

FIRST STEPS IN LIBRARIANSHIP

A Student's Guide

by

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TO MY MOTHER AND FATHER

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PREFACE

TO THE SECOND (REVISED) EDITION

THE first edition of this book was published in 1950 and was so well received that a reprint was called for almost immediately. It was written with the specific intention of guiding student librarians for the Entrance examination of the Library Association. Such a guide was then necessary, it was felt, because at that time the Library Association was introducing a new syllabus of examinations. Since then, the syllabus has been altered in various ways, the Entrance examination for instance having become the First Professional examination. At the time of writing, there are indications that more sweeping changes will be made in the syllabus.

Because the future of the Library Association syllabus is uncertain, and because the writer supports the view that true education for librarianship has no connection with cramming for examinations, this edition of *First steps in librarianship* is not advanced as a guide to any particular examination. It is rather, a handbook designed to be put into the hands of professional newcomers, in whatever type of library they may be employed.

Comparison with the first edition will show that very considerable revision has taken place, and additional chapters have been written. The great increase in the number of non-public libraries in the last ten years made it imperative that more attention should be paid to these.

It is necessary to repeat the warning that students should not regard this book as a substitute for all others. As in the first edition I have appended at the end of each chapter some suggestions for further reading, and it should be clearly understood that these are lists of *minimum* requirements. The student who has the time and the inclination for more background reading than is suggested here should certainly undertake it.

Although this edition cannot be regarded as a guide for the First Professional or any similar examination, the fact remains that the examinations are with us and are likely to stay with us for many years to come. This being so, and students being only human, it is quite likely that this edition will be used as an examination guide for some time to come. Because of this, and because a cross-section of young students encouraged me to do so, I have retained the idea of including sample questions at the end of each chapter. Both the questions and the suggested readings have, of course, been brought fully up-to-date.

If they make use of these questions for practice purposes, students are earnestly advised to work to a plan. A notebook should be obtained and written up when working through each chapter of this book and the subsequent readings. The notes should be thoroughly revised and the questions then attempted under examination room conditions. This means answering them without reference to notes or to text-books, and allowing 25 to 30 minutes only for the writing of each answer.

My debt to previous text-books, fully acknowledged in the preface to the first edition, is again incalculable. For this edition I have found Thomas Landau's *Encyclopaedia of librarianship* and E. V. Corbett's

Introduction to public librarianship helpful on many scores. I acknowledge their value and recommend students themselves to consult them. The responsibility for opinions expressed remains, of course, entirely my own.

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AUTHOR'S NOTE
TO REPRINT OF SECOND (REVISED) EDITION

A reprint of this second (revised) edition having been called for, the opportunity has been taken to bring the book even further up-to-date. Some minor additions and corrections have been made to the text and I am grateful to several colleagues for their suggestions.

K.C.H.

Chapter I

NATIONAL, UNIVERSITY AND SPECIAL LIBRARIES

THIS chapter, and this book, begins with an urgent warning to all young students of librarianship—DO NOT REGARD YOUR OWN LIBRARY AND ITS PRACTICES AS TYPICAL OF ALL OTHERS. It is true that library methods are gradually becoming more standardised than they used to be, but amid this growing standardisation methods peculiar to particular libraries still exist. It therefore behoves the student librarian to enquire carefully into the why and wherefore of the routine in his own library, to visit as many other libraries as possible, and to read the professional text-books and journals with a receptive yet critical mind.

The capitalised warning above is really given to remind the student that many different types of libraries exist, among them being national and university libraries, urban and county public libraries, school libraries, the libraries of government departments, newspaper libraries and medical libraries, as well as the libraries and information bureaux which are now common to industrial firms, research associations, and many professional societies and learned bodies. It should be appreciated that, although the majority of library personnel work in public libraries, the *number* of non-public libraries in the country greatly exceeds that of the public libraries.

It is a common fault with students, particularly those

from public libraries, to regard their own institution as the only existing kind or size, and to ignore the very different problems obtaining in larger libraries, or in those with another purpose in life. This fault may be natural, but students are asked to remember *now* that university library practice and problems differ greatly from public library practice, and that the small special library of an industrial concern is entirely different from a national library. This chapter briefly describes the national, university, special and other non-public libraries of Great Britain, leaving the rate-supported libraries to be dealt with in chapter II.

NATIONAL LIBRARIES

There are three institutions ranking as national libraries in the United Kingdom—the British Museum, the National Library of Scotland, and the National Library of Wales. Curiously enough, there is no national library for England alone as the British Museum performs that function for the whole of the United Kingdom.

The British Museum is financed by the Treasury and by endowments and, like most British institutions, it has had a chequered growth and existence. Its history began in 1753 when Sir Hans Sloane offered his priceless collection of books and manuscripts to the nation for the sum of £20,000. Fortunately for posterity, Parliament accepted this offer and at the same time made arrangements to purchase the Harleian MSS. The British Museum's first home was in Piccadilly, but in 1823 that noted patron of the arts King George IV (formerly the Prince Regent) gave his father's library, now known as the King's Library, to the country, and the British Museum moved to its present site in Blooms-

bury. Many extensions have been made to that first building and now the British Museum is one of the world's greatest libraries, possessing nearly 6 million printed books, 500,000 volumes of newspapers, 100,000 charters and rolls, 10,000 incunabula (i.e. books printed before 1500), as well as large numbers of maps, prints, periodicals, music and other material.

The library of the British Museum is organised into three main departments—Printed Books, Manuscripts and Oriental printed books and manuscripts. In addition there is a separate British Museum Newspaper Library, which is situated at Colindale, N.W.9. Newspapers from 1800 are stored at Colindale, earlier issues being kept at the British Museum itself.

The British Museum library is a copyright library, that is, it benefits under the Copyright Acts in that it receives by law a presentation copy of every publication issued in the United Kingdom. This is to ensure that copies of all printed publications will be preserved for posterity. The library is classified according to its own system, and is catalogued according to rules which were originally formulated and printed in 1839. The B.M. has produced many catalogues of its stocks of books, as well as catalogues of its maps, plans, charts, music and MSS. Recently it has been announced that the general catalogue of printed books, which had been getting more and more in arrears, was to be brought up-to-date and produced fairly rapidly by a photographic process. This news has been welcomed by scholars and librarians everywhere.

The B.M. produces photostats and microfilms, and it also houses the headquarters of the *British National Bibliography* and the *British Union Catalogue of Periodicals* (see page 20). The Reading Room of the British

Museum is open to the public but prior application must be made for a reader's ticket. Owing to the very heavy demands made upon reading room space, applications are only granted if the student's research cannot be carried out elsewhere. No material is lent, and applicants for readers' tickets must normally be over 21 years of age.

The National Library of Scotland is at Edinburgh. It was originally the library of the Faculty of Advocates, being founded as such in 1682. Its privilege of copyright deposit dates back to 1709. It was given to the nation by the Faculty of Advocates in 1925 and was reconstituted, under a board of trustees, under the National Library of Scotland Act of that year. Now the library contains about $1\frac{3}{4}$ million books and pamphlets, as well as many MSS. relative to Scottish history and families.

The National Library of Wales is much younger than the other two national libraries. It is situated at Aberystwyth and it was inaugurated in 1909. Over $3\frac{1}{2}$ million documents are included in its collections, which also contain over a million books and thousands of prints and MSS. Not unnaturally, it is particularly rich in Welsh and Celtic material, and it is one of the six libraries to benefit under the Copyright Act of 1911. Only certain classes of books may, however, be demanded by the National Library of Wales under the Act. Numerous catalogues have been published by the library which, incidentally, is classified according to the Library of Congress scheme.

UNIVERSITY LIBRARIES

It has long been recognised that universities must have good libraries as aids in their work of advanced

education, and it can be asserted confidently that the universities of Great Britain have indeed got excellent libraries and librarians. Normally university libraries are open only to members and students of the university, but their resources are often made available to any bona-fide research worker who cannot find his information elsewhere. The chief users of university libraries are, of course, the undergraduates and those engaged in post-graduate research. The older university libraries such as the Bodleian at Oxford and the Cambridge University library do not lend books, because borrowing services are provided by the libraries of the colleges within the university. In Scotland however, as well as in the English red-brick universities, borrowing facilities are provided.

The Bodleian Library at Oxford dates from the fourteenth century, although it was not until 1598 that Sir Thomas Bodley rescued it from disrepute and founded its present greatness. Since then it has grown tremendously and in 1946 King George VI opened the extended premises, which are designed to be large enough to house the library for the next 200 years. It is a copyright library but, unlike the British Museum, it does not *automatically* receive a copy of every new publication from the publishers. It may apply to the publishers for a copy under the Acts, and if it does so the publisher must by law supply a copy. It now possesses over 2½ million books and MSS., has its own scheme of classification and code of cataloguing, has published printed catalogues of parts of its stock, and also issues a staff manual for the guidance of its own staff.

