change; others are so revolutionary—revolutionary for Japan, that is—that those they would serve have not yet learned to appreciate or utilize them fully. They all have in common, it is true, the possession of books, but among those who determine and execute their policies there is no single unifying idea of what a library is or ought to be. Instead, we have an assortment of incompatible ideas.

The average Japanese, however, the man in the Japanese street, is not aware of this clash of concepts or prepared to take sides in it. To him, a library is simply what the average Japanese library has shown itself to be within his limited experience with it. And his idea of it perhaps reveals more than could a long analysis of the ideas of administrators, librarians and professional theorists. In going to a library, he has done so not in quest of intellectual stimulation or pleasure but out of necessity. He has been required for some reason, let us suppose, to establish legal proof that for a time he was an official in a Government agency which has ceased to exist and the records of which no longer are accessible. The *Official Gazette*, he has been told, would surely have carried an announcement of his appointment. But where was he to find the *Official Gazette* of so many years ago? It probably never would have occurred to him to go to the nearest public library to look for it. From an associate has come the suggestion that he try a library, one of those places where old publications are kept. One afternoon, provided with an address, he takes time from his work for his first experience with a library. The building has a melancholy exterior, and at the portal is a long line of people. Though he may not realize it, the seats in the reading room have been filled since morning mostly by lunch-carrying students cramming for examinations. Only when one of them leaves can one in the waiting line be admitted. After more than an hour, our average Japanese is allowed to enter, or at least to present himself at a barrier where he states his purpose and is given a slip of paper on which to write his name and address. Uncertain as to how to proceed, he enters the reading room, looks around and decides that he will inquire at a counter in front of which there is a cluster of waiting persons. In time, he wins the attention of a young man behind the counter who seems harrassed and not very sympathetic. Does the library have the *Official Gazette* for 1931 or possibly 1932? The young man asks if he has consulted the card catalog. He has not, of course, and he is waved in the direction of it. By trial and error, he finds a card which tells him the library has the *Official Gazette* from 1896 to date, and from a sign he learns that he must fill out a request slip in order to see it. With his slip, he returns to the counter, waits to hand it in, is chided for not having filled it out properly, sits

in a hard seat at a table, cogitates on how very difficult it is to use a library and then, as the minutes pass, begins to wonder whether he has been forgotten. He wishes he had brought something to read while waiting. At long last, his name is called out, he receives the bound issues he had requested, and in one of them he finds the dated announcement of his appointment. Homeward-bound, he hopes that never again will he have to go to a library, a troublesome place where books are hidden away like money in a bank vault.

I may have exaggerated slightly our average man's library experience, but only very slightly. There is no exaggeration, however, in his impression that a library guards its books closely. The concept of the library as primarily a conservator of printed matter is endorsed and perpetuated in the Government Property Control Law, enacted in 1956. Applying to all Government and Government-subsidized property, it requires that libraries undergo inspection from time to time to make sure that they have not only each chair, filing cabinet and hatrack but also each book or periodical ever acquired by them. Dismissed sternly by inspectors and their superiors are all arguments that allowance should be made for the need of the public to have easy access to library materials and for the disposal of disintegrated and useless books.

THE IDEA OF REFERENCE WORK

The answering of questions is not new in Japanese libraries. In the past, there were no "reference librarians" especially trained for and assigned to such work, but questions were handled, as they still are in many libraries, by chief librarians, catalogers and even desk attendants. The handling of them often was conscientious and thorough, but on the whole it was thought of as secondary to other library functions and not worthy of special attention or encouragement. This attitude prevailed until the SCAP CI&E libraries, established in 23 cities after the war under the direction of reference-minded American professional librarians, acquainted English-reading Japanese with books and magazines on open shelves to which they could go directly and with kindly helpfulness in using them and obtaining answers to questions. The superiority of their services to those in the average Japanese library had an impact on both the reading public and even the most book-swaddling of Japanese libraries. Better service for the public was resolved in many a library staff meeting, and some librarians broadcast by radio that they welcomed any and all questions, which they promised to answer immediately. They were overwhelmed. Inquiries were phoned in about theater hours and bus schedules. Medical advice was sought. Among requests which came from other libraries was one for the preparation of an exhaustive bibliography on which a graduate thesis could be based. The work load soon became impossibly heavy. The librarians crushed by it began to discuss their plight. How far should a library go in trying to answer questions? Whose questions should be answered? Should time be spend in compiling bibliographies? Should there not be some limitations? Thought was given to the possibility of cooperation in reference work among libraries, each of them specializing in a particular field. Would it help to establish a reference section to which all inquiries would be referred by other sections, branch libraries and departmental libraries? How could reference librarians be trained, what status should they have, and should they be selected on the basis of specialized knowledge which

each might have in some one field?

In other words, there were libraries which became enamoured of "reference work or service" because of the newly popular notion that to be modern a library must be all things to all comers. Only after going out on the limb of promising to satisfy everybody's reference needs or whims did they come to realize that more was involved than zeal to be modern and helpful. They lacked reference tools. Their librarians were inadequately trained for effective reference work, and there was no easy short-cut to training young reference librarians. It was too late, however, to turn back, or to stand still. Whatever the pains and pangs, much emphasis now is being placed on development of workable reference services with hope that a grateful public eventually will bestow the reward of recognizing librarianship as an esteemed profession.

WRITTEN JAPANESE

The language we speak can be written in several ways. One is with simplified characters which represent sounds and thus are comparable to the letters of an alphabet. Another, the common way, is with a combination of the simplified characters and Chinese characters. Unfortunately for the librarian, these Chinese characters as used in Japan have multiple readings. In one context, a character may have the pronunciation it had in China of the Wu period. In another, the proper pronunciation may be that of the Han period. It also may have a Japanese reading. If libraries could operate without speech, there would be little trouble, but this multiplicity of readings means that there is confusing tentativeness and uncertainty in pronouncing book titles and authors' names. Linguistic skill, acquired only through long study, is essential for the Japanese librarian, especially for the Japanese reference librarian, and perfection in it can be achieved by few.

Among the consequences of this aspect of our language is difficulty in the compiling of union catalogs of Japanese materials. For simplicity in use, catalog cards should be arranged in accordance with the sounds of the Japanese "alphabet," and that means the proper reading must be known for each entry. If an error is made, the card probably will be out of place and therefore useless. Different readings assigned by the "experts" of the separate libraries contributing cards to a union catalog must be spotted and changed to a uniform reading. Trouble also arises when librarians send vernacular publications abroad for exchange purposes, for in correspondence and shipping lists their titles and authors must be romanized. Erroneous readings can be not only confusing but also embarrassing.

Theoretically, of course, this language problem could be lessened by romanization, which long has had advocates in Japan. Three systems of romanization currently are in use on a limited scale. Realistically, however, there is very little likelihood of the adoption of any of them. Libraries and librarians must continue to make the best of the Japanese language as it is.

TECHNICAL PROCESSING

In technical processing, one would expect Japanese librarians to be much

more advanced than in reference work because for so many years they have been discussing cataloging rules and classification systems. Alas, cataloging and classification have yet to be standardized. With few exceptions, each library has its own system which it thinks it must retain in the interests of continuity of its catalog. Very few libraries have subject catalogs. Some file in adherence to the roman alphabet. Others use the Japanese "alphabets", one of which has 51 combination of vowels and consonants and the other of which has 48 syllables arranged to form the words of a song. Compilation of union catalogs hardly is facilitated by the existence of such different systems. They hinder bibliographical services and make them exasperatingly time-consuming.

INTERLIBRARY COOPERATION

Our libraries are learning to work together, some of them reluctantly, it is true, but with growing realization that they must. Except for rare books, the National Diet Library and its branches are prepared to loan books to any other library. Among the libraries of the Special Libraries Association, the Medical Libraries Association and the national universities, there are smooth arrangements for interlibrary loans, as well as for photo duplications of materials which for various reasons cannot be loaned. Several years ago, the libraries of the universities belonging to the League of Private Universities, numbering about half of the nation's universities, began a promising program of cooperation by joining in studies and surveys of such matters as their facilities and collections. However, they have stopped short of what some of their well-wishers believe they should undertake, including a directory of their periodical holdings and reference guides for book selection.

Awareness of mutual problems has served to encourage informal exchanges of information and ideas among librarians, out of which cooperation in concrete ways could develop. They are much interested, for example, in the efforts being made in the United States to bring about cooperative storage, for Japanese libraries, like those in other countries, are running out of space. Regional libraries might ease the space problem in Japan. Careful consideration of them at least would afford librarians an opportunity to evaluate their own collections and arrive at better understanding of individual books and the requirements of workable basic collections. However, so much must be done about basic collections that it may take years before the libraries will be ready for cooperative storage projects.

PERSONNEL

There are, to put it mildly, a few imperfections in the staffing of our libraries. More likely than not, the chief librarian's position is held by an official or former professor who has been appointed to provide him with prestige-bestowing employment for the few years before he reaches retirement age. He not only is not a professional librarian but probably has had no previous experience with library work. The senior staff members under him usually have been with the library for years and have risen step by step purely on the basis of seniority. To bring in an experienced outsider for a position of any responsibility

is extremely difficult. At the same time, the generally low status of the senior librarians tends to make library work unattractive for young men of promise. Of the executive assistants in the seventy-two national university libraries, for instance, only about thirty are university graduates.

Fortunately, there is growing recognition that reforms must be made. A necessary first step is the analysis and grading of positions, with establishment of clearly defined qualifications for each. Openings for which there are not qualified persons within the organization then could be filled by qualified persons from other libraries. Such interchange of personnel would benefit not only library services but also the profession. Also needed urgently is better school and in-service training of librarians if we want to have better libraries.

CHALLENGE TO THE NATIONAL DIET LIBRARY

One of the compelling reasons for establishment of the National Diet Library in 1948 was to create an institution which would assume commanding leadership in advancing the nation's library system. The capital city in which it is located holds a tenth of Japan's 92,330,000 people. In addition to Government offices, it has the headquarters of many influential organizations. There are eighty-two universities and senior colleges, each with a central library and departmental libraries, of which Tokyo University alone has more than 120. There are 72 junior colleges, also with libraries. Public libraries, excluding the thirty-three branches of the National Diet Library, number about 50. Listed in the *Directory of Research Libraries* are 270 companies and institutes in the city which maintain libraries. Here are concentrated the publishing houses which turn out 80 percent of the nation's books and periodicals, not counting Government publications and those of university presses, learned societies and countless other organizations. In Tokyo are 14 percent of Japan's retail bookstores and ten percent of those which deal in secondhand books. Anyone in quest of a book ought to be able to find it among the obviously rich resources of printed matter in this big city. The reality, however, is that location of a book in Tokyo can be very arduous and time-consuming and often is frustrating. Sorely needed is a comprehensive bibliographical center. Such a center we shall never have unless it is provided by the National Diet Library, which through it can exercise part of the leadership for which it was created by maintaining up-to-date listings of new publications and acquisitions and issuing for them standardized printed catalog cards.

The above remarks have been made with no illusions as to their random and fragmentary nature. They are what they are, torn from the entirety of the Japanese library picture, for the purpose of focusing attention on those matters which give most concern to Japanese librarians who are dedicated to achieving better libraries and librarianship and on which they are most desirous of having counsel and assistance.