The origins of the Cambridge University library go far back in antiquity. There is evidence of a library

before 1400, but it was not until well into the 15th century that it was really firmly established. During the centuries there was much neglect and the library lacked a Bodley to give it the standing and importance of its counterpart at Oxford. Over the years it did, however, receive many valuable bequests and it has been a copyright library since before the passing of the first Copyright Act in 1709. It now possesses over 2 million books, 12,000 MSS. and 350,000 maps. Among its treasures is the Codex Bezae, a MS. copy of Bede's *Ecclesiastical history of the English people*, eight MS. registers of the Benedictine Abbey of Bury St. Edmunds, the Acton historical library and the Bradshaw collection of Irish books and pamphlets. In 1934 it was housed in a fine new building designed by Sir Giles Gilbert Scott and opened by King George V.

The libraries of the Scottish universities of Aberdeen, Edinburgh, Glasgow and St. Andrews are all very old-established and possess collections of national importance. One reason for this is that they all benefited under the Copyright Act of 1709 although they are no longer ranked as copyright libraries. Aberdeen now has about 350,000 volumes including several fine special collections; Edinburgh's 650,000 books and MSS. have been housed in the present building since 1870; Glasgow possesses 450,000 books and MSS. including the Hunterian collection; while St. Andrews University library has been in its present premises since 1642 and is rich in early printed books and MSS.

In London the University library is housed in a striking building in Malet Street which was erected in the 1930s. Its stock of over 600,000 includes many famous special collections such as the Goldsmith's library of economics, the Durning-Lawrence library

on Bacon and Shakespeare, and the Harry Price library on psychical phenomena and magic. In the provinces there are important university libraries at Leeds, which houses the famous Brotherton collection in a building erected in the late 1930s, and at Manchester, Birmingham and Liverpool.

UNIVERSITY COLLEGE LIBRARIES

University colleges invariably possess libraries, and these are of several types. The colleges of Oxford and Cambridge, being old institutions, are rich in early printed books, MSS., and older material generally. They have also benefited in the past from bequests and donations, and among their special collections one finds such treasures as the Pepys' library in Magdalene College, Cambridge, and the Goodyer botanical collection in Magdalen College, Oxford. A great part of the stock of these older college libraries is obviously set aside for reference and research purposes only, but undergraduate collections are also maintained.

Colleges of the newer universities have libraries which are generally intended for the use of academic staffs and undergraduates. Among these may be mentioned the libraries of University College, London; King's College, Strand; Birkbeck College; Royal Holloway College; Bedford College and Queen Mary College. All these form part of the University of London. In the provinces there are notable university college libraries at Aberystwyth, Bangor, Cardiff, Newcastle and Swansea.

There is also a university college at North Staffordshire which has not yet attained the status of a university although no doubt it will do so in the future. All our university colleges have excellent libraries with trained

staffs, their main purpose being to provide for the working needs of the undergraduates.

SPECIAL LIBRARIES

The term *special libraries* has been in use for a number of years to denote specialist libraries, that is, those specialising on a certain subject or group of subjects. As a generic term it is rather unsatisfactory as it includes a number of different kinds of libraries, such as those of commercial and industrial concerns, government departments, learned societies, professional associations, and corporate bodies of many sorts. An attempt will be made in the succeeding paragraphs to differentiate between these various kinds of libraries.

It was in the 1920s that industry and commerce woke up to the fact that the rapidly changing technical scene necessitated a library and information service for their staffs more detailed and specific than the average public library could possibly afford to give. The research library of Messrs. Kodak Ltd. was for instance founded at Wealdstone in 1928; the various branches of the Imperial Chemical Industries, Ltd. have research libraries originating from various dates since the late 1920s; the Bristol Aeroplane Company, the Metal Box Company, Richard Thomas and Baldwins Ltd. are all examples of the many industrial and commercial firms which have set up libraries and information services within their organisations. Of course, the second world war with its technological advances resulted in a great expansion in the number of firms inaugurating their own library services. In the main, this type of special library is for research purposes only and is used by the staff of the organisation concerned, although many of them co-operate with

other libraries through their regions or through the National Central Library. As they are often concerned with "micro-thought", that is, supplying very detailed and highly specialised pieces of information, the stock of such libraries consists more of periodicals, documents, cuttings, illustrations and other fugitive material than it does of books, although books, particularly foreign ones, are an important part of the resources. The periodicals taken usually include many in foreign languages, and important articles are translated, abstracted and indexed. The staffs of industrial libraries are often small in number, but they are, or soon become, experts in providing the research workers with the specialist information they require. Good news travels fast, and the enormous spread of industrial libraries since the second world war is obviously due to the fact that the librarians of the older-established ones did excellent work and made themselves indispensable. The great increase in technological literature since 1945 has also been an influencing factor in the expansion of this kind of library.

GOVERNMENT LIBRARIES

In addition to the British Museum, the Government owns a large number of libraries these days through its various departments and agencies. One category of these can be described perhaps as branches of the national libraries. These include the Science Library, the Patent Office Library, and the libraries of such institutions as the Victoria and Albert Museum, the Geological Museum and the National Maritime Museum. The most important, if not the largest of these, are the Science Library and that of the Victoria and Albert Museum, which comprises the national

library of art. The former contains over 400,000 volumes on science and technology, is classified by the Universal Decimal Classification, and lends material to approved institutions. The library of the V. and A. Museum has a stock of over 300,000 but it is for reference only.

Other libraries owned by the Government are those of the 24 Whitehall departments such as the War Office, the Foreign Office, the Ministry of Health, the Ministry of Education and other ministries. Like the special libraries of industry these have been developed enormously during the last two or three decades. These departmental libraries tend to be special libraries, although they contain background material of a general character. Their main purpose is of course to provide information for the Minister, his senior civil servants, and the staff of the department generally, but many of them will serve outside research workers on application, and a few will even lend material through the National Central Library or sometimes direct to other libraries.

Another type of government library is that attached to a national research organisation such as the Department of Scientific and Industrial Research or the National Institute for Medical Research. The former organisation, known as D.S.I.R., has numerous research stations under its control, and most of them have excellent libraries. The Road Research Laboratory and the National Physical Laboratory are examples. D.S.I.R.'s latest venture is the inauguration of the National Lending Library for Science and Technology, a project which was announced by the Government a year or two ago. This lending library will not lend material to individuals, but it will work in

close conjunction with the Science Library, and will lend through the National Central Library, the regional systems, university libraries, and certain specified public and special libraries. The early working of this national lending library will be watched with close attention: its existence will certainly add to the book resources of the country on science and technology.

The libraries of the House of Commons and the House of Lords are also government-owned but they are private libraries for the members of Parliament and are not open to the public either for reference or for lending. Mention must also be made of the British Council libraries which are maintained in many overseas cities and centres. These are not for the purpose of disseminating political propaganda, in fact they contain the minimum of books on politics. On the other hand, they do try to present the British way of life and to this end they are strong on British institutions and literature, particularly contemporary poetry, prose, drama and fiction. The British Council libraries have had a chequered history, reflecting to a large extent home economic conditions. During the war and just afterwards, expenditure on them rose steadily, but severe cuts took place in the early 1950s. Since then they have continued to expand slowly and a recent announcement by the Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster has given news of further expansion. The Library Association has urged the Government to ensure that more of these British Council libraries are put in the charge of chartered librarians.

LIBRARIES OF LEARNED SOCIETIES AND CORPORATE BODIES

As with Government departments and industrial firms, most learned societies, professional associations

and corporate bodies have found it essential to set up libraries and information bureaux to cope with the increasing flood of literature. The great majority of these societies and associations have their headquarters in London, but the provincial cities have their share of this type of library. Examples of these are the libraries of the Royal Society of Medicine, the Institution of Transport, the British Dental Association, the Library Association and the National Book League. Their aim is, of course, to collect as much material as possible on their particular subject, and to supply information for their members by post, over the telephone or in person. British and foreign books and periodicals are collected and preserved, as are photographs, news-cuttings, slides, film-strips, letters, autographs, etc. In this type of library the vertical files often contain as much material as the shelves: sometimes they are used even more. Those students who live near London should visit the Library Association library and study its layout and contents, for it is a model of what a professional or society library should be. A list of such libraries can be found in the *Aslib Directory* or in the *Libraries, Museums and Art Galleries Year Book*. These lists should be perused, if only to give the student some idea of the vast number and variety of this sort of library.

TECHNICAL AND TRAINING COLLEGE LIBRARIES

Yet another branch of librarianship occurs in technical colleges, but this too is a fairly recent development. Before the second world war only the very largest technical colleges had libraries and these were rarely in the charge of chartered librarians. Now there are well over a hundred technical colleges possessing libraries of considerable size, and most of these are

classified according to one or other of the recognised schemes, and are in the charge of qualified librarians. Much remains to be done in this field, especially when it is remembered that the number of students in technical colleges exceeds those in the universities. More libraries, more chartered librarians, and more money for books and periodicals are urgently needed for technical college libraries. The Government has recently interested itself in this problem and there is every likelihood that progress will be made in this important field. It will not be fast enough—progress never is!—but if the Library Association and the Association of Technical Institutions work amicably together, improvements will certainly come.