THE OSAKA PREFECTURAL LIBRARY AND PUBLIC LIBRARY PROBLEMS

Masao Hayashi
Osaka Prefectural Library

OSAKA PREFECTURAL LIBRARY

Osaka Prefecture, in about the middle of the Pacific Ocean side of Japan's main island, is comprised of the city of Osaka, twenty-five smaller cities, and twenty-seven towns and villages with a total population in excess of five million. The city of Osaka, second largest in Japan, is the hub of what is known as the Osaka-Kobe district, in which there are heavy concentrations of commerce, industry and transportation facilities and about nine million people.

The prefecture is served by fourteen public libraries, of which the Osaka Prefectural Library is the foremost. A repository and reference library, it aims to facilitate research and contribute to the general cultural interests of the prefecture. In addition to large collections of old manuscripts and books on all subjects, both foreign and Japanese, it has, in keeping with the character of the area which it serves, extensive materials relating to commerce and industry. Among these are complete domestic patent records since 1904, American, German and French patent records since 1931, Swiss patent records since 1940, British patent abstracts since 1855 and approximately 70,000 Publications Board reports. There also are some 3,500 volumes, exclusive of those which are not shelved, of atomic power and other technological literature and files of about 350 Japanese and foreign technological periodicals.

To provide better circulation and reference services for these resources, the Commercial and Industrial Section was established in 1953 with its own reading room. Those who use this room average 140 daily, and the average number of reference inquiries handled daily by two staff members is fifty-two. One hundred reproductions of materials in the section are produced daily. Great pride is taken in the efficiency with which reference inquiries about patents are handled. As tools for those who use the section, publications issued since last year have included: *Guide to the Commercial and Industrial Materials in the Osaka Prefectural Library; U. S. Chemical Patents: Part 1, Organic Compounds; Directory of Japanese Patent Applications; Catalog of Atomic Power Publications*, Vol. 1, and *PB Report Bulletin*, No. 1, Chemistry.

Through Kansai Documentation Center conferences, sponsored by the library and participated in by sixty private enterprises and three public entities in the Kansai area (which includes a number of prefectures in addition to Osaka), the library is able to keep in close touch with industrial and related circles.

Eventually there are to be other specialized collections organized like that for commercial and industrial materials, each responsible for the circulation of and reference work with materials of certain related branches of knowledge. Though not formally designated a special section, the library's Tennoji Branch

is especially strong in materials on the social sciences because of having taken over the collection of the Ohara Institute for Social Sciences. Only adults, including college students, are permitted to use it. Its holdings in 1958 were 73,474 volumes, which in the same year were used by 83,885 persons with the help of a reference staff of three librarians, part of whose time must be given to other than reference duties.

To strengthen general reference services, a room exclusively for them was opened last December. On its shelves are some 3,500 basic reference books. The staff has seven persons. Use is being made of the room by about 5,000 visitors monthly, and the monthly average of inquiries is some 1,500, of which 136 are answered by mail and eighty-nine by telephone. To keep staff members of other parts of the library informed in the interests of cooperation, a monthly report is circulated.

The library is not unique, of course, in operating bookmobiles, but it takes pride in the formation of a club on their own initiative by registered users of the two large ones sent into farming districts of the prefecture. It publishes a quarterly bulletin, sponsors lecture meetings and assembles its members for discussion of not only the books they read but also varied common problems.

OUTLINE OF THE LIBRARY

1. Location: Nakanoshima, Kita-ku, Osaka, Japan.
2. Founded: 1903.
3. Librarian: Yukichi Nakamura, b. March 22, 1901.
   Former position: Head, Social Education Division, Board of Education, Osaka Prefectural Government.
4. General organization:
   Administration Division (General Business Dept.; Superintendence Dept.)
   Service Division (Preparation Dept.; Circulation Dept.; Commerce & Industry Dept.; Extension Dept.; General Reference Room)
5. Community served:
   a) Special features: Industrial center of Western Japan.
   b) Population: 5,162,000 as of May 1, 1959.

5.1 Public library:
   a) No. of registered users: 1,132. Daily readers, average: 2,570
   b) Branches: 5.
   c) Bookmobiles: 2.
   d) Service to local schools: Bookmobile lending by the Extension Dept.
   e) Other public libraries in the city: Municipal library, with one branch.
      Other public libraries in the prefecture: Municipal libraries: 12 (except Osaka City)

6. Size of collection: 733,335 vols. (at the end of 1958)
7. Circulation: 457,463 vols. (in and outside library) (1958)
8. Personnel: Full-time professional: 72. Non-professional: 53
9. Budget (total) ¥63,649,127. Personnel: ¥47,156,627.
   Materials: ¥6,500,000.
10. Open hours: 9 am.—9 pm. except Sundays and national holidays.

REFERENCE SERVICES

1. Chief Reference Librarian: Seiichi Kitera.
   Former position: Head, Preparation Dept.
2. Administration:
   a) General organization: One general reference room and a Commerce and Industry Dept.
   b) Subject division: Commerce and Industry; General Reference Room.
   c) Special services: Patent identification at Commerce and Industry Dept.
   d) Readers' advisory service: in the general reference room and branches.
   e) Services for young people: Young adult services in the general open-shelf room.
3. Personnel: Full-time professionals: General Reference Room: 7, Commerce and Industry: 7, Branch: 3.
   a) Staff manual: have.
   b) In-service training: None.
4. Collection:
   a) No. of vols. General Reference: Open, 3,500 vols. Commerce & Industry: Open, 4,500 vols.; Stack, 93,000 vols.
   b) Separate budget: None.
   c) Separate card catalog for reference or special collections: Special subject catalog.
   d) Separate card catalog or index file for bound periodicals: Index file for bound periodicals. List of current periodicals.
   e) Special tools: Information files of pamphlets and clippings. File of records of reference questions.
   f) Selection: Dept. Head participates as head of the Book Selection Committeee.
5. Handling of questions:
   a) Number per day: In person, 56; by telephone, 63; by mail, 8.
   b) Types of questions: 1 factual; 2 informational; 3 bibliographic; 4 research.
   c) Policy: Questions which affect a person's life, health, property and faith are not handled.
   d) Compiling bibliographies: Done for patrons.
   e) Handling of unanswered questions: Help is sought of university or special libraries.
6. Policy on lending reference books: Lending for use outside the library is not permitted.
7. Other activities: Kansai Bibliographic Center for Science and Technology.
8. Photocopying facilities: The photocopying room made 11,896 copies in 1958.
9. Reference room: Printed guide and wall charts are provided.

PUBLIC LIBRARY PROBLEMS

Until after the war, Japanese libraries generally were storehouses for the

preservation of books, the reading of which was permitted to those who came to them. Today we have a much broader concept of what libraries ought to be, and the buildings in which we are housing them may be quite impressive. If we seem to have made progress, our public libraries still are far from being what they are in the United States and are handicapped by problems which we are having difficulty in solving.

One of these problems, not so simple as it may appear, is the monopolization of reading space in almost all public libraries by high-school and college students. Most of them come in day after day not to use the materials or services of the libraries but solely to obtain "study space" which they do not have where they live or at their schools. That they need and ought to have such space is not in question, but by taking it in the public libraries they crowd out others who otherwise would avail themselves of library services. In effect, they discourage use of libraries by those for whom they are intended and stultify the development of reference work.

Nevertheless, enough seekers of information squeeze into our public libraries to make increasingly serious the problem of providing better reference services. More and more of the inquiries being received today are beyond the capacity of the general librarian. Their handling requires specialized knowledge of subject fields and materials, and this in turn calls for larger staffs which include specialists. Palliative steps are being taken by attempts at training reference workers to deal with more specialized questions and at arranging for cooperation among libraries, each of them undertaking to answer questions in one or more special fields for all the libraries in a group. The broad problem remains, however, and to it the subcommittee on reference services of the Public Libraries Department of the Japan Library Association is expected to devote its next workshop.

There also is the problem of what might be called personnel stagnation. Each public library is controlled by the government of its prefecture, city, town or village. An employe of a municipal library, for example, is frozen in that library and cannot look for transfer outside the municipal organization. A poorly staffed library remains poorly staffed, and a librarian of superior qualifications may have no opportunity for advancement. The resulting stagnation calls for a drastic change in personnel administration. The problem is how to realize such a change.

KOIWA PUBLIC LIBRARY, EDOGAWA WARD

Shozo Shimizu
Koiwa Library, Edogawa Ward

REFERENCE SERVICES

Edogawa (Edo River) Ward, at the eastern extremity of Tokyo, has within its 17.33 square miles a population of some 287,000. Parts of the ward

are primarily residential, but it also has considerable industry and commerce. Neighboring it on one side is an area occupied mostly by farmers and fishermen.

It did not become a ward of the metropolis until 1932 and was at a disadvantage in comparison with the older wards in developing urban facilities in the pre-war years. That it had no public library was not of pressing concern to its own residents or the municipal administration. When the war was over, however, Edogawa became aware of needs which had to be satisfied for the welfare of its citizens. Within twelve years, three small libraries were established, all separate and administered independently but loosely connected in a manner which gives promise of developing into a coordinated library system. One of these, the Matsue Library, is to be remodelled to serve as the central library of the system. The three libraries now are being used by some 260,000 persons yearly.

The reference service of these libraries is of interest not because it is on an impressive scale or has exemplary characteristics but because it is in an embryonic stage which perhaps displays in elemental forms some of the functions and problems of reference work in the small community library. The service was not a major objective when the three libraries were opened. The residents of the ward were not familiar with such a service and therefore did not demand it, and the librarians were too occupied with other matters to channel their limited resources into creating a service which few would use. Recently, however, circumstances have changed. The steady growth in use of the libraries has deepened the interest taken in them by the officials of the ward office and education board members. Their greater interest has had the tangible result of a larger library budget, meaning support for expansion of library services. At the same time, improvement of interlibrary cooperation in the Tokyo region has multiplied the resources available to even the smallest of libraries. These factors—increased public use, more official interest and support, and wider resources—have stimulated the ward librarians to place major emphasis on reference work so that it may become one of the basic services through which the libraries enrich the community.

Reference inquiries at the Koiwa Library, which I head, now are averaging about fifteen daily, exclusive of two or three a week which are made by telephone rather than at the libraries. These are received and handled by the staff members in charge of circulation. Any beyond their competence are referred to senior librarians. When it is established that adequate answers cannot be found in the libraries' own materials, help is asked of the larger public libraries, special libraries and the National Diet Library.

Thirty percent of the inquiries are from school children and older students. A sixth-grader, for example, sought information about the food of a certain tortoise, and another wanted the address of Dr. Schweitzer. A junior high school student desired identification of a piece of fossil he had found. The second inquiry had to be referred to the National Diet Library, and the third to the National Science Museum. Typical of the more numerous inquiries by adults was that of the deputy chief of the Edogawa Ward Office for information about the administration of Kawasaki City. A Government official came in for examples of a congratulatory speech to be made at a wedding party, and a bookstore employee wanted to know the publishers of biographies

of the late Chogyu Takayama, a writer. A taxation official used our facilities to get the exact address of a certain person living at Koiwa, in our ward. Except for those which have been found rather difficult to solve or might be useful for later reference, no record is kept of questions and answers.