Newer still than technical college librarianship is training college librarianship. The training colleges referred to are for teachers, and although some of these have been in existence for many years, the majority have been brought into being since 1945, to cope with the persistent shortage of teachers. Even now, not all teacher training colleges have qualified librarians, and too often it is left to a staff lecturer to perform the library duties. The best college principals have, however, always recognised the need for chartered librarians and their employment in this field is, happily, growing. Although chiefly concerned with education and teaching technique, these libraries generally contain standard books on subjects in the educational curriculum, as well as general reference books. Liaison with the public library in the locality is essential, so that books can be borrowed through the recognised schemes of library co-operation. The training college librarian is sometimes expected to be a tutor as well, but this is wrong as there is usually enough to do in the

library. Giving talks to the students on the use of the library is, of course, another matter. This should be a welcome and accepted part of the duties of the training college librarian.

NEWSPAPER LIBRARIES

Another type of library which has grown up in the past few years is the newspaper library. By this we do not mean an organisation such as the British Museum newspaper library at Colindale, which is a repository for storing newspapers of all kinds, but the working library which is attached to one of the national or provincial daily newspapers. Such libraries are indeed *working* libraries in the strictest sense of the term, for they exist to provide quick and ready information for sub-editors and journalists who require their facts in a hurry. Consequently books form only a part of such libraries, the majority of the material comprising pamphlets, press cuttings, photographs, maps, blocks, negatives, microfilm and bound copies of other newspapers. The emphasis, as well as being on speed, is on the provision of recent information. More often than not, it is the speech or the report of the day before which is quickly required. Furthermore, as the library has to be open at all hours of the day and night, the files and information have to be organised on a kind of "self-service" basis, as the staff quite obviously cannot be present all the time. Not all newspaper libraries are in the charge of chartered librarians, but recognition of qualifications is happily on the increase.

SCHOOL LIBRARIES

The importance of libraries in schools is being increasingly recognised by teachers and at the present

time it is probably true to say that every school possesses a library of some kind or other. It is also true to say that some are more effective than others. School libraries are usually in the charge of part-time teacher-librarians and a very great deal depends upon their enthusiasm and ability. These libraries should include plenty of illustrations and other material suitable for classroom use and display. The money for the maintenance of school libraries comes from *per capita* grants from the local education authorities. Sometimes the grant is given directly to the schools to spend as they wish, but an alternative, used at Cardiff, Hull, Luton, Sheffield and other towns and counties, is for the public library to receive the grant from the Education Committee, to buy books for the schools and generally to administer the school libraries. In Middlesex the county passes on the grant to the urban libraries such as Hornsey and Finchley, and these authorities also receive an additional grant to help to cover the administrative expenses involved.

SOME FURTHER READING

- Aslib. Aslib Directory 1957.
Volume I is a list of British libraries and information bureaux and should be consulted for its details of non-public libraries.
- Great Britain. Treasury. A guide to Government libraries. 1958.
- Landau, Thomas, ed.: Encyclopaedia of librarianship. 1958. *Articles on Government, Newspaper, School, Technical College, University and University college libraries.*
- Libraries, Museums and Art Galleries Year Book. 1954-55.
Like the Aslib Directory this lists libraries of all types and should be perused by the student.

QUESTIONS

1. Name the national libraries of the United Kingdom and give a brief account of any ONE of them.
2. Write brief notes on any TWO of the following: Bodleian Library; Cambridge University Library; St. Andrews University Library; University of London Library.
3. Mention the various types of government libraries, giving an example of each. Write an account of the work of any ONE of them.
4. What is a special library? Outline the type of work it does, and the variety of material it contains.
5. Write an essay on *either* (a) the D.S.I.R. and its libraries *or* (b) the British Council libraries.
6. Describe the work of a librarian in a teacher training college.

Chapter II

URBAN AND COUNTY LIBRARIES

BEFORE dealing in detail with the urban and county library system of Great Britain, it is necessary to look at the framework of local government in general. Briefly, the local government units, in *descending* order of power, are: county councils and county boroughs, municipal boroughs, urban districts, rural districts and parish councils.

Every local authority in Great Britain, with 29 exceptions, falls into one or other of the above categories. The exceptions are the 28 Metropolitan boroughs, such as Westminster, Holborn and Battersea, to quote but three, and the Common Council of the City of London, which is practically a law unto itself, as it possesses many powers by virtue of ancient charters from the Crown.

County councils, such as Surrey, Middlesex or Cheshire, are what is known as one-tier or single purpose authorities, and they are responsible for administering all local government in their areas, as laid down by Parliamentary Acts. The full list of their statutory duties and powers is too long to be quoted here, but the student can find them listed in any good encyclopaedia or text-book on local government. County borough councils, such as West Ham, Blackburn or Eastbourne, are approximately equal in status to the county councils. A county borough is a borough with the powers of a

county council being, in fact, a county within a county. It is, for instance, its own education and police authority, but it should be noted that a county borough is not the same as the "county town". This latter is, strictly speaking, the assize town. It should also be noted that there is no such category as "city" in the hierarchy of British local government administration. As far as their powers and duties are concerned, cities come under the category of county boroughs in this country.

Municipal boroughs, such as Worthing, Finchley or Lowestoft, have fewer powers than county boroughs, and they form part of what is known as the two-tier system. This means that for some of the major services such as education, police, fire and some health services they are subservient to the council of the county in which they are situated. Municipal boroughs used to be more powerful than they are now, and it is only since 1945 that they lost to the county councils their one-time powers to run their own schools and police. They may no longer adopt the Public Libraries Acts, but those which adopted them before their county councils did so may retain their library powers if they wish.

This can best be explained with two examples. Hove, a municipal borough, adopted the Public Libraries Acts in 1892, many years before East Sussex, the administrative county in which the town is situated. By reason of this priority in adoption, Hove has been allowed to retain its library powers, but if the town had not adopted the Acts before the East Sussex County Council had done so, it would not have been allowed to do so without special permission from the county.

Urban district councils have even fewer powers than municipal boroughs. Like the latter, they may adopt the Public Libraries Acts only if their county councils

permit them to do so. Rural and parish councils have very few powers these days, being mainly responsible to their county councils for the state of the highways in their areas.

In such a system of local government anomalies abound, and reform is the constant concern of all who are connected with it. The urban district of Thurrock, for instance, has a population greater than that served by seven of the county councils in England. Harrow, a municipal borough, has a population of nearly 220,000 while Canterbury, with a population of only 30,000, is a county borough. Boundary commissions, and commissions on the reorganisation of local government have sat, and are sitting, but the conflict of evidence which they receive from the interested parties makes decision difficult. It appears that it will still be some considerable time before the reorganisation of local government is finally approved by Parliament, and even then it will certainly not satisfy everybody.

PUBLIC LIBRARIES ACTS

Mention has already been made of the Public Libraries Acts and it is important for the student librarian to know what these are and how they came about. They are, in brief, Parliament's sanction for the setting-up and managing of public rate-supported libraries. Parliament is the fount from which all local government law springs, and Parliamentary Acts of 1850, 1892 and 1919 (as well as those of other but less important dates) are the authority for the provision, government and financing of public libraries in England and Wales. For Scotland, the relevant Acts are those of 1853 and 1887, with additional powers granted under

the Local Government (Scotland) Act, 1947, the Education (Scotland) Act, 1946 and the Public Libraries (Scotland) Act, 1955. For Northern Ireland, the Acts to be noted are the Public Libraries (Amendment) Act, 1853, the Public Libraries (Ireland) Amendment Act, 1877, and the Public Libraries (Northern Ireland) Act, 1924.

The campaign for public libraries in England and Wales was fought in the 1840s, the leading protagonists being William Ewart and Joseph Brotherton, who were both members of Parliament, and Edward Edwards, a librarian of the British Museum. In 1849 a Select Committee on Public Libraries was appointed, Edward Edwards being chiefly responsible for the contents of its report. Following this, Ewart and Brotherton in 1850 piloted the first Public Libraries Bill through the House of Commons, not without some opposition from Colonel Sibthorpe and other members. The Public Libraries Act of 1850 is important as being the first law authorising the provision of public libraries as we in Great Britain know them today. Although the Act was a great step forward, it was also a very hesitant step, as it merely allowed town councils of 10,000 population and over to provide a building, a librarian, light and fuel. The Act laid down that admission was to be free, but no authority was given for the purchase of books, and no town council could levy a rate of more than a halfpenny in the pound.

The first town to adopt the Act was Norwich which did so in September 1850, although it did not actually provide a service until seven years later. Manchester was the first to provide a library under the Act, starting its service in 1852 with Edward Edwards as its first librarian. Warrington had already been providing a service before 1850 in conjunction with its Mechanics'

Institute, and Brighton had also been operating a service in 1850 under a local Act chiefly concerned with the Royal Pavilion. Other towns which were quick to adopt the Act were Blackburn, Bolton, Cambridge, Ipswich, Liverpool, Oxford, Sheffield and Winchester.