No special effort is being made to publicize the reference service because of the inadequacy at this stage of our reference facilities. Our primary concern at present is to meet the needs arising out of home and community life, and our collection of reference materials is being strengthened to this end. Meetings of the P.T.A. and women's circles offer the most advantageous opportunities for us to make known what we are equipped and able to do in relation to home and community life, and we are taking full advantage of these opportunities.

School children often come in with questions not directly related to their school work. We welcome them and do our utmost to give them satisfactory information. Whatever else may have to be stinted, we feel here a great responsibility and take every caution in handling their questions. Five years ago, an attempt was made to bring in a group of school children to teach them how to use some of our reference books, about which they knew very little. It proved a failure because of poor response. We since have gone to the schools and there have been listened to with much interest. For visitors to our children's room, we offer individual attention and guidance.

THREE-LIBRARY COOPERATIVE NETWORK

1. Acquisition: The three libraries in Edogawa Ward are in agreement to avoid duplication in purchasing periodicals and newspapers. With regard to books, however, a parallel agreement has not yet been reached.

2. Cataloging: The libraries subscribe to the printed catalog cards prepared by the Japan Library Association and intend to compile a union catalog for their collections.

3. Interlibrary loans are carried out among the three libraries. Because of the absence of a union catalog, the telephone usually is used to locate wanted books at other libraries. However, audio-visual materials have been listed and therefore can be located easily.

4. The heads of the three libraries meet together every other week and the reference librarians once a month to discuss common problems.

5. Consideration of a public-library network: Tokyo has nearly fifty public libraries, but so far there has been no organized effort to create a system for cooperation among them. "To organize to serve better," many of us believe, must be a primary aim of all our public libraries. In Europe and America, we know, large cities often have centralized library systems with branch libraries. Such a system has obvious merits, but it now would be impossible to develop such a system in Tokyo without complicated amendment of the Local Autonomy (Self-government) Law. For better or worse, we must aim for cooperation rather than centralization.

In my opinion, this calls for several stages of cooperation. The three public libraries in Edogawa Ward, for example, could be brought into closer working relations. They then could establish cooperative links with the seven

libraries in nearby areas. Out of such widening spheres of cooperation eventually could be developed a system covering the whole Metropolitan area. I consider this step-by-step approach the most feasible and effective way to reach the goal.

Since the workshop for public librarians held at the Keio Library School in the summer of 1958, there has been a growing interest in interlibrary cooperation, particularly on the part of public libraries in Tokyo, and as a result their cooperation has become more active than ever before. Nevertheless, it seems to me that there are many difficulties in the path of ideal cooperation.

I have been confining my remarks to the Edogawa Ward libraries, but the problems put forth here also are faced by the other small libraries (with staffs not exceeding nine members) which occupy 86.3 percent of the public libraries in Japan.

HOW BOOKS ARE READ BY SCHOOL CHILDREN

The present survey was conducted in 1956 by the Edogawa Ward Publications Council to find out how school children read. The questions were put to 1,519 primary school children (5th graders) and 779 Junior high school students (8th graders).

The results follow with the figures indicating percentages:

A. Reading facilities.

1. Do you have a bookstore, public library or/and school library in your neighborhood (within 30 minutes' walk from home)?

a. Bookstore

	Yes	No	No answer
Graders	49.6	45.8	4.6
Junior Highs	63.0	34.7	2.3

b. Rental bookstore

	Yes	No	No answer
Graders	56.9	39.2	3.9
Junior Highs	67.3	27.1	5.6

c. School library

	Yes	No	No answer
Graders	85.5	14.5	0
Junior Highs	100.0	0	0

d. Public library (There were then two public libraries in the Ward, but now three.)

	Yes	No	No answer
Graders	20.8	72.1	7.1
Junior Highs	24.4	62.0	13.6

2. Have you ever borrowed books from rental bookstores?

	Yes	No	No answer
Graders	60.2	38.9	0.9
Junior Highs	70.9	28.1	0.4

The high percentage of the users indicates the popularity of rental bookstores in contrast to the figures below.

3. Have you ever borrowed books from libraries?

	Yes	No	No answer
Graders	52.9	45.9	1.2
Junior Highs	62.3	34.4	3.3

4. Do you have your own desk at home?

	Yes	No	No answer
Graders	58.8	39.7	1.5
Junior Highs	73.8	24.1	2.1

B. Materials used.

1. The school children surveyed used during the previous month as follows:

a. Graders (1519 answered.)

	Vols.	Percentage	Monthly average per person
Comics	1832	37.8	1.2
Magazines	1725	35.6	1.1
Books	1294	26.6	0.9
Total	4851	100.0	3.2

b. Junior Highs (779 answered.)

	Vols.	Percentage	Monthly average per person
Comics	254	13.3	0.3
Magazines	493	25.9	0.6
Books	1158	60.8	1.5
Total	1905	100.0	2.4

It is noted that school children usually read a far greater quantity of comics than the above figures show, because 50 to 80% of the space of a Japanese children's magazine is occupied by comic strips.

2. How were these books made available?

Of the books read, 27.5% of those by the graders and 23.8% of those by the junior high school students had been borrowed from friends. The next highest answer was, "My family got them for me, or I bought them out of my pocket money." Only 10.5% of the books the graders read and 28.8% for the junior highs were from the shelves of their school library or from the neighboring public library. According to the above percentage, the junior high group used the libraries almost three times as often as the younger group.

3. Favorite comics.

Boys are generally fond of comics in which fighting, adventure, crime detection or any combination of these elements are the main feature, while girls like those treating of home life. Among the comic books, many are indecent, posing an educational problem in children's reading guidance.

4. Magazines.
   Roughly speaking, there are two kinds of magazines for children, one being recreational in nature, with comics as featured contents, and the other serving as aids to school work. Graders prefer the former kind to the latter, but the junior highs prefer the latter because they have to prepare for the entrance examinations of senior high school.
5. General books.
   Books read by graders are shown below in percentage: stories and fiction 65%; biography 23%; non-fiction 11.6%. Junior highs' favorites were stories and fiction, 93%, with 5.7% taken up by other subjects.
   Non-fiction occupies a third of the juvenile publications in Japan, but, as this survey indicates, the reading of it is relatively low. At public libraries, however, the ratio of circulation between fiction and non-fiction is generally 6:4.

Conclusions:

1. Good books are not readily available to school children.
2. Good books are available to them mostly through the libraries.
3. Good, recommendable books are more expensive than comic books, and therfeore many parents cannot well afford to get them for their children.
4. Rental bookstores are not willing to shelve expensive good books because of the cost and the slow turn-over.
5. Thus, the greatest result obtained from the survey is the recognition of the educational role public and school libraries should play as agencies for the circulation of good books.

REFERENCE SERVICES OF THE NATIONAL DIET LIBRARY

Yasumasa Oda & Heihachiro Suzuki
National Diet Library

ORGANIZATION OF RESOURCES

A. *Central Library*—The National Diet Library, created by a law enacted on February 9, 1948, was opened to the public in June of that year with a somewhat miscellaneous collection of 230,000 volumes assembled from various sources. By March of this year, this central collection had grown to 1,285,066 volumes covering all fields of knowledge, stronger in some fields than in others but well along toward adequacy in meeting most general and many specialized needs.

Important among its holdings are the copies deposited with it, as required by law, of virtually every publication—governmental, commercial and institutional—issued in Japan during the past ten years. Older Japanese materials, acquired mostly through purchase and donation, are also substantial. Foreign materials include those deposited by the United Nations and its specialized

agencies, such as UNESCO, WHO and FAO, by the United States Atomic Energy Commission, by the Rand Corporation and other organizations. Also from abroad are the books, periodicals and documents, many of them governmental, obtained through exchanges with the United States, the United Kingdom, Canada, the USSR, Germany and other countries. Such exchanges last year gave the library 8,684 volumes and 1,941 periodicals from 45 countries and 258 foreign institutions, of which 35 percent came from the United States. Other foreign materials have been purchased. In 1958, the expenditure on them totalled ¥25,937,479 ($72,048), of which ¥17,291,249 went for 457 new books, 108 old books and 1,000 periodicals in science and technology, which in the past few years have received greater attention, and of which the remainder was spent for 3,728 new books, 148 old books and 449 periodicals in all other fields. The library's holdings are enriched by a number of special collections, most of which have been donated to it out of recognition that in its possession they would be of maximum benefit to scholars and the general public. They include:

1. The Meiji Constitution Collection: about 100,000 documents and other materials relating to the Meiji Constitution of 1889 and ancillary subjects formerly in the possession of such Meiji era leaders as Sanjo, Iwakura, Ito, Okubo, Katsura, Inoue and Makino.

2. The Fujiyama Collection: about 52,000 fundamental works on China assembled by the late Raita Fujiyama, prominent businessman.

3. East Asia Institute Collection: about 28,000 volumes on Chinese law, politics, economics and social conditions.

4. South Manchuria Railway Company Collection: about 23,000 volumes used for reference and research by the defunct South Manchuria Railway Company.

5. The Rockefeller Foundation Gift: 4,508 volumes divided into selected American publications issued since 1940, especially in the fields of literature and the natural and social sciences, and Slavic studies published in the United States, Britain, France and Germany.

6. Reports of the Publications Board of the United States Department of Commerce: about 100,000 items on microfilm or in photo copies purchased to further studies in industry and technology.

B. Branch Libraries—The library has thirty-three "branches," all controlled by it in varying ways but otherwise functioning somewhat autonomously. The largest of these is the former Imperial Library at Ueno, established in 1872, which has not only the national deposit copies of copyrighted publications of the past but also rich materials in classical literature and many Tokugawa period documents. Its budget, acquisitions and reference work are controlled by the central library, but so far no steps have been taken to integrate its large collection with the central collection. The Seikado Library, with a notable collection of rare Chinese books nad some Japanese materials, the Oriental Library (Toyo Bunko), outstanding in foreign-language materials on Asian countries, especially China, and the Okurayama Science of Culture Library, specializing in the humanities, with emphasis on the Orient, have their operating expenses defrayed by the National Diet Library but continue to belong to private foundations. The other twenty-nine "branches" are the libraries of executive and judicial

agencies of the Government. The National Diet Library appoints their librarians and endeavors to coordinate their services. All are essential specialized libraries with resources built up over many years, such as those of the Statistics Bureau, the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, the Finance Ministry and the Patent Office, which are important adjuncts to the National Diet Library.

REFERENCE SERVICES

The Reference Division of the National Diet Library has eight sections—General, Humanities, Social Sciences, Law and Politics, Science and Technology, Asian Materials, Readers and Stack, and Serial Publications. Employed in these sections are forty reference librarians. They handle all inquiries except those originating in the Diet. In 1958, mail inquiries totalled 1,164, of which 30 percent, it is interesting to note, came from other libraries. Inquiries made in person or by phone during the same year numbered about 16,000, exclusive of simple routine questions.

For the Diet, reference work is handled for the most part by the Legislative Reference and Research Department, which has thirteen sections and a staff of 140 persons. Its main functions are to advise on and assist in the analysis or evaluation of any subject before the Diet, to provide data essential to deliberations in the Diet and to collect and analyze legislative and related materials to be made available to Diet members.

A. *Problems*—There is a dearth of reference tools for the use of Japanese materials, especially subject indexes and bibliographies, with the consequence that reference service is limited by the personal competence of each reference librarian, his or her subject knowledge, familiarity with materials and ingenuity or imagination. To illustrate this, let us take a request received by the Reference Division for a list of materials relating to old Japanese glass. It was referred to a librarian in the Science and Technology Section, who established that there was no bibliography on this subject. An encyclopedia was found which gave a brief history of Japanese glass but mentioned no source materials. A book on Japanese glass proved equally unsatisfactory. To compile the requested list, the librarian had to read histories of the Japanese glass industry, science, fine arts, industrial arts, industry in the feudal age and local areas where glass was produced.

Another example of the difficulty caused by lack of adequate reference tools may be seen in what happened when an inquirer asked for the proper reading of a title written in Chinese characters which might be read in various ways. Nothing was known about the title, what it was or by whom it had been written. Sino-Japanese dictionaries yielded no clue. Perhaps the reading was *Kifukiya Nikki*, but it might be something quite different. Whatever the reading, apparently the book, if it was a book, was not listed in the library's catalog. Eventually, a specialist on Japanese literature was found who had the answer. The correct reading was *Ibukinoya Nikki* ("Diary of Ibukinoya"), and Ibukinoya was a pen-name of the famous classical scholar, Hirata Atsutane. The inquirer now wanted to see this work. Further investigation established that it never had been published as a separate title but was given in "A Study

of Hirata Atsutane" as an appendix. This book the library had. The card catalog had been of no help earlier in the search because without analytical cards. As most Japanese libraries lack analytical cards in their public and official catalogs, a reference problem such as this is almost insuperable for even a well trained general librarian. It requires an omniscient subject specialist.

The results of such reference "pioneering" often have value as information for use in other reference work, and therefore the Reference Division publishes from time to time some of its bibliographical findings. Other information not available or difficult to find in printed form is compiled on cards, such as indexes to reference materials in books and periodicals, bibliographies, biographies, portraits, local histories, Japanese translations of English and American literature, industrial arts and company histories. As there is no Japanese newspaper index, the Serials Section maintains a selective newspaper clipping file.

Reference inquiries which cannot be answered in the central library or the Ueno branch may be referred to other branches of the library or to special libraries. To facilitate such referral, the Reference Division published a few years ago a directory of special collections.

The inadequacy of tools, however, is not the only problem in the reference work of the library. Time and energy often must be dissipated on questions which should have been addressed to and handled by local libraries. Some of these are purely informational, but there are even requests from students who want the library to do all the research for graduation theses. As many of these as possible are politely referred back to the libraries responsible for serving the inquirers, sometimes with instructions to or suggestions for the librarians on how to answer the questions. It must be recognized, though, that even in many university libraries, which may have but few reference tools, let alone separate reference sections, students do not have easy access to materials or help in using them.

B. *Union Catalog*—Frequently the National Diet Library is asked by school and special libraries and individual researchers where certain materials may be found. To inform them is not always easy, for there is no comprehensive union catalog listing national, regional or even local holdings. As a step toward overcoming this serious lack, the National Diet Library is working on a union catalog of the foreign books of sixteen major university libraries and two large public libraries in addition to the National Diet Library itself. Already in existence, compiled by other organizations, are a few smaller union lists covering for the most part foreign periodicals and books. As yet, there are no useful union lists of Japanese materials.

In searching for a title which it cannot locate through such catalogs as are available to it, the library must phone or write to other libraries which the previously mentioned director of special collections gives reason to believe might have it. If no copy of a vitally needed book or periodical can be found in Japan, the library endeavors to ascertain whether a microfilm or other photographic copy can be obtained from a library abroad.

C. *Interlibrary Loans*—The National Diet Library promotes and engages in interlibrary loans. In 1958, it sent out on loan, 4,923 volumes to its branch libraries and 5,599 volumes to other libraries and institutions. So far, no arrange-

ments have been made for loans to and from libraries in the rest of the world.

D. International Services—In addition to administering the international book exchange service for Japan, the National Diet Library provides microfilming for foreign libraries and institutions. Last year, 12,000 frames of microfilm were sent abroad, of which 75 percent went to the United States. Primarily for the convenience of foreign libraries, the *Directory of Japanese Learned Periodicals* was published last year, and also for them the *Indo-Pacific Exchange Newsletter* is issued quarterly. To UNESCO is sent each year the Japanese information required for its *Index Translationum* and a report on bibliographical services.

In response to inquiries from foreign libraries and institutions, the library in recent years has made many extensive and definitive compilations, of which the following are typical:

List of books on Belgium in Japanese
List of Japanese translations of Rabindranath Tagore's works and books on him in Japanese
List of books on Yugoslavia in Japanese and other Asian languages
List of Japanese translation of Jack London's works and articles on him in Japanese
List of Japanese translations of D. H. Lawrence's works
A selected list of Japanese historical periodicals (for the *World List of Historical Periodicals*)

REFERENCE DIVISION

1. Chief Reference Librarian: Michio Harada, Director, Reference Division; Former Librarian, Okurayama Branch Lib.
2. Organization: General Reference Section (Akasaka Central Lib.); Ueno Branch Unit (Ueno Branch Lib.); Humanities Sect. (Akasaka Central Lib.); Social Science Sect. (Miyakezaka Branch Lib.); Law and Politics Sect. (Miyakezaka Branch Lib.); Science and Technology Sect. (Akasaka Central Lib.); Asian Material Sect. (Akasaka Central Lib.); Periodical Publication Sect. (Akasaka Central Lib.); Stack and Readers Sect. (Akasaka Central Lib.).
3. Reference Staff: Full time 40, Part time 2.
   a) Staff manual: "How to handle reference inquiries"
   b) In-service training: none
4. Reference collection:
   a) Number of volumes: General 1,000, Humanities 3,500, Social Science 2,500, Science and Technology 1,700, Asian Material 800, Ueno Branch 3,600.
   b) Separate budget ¥1,500,000.
   c) Special tools: Each section has
      1) Bound volumes of records of correspondence of bibliographical and other informational reference services.
      2) A card file of indexes to the above mentioned records as well as card & records of reference questions and answers given at

the desk or by telephone.

3) Indexes to reference sources, especially bibliographies contained in books and periodicals.

4) Vertical file.

Miscellaneous tools: Indexes to bibliographies and portraits, laws of Asian countries, foreign statistics, card catalogs of local histories, American and English literature, Western literature translated in Japanese, chronicles of Japanese companies, parliamentary politics of foreign countries, and chemical industries.

d) Selection: A committee consisting of representatives from each section selects both Japanese and foreign reference books.

5. Handling of questions

a) Recorded number in 1958:

By person and telephone	15,075
By mail	1,164

b) Priority order: Diet members, Government agencies, non-government organizations, libraries and research workers.

Limited answers: School assignments and graduate theses, quiz and puzzles, medical and legal advices. Translations from or into foreign languages.

c) Compiling bibliographies: Personal requests are not accepted except from Diet members. Requests from organizations are accepted wherever possible.

d) Disposal of unanswered questions: When the Library resources are exhausted without getting answers, the requests are referred to other specialized libraries or specialists.

LIST OF PUBLICATIONS

1. Principal bibliographies and indexes published by the National Diet Library:

Accession Lists

Chosen-Chugoku Tosho Sokuho (Accession list of Chinese and Korean publications) 1956– bimonthly

Nohon Shuho (Current publications) 1948– weekly

Shusho Tsuho (Current acquisitions) 1948– annual

Tonan Ajia Shiryo Sokuho (Accession list of Southeast Asian publications) 1957– semimonthly

Yosho Sokuho (Accession list of Foreign language publications) 1956– semimonthly

National Bibliographies

Zennihon Shuppanbutsu Somokuroku (Japanese national bibliography) 1951 (for 1948)– annual

Government Publication Lists

Kancho Kankobutsu Sogo Mokuroku (Union list of government publications) 1952 (for 1945-48)– annual

List of Japanese government publications in European languages, 1945-55. 1956. 60p.

Chiiho Kokyodantai Kankobutsu Mokuroku-ko (List of Japanese local government publications) 1955. 73p.

Union Lists

Chugoku Chihoshi Soroku-ko (Union list of Chinese local history) 1950-58, 14 vols.

Genshiryoku Genshikaku Kankeikikan-shozo Gakujyutsu Zasshi Sogo Mokuroku (Union list of scientific and technical periodicals possessed by the institutions in the field of nuclear science) Rev. ed. 1958. 81p.

Shibutoshokan Tosho Sogo Mokuroku (Union list of current acquisitions of the Branch libraries) 1954(for 1952)– annual

Todofuken Tokeisho Sogo Mokuroku (Union list of the statistics issued by the Japanese local governments) 1958. 129p.

Tonan Ajia Kankei Shiryo Sogo Mokuroku (Union list of materials on Southeast Asia) Rev. ed. 1958. 240p.

Directories

Nihon Gakujyutsuzasshi Mokuroku (Directory of Japanese learned periodicals) 1957-58. 3 vols..

Zenkoku Tokushu Korekushon Yoran (Directory of special collections in Japan) 1957. 130p.

Indexes

Nihon Horei Sakuin (Index to the Japanese laws and regulations in force) 1949– annual

Zasshi Kiji Sakuin (Japanese periodicals index) 1948– quarterly

Subject Bibliographies

Meiji-Taisho-Showa Honyaku Bunken Mokuroku (List of western literature translated in Japanese since the Meiji Restoration) in process, about 800p.

Nihonkoku Kenpo Kankei Bunken Mokuroku (Bibliography on the Japanese Constitution) 1954. 60p.

Nomin-undo Kankei Bunken Mokuroku (Bibliography on the farmer movement in Japan) 1956. 177p.

Sankotosho Sogo Mokuroku (List of reference books in the Central Library of the National Diet Library) 1955. 410p.

Sengo ni okeru Kyoiku Kankei Ronbun Mokuroku (List of articles on education issued after World War II) 1954. 70p.

Senkyo-seido Kankei Bunken Mokuroku (Bibliography on the election system) 1956. 108p.

Shogaikoku Seito-kankei Bunken Mokuroku (Bibliography on the political parties in foreign countries) 1954. 45p.

Tonan Ajia Chiiki Kanko Shinbun Zasshi Mokuroku (List of the periodicals published in Southeast Asia) 1954. 117p.

II. Catalogs of exhibitions recently held by the National Diet Library. (Chronological arrangement)

Kenpo Shiryo Tenjikai (Catalog of the exhibition of the Japanese

constitutional materials) 1951. 131p.
Shuppan Bunka Tenjikai (Catalog of the exhibition, "History of Japanese Publications") 1952. 131p.
Me de miru Sekai no Toshokan (Catalog of the exhibition on libraries of the world) 1953. 25p.
Gaikoku-jin no Nihon Kenkyu (An annotated catalog of the exhibition of materials on the study of Japan by foreigners) 1954. 58p.
Yogaku Kotohajime-Ten (Catalog of the books exhibited at "Yogaku Kotohajime Ten", earlier phases of the Western civilization in Japan) 1954. 72p.
Nihon no Jisho Tenjikai (An annotated catalog of the exhibition of Japanese Dictionaries) 1955. 38p.
Meiji no Minshu to Bunka (Catalog of the exhibition of publications in the Meiji Era) 1956. 44p.
Sekai no Shoshi Tenjikai (An annotated catalog of the exhibition of bibliographies in the world) 1957. 72p.
Kancho Kankobutsu Tenjikai (Catalog of the exhibition of Japanese government publications) 1958. 75p.