The 1850 Act applied only to England and Wales, and powers were not extended to Scotland and Ireland until 1853. It soon became obvious that the 1850 Act, though very well-intentioned, was quite inadequate. The rate limitation of a halfpenny in the pound was in 1855 raised to a penny, and powers were also granted for the purchase of books. Subsequently further amendment Acts were passed by Parliament, altering certain clauses in the 1850 Act and making additional provisions. Eventually, the important Public Libraries Act of 1892 was passed. This was a *consolidating* Act, that is, one that gathers together the still relevant provisions of previous Acts, adds new legislation, and becomes the principal Act, making all previous ones redundant and of historical value only. In 1919, another Public Libraries Act was passed, the main provisions of which were the abolition of the penny rate limitation in England and Wales, and the permission given to county councils to set up their own library services. The former provision meant that the shackles which had prevented public library development from 1855 to 1919 were at last taken off, and public library authorities were free to spend as much as they wished on their library services. The second provision, that which allowed the setting-up of county libraries, attempted to provide for rural areas the same library facilities which townsmen had. The 1919 Act laid down, as previously mentioned, that county councils could adopt the Public Libraries Acts for the whole or

any part of the county, *except* those parts which were already library authorities at the time of the county adoption.

Since 1919 there has been no Act specifically devoted to public libraries in England and Wales, although public library law has been slightly affected by minor clauses in Acts devoted to the larger fields of local government and education. In 1955 however, a Public Libraries (Scotland) Act was passed by Parliament which removed the 3d. rate limitation on public library expenditure in that country. It also legalised library co-operation in Scotland and provided for the financing of the Scottish Central Library partly by the Government and partly by local authorities. In addition the Act allowed authorities to revoke adoption of the Public Libraries Consolidation (Scotland) Act, 1887 and authorised the lending of material other than books.

The development of public libraries in England and Wales since 1919 has been phenomenal, and there can be no doubt that another main Public Libraries Act is overdue. There has been no lack of suggestions on the subject of public library reform in the last forty years. In 1927 a Board of Education Committee on Public Libraries published a report known as the Kenyon Report, and this was the motivating force behind the schemes of library co-operation as we know them today. In 1942 L. R. McColvin made a comprehensive survey of the public library services of Great Britain and in his subsequent report he called for a national library service and offered strong evidence to show that many of the smaller library authorities had not got the financial resources to maintain efficient library services. But the McColvin Report was in no way an official document and it was certainly not called

for by the government of the day. Fifteen years later, in 1957, the Minister of Education set up a committee under the chairmanship of Sir Sydney Roberts to report upon the structure of the public library service in England and Wales. This committee issued its report in February 1959 as Cmnd. 660, and its recommendations as to future structure may be summarised as follows:—

- (1) The Minister of Education to be responsible for the oversight of the public library service, with two advisory bodies, one for England and one for Wales, to assist him;
- (2) The provision of an efficient library service to be a statutory duty;
- (3) The county of London apart, county councils should be the library authorities, except for those parts of counties which remain or become library authorities;
- (4) county borough and metropolitan borough councils and the City of London should continue to be public library authorities;
- (5) parish councils should cease to be library authorities;
- (6) Non-county boroughs and urban districts which are at present library authorities should spend a minimum of £5,000 or 2s. per head of the population, whichever is the greater, on new books (1958 prices). Any non-county borough or urban district which can satisfy this condition and is otherwise providing a satisfactory library service, should be entitled to apply to the Minister for designation as a library authority.

- (7) As from a date three years after the passing of the necessary legislation, the Minister should have the power to designate as a public library authority:
- (i) any non-county borough or urban district, at present a library authority, which satisfies him that it is providing an efficient service, and
 - (ii) any non-county borough or urban district with a minimum population of 50,000, not at present a library authority, which satisfies the Minister that it can provide an efficient library service, after consultation by him with the county council as to the effect on the county service of such designation;
- (8) The Minister should have powers to review the exercise of library powers from time to time, to withdraw these powers if necessary, and to consider claims for designation as new library authorities;
- (9) Every county council should be required to submit to the Minister a scheme for the administration of the county library service, and any non-county borough or urban district should have the right to appeal to the Minister against the provisions of a county scheme;
- (10) The present requirement that library matters in counties, and in county boroughs adopting the Public Libraries Acts after 1919, should stand referred to the education committees should be amended, and all library authorities should be given powers to appoint library committees directly responsible to the councils.

The Roberts Report, as it quickly became known, was and is still the subject of animated discussion on all sides. Now that he has received the report, the Minister of Education is giving interested parties an opportunity to send him their comments upon its recommendations. After that, the Minister must decide what new legislation, if any, he proposes to place before Parliament so that, all in all, early changes in the structure of the public library service in England and Wales can hardly be expected.

Despite the undoubted faults in its structure, our public library service has thrived and continues to thrive. For national coverage it is second to none in the world, while for administration, staff, book stock and ancillary services only the U.S.A. and Scandinavia rival it. The buildings in many towns and counties are not worthy of the services inside them, and indeed the Roberts Committee Report pointed out that the country's capital expenditure on public library buildings had for many years been totally inadequate. Many of the older buildings were erected with the financial assistance of the benefactor Andrew Carnegie. For present-day librarianship they are almost without exception totally inadequate, but this is not to detract from the generosity of Carnegie, without which the position would be much worse than it is today.

URBAN PUBLIC LIBRARIES

Urban public library systems are now fairly standardised throughout Great Britain, although there is still a big gulf between the best and the worst, as the statistical appendix to the Roberts Report plainly showed. In the smallest systems there is usually one

library in the centre of the town, and this building contains all the usual departments—home reading library, children's library, reference library and periodicals room. There will also, of course, be offices, work and staff rooms, janitor's stores and space for reserve stock. In larger towns the central library is augmented by branch libraries, which may vary considerably in their size and scope. Branch libraries, in fact, range from a few shelves in a school-room open once or twice a week, to the large branch in a city suburb, a branch which is often as big as, or bigger than a small town central library. Branches in some suburban areas comprise one-room buildings, sometimes under a block of flats, or they may be converted shops which have been pressed into service owing to the lack of other suitable sites. Mobile libraries, although more common in county areas, are used in many urban systems such as Acton, Battersea, Hendon and Widnes, and these cover the scattered areas which are not big enough to justify the provision of permanent branch libraries.

Where branch libraries exist, the question of centralisation or decentralisation of such work as book selection, accessioning, cataloguing and classification is sure to arise. In the older systems with branch libraries, decentralisation was frequently the rule. The new books were often selected and ordered centrally, but each branch did its own classification, cataloguing and accessioning. Systems of more recent origin favour complete centralisation of work, owing to the obvious advantages of uniformity and economy of technical staff.

It would be invidious to select good examples of urban library systems in these days when the majority

of them conform to a reasonable standard. A few must be mentioned for the guidance of the student, and of the largest systems Liverpool, Manchester and Glasgow are prominent, while Plymouth has a new central library to show. Sheffield and Edinburgh have excellent central libraries as well as some interesting branches, Dagenham is an admirable example of a medium-sized service, while Coulsdon and Purley is a good example of a suburban system with well-planned and well-sited branches.

COUNTY LIBRARIES

As has already been mentioned, county libraries were not authorised until 1919 and are consequently still young compared with their urban counterparts, although they have long since left their infancy behind. In their forty years' existence the county libraries have tackled their task with such success that there are now few villages, hamlets and rural areas, however remote, without a book service. The Carnegie United Kingdom Trust is really responsible for the initiation and development of county libraries, having provided the original impetus, and having given generous grants to the systems in their early days.

County library systems work from a headquarters which is normally but not always situated near the county council offices in the "county" town. This headquarters is sometimes merely a large workroom or clearing-house where books are selected, ordered, accessioned, catalogued and despatched to the various branches and centres all over the county. It also houses the reservoir of stock used for students' services and branch requests. A great deal of work is involved in sending books by post from the headquarters to

individual students in all parts of the county. The public is not usually admitted to such a headquarters, but in some instances, especially where there is no other public library in the town, part of the headquarters may be set aside as a public department, thus virtually becoming a county branch library within the headquarters building.

As the county library must supply books throughout the county to such widely different communities as large towns, villages, hamlets and scattered rural areas, it uses diverse methods to attain its objectives. Towns are now usually served by full-time branch libraries such as the pleasant new building at Horsham in West Sussex. Sometimes the town branches are smaller, comprising one-room buildings housing both adult and junior books, with some quick-reference stock in addition. All such branches will have a permanent staff including chartered librarians. Villages and hamlets, on the other hand, often have a collection of books in a school or church room, open several hours each week and staffed sometimes by a voluntary librarian or perhaps by trained staff from the nearest regional branch library of the county. More scattered rural areas may be served by a travelling library or bookmobile, as it is termed in the U.S.A. This van not only makes regular tours of the county according to a fixed schedule each week or fortnight, it also delivers and exchanges boxes of books to the smaller village centres.