JAPANESE UNIVERSITY AND COLLEGE LIBRARY PROBLEMS

Sumio Goto
Nihon University Library
and
Toshio Iwazaru
Kyoto University Library

GENERAL PROBLEMS

There are, according to the Ministry of Education, 239 universities and colleges in Japan, of which 72 are national, 32 municipal, and 135 private. Enrolled in them are 563,700 undergraduate and 1,430 graduate students. Their faculty members total more than 40,000. All have libraries, for which minimum requirements are prescribed in the national accreditation standards. Though varying widely in size, organization, personnel, physical equipment and utilization, they have in common certain problems, some of which they share with other types of libraries and others of which stem from the nature and concepts of the institutions which they serve. A few of these will here be outlined briefly.

A. *Function*—Librarians and others who appreciate the part which libraries can play in the educational process are disturbed about the failure of many professors, perhaps the majority, to take them into account in their teaching

and encourage students to use them. The problem, of course, is basically one of educational concepts and teaching methods, and yet it has an important bearing on the university and college libraries and the manner in which they function. The drastic changes which have come about in primary and secondary educational methods in Japan since the war have not been paralleled at higher levels. As of old, especially in such subjects as economics, law and business administration, it is usual for professors to instruct solely through lectures, which they may give to as many as eight hundred students at a time. All that is required of the students is that they demonstrate in their examinations that they know what was in the lectures, preferably by having virtually memorized them from exhaustive notes. Collateral or supplementary reading rarely is suggested. And examination questions are not framed to allow answers reflecting what might have been learned through reading.

Professors who teach in this way and administrators who endorse such teaching obviously will not attach much importance to the library as a source of materials for use by undergraduates or to the development by it of services for undergraduates. They will look upon it as primarily for the faculty, for those who prepare lectures and engage in scholarly research. They will resent any initiative by the librarians to contribute to the educational process or to the intellectual advancement of young men and women.

B. Organization—The university or college with a single library serving all departments and all purposes is exceptional. Counting independent departmental libraries, of which there are more than 120 in one university alone, the 239 universities and colleges have about 512 libraries. More often than not, the so-called main or central library has no comprehensive record of the holdings of the departmental libraries, and the compilation of a complete university catalog would be difficult because of lack of uniformity in the classification systems of the central and the departmental libraries. Many departmental libraries have their own budgets and do their own purchasing and cataloging. In some schools, professors are permitted to purchase out of research funds, not library funds, books for their own research projects which may or may not be placed in departmental libraries. Duplicates and triplicates of books seldom used are common.

Even in a structurally satisfactory library system, with centralized control, the librarian is likely to be hobbled by the earmarking of most of the budget for materials wanted for faculty research. Last year, for example, the central library of Kyoto University had to expend 95 percent of its book and periodical funds on materials selected not by itself but by faculty members individually or in groups. With only 5 percent left for its own choices, it had to ignore general university needs. Instead of applying professional skills to book selection, it found itself purchasing, cataloging and handing over to faculty members the books they had demanded.

C. Financial Support—Seventeen new university library buildings have been constructed during the past three years, but the libraries of most of the older universities are seriously handicapped by the inadequacies of their housing and equipment. Though most of them have drafted plans for remodeling or new construction, they have received no encouragement from the university authorities,

who in present circumstances are not inclined to bestir themselves to find funds for such purposes.

When library budgets are increased, the additional money is for book purchases or possibly some slight improvement of facilities. Nothing is allowed for more or better personnel. In the national universities, staff expansion would require not only a larger appropriation but also amendment of the law fixing the size of their library staffs. Because of the reluctance of the authorities to press such legislation, there is growing disparity from year to year between the unchanging appropriation for personnel and the rising amount for books and periodicals, which of course entails a heavier work load. The Kyoto University Library, for instance, added materials in the past three fiscal years as shown in the following chart:

Fiscal year	Expenditures for books, periodicals (in dollars)	Titles added	Size of the collection
1956–57	$172,052	40,918	1,931,474
1957–58	$185,000	38,074	1,969,548
1958–59	$248,292	53,274	2,022,822

Gratifying though it was to have the collection grow, all available staff members were compelled to concentrate on cataloging and shelving books at the expense of serving users of the library.

D. Misunderstanding—Professors and other faculty members usually cling to the old notion that a library is a book storehouse and that librarians are custodians from whom books must be wrested against their will. The library should contain, they think, only what they need in their research. Such material is in it for their use and for their use alone. When they "borrow" books, they have no compunctions about keeping them for years. On the other hand, librarians tend to look upon faculty members as enemies to the proper preservation of materials. If the professors are at fault in failing to appreciate librarianship, the librarians may be at fault in lacking the professional training which would enable them to serve the needs of faculty members satisfactorily and smoothly. There thus is a vicious circle of misunderstanding.

E. Personnel—The staffs of our university and college libraries add up to a total of 3,627 persons. Those at the top, the library directors, are professors who usually have been elected by their faculties or may have been appointed by their presidents or deans. In the larger universities, there may be also associate directors or librarians elected or appointed in the same way from among the professors. Their terms of office are from one to four years. Direction of the library does not release such a professor from his teaching duties. However, he has a full-time executive assistant who actually administers the library. Except for this executive assistant, who has faculty status, the staff members are classified as "non-professional secretaries" and therefore are not required to have had professional training. In other words, university administrations have not yet given recognition to librarianship as a profession. It follows that new staff members need considerable in-service training. Even if there are senior members qualified to give the training, they are likely to be too absorbed in cataloging and shelving books to have time for it. Thus the new staff members must learn

from their only slightly more experienced colleagues and by trial and error.

BARRIERS TO LIBRARY SERVICES

Stipulated as the major duties of the reference departments of the libraries of Tokyo and Kyoto Universities are the following: to assist students in use of the card catalog, to give instruction in the use of reference collections, to provide bibliographical information, to prepare reserve books, to handle inter-library loans, and to render microfilming service. They sound impressive. In reality, however, these duties are fulfilled only in part. They are neglected or carried out inadequately for the simple reason that the staffs are not large enough or well enough trained. Staff inadequacy is probably the most serious of all the problems which confront the administration of our university and college libraries. The connection between the quality of library services and the quality of the persons in charge of them has yet to be acknowledged by university administrations. When it is observed that a good university library collection is not being used to much advantage, the usual explanation is that it must be poorly organized. Poor organization is all too likely to be true, but administrative officials are reluctant to recognize that fully qualified professional librarians would know how to reform the organization and bring about more and better services commensurate with the content of the collection and the needs of the university.

As already has been mentioned, the processing of acquisitions is progressively consuming more of the time and energy of the typical university library staff, leaving less and less for serving those who would use the library. This results from not only the purchase of greater quantities of materials but also the use of cumbersome and complex special classification schemes and cataloging systems. Among their other disadvantages, such classification systems need more manpower than would a standard system. Printed cards, if they can be used at all, must be modified for them. Catalog entries for Western books can be typed quickly, but those for Japanese materials require the writing by hand of the pertinent Japanese characters, which must be done slowly and carefully to ensure their legibility.

Were our libraries ideally staffed and organized, however, there still would be serious handicaps in providing reference services. Though there are many Japanese lists and indexes which are useful in book selection and reference work, lacking are such basic tools as a comprehensive union catalog of books and periodicals and a reliable guide to reference books and literature in subject fields. The librarian is forced to organize knowledge of various resources in his or her own head, and such knowledge is gained only by feverish questing in all directions.

It would be wrong to leave the impression that there is a heavy demand within the universities and colleges for services which the libraries are unable to satisfy. Just as administrative officials lack understanding of the full range and importance of what libraries could contribute to higher education, so are professors and students lacking in realization of what even the existing imperfect libraries might do for them. Many libraries maintain reference rooms or corners where Japanese and foreign dictionaries, encyclopedias, yearbooks, directories, bibliographies and other basic reference materials are on open shelves and may

be consulted easily. Some students make considerable use of them, but most of them seem to be ignorant of their significance. They never have had any instruction in or experience with libraries and their materials and services. In their own interests, they need to be enlightened. And their enlightenment undoubtedly requires capable professional librarians who can make students really interested in using libraries.

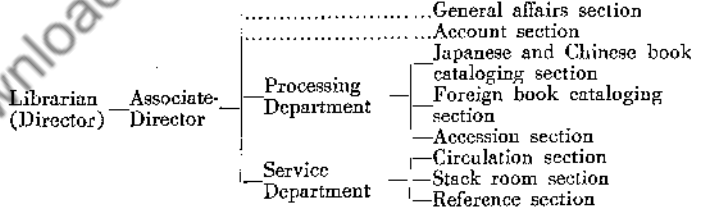
LIBRARY TRENDS

Despite their many problems, the university and college libraries have a few bright spots. Though library-minded faculty members seldom are found in most of the humanities and social sciences, growing numbers of younger faculty members and research workers in technology, medicine and other physical and biological sciences are beginning to appreciate what libraries can offer, especially in bibliographical reference work, and are advocating that they be modernized and expanded. And into the universities and colleges are coming students who have had experience in using library materials in the secondary and even some primary schools. They expect good library services and demand that they be provided.

There also is improvement in in-service training of library staff members through institutes, workshops and group studies supported by university libraries and other interested organizations. And in these, it is gratifying to note, the emphasis has shifted from technical processing to library services. Reference tools, though still far from adequate, are becoming available in greater numbers. Probably more significant than anything else is the mounting conviction of librarians themselves that libraries must give priority to development of the reference service, for through it they can be of maximum usefulness to both faculty members and students.

Kyoto University Library

1. Location: Yoshida-honmachi, Sakyo-ku, Kyoto
2. Founded: 1899
3. Librarian: Kanetomo Tanaka, b. 1900. Professor of Faculty of Law
4. General organization:



5.2 University Library
   a) Faculty members 915
   b) Enrollment 9,073
   c) Department Library
      Faculty of Law Library
      Faculty of Economics Library
      Faculty of Letters Library

Faculty of Medicine Library
Faculty of Agriculture Library
School of Liberal Arts and Sciences Library
Research Institute for Humanistic Studies Library
Faculty of Education Library

6. Size of collection: 2,022,822 (March 31, 1959)
7. Circulation: (Central Library) 33,678 volumes (1958)
8. Personnel: (Central Library) Full-time professional 23; Non-professional 30
9. Budget: (Central Library) Total $46,788 (1958); Personnel $30,789; Materials $7,800
10. Open hours: Week days: 9 a.m.–8 p.m.; Saturdays: 9 a.m.–5 p.m.
11. General remarks: Special collections; History of medical science in Japan and China; Chinese Tripitaka; Collection of Japanese Buddhist texts, and many other books and manuscripts designated as important national treasures.

Nihon University Library

1. Location: (Main Library) 2-8 Nishi-Kanda, Chiyoda-ku, Tokyo
2. Foundation date: 1890
3. Librarian: Director of University Library, Satoshi Saito (1898–) Professor of College of Law.
4. General Organization: Director
   Associate Libn. ..... Order & Acquisition
   ..... Circulation
   Assistant Libn. ..... Catalog (Foreign Books)
   Assist. to the Direct. ..... Catalog (Japanese & Chinese Books)
5. a) Special features: The area where the university is located, Kanda, has many other large private universities and colleges and is the center for publishers, book binders, and book shops, especially second-hand book stores.

5.2 a) Faculty members: 1,537
b) Enrollment: 36,866
c) College libraries: Law, Economics, Commerce, Medicine, Dentistry, Engineering, Humanities & Sciences, Agriculture & Veterinary, Arts.

6. Total no. of volumes: 430,000 (Main Library, 140,000)
7. Circulation: No record
8. Personnel: Total full-time 80 (Main Library, prof. 15, non-prof. 16)
9. Budget: Materials ¥30,000,000 (Main Library ¥6,000,000)
10. Open hours: (Main Library) Week days 9:00–9:00 p.m.; Saturdays 9:00–9:00 p.m.; Sundays & Holidays Closed

Reference Services (Nihon University Library)

1. Chief Reference Librarian: Vacant
2. General organization: There is no section for reference service, but questions are received and answered by the catalog department. Professors come directly to the department, while students ask questions at the circulation desk. The staff at the desk give as many answers as they can, but questions likely to require much research are referred to the catalog department. Enquiries come from college libraries to the catalog depart-

ment of the Main Library by telephone. By 1960 two professional librarians are expected to be employed for the reference service. Until then, reference work is not being organized and little is being done about reference tools.

3. Personnel: None at present.
4. Collection:
   a) (In Main Library) about 2,000 reference books (in the stacks)
   b) Separate budget: no.
   c) Special tools: no.
   d) Selection: reference books are also selected by the order department.
5. Handling of questions:
   a) Number per day: Person, 1 to 2; telephone, 2 to 3; mail, very seldom
6. Lending reference books: no.
7. Other activities: no.
8. Reference room plan: no.

SCIENCE COUNCIL OF JAPAN LIBRARY AND ITS REFERENCE SERVICE

Haruki Amatsuchi
National Diet Library,
formerly Japan Science Council

CHARACTER AND FUNCTIONS OF SCIENCE COUNCIL OF JAPAN

The Science Council of Japan Library, one of twenty-nine libraries of executive and judicial agencies of the Government which are loosely designated branches of the National Diet Library but for all practical purposes an independent library, takes its character and functions from those of the organization which it serves, the Science Council of Japan (hereafter referred to as the JSC). Established by law, the JSC promotes science and its permeation into all areas of national life, including administration and industry. It is required to deliberate on important scientific matters, to seek implementation of its decisions and to enhance the effectiveness of scientific research through coordination. It represents Japanese scientists both at home and abroad. With such functions, the JSC obviously must be and is a reference agency as much as it is anything else.

STRUCTURE AND MEMBERSHIP

The JSC has seven divisions, each with thirty scientists qualified to speak authoritatively for a specialized area of scientific knowledge and on whom a

librarian may call for help in answering reference questions. All fields are encompassed, including the humanities, social sciences, natural sciences and technology. Also within the JSC are many national committees paralleling international organizations in which Japan participates, such as the National Committee for the International Council for Scientific Union. The members of these committees, all specialists appointed by the JSC President, are further sources of assistance in providing information.

THE LIBRARY

A. Resources—Most of the collection has been acquired in exchange for JSC publications, which include fifteen periodicals, sent to 3,804 scientific institutions in seventy-two foreign countries, as well as to many in Japan. Two of these are index journals, *The Japan Annual of Law and Politics* and *Annual Report on the Progress of Agriculture in Japan. Japan Science Review-Medical Sciences* presents abstracts. There also are periodicals devoted to such subjects as botany, geology and geography, geophysics, the ionosphere, mathematics, oceanography and zoology. Among other publications is *List of Engineers, a Who's Who of Japanese Engineers.* The materials received in exchange for these are voluminous and wide in range, and many of them are not duplicated elsewhere in Japan, making them especially valuable as sources of information for other libraries in the compilation of index journals and union lists. Publications essential to the library which are not available through exchanges are purchased, but their volume is limited by an annual book budget of only ¥371,000 ($1,030).

B. Reference Services—When an inquiry comes in, the reference librarians first seek the desired information in the library's own materials. If what they find is inadequate, they solicit the help of division or committee members who are specialists in the areas to which the inquiry pertains. Recently the library was asked for information about studies of women's hair. When nothing could be found, the request was referred to a member of the Medical and Pharmaceutical Division. Within a day he had compiled for the library a list of twenty-three titles. Not always is it so fortunate. Often a question of special specificness has to be referred to a research institute known to be concerned with such a matter. Or help may be asked of the Tokyo University Library, the National Diet Library and other libraries, all of which are cooperative but which, like the JSC Library itself, are likely to be handicapped by the inadequacy of indexes for narrow and abstruse subjects. All in all, the library seems to obtain the best results by relying on JSC specialists. It does not follow, however, that it always is successful in its endeavors to provide complete and accurate answers quickly.

PROBLEMS CONCERNING REFERENCE EFFICIENCY

A. Natural Science Reference Tools—Reference work in the natural sciences is crippled by the shortcomings of such basic tools as the *National Bibliography*, the *Union Catalog of Executive and Judicial Branch Libraries* and the *Catalog of Foreign Periodicals.* These are all valuable and indispensable, but the first lists publications only two years or more after their issuance; the second omits entirely the holdings of some branch libraries and its entries do not always conform

to those in the *National Bibliography*, and the third gives only those periodicals found in large university libraries. Even the index and abstract periodicals of the JSC are marred by incompleteness. We are desperately in need of better reference tools.

B. Lack of Understanding—Administrative officials are relatively indifferent toward libraries and their reference services. In consequence, the budget allocations for libraries of organizations such as the JSC are woefully small. Their inadequacy inevitably limits the quality and effectiveness of reference services.

C. Low Status of Librarians—The position of chief librarian of a library like that of the JSC usually is honorary and is filled by a man whose real responsibilities are as head of the research or document section of a ministry. Moreover, direct supervision of the library staff is likely to be entrusted not to a professional librarian but to an official with the rank of sub-section chief. The professional librarians in subordinate positions find themselves working for men who are without the training to understand and help with the solution of their problems. The effect on morale is obvious. The JSC Library is exceptionally fortunate in having full section status with its own section chief able to devote himself to it exclusively.

D. Shortage of Trained Librarians—Apart from the treatment accorded librarians, there are not enough professionally trained and fully qualified reference librarians to fill the positions requiring them. As a result, much reference work must be handled by librarians who, however conscientious and industrious, cannot function effectively. At the same time, training of them on the job and checking of their findings reduces the volume of reference work which can be done by their better qualified associates.

CONCLUSION

The JSC Library, not the largest by any means but one of the larger science libraries of Japan, is striving despite serious handicaps to provide increasingly important reference services. Until adequately financed and staffed, it must depend heavily on the cooperation of other libraries which themselves have debilitating problems.

EDUCATION FOR LIBRARIANSHIP IN JAPAN

Takahisa Sawamoto
Japan Library School,
Keio-Gijiku University

INTRODUCTION OF WESTERN LIBRARIANSHIP

Japan has had libraries at least since the beginning of the eighth century,

when the Zushoryo, the Bureau of Books and Drawings, was established in the Government. There must have developed some way of training library workers, but unfortunately not enough is known about it to warrant any attempt to describe or comment on it. Quite possibly it was based on Chinese experience.

Until about the Meiji Restoration (1867), information about contemporary librarianship in Western countries did not reach Japan. Yukichi Fukuzawa, well known as the founder of Keio-Gijuku, visited Western countries in 1860 and 1863, and his observations on Western libraries in the first volume of his *Seiyo Jijo* ("Information about Western Countries"), published in 1866, are regarded as the first about them in Japanese.

Mr. Fujimaro Tanaka, an official of the Ministry of Education, who had been dispatched to Western countries from 1871 to 1873, took with him in 1876 to America Mr. Seiichi Tejima, librarian of the Tokyo Library, the antecedent of the Imperial Library at Ueno. In the report he published on his trip, he described Western libraries and suggested a free public library service for Japan. Later, Mr. Tejima had Mr. Inagi Tanaka go to the United States to study librarianship from 1887 to 1890. On his return, Mr. Tanaka, the first Japanese to engage formally in such study, succeeded Mr. Tejima. From then until 1940, quite a few librarians went to Europe and/or America for training and contributed to Japanese librarianship not only by putting into practice what they had learned but also by writing articles and giving lectures. In Japan, training comparable to that which they received abroad was not available. Most librarians became librarians through apprenticeship in the libraries which employed them.

TRAINING COURSES OR INSTITUTES FOR IN-SERVICE LIBRARIANS

Prior to the beginning of regular institutional training, short courses for in-service librarians began in 1903. The first such course was held in Tokyo in that year for two weeks under the sponsorship of the Japan Library Association, which had been inaugurated in 1893. By 1940, about thirty short courses or institutes had been held in various places, of which seventeen had been sponsored by the Ministry of Education, six by local municipal governmental agencies, and six by the Japan Library Association and its local agencies. These were for the most part general in nature, but in a few instances there were lectures on specific reference books or bibliographical surveys of certain subject fields.

After a wartime hiatus, a one-week course was held at Kyoto in 1948 under the sponsorship of the Kyoto Library School, which had been established in the spring of that year. By this time the Education Division of General MacArthur's Civil Information and Education Section had interested itself in libraries and librarians, and under its auspices institutes for educational leadership in library science were held six times from 1949 to 1951 with the participation of American professional librarians as leaders.

In compliance with the Japan School Library Law, promulgated on August 8, 1953, training institutes for teacher-librarians have been held yearly since 1954 under the sponsorship of the Ministry of Education in more than ten national teacher-training colleges. By the end of 1958, about 13,000 teachers had completed the courses and received eight units of credit to qualify as teacher-

librarians under the law.

TRAINING INSTITUTIONS FOR LIBRARIANS

Training more comprehensive and formal than the brief courses and institutes could provide began on a limited scale in June, 1921, with the establishment of the Ueno Library Training School. Originally at the School of Arts in Ueno, it soon moved into the Imperial Library at Ueno, antecedent of the present Ueno Branch of the National Diet Library. It was under the supervision of the Ministry of Education. Until August, 1947, its admission requirement was low (schooling through the 11th grade), and most of the emphasis in its one-year curriculum was on the practical, mechanical aspects of librarianship. In 1941, because of the war situation, some revisions in the curriculum were made and the period of study was shortened to nine months. And finally for a while it was suspended. In 1947, on the recommendation of Mr. Emmet K. Kinner, a professional librarian with the American occupation forces, the institution could resume its program with a remarkable change in its requirement for admission. Graduation from the old system middle school (11th grade) no longer was enough; applicants had to have completed junior college schooling or its equivalent. The period of study was made longer—two years. Upon enactment of the National Diet Library Law in February, 1948, the Imperial Library at Ueno became a branch of the National Diet Library, and from it the Ueno Library Training School was separated and transferred to the supervision of the Social Education Facilities Section in the Ministry of Education in 1949. This transfer brought a lowering of the admission requirement, providing a two-year program for graduates of senior high schools. However, the earlier training for junior college graduates was resumed in 1954. In 1958, the duration of the training was shortened to one year. Among the courses is one on reference work which carries four credits.