The book stocks of all county branch libraries, large or small, are continually replenished and exchanged, usually by the library's own transport. The branch librarian often chooses his own stock from headquarters, and also decides which volumes he will return, so that

the branch book selection is carried out according to local needs. In some of the larger county branches, the branch librarian has a fund from which to purchase fiction books and these remain tied to the branch, while the non-fiction is selected from the county pool as already described. This frequent exchange of books at county library branches and centres gives them a big advantage over the urban public library where the books, once bought and added to stock, stay there often to become stale. The county library branch stock is continually being freshened, although it must be remembered that its ever-changing stock can sometimes be a source of annoyance to the reader who wishes to re-read a book which was once in stock at the branch but which has since been returned to the headquarters or sent to some other branch. Regular stock changes also mean that the staffs at county branches never get to know their book stock really well. Generally speaking though, the system is excellent, and the fresh attractive state of the books is a great boon to the majority of readers. It must not be forgotten that a county library system is like a regional library system in miniature, for individual books not in stock at a branch can always be obtained reasonably quickly from the particular branch which possesses them.

There are many good county library systems in the country, Essex, Lancashire, Middlesex, Buckinghamshire, Hertfordshire, Kent, Surrey, West Sussex and the West Riding of Yorkshire particularly having good reputations. Those student librarians whose experience is confined to urban systems or to special libraries should make every endeavour to visit a good county library headquarters or a full-time county branch. They will find it a very rewarding experience.

SOME FURTHER READING

- Brown, J. D. *Manual of library economy*. 6th ed. revised by W. C. Berwick Sayers. 1949. *Chapters 35 and 36*.
- Corbett, E. V. *An introduction to public librarianship*. 2nd ed. 1952. *Pages 19-41*.
- Gray, Duncan. *Fundamentals of librarianship*. 1949. *Chapter 4*.
- Great Britain. *Ministry of Education*. The structure of the public library service in England and Wales. Cmd. 660. 1959.
- Landau, Thomas, ed.: *Encyclopaedia of librarianship*. 1958. *Articles on County Libraries and Public libraries*.
- McColvin, L. R. *The public library service of Great Britain*. 1942.
- Minto, John. *History of the public library movement in Great Britain and Ireland*. 1932. *Chapters 5-12, 16-19*.

QUESTIONS

1. Give a brief account of the development and work of the county library systems in England and Wales.
2. Write a brief essay on the work of the Carnegie United Kingdom Trust for libraries and librarianship in the United Kingdom.
3. Give a brief account of the departments and work of a public library in a town of 100,000 people.
4. Define, with examples, the terms main Act, consolidating Act and amendment Act.
5. Outline the early history of public libraries in this country to 1870, mentioning the events immediately prior to the Public Libraries Act of 1850.
6. Outline the chief recommendations of the Roberts Report so far as the structure of the public library service is concerned.
7. What were the chief recommendations of the McColvin Report published in 1942?

Chapter III

HOW LIBRARIES ARE GOVERNED AND FINANCED

At an early stage in his studies the young student librarian should know something of the authority by which the various types of library are controlled, and the source and means of the financial provision for libraries. This chapter endeavours to supply outline information on both these factors, but it is not an easy task because there are so many kinds of libraries in existence today. As the majority of student librarians are employed in rate-supported public libraries, the government and finance of these libraries will be described in detail. Actually, many of the committee and financial methods of local authorities are broadly similar to those employed in the Civil Service, the universities and other concerns, so that students from these latter libraries need not think they are wasting their time in reading this chapter. In any case, brief notes are appended on the government and finance of special libraries, and those of the universities and Government departments.

To say that every library assistant should know how his particular library is governed would appear to be stressing the obvious, but experience has shown that very few examination candidates have any conception of the constitution, powers and duties of library committees of local authorities. Many young students appear to labour under the delusion that the library

runs itself or that the librarian himself is the sole arbiter. As well as theoretical knowledge of this subject, students should try to acquire, though this is not easily done, some practical knowledge of the workings of committees, their agendas, their procedures and their minutes. One or two enlightened authorities have, in the past, allowed assistants to attend committee meetings as spectators and it is a pity that this practice has not been more widespread. In view of the fact that students can glean from other text-books full details of the constitution and powers of public library committees, these points will be dealt with only briefly, and more attention will be paid to the practical aspects of committee work.

CONSTITUTION AND POWERS

The second chapter of this book has already touched very briefly on library laws, and the Acts of Parliament which concern rate-supported libraries. The law relating to public library committees as far as England and Wales are concerned, is clearly stated in the Public Libraries Act of 1892, which lays down that urban authorities *may* (note that it said *may*, not *must*) appoint library committees and that they may delegate powers to such committees. The 1892 Act also laid down that persons appointed to library committees need not necessarily be members of the local authority, that is, aldermen and councillors. Non-members of the local authority who sit on library committees are called "co-opted members", and it should be noted that the 1892 Act put no limit on the number of co-opted members that could be appointed to library committees. It would have been possible, for instance, for a committee to have consisted of say, five members of

the council and six non-councillors, or co-opted members. In 1933 the law was amended to read that co-opted members must not exceed one-third of the total strength of the library committee. For example, if the total strength of a committee is twelve, not more than four of the twelve may be co-opted members. Students should note, however, that there is no limitation as to the size of a library committee—it may consist of any number of people. In some places the committee is as small as five in number, in others it amounts to twenty or thirty. The average size is about ten or twelve, a sufficient number to be representative, yet not so large as to hamper expeditious dealing with library business.

Co-opted members can be valuable for their scholarship or knowledge of special subjects, but it should be remembered that the higher the proportion of co-opted members, so much the smaller is the representation of the library committee in full council. Recently there has been a decided trend towards decreasing the number of co-opted members on library committees, but this tendency may be halted by the recent report of the Roberts Committee (Cmnd. 660) which clearly expressed the view that the library committee is one on which co-opted members chosen for their special knowledge and experience can render the most useful service. Students should discover, if they do not already know, the size and constitution of the body which governs their own libraries.

In Scotland, the library authority in burghs *must* appoint annually a committee of not less than ten nor more than twenty members, half of whom must be members of the local authority, or magistrates, and the remaining half must be householders. The authority

for this is the Public Libraries Consolidation (Scotland) Act of 1887. In Scottish counties the Local Government (Scotland) Act of 1947 lays down that the Education Committee must contain a majority of council members but also that it must include people with a special knowledge of schools and education in general.

In Northern Ireland library committees may be set up in urban districts, boroughs and towns under the Public Libraries (Ireland) Act of 1855, and the Public Libraries (Ireland) Amendment Act of 1877 states that such committees may consist wholly of members of the authority or partly of such members and partly of other persons. No guidance is given as to the size of the committee, or the permitted proportion of co-opted members. On the other hand, the size of library committees in Northern Ireland counties is laid down in the Public Libraries (Northern Ireland) Act of 1924.

DELEGATION OF POWERS

The local authority is the body responsible for library matters in its own area, but some councils delegate their powers to their library committees, a practice which is, however, diminishing. Delegation means that as soon as the library committee decides on a certain course of action its decision immediately becomes effective and does not need the approval of the council. Where powers have not been delegated, and this applies in most places these days, the minutes of the library committee are subject to the approval of the council, and no action must be taken upon those minutes until the council has given its approval. It must be noted here that, even when powers are delegated, there are

certain powers, such as the levying of a rate and the raising of a loan, which must remain under the control of the council as a whole. In the main, there are three kinds of library committees operating in the United Kingdom and these are:—

- (a) executive committees, i.e. those with delegated powers,
- (b) executive, subject to reporting to the council what they have done, and
- (c) recommending, i.e. those whose proceedings and minutes must be approved by the council before they become law.

As has already been indicated, the majority of authorities retain all but emergency powers, leaving it open to their committees to consider and recommend. The pros and cons of delegating powers may be summarised as follows:—

Advantages

- (a) business can be transacted expeditiously.
- (b) business can be considered by the committee most qualified to do so.
- (c) when spending powers are limited in any event, council control would seem to be a mere delay.

Disadvantages

- (a) councils are apt to be suspicious of the activities and spendings of bodies to which they have relinquished their powers.
- (b) in the interests of uniformity of practice and conformity with a general policy powers should not be delegated.
- (c) executive committees work out of the public

view and as a consequence valuable press publicity is lost.

This latter is an extremely important consideration, for it is essential that the public should be kept fully informed of library events, such as the establishment of a new branch library, alterations of hours, important donations and so on. If powers are not delegated, the library committee's minutes will be printed with the other committees' minutes in the council agenda, they will come up for discussion, possible amendment and approval at the council meeting, extracts from them will be probably printed by the local press, and useful publicity is thus obtained for the library.