Even before the post-war revival of the Ueno Library Training School, some members of the Library Science Study Group in the Doshisha University Library, Kyoto, established in 1945 a training program under which several courses for young in-service librarians continue to be given. The participants attend every Wednesday for six months, taking courses which last from five to forty hours. Classification and cataloging together cover seventy hours, or about half of the total for the six-month session, while reference work is discussed for only five hours. For admission, applicants must have gone through the senior high school.

Another training institution, called the Kyoto Library School, was established in April, 1948, by the Kyoto Art and Science Association in Kyoto University. It required graduation from senior high school for admission. Beside its regular curriculum, it gave a one-week summer course for school librarians. After graduating 27 students in March, 1949, the school was suspended because of financial difficulties.

EDUCATION FOR LIBRARIANSHIP AT THE UNIVERSITY LEVEL

From 1917 to 1922, Dr. Mankichi Wada, a professor of Tokyo Imperial University and concurrently the university librarian, gave a course in librarian-

ship under the university's Faculty of Literature. This was the first such course and long remained the only one in a Japanese university. When Dr. Wada left, his course was suspended until it was resumed in a different form in April, 1951. In Kyoto University, a regular course in library science was offered under the Faculty of Literature from May, 1948, to March, 1950. It was resumed under the Faculty of Education in October, 1953, and continues to be given. Before 1950, only a few universities had such regular courses, which were concerned mostly with library administration, the history of libraries, cataloging, and related matters. The service concept of libraries and reference work were ignored.

In April of 1951, the Japan Library School of Keio-Gijuku University was established and opened its doors to qualified students from all over the country. For the first time, full-scale professional training in librarianship at the university level became available. Under Professor Robert L. Gitler, who had been recruited by the American Library Association to organize the school, the full-time faculty members were entirely American. They were Mrs. Frances N. Cheney, Miss Bertha Frick, Miss Hannah Hunt, Mr. Edgar Larson, and Miss Jean Taylor (presently Mrs. Boucher). In succession to them came other American faculty members during the formative period of the school: Miss Norma Cass, Mr. and Mrs. Everett T. Moore, Miss Georgia Scaloff, Miss Anne M. Smith, Mrs. Ruth F. Strout, Mr. George S. Bonn and Miss Mabel Turner. Each year, however, in accordance with the original terms of the project, an American was replaced by a carefully selected Japanese full-time resident faculty member. Finally, Director Gitler completed his service with the school in September, 1956. With new assistance of the Rockefeller Foundation, the school then was enabled for five years from 1957 to invite a distinguished library specialist as a visiting professor for a certain period each year. Mr. Guy R. Lyle, Mr. John M. Cory and Miss Alice Lohrer have been the visiting specialists to date under this program.

These Americans not only gave instruction and guidance to the students in their classes but also served as professional consultants for Japanese librarians. Their influence on and contributions to Japanese librarianship were and continue to be tremendous. No progressive steps in this field in recent years have been without their impact—direct or indirect. Especially their assistance to Japanese library leaders through workshops should be highly evaluated, because these leaders spread and furthered the results. To describe their "extra-curricular" efforts would require a long separate paper. In many Japanese libraries, Prof. Gitler and his faculty still may be "seen and heard". As recent evidence of this, the Decennial Anniversary meeting of the Japan School Library Association, held on August 6 of this year, bestowed on Dr. Gitler and Miss Scaloff letters of thanks for their distinguished service to Japanese school-librarianship.

The curriculum of the Japan Library School is very similar to that of outstanding American library schools. Reference services receive attention in material courses carrying a total of sixteen credits, eight of which are given for the basic course, "Informational and bibliographic sources and method, including reference service". Its program is at present the only one that meets the library school standards set up by the Japan University Accrediting Association. It aims to push its high standards even higher. As for results, all new graduates are being easily placed in the library profession, and older graduates are receiving more and more recognition from their institutions. Professional library training has proved

its worth and become firmly established in Japan.

Surveys by the Ministry of Education last year indicated that 73 colleges and universities (excluding junior colleges) throughout Japan were offering from one to forty-six credit units of library science. Fifty-three of these provided courses carrying from one to seven credits; fourteen from eight to fourteen credits; six from fifteen to sixteen credits, and one university forty-six credits.

Apparently the Japan Library Law and the School Library Law have stimulated colleges and universities to provide library science courses carrying eight and fifteen credits respectively. However, the fact cannot be overlooked that the low requirements of these laws are discouraging the development of full professional training programs in Japan.

In April, 1954, the Japan University Accrediting Association set up standards for education for librarianship, requiring that a library school at the university level provide at least six units of fundamental courses, eight units or more of materials courses, eight units or more of technical processing courses, and six units or more of library administration courses, or a total of at least 38 units of professional courses, to be completed by degree candidates. At the present time, there is only one library school accredited by the Association, the Keio Library School, which provides 46 units of professional courses. A few other universities have been trying to develop professional library schools. For example, Toyo University intends to have in a few years a program of 24 units as a subdivision in its applied social science division. The most difficult problem is to obtain satisfactorily qualified professional full-time faculty members. At present, among 142 teachers of library science in colleges and universities only fifteen are full-time.

ESTABLISHMENT OF THE LIBRARY EDUCATION DEPARTMENT IN JLA

During the annual conference of the Japan Library Association in June of last year, some forty teachers of library science discussed establishment in the JLA of a department comparable to the Library Education Division of the ALA. Their recommendation was taken up and approved by the administrative board, and the Library Education Department was inaugurated on May 28 of this year with a preparatory meeting in which there was discussion of a required course in elementary librarianship in colleges and revision of the library laws.

Since the initial preparatory meeting, the faculty of the Japan Library School, teachers of the Ueno Library Training School, and the instructors of library science of Tokyo and Nihon Universities have cooperated actively to establish the department. Though it is just at the embryonic stage, those concerned with education for librarianship are very hopeful about its potentialities.

CURRENT PROBLEMS OF LIBRARY TRAINING IN JAPAN

Regardless of the many merits of the Japanese library laws, the articles in them which prescribe the qualifications for "professional" public and school librarians hinder the development of full professional programs in higher educational institutions. Only fifteen units of library science are required for public librarians and eight for school librarians. That there are training institutions

open to high school graduates which have special legal authorization to rank their graduates as "professionals" has helped to confuse the public about the concept of professional librarianship and thus handicapped establishment of the profession. Strangely, special and university libraries, which are under no legal restrictions as regards the qualifications of their librarians, tend to seek out more highly trained professional people than the public and school libraries, which have the qualifications of their librarians stipulated by law.

Most courses in the training institutes conducted to satisfy the regulations have been predominantly straight lecture courses of little substance. Many short courses or institutes have been given without using actual tools or materials. Though it is understandable that many institutions do not have enough funds to provide well-rounded collections for library science studies, it is ridiculous that in many instances such courses as those on reference service are taught without the use of a single reference tool or material.

Another problem for library science teachers is how to bridge the great gap between the needs of highly specialized libraries in corporations and some universities and those of traditional libraries.

Also a serious problem, perhaps the most serious, is the shortage of qualified professional teachers at the university level. This obviously bears directly on all the many other shortcomings in the entire program of library education. Until it is solved, little can be done about the other problems.

In short, there are no few problems, and some are serious. However, the steps taken in library education since 1950 have lessened somewhat the seriousness of our problems and demonstrated that solutions can be approached. The establishment of the Japan Library School in Keio, the setting of standards of education in librarianship at the university level, and the formation of the Library Education Department in the JLA are among the proofs of progress. We have had the inspiring example of tremendous and far-reaching accomplishments by the American faculty members of the Japan Library School. Young Japanese teachers look to the future with confidence and great expectations.

PUBLISHING AND LIBRARIES IN JAPAN

Sumio Goto
Nihon University Library

OUTLINE OF JAPANESE PUBLISHING

Japan has approximately 2,000 publishing firms, 80 percent of which are in Tokyo and 300 of which account for about 90 percent of all commercial

publications. According to the *Shuppan Nenkan*, "Publishers' Yearbook", for 1959 (pp. 1166-9), these firms last year published 24,983 books, of which 14,258 were new titles, and 1,651 periodicals, divided into subject fields as follows:

Subject	Number of titles	Percentage	New titles	Periodicals
General	395	1.6	313	54
Phil. Rel.	1,045	4.2	609	62
Hist.	1,103	4.4	712	22
Soc. Sci.	3,313	13.3	2,376	381
Nat. Sci.	1,495	6.0	919	147
Tech.	1,721	6.9	1,116	206
Prod. art	1,225	4.9	825	148
Fine art	1,182	4.7	782	172
Lang.	902	3.6	401	45
Lit.	6,155	24.6	3,205	289
Child. lit.	3,397	13.6	1,961	94*
Text aid	3,052	12.2	1,039	31
Total	24,983	100	14,258	1,651

*Include women's, young adults' and children's periodicals.

Excluded from these figures are the textbooks used in elementary and high schools, which last year totaled 236,341,639 volumes. The "text aids" which the table shows to have constituted 12.2 percent of all publications are not textbooks for classroom use but outlines of courses and manuals designed primarily for students who are cramming for high-school, college and university entrance examinations. Also excluded are Government publications, those of universities, institutes, learned societies and other non-commercial organizations, and the "little magazines" issued by local literary circles, of which there are many.

Worthy of note, especially because of its significance for the reference librarian, is the high percentage of translations from other languages found among both books and the contents of periodicals.

DISTRIBUTION

With a few exceptions, Japanese publishers do not engage in retailing or even in direct distribution to retailers. They turn over their books and periodicals to special distributing companies, of which there are some fifty throughout the country. The five largest of these handle 90 percent of the total volume, and the largest, the Tokyo Shuppan Hanbai Kabushiki Kaisha, referred to usually by its abridged name, Tohan, distributes almost half of all publications. Such is the scale of its business that Tohan requires IBM and other up-to-date machines to keep track of sales and the disposal of returned books and magazines.

The distributors deduct for their services from 5 to 10 percent of the list price of each book sold and charge 2 percent of the list price for each unsold book returned to a publisher. Publishers and retailers may lose, but not the distributors. In effect, they control the purse strings of the publishing business, and even large publishing houses may have to consult with them before reaching decisions on what they publish or yield to pressure from them for or against

certain titles or kinds of publications.

No less dependent on the distributors are the nation's 20,000 book and magazine retailers, of whom 5,000 are in Tokyo alone. To obtain merchandise, they must make certain advance guarantee payments, which the distributors may vary. In settling accounts, they are allowed from 18 to 20 percent of the list price of each book sold; books not sold within six months are returnable at the retailers' expense. Retailers are bound by contract not to sell at less than the prices fixed by the publishers and distributors. However, in the face of competition from consumer cooperatives in large industries and universities which obtain books and magazines directly from distributors at a discount of 20 percent and sell them to members at 10 percent less than the list prices, some retailers in the larger cities have taken to allowing a discount of from 5 to 10 percent to customers whom they otherwise might lose. Retailers in smaller places, where the volume of turnover is less, cannot afford to do this. If distant from Tokyo, they must charge more than list prices because of transportation costs.