SUB-COMMITTEES

Just as the library committee is really a sub-committee of the full council, charged with being responsible for the management and policy of the public library, some library committees find it necessary to remit the detailed aspects of library management to sub-committees, although the modern trend is towards reducing the number of these sub-committees. The most common are those for accounts, books, lectures and staff, though naturally not all library committees appoint all four of the above. Much depends upon the size of the library system. Books sub-committees still exist in many places. These meet at regular intervals to approve the librarian's suggested list of additions and to examine readers' requests, but it is difficult to justify their existence because book selection should be done by chartered librarians who are trained in the job and who know the requirements of their stocks and their readers. Moreover, books sub-committees cause need-

less delay because the new books must be held up for their inspection and approval, yet it is a rare occurrence for a sub-committee to turn down a firm recommendation from the librarian. In view of these arguments, it is difficult to see the *raison d'être* for books sub-committees. Some authorities have abolished them but still ask for lists of books added to be circulated to the full committee. This is one stage better, as books are not delayed on their way to the public shelves, but it still causes a great deal of unnecessary work. It is interesting to note that it is usually the smaller library authorities who cling to this archaic method of book selection. In the larger library services, where book additions are so numerous that sub-committee control or listing would obviously be impracticable, the book selection is properly left in the professional hands of the chartered librarians. After all, the committee still has general control over the amount to be spent, and questions can be raised at any time in committee if any member has reason to criticise the book selection policy.

Staff sub-committees are less common than they used to be: when they do exist they deal with appointments, resignations, leave of absence and other questions relating to the staff. A more usual practice, particularly in the larger local authorities, is to have an Establishment Committee and this will, of course, deal with staff matters not only in the Libraries department but for council departments generally. Nowadays, chief officers are usually given powers to appoint and dismiss staff up to and including a certain grade, but the higher grades of staff are usually interviewed and appointed either by the chairman and the librarian jointly, or by a sub-committee set up for the purpose.

Accounts sub-committees and lectures sub-committees speak for themselves, the former being constituted to examine the accounts and to recommend the full library committee to pass them for payment, while the latter formulates or approves lecture programmes suggested by the librarian.

The minutes of all sub-committees are, of course, submitted to the next meeting of the full libraries committee for reception and approval. Students should find out if there are any sub-committees operating in their own library systems, and in what ways their constitution and duties differ from those described above.

THE LIBRARY COMMITTEE IN PRACTICE

Let us now examine the practical working of committees. Generally speaking, committees meet monthly but some meet at longer intervals, say, quarterly. In a few towns the librarian is clerk to the library committee, that is, he is the officer responsible for sending out the notices of meetings, for preparing the agenda and reports, for recording the minutes, and for writing all correspondence on behalf of the committee. This practice was at one time very common but now it is more general for this work to be done by the legal department, as in the case of other committees of the council. When this latter practice obtains, the librarian is still responsible for the preparation of his monthly or periodical report on the work of the library, and for any other special reports he is asked to prepare or wishes to submit. These he will send to the legal department, the officers of which are responsible for despatching to committee members copies of the agenda, the monthly report and any other relevant documents,

and the formal notices summoning them to the meeting. At the committee meeting itself, an officer of the legal department will be present to give advice when necessary, and there will also be a committee clerk to record the minutes. Representatives of the financial and engineering departments will also be present in advisory capacities. Correspondence of a formal nature is undertaken on behalf of the committee by the legal department; that of a routine nature is conducted by the librarian.

AGENDAS

The contents of agendas will naturally vary from month to month but many items, such as the following, appear regularly.

Minutes of the previous meeting: these are read (more often they are taken as read), and after approval by the committee they are signed by the chairman as a correct record.

Requisitions: this item is dealt with according to local practice. Sometimes the item consists merely of a list of cleaning materials, etc. required from the council stores; in other instances it consists of asking the committee for formal permission to buy articles the purchase of which has already been allowed for in the estimates.

Accounts: in some places all invoices incurred since the last meeting of the committee, having previously been certified as correct by the librarian and checked by the financial department, are submitted to the committee for approval. As they are approved they are signed by the chairman. They are then passed to the Finance Committee, or its Accounts Sub-

Committee, and are eventually paid after approval by the Council.

Librarian's report: this will cover the work of the department since the last meeting of the committee. It usually consists of issue statistics, department by department, daily averages, numbers of new readers, principal donations and library news generally. Some librarians are content to make their monthly or quarterly reports a bare list of statistics, but the writer has found that the present-day council member requires more than this to interest him, and that more committee interest is stimulated if the statistics can be presented imaginatively. Plain, unvarnished figures mean little or nothing to laymen or committee men and an effort should be made to give reports a different news value each month. Without making the report too lengthy or tiresome, short paragraphs can be included to draw attention to what the library has been doing in the way of story hours, lectures, exhibitions, library lessons and so on. In this way the report can be welded into a powerful weapon for the progress and development of the library service. Of course, the committee report is the business of the chief librarian and not that of the student librarian, but the latter naturally hopes to achieve chief officer status and it is never too early to get the right ideas into one's head.

Correspondence: this is a fairly regular item on committee agendas. Naturally, only correspondence which raises points of policy or which requires a committee decision is brought up under this heading. A complaint from a reader about the non-appearance of a book which he reserved some time ago falls into the category of routine correspondence

and would be dealt with by the librarian personally. On the other hand, a letter from a resident requesting a variation in the hours of a mobile library would be placed before the committee for consideration and a decision.

Booklist: if there is no Books Sub-Committee, the list of books added or recommended for addition by the librarian is sometimes circulated to members of the full committee and may be discussed under this separate item of the agenda. It is questionable whether the considerable work caused by the compilation, typing and duplicating such lists is worth while and, as has already been signified, the tendency now is to leave book selection in the hands of the librarian and his professional staff.

Staff: here again, if there is no Establishment Committee or Staff Sub-Committee, this is a regular item on the agenda. Matters to be included consist of annual reports on staff, superannuation matters, promotions, leave of absence, resignations and appointments.

Such, then, are some of the regular items on almost any library committee agenda. Many other casual items, of course, crop up from meeting to meeting, such as the hours of opening, lecture programmes, exhibitions, children's book weeks, major repairs to buildings and fittings, plans for new departments or branch libraries and so on.

CONDUCT OF MEETING

The chairman of the committee is a key person with whom the librarian should work in the closest co-operation. In order that the meeting may proceed

expeditiously, and so that he shall have the fullest possible information on all topics on the agenda, the chairman is often provided with an "annotated" agenda. This is a private copy for the chairman, on which the librarian has subscribed explanatory notes and possible answers to anticipated questions from committee members. Alternatively, the chairman will probably consult the librarian before the meeting, so that they can go through the agenda together.

The meeting usually begins with the minutes of the previous meeting being read and, after approval, these are signed by the chairman as a correct record. Then follow the various other items in the order in which they are written on the agenda—accounts, requisitions, librarian's report, etc. Sometimes items are approved or noted by the committee without comment, but the librarian should always be prepared to answer questions, sometimes unexpected ones, on any item on the agenda. The meeting is conducted by the chairman, and the librarian should generally speak only when he is spoken to. But the officer is, after all, the professional adviser of the committee and of the council, and sensible chairmen and committees encourage and value his contributions to the meeting. For this reason the librarian should attend the meeting armed with all possible facts and figures in order to answer questions from committee members. The Council meeting is different; it is a meeting of members and, although the chief officers are present, only rarely are they consulted or requested to make a statement. For this reason, it is all the more important that chairmen should be kept fully informed, so that they themselves can reply to any points raised on the library committee's minutes by other members.

ANNUAL ESTIMATES

As far as urban and county libraries are concerned, chapter II of this book mentioned the rating system, and showed how rates were levied for local government services. For the library service, it is the library committee which first considers the financial needs for the ensuing year. It does this by examining annual estimates which have been drawn up jointly by the librarian and the financial department in something like the following form:—

EXPENDITURE

<i>Item</i>	<i>Estimated expenditure 1960-1</i>	<i>Actual expenditure 1960-1</i>	<i>Estimated expenditure 1961-2</i>
	£	£	£
Salaries ..	28,000	28,692	29,500
Wages ..	5,023	5,237	5,440
Superannuation	1,562	1,608	1,654
Books ..	12,000	12,057	14,000
Binding ..	4,000	3,982	4,250
Periodicals ..	950	988	1,000
Electricity ..	562	577	600
Gas ..	125	135	140
Water ..	28	28	30
Fuel ..	750	777	825
Telephone ..	225	220	225
Advertising	75	63	70
Printing and stationery	800	815	825
Rates ..	1,950	1,950	2,000
Rent ..	600	600	600
Loan charges etc., etc.	875	875	825

INCOME

<i>Item</i>	<i>Estimated income 1960-1 £</i>	<i>Actual income 1960-1 £</i>	<i>Estimated income 1961-2 £</i>
Fines ..	1,875	2,023	2,100
Periodicals sales ..	125	135	135
Book reservations ..	235	240	250
Lost and damaged books	85	82	85
Salvage ..	90	87	90
Hire of halls ..	750	766	750
Income from rate ..	62,543	63,682	64,989

The above figures are, of course, hypothetical, and should not be regarded as actual or proportionate for any particular public library system. Where there are a number of branch libraries in a library service it is customary for the income and expenditure of each branch to be itemised separately, so that the running costs of each one can be readily seen.

After the estimates have been thus drafted, they are duplicated or printed and copies are sent to committee members prior to the meeting which will consider them. At the meeting, each item may be considered individually and the librarian may be called upon to explain his financial requirements for the forthcoming year. If the chairman's practice is to consider the estimates as a whole, asking committee members if they have any questions on any particular items, the librarian must still be ready to explain matters of detail. Favourite

questions from members often concern the make-up of such omnibus items as "Furniture and fittings" and "Repairs and maintenance" and if the librarian cannot carry such details in his head, he should be readily able to quote from his files.

When they have been fully considered and finally approved, the committee's estimates are then passed to the Finance Committee, which usually considers the estimates of all committees at a special meeting or meetings. The Finance Committee sometimes has power to alter estimates, but nowadays it is becoming more general to regard the Finance Committee as a body which considers spendings, not from the point of view of whether it thinks they are necessary, but from a financial angle only. If therefore, it has any observations to make upon the estimates of other committees, it usually refers these back for further consideration. It might sometimes go further and give some idea of the amount of the reductions which it considers necessary.

After the estimates have been finally approved by both the Library and the Finance Committees, the figures are sent to the Council for final consideration and approval, and they then become the official estimates for the year. For his own department, the librarian is the officer responsible for keeping expenditure within these estimates, particularly in such direct items of expenditure as books, binding, printing, furniture and fittings. Under some headings, such as salaries and wages or electricity or postages, overspendings are often outside the librarian's control, due perhaps to an unexpected award in the shape of janitors' wage increases, or unanticipated rises in postage rates or electricity charges.

SUPPLEMENTARY ESTIMATES

The financial year for local authorities runs usually from April 1st of one year to March 31st of the next, and the annual estimates cover income and expenditure during that period. Sometimes circumstances arise which necessitate urgent approval for extra expenditure in the middle of the financial year. When such circumstances arise, the librarian places the facts before his committee and requests what is known as a *supplementary estimate*. This, after approval by the Library Committee, is forwarded to the Finance Committee, and if it meets with approval there, it goes to the Council for sanction. In normal circumstances, the librarian and his committee should make every effort to avoid asking for supplementary estimates, which are naturally not popular with finance committees.

An effort has been made in the foregoing to give the student librarian a comprehensive account of the library committee at work, but it is very difficult to describe practical committee work in the pages of a book. What has been described is fairly general practice for municipal public libraries, but practices naturally differ in detail from town to town. All students should endeavour to find out the procedure of their own authorities, they should discover whether the librarian is clerk to his committee or not, how many co-opted members there are on the committee, what sub-committees exist, how frequently the committee meets, and whether or not it has delegated powers.

COUNTY LIBRARY COMMITTEES

Urban library committees are usually on an equal footing with other committees of the council: they are directly responsible to the council for public library

management and policy. County library services are, at the time of writing, much more closely aligned with education matters, and county library committees are sub-committees of the county education committees. This means that the county librarian is a subordinate of the county education officer, and that the county library sub-committee's decisions are subject to the approval of the county education committee. I say "at the time of writing" because the Roberts Committee Report (Cmd. 660) has made a clear recommendation that the law in this respect should be amended, and that county councils should be enabled to appoint library committees directly responsible to themselves. This is a very desirable reform and one which it is hoped will be speedily augmented. On the other hand, it must be mentioned here and now that in some counties a wide measure of delegated powers is already allowed to the county library sub-committee. One main difference between urban and county committees is that the latter often meet quarterly as opposed to the normal monthly meeting of the former.

Local branch libraries in county systems often have their own committees. These have little real power, but the county library sub-committee may sometimes delegate such powers as the appointment of junior assistants, selection of periodicals and hours of opening. Such local committees provide useful experience for the branch (or district) librarian, besides acting as watchdogs for the local residents.

GOVERNMENT OF NATIONAL, UNIVERSITY AND SPECIAL LIBRARIES

According to the *Encyclopaedia of librarianship*, edited by Thomas Landau, there are probably over a hundred

libraries financed wholly from central government funds. As well as the British Museum and other national libraries, there are the libraries of the main Government departments, such as the Board of Trade and the War Office, as well as such institutions as the National Lending Library for Science and Technology and other offshoots of D.S.I.R. All these come under one or other of the Whitehall ministries, so that Parliament is the body which ultimately controls them, and Ministers of the Crown are responsible to Parliament for their organisation and management. As far as their finances are concerned, they are organised in a very similar fashion to the local authority libraries, because they work on a year-to-year basis, preparing estimates for the coming year, and these have to be considered by the department concerned and by the Treasury before final approval.

University libraries in the United Kingdom are without exception governed by library committees. At Cambridge, the members of the committee are known as Syndics, while at Oxford they are called Curators. At the other universities the library committee consists of lecturers and professors, and there is no limit to the size of such committees, although the average membership is from fifteen to twenty. It should be noted that in Scotland the university library committee is composed of representatives from the non-university governing body. As for the financing of a university library, it will no doubt be generally known that the body known as the University Grants Committee calls for estimates on a five-yearly basis for the running of the whole of the university, including the library. Despite this, the library is run on a year-to-year basis, on estimates culled from the five-year programme.

Some of the older universities have endowments for their libraries, but the income from these is no longer sufficient to run them, and Treasury grants help to bridge the gaps. Generally speaking, however, the money required for the running of university libraries comes from the funds allocated by the University Grants Committee.

It may well be imagined that in a university, which by very reason of its name, endeavours to instruct in a wide range of subjects, there could well be keen competition by the various faculties or departments for the representation of their subjects in the library. To control this, and to secure equitable treatment, there are sometimes set up book selection committees, so that additions to the library can be fairly allocated.

Special libraries, as we have seen in chapter I, are now very numerous in this country, and they fall into several categories. There are those owned by bodies such as the National Book League, and there are those belonging to professional associations such as the Royal Society of Medicine, the Royal Institute of British Architects or the Library Association. All the fore-mentioned are governed by specially appointed committees, are financed from subscriptions, and work on an annual estimates basis. But there are also many special libraries which have been set up by industrial organisations such as I.C.I., Kodak, the Metal Box Company, and so on. The best of these have chartered librarians in charge, with specialist staffs to help them, and they too are organised on a year-to-year financial basis. The over-riding authority for the government of this type of special library will, of course, be the board of directors of the firm.

SOME FURTHER READING

- Brown, J. D. Manual of library economy. 6th ed. revised by W. C. Berwick Sayers. 1949. *Chapters 1, 2 and 3.*
- Corbett, E. V. The library committee. AAL pamphlet. 1953.
- Corbett, E. V. An introduction to public librarianship. 2nd ed. 1952. *Chapter IV.*
- Landau, Thomas, ed.: Encyclopaedia of librarianship. 1958. Articles on *Public libraries committees, Government libraries and University libraries.*

QUESTIONS

1. What do you consider is the ideal size for a public library committee in a town of 75,000 inhabitants? How many members would it be desirable or possible to co-opt on to your committee?
2. Enumerate the items which may be expected to appear regularly on a library committee agenda. Give some indication of the business which might be discussed under each heading.
3. Write a brief essay on how your own library is governed.
4. Give some indication of the duties of Books, Staff and Accounts sub-committees.
5. Write a brief account of how county library systems are governed.
6. What is meant by delegation of powers? Illustrate.

Chapter IV

NATIONAL AND REGIONAL LIBRARY CO-OPERATION

WHAT exactly is meant by library co-operation? What are the functions of the National Central Library? What are the Outlier Libraries? What is the function of the British National Book Centre? What part do the Regional Library systems play in the sphere of library co-operation? What is meant by subject specialisation? These, and other relevant questions, are aspects of librarianship which the young student should have at least a minimum knowledge at an early stage of his development, for library co-operation has developed enormously in the last thirty years and it is still developing.

Co-operation began as the approach to an ideal, that of being able to provide any book for any reader anywhere. At one time, if a reader entered his library and asked for a book which was not in stock he was told that the book was not available and that was the end of that. Now, thanks to the many schemes of library co-operation which have been built up in the last thirty years, it can honestly be said that when a reader enters his own library he virtually enters at the same time the doors of nearly every library in the country and quite a number outside it, for co-operation has now been developed on international as well as on national lines.

In the succeeding sections on the National Central

Library and the regional library systems a modicum of historical information will be afforded to the student, but within the compass of this book there is no space to dwell in detail upon the history of library co-operation in general in Great Britain. For a comprehensive historical survey, students are directed to R. F. Vollans' report on *Library co-operation in Great Britain*, pages 1-17.