Libraries receive no discount benefit. Regardless of the volume of their purchases, they must buy publications from retailers on the same basis as the general public. Because there are no wholesale or retail firms specializing in library orders which might at least supply them without imposing postage or shipping costs, libraries in provincial towns are at a great disadvantage. Not only must they pay more for their books than do Tokyo libraries but also their selection is likely to be limited by what the local retail stores happen to have on their shelves.

Economy-minded librarians watch for the appearance in secondhand shops, some of which specialize in them, of copies of books which have been returned unsold to publishers who find it necessary to dump them at low prices. The secondhand stores, of which there are about 2,800, also are important to libraries as sources of out-of-print books, foreign as well as Japanese. Secondhand book fairs, at which groups of dealers display their stocks, always are attended by numbers of library buyers with want lists in their hands or heads.

BOOK SELECTION TOOLS

The large number of new titles published in Japan each year in itself creates a substantial problem of selection for libraries. They need to know, first of all, what books will be issued or have been issued, and they need, perhaps most of all, dependable evaluations of them on which to base decisions as to whether they should be acquired. These needs, unfortunately, are not satisfied very well. The National Diet Library endeavors to compile for each year a national catalog of all publications, but the editing takes so long that the volume for this year, for example, will not become available until the end of 1961. Also issued by the National Diet Library is a weekly accession list. This is useful as a check list, but it does not pretend to be exhaustive. Also incomplete are the listings in trade publications. Nor is any organized effort made to provide librarians with summations and evaluation of books which might be helpful in selection. There are book reviews, of course, including those in at least three weekly newspapers for the publishing world and those, ranging from popular to

scholarly, in general and specialized newspapers and periodicals. However, they are not comprehensive enough to be relied on as guides for book selection. Such value as they have is being enhanced for the first time by the "Japan Book Review Index" (*Nihon Shohyo Kaidai Sakuin*), published since January of this year by Uchida Rokakuho.

REFERENCE TOOLS

In the past five years or so, many new encyclopedias and dictionaries, both general and specialized, have been published. Some of these are excellent and are proving invaluable to reference librarians. Others, however, have been compiled with no attempt at coordination with or utilization of older materials of the same type. These, as is true of too many indexes, abstracts and other reference tools, seem to have been designed to serve narrow, limited purposes and accordingly omit much that ought to be in them to make them generally useful. Compilers are apt to compile simply for the sake of compiling and without much awareness of all the possible purposes which their compilations might serve. To meet one of the most pressing needs, the National Diet Library publishes a quarterly index to periodical literature, but even this has shortcomings. As it is a quarterly, it cannot be very current. Moreover, it is a selective index. The reference librarian is conscious always of the paucity of good reference tools and is under compulsion to devise ways of improving and extending those already available and finding new tools.

BOOKSTORES IN JAPAN*

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Any American librarian who visits a large Japanese city for the first time cannot fail to be astounded by the great number of its bookstores. One wholesaler roughly estimates that there are 20,000 in all of Japan and 5,000 in Tokyo alone. Nobody really knows, however, exactly how many there are.

They fall into three categories: 1) the retail stores handling current books and magazines, 2) the second-hand stores selling mostly used books, some of them rare, and back issues of periodicals, and 3) the rental bookstores lending, for certain fees, books and magazines.

To understand these stores, it may be helpful to have a quick glance at

* An article based on this manuscript has been published in the *ALA Bulletin*, v. 53, no. 10. Nov. 1959. p. 851–854.

the Japanese publishing world and book trade system. There are at present 2,274 publishers in Japan, approximately 80 percent of whom are located in Tokyo. Not all of these, it must be admitted, are of solid status and high repute. One wholesaler has voiced the opinion that perhaps not more than fifty of them do business on a sound basis. Be that as it may, in 1958, according to an analytical survey, a total of 2,274 publishers brought out 190,500,000 volumes of trade books under 24,983 titles, 1,651 periodicals, excluding journals of learned societies, and 239,450,000 volumes of school textbooks. Of the 24,983 trade-book titles, 14,258 were first editions, and the rest were reprints or revised editions. It is indicative of more than the size of their firms that 44 publishers were responsible for 11,778 of the titles, or 47 percent of the total. Almost every month, lesser publishers go out of business. New ones appear, however, and the total number stays about the same.

Though there are exceptions, when a book is issued all copies go immediately to wholesalers, of whom there are about fifty-five, most of them in Tokyo, since the majority of publishers are also in this area. Five wholesalers are outstanding. The Tohan and the Nippan Companies, the two largest, handle 70 percent of all publications. Three others handle 20 percent. The remaining fifty smaller companies share 10 percent of the trade.

After receiving new publications from publishers, the wholesalers make up bundles of various titles and ship them out to the retailers affiliated with them, many of whom may not even have known of the titles before receiving them. The aim of the system is to place books on the shelves of retail stores as soon as possible after they come from the printers and binders and thus to obviate storage of them by publishers and wholesalers. For their services, wholesalers usually are allowed from 7 to 10 percent of list prices. The discount to retailers ranges from 15 to 20 percent. Retailers are bound by contract not to allow any discount when they sell books. They have the privilege of returning to the publishers through their wholesalers within six months the books which have not been sold. They have to pay, however, the charges for returning them and in most cases the shipping costs previously paid by wholesalers. For magazines, of course, the period for the return privilege is much shorter. Unless a retailer has sent in a special order based on his own selection, he receives publications selected by his wholesaler. This has some advantages for all concerned, but at the same time it is wasteful. Over the past several years, from 28 to 35 percent of the publications shipped to retailers have been returned unsold to the wholesalers, and the trend is said to be toward even greater returns. The day may come, some believe, when half of all publications sent out will go back to the wholesalers and then to the publishers.

As of March 1959, 7,695 retailers were registered as members of the National League of Publication Retailers' Unions, and of these 1,049 were also members of the Tokyo Union. According to Mr. Shoichi Mizutani, executive chief of the League, it would be reasonable to estimate the total number of retailers in Japan at about 15,000, because probably there are about the same number outside as in the League. His guess is that there are approximately 800 non-member retailers in the Tokyo area.

How prosperous they are it is difficult to tell, but even the smallest seems to be crowded with customers much of the time. Some have vast book emporia

which give the impression of stocking every title in print. Many, especially in the past few years, have enlisted architects and decorators to make their stores smartly attractive. In a Block-long underground arcade in downtown Tokyo, close to many theaters and the offices of major newspapers, one side is lined with books, facing on the opposite side a row of small restaurants, coffee shops and bars.

The stores of our second category, those which deal in second-hand books, have their heaviest and best known concentration at the Jimbocho inter-section of Tokyo's Kanda area. Here are almost fifty of them along one side of two blocks. In the whole of "Kanda Town," with many universities and other schools, there are slightly over one hundred. According to a statistical survey made by Mr. Yukio Yasojima, Executive Chief of the National League of Second-hand Bookstore Cooperative Unions, there were more than 1,500 second-hand bookstores in Tokyo in 1943. Because of war damage and the economic situation following the war, the number decreased until it reached, three or four years ago, the same total as that of the present time—a little more than 800. Of these, he says, almost a quarter are concurrently handling current publications, and about a fifth operate rental bookstores. He estimates that there are about 2,800 second-hand bookstores throughout the country. These are specifically licensed to buy second-hand books from the public. They exchange what they buy with one another and in this way enrich or specialize their holdings for sale to the public. Most of them stock popular, general, and basic books, but some specialize in such fields as science, medicine, technology, the social sciences, Japanese classics, *ukiyoe* and art books, books in western languages, back issues of journals, and rare books.

Retailers of current books do not need to have much special knowledge about their books, which to them are little more than wares for exhibiting, but second-hand book dealers require knowledge of their books, the needs of their patrons, and the value of publications.

To understand their role, it may help to know that most Japanese publishers usually do not reprint or bring out a revised edition of a title unless the demand for it is very heavy. Of course, popular manual-type and best-seller books are kept in print, but other general books usually are allowed to go out of print quickly, even though good, simply because the sale of a new printing would be spread over many months, perhaps years. Publishers and wholesalers are not interested in stocking slow-moving titles. This creates an opportunity for second-hand dealers to meet the demand for such titles with used copies.

It may seem strange to visitors to second-hand bookstores to find in them some current titles at less than list prices. These books have the fresh smell of printing ink on every page and do not look like "second-hand" books. To find the answer to this puzzle, it must be kept in mind that retailers of current books are bound by contract not to sell at less than list prices, while the second-hand dealers are free to determine their own prices.

Our final category, the rental bookstore, is difficult to pin down. There would seem to be no reliable data upon which to base even a guess as to the total number of rental bookstores in Japan, but in Tokyo, according to an estimate in a survey made last July by the Juvenile Section of the Metropolitan

Police Bureau, there probably are about 3,300 with about 1,900,000 volumes. Their holdings are popular novels and low-grade fiction for adults and mostly vulgar fiction and comics with cruel, criminal implications for children. It is estimated that they have a total of 1,200,000 patrons, of whom 730,000 are children and young people. The survey points out that about a third of the loans for children are comics of low quality. The fee for borrowing such comics or fiction is usually 5 or 10 yen (about one and a third cents or a little more than two and two-thirds cents), and this attracts children very much.

On any fine afternoon you will find many children crowded in front of the shelves or stands of children's books in any bookstore. You might wonder why they are not in school or public libraries instead. About 65 percent of the schools have libraries, it is true, but generally they do not function to satisfy the reading needs of the children. As for public libraries, in the whole of Japan there are only 760, including branches, and in Tokyo only forty-eight, and not all of them have children's collection. In the bookstores alone are books really accessible to children, and there accessibility is veritably tremendous. As shopkeepers are tolerant, the children browse and read freely and lengthily. Yet the books before them are unselected or selected solely on the basis of profitability for the bookstores.

That many of the books are harmful is clear to anyone who takes the trouble of analyzing them. Some mothers' organizations and teachers' groups have tried to eliminate such books, but the majority of parents apparently are still indifferent to the mental hazards to which their children are subjected by much of the literature attractively displayed in the stores.

In this article the writer probably has used too many statistics in trying to describe the book trade in Japan. Though fully aware that statistics make for dull reading, he has dared to do so because desirous of showing such basic facts as that in Tokyo the forty-eight public libraries are surrounded by more than 5,000 bookstores. Comparison of the services rendered by them would reveal much of interest to librarians. For example, the accessibility of the bookstore is far greater than that of the library. Many libraries in Japan do not yet circulate materials freely for home use, but from the numerous rental bookstores books may be taken home easily and cheaply, though unfortunately the books are generally of poor quality. Out-of-print books which may not be available in a public library may be found and consulted in some of the second-hand bookstores. Most of the current popular books are displayed in stores in bright jackets which help to make them far more inviting as reading matter than what might be found in a public library after having stood in a long line waiting to enter because the seating capacity of the library had been exhausted by *ronin** students.

In this situation may be discerned clues as to what is required for the Japanese public libraries. One may conclude that our libraries have never properly served their public and thus have made possible the prosperity of the

* *Ronin* originally meant masterless *samurai* or simply the jobless. In the case of students, it is used figuratively for the "jobless students" who have graduated from high schools and are preparing themselves for the coming entrance examination of universities.

bookstores. On the other hand, some may argue that the prosperous development of bookstores has hindered the development of public libraries. In any case, libraries cannot successfully compete with bookstores in Japan, unless they provide substantial professional services for those who use them.

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