THE NATIONAL CENTRAL LIBRARY

The first real step forward in co-operation was made in 1915 when Professor Adams, in a *Report on library provision and policy* made to the Carnegie United Kingdom Trustees, suggested that a central lending library for adult classes would be of great use. As a result, the Central Library for Students was formed chiefly to supply books to adult classes such as those of the Workers' Educational Association. The need for such a library was soon apparent from the measure of work it did and, thanks to the Carnegie United Kingdom Trust's financial support, it developed rapidly in both scope and use. In 1927 the Kenyon Report appeared and one of its recommendations was that the library should be reconstituted as a national central lending library and that it should be based on the British Museum. The Trustees of the British Museum were unable to concur with this suggestion and they proposed instead that the Central Library for Students should become an independent national institution with its own board of trustees. The government of the day referred the matter to the Royal Commission on National Museums and Galleries, which was sitting at that time, and after taking evidence the Commission recommended that the Central Library should reconstitute itself under its own board of trustees and that a

grant-in-aid should be made by the Exchequer. In 1930 this took place and the library was reconstituted as the National Central Library. A Royal Charter followed in 1931.

At that time the N.C.L. lent large numbers of books to urban and county libraries and the Trustees were urged by the Royal Commission to try to increase their income from these libraries. Some success resulted from the ensuing appeals, and with the Rockefeller Foundation and the C.U.K.T. grants added to the Treasury grant and the subscriptions from user libraries, the N.C.L.'s financial position gradually became stronger. From 1930 onwards the Regional Library systems were formed and these moves, as well as relieving the N.C.L. of a heavy load of inter-library loans, gave additional ensured income as the urban and county libraries contributed through their regional systems. In addition, more and more non-public libraries saw the value of the N.C.L. and their subscriptions, however modest, were always welcome and helpful.

The library which was originally in Tavistock Square and then in Galen Place, moved to Malet Place in 1933. Unfortunately it had a severe setback during the war when it was badly damaged by air raids and lost about 100,000 books. The work of reconstructing the building was finished in 1952 largely out of funds provided by the War Damage Commission, but also with valued assistance from the Carnegie United Kingdom Trust, which had presented the original building. Very shortly the N.C.L. will, it is hoped, be housed in new premises in Store Street. The work of reconstructing the book stock has been a slower process and the present stock of about 160,000

volumes is still below the 1941 figure of nearly 178,000.

In a sense this is not so important as it might seem because the N.C.L. is depending less and less on its own stock to satisfy readers' requests. Since the advent of the Regional Library systems, and more so since the beginning of the various schemes of subject specialisation, the library acts more and more as a clearing-house for the organisation of loans and for the supply of bibliographical information. It was never reliant only upon its own stock for, even before the start of the regional schemes, it had organised a system of Outlier libraries. These were a number of public and special libraries throughout the country which agreed to lend books to other libraries through the agency of the N.C.L. The Outlier libraries, and there are now about 300 of them, are all specialist institutions and between them they lend about 17,000 books annually—a great contribution to the machinery of library co-operation.

A union catalogue is a list, showing locations, of the stock of any number of libraries in an organised area. Within the N.C.L. there are a number of union catalogues but the two major ones are the National Union Catalogue which is in sheaf form and covers the stocks of the urban and county libraries in the regional schemes, and the Outlier Union Catalogue which is in card form and covers the holdings of many special university and college libraries. Unfortunately both union catalogues are badly in arrears and although this does not prevent them from being extremely valuable tools they are obviously not as useful as they would be if complete. The profession as a whole has been deeply concerned about the union catalogue arrears and both the Vollans Report and the Roberts Report have suggested that urgent attention should be given

to them. After considering the problem carefully it is now hoped to tackle the arrears, by making xero-graphic copies of entries in the National Union Catalogue, and merging them with the Outlier Union Catalogue, so that eventually the two will be in one sequence and the work of reference will be reduced. It is possible that work on this project will begin shortly and be completed by 1963.

The N.C.L., the regions and the Outlier libraries work in this way. When a request from a particular library cannot be met from within that library's region, it is sent on to the N.C.L. which tries to locate an available copy through the National Union Catalogue and the Outlier Union Catalogue. Sometimes, of course, the request is satisfied from the library's own stock, although only about a quarter of the total inter-library loan traffic throughout the country is satisfied from the N.C.L.'s own resources. If this seems a small proportion, it must be remembered that the regions are gradually becoming self-sufficient and that the N.C.L.'s stock consists more and more of highly specialised material not likely to be in the regions or the Outlier libraries. Some idea of the high degree of specialisation within the N.C.L. can be gained when it is remembered that in 1958-9 the average price of its accessions was four guineas per volume.

Although this chapter is concerned with national and regional co-operation it would not be fair to omit mention of the growth of international library co-operation, which has been largely fostered by the N.C.L. If a book requested is not available anywhere in the United Kingdom, foreign libraries are contacted and the books frequently made available by them through the agency of the N.C.L. In 1958-9, 1,804

volumes were borrowed in this way for British readers, the majority of the books coming from West Germany, France, East Germany, the U.S.S.R., and Italy. Loans to foreign libraries are made by British libraries through the N.C.L. so that the system can truly be described as a two-way one.

One of the functions of the N.C.L. as set out in its Royal Charter is to act as a centre of bibliographical information, both for national and international purposes, and several activities in the library are designed to further these objects. Since 1938, for instance, there has been a Bureau of American Bibliography, providing information on American books and periodicals. There is also a Union Catalogue of Russian books and periodicals, started in 1947, and a Union Catalogue of German wartime books and periodicals. In addition, the N.C.L. maintains a fine collection of bibliographies, including the catalogue of the Library of Congress.

Other activities include the British National Book Centre, which arranges the redistribution of redundant material. If a member library has books for withdrawal, it may wish to offer them to another interested library before finally disposing of them. Lists are sent to the B.N.B.C. which collates all the titles it receives and circulates the master-list at intervals to all the member libraries, and in this way about 90,000 items per annum are redistributed.

Finally, the N.C.L. continues its adult class work which was, so to speak, the fount of its existence. This type of work, the lending of multiple copies of set books to adult classes, is gradually declining, although issues of over 12,000 per annum are still recorded. The decline is not due in any way to a decrease in the

number of adult classes, or to a diminution of their book needs, but to the fact that local public libraries are gradually taking over more of this work for classes in their areas.

THE REGIONAL LIBRARY SYSTEMS

As we know them today, the regional library systems date generally from the 1930s, although there were one or two tentative schemes in operation before then. There are now eleven separate schemes covering London, the rest of England, Wales and Scotland. The earliest to be formed was the London Union Catalogue, which was founded in 1929 with the assistance of a grant from the C.U.K.T. and which was later taken over by the Metropolitan Boroughs Standing Joint Committee in 1934. Housed in the National Central Library, its union catalogue has well over 400,000 entries, from which it serves the libraries of the 28 metropolitan boroughs and the Guildhall Library of the City of London. Apart from dealing with over 25,000 requests each year it is the base upon which the London public libraries have erected a notable edifice of library co-operation. There is, for instance, complete interavailability of readers' tickets within the L.U.C. area, and in addition schemes have been set up for subject specialisation, for the provision of a joint fiction reserve and for foreign fiction specialisation. There is also a union catalogue of play sets and a union list of annuals and periodicals taken by the libraries in the area.

In 1931 three regional library systems were inaugurated, those of Wales and Monmouthshire, the Northern and the West Midlands. The Welsh schemes are based respectively on Cardiff and Aberystwyth, the

former covering Glamorgan and Monmouthshire, the latter covering the remainder of Wales. Both have union catalogues and since 1953 there has been a subject specialisation scheme in operation. Between them, the two schemes serve a total of 71 libraries, 19 of which are special libraries. The Northern scheme, housed at the library of the Newcastle Literary and Philosophical Society, serves 53 libraries in Cumberland, Durham, Northumberland, Westmorland and a part of Yorkshire. It has a union catalogue and it handles about 16,000 requests annually. A joint fiction reserve scheme is in operation but, at the moment, there is no subject specialisation scheme. The West Midlands regional library system is housed at the Birmingham Central Library and is based on that library, which supplies a large percentage of the loans. The system has a membership of 73 libraries, 26 of which are special libraries, and the counties covered are Herefordshire, Shropshire, Staffordshire, Warwickshire and Worcestershire. Over 22,000 requests are handled every year.

In 1933 the South Eastern regional library system was founded and, like the L.U.C., its headquarters are in the National Central Library. Covering the counties of Bedfordshire, Berkshire, Buckinghamshire, Essex, Hertfordshire, Kent, Middlesex, Surrey and Sussex, it serves a larger population than any of the other regional systems. It now has a membership of 88 libraries all of which are either urban or county libraries. There are so many special libraries in the area covered by the system that it has not been thought practicable to invite them to join the scheme, and their requests are sent direct to the N.C.L. A subject specialisation scheme, based on B.N.B. entries, has been in operation since

1950 and has been a great success. The system works from a union catalogue, and although this is constantly in arrears, determined efforts are being made to bring it up-to-date and it is undoubtedly of untold value to the scheme.

The East Midlands and the North Western regional library systems both date from 1935. The former is housed at the Leicester city library and serves a population of over 8 millions in 11 different counties. It has a membership of 68 libraries, 15 of them being special libraries, and it handles over 26,000 requests annually. It operates a limited subject specialisation scheme, and also has co-operative systems for foreign literature and play sets. The North Western system is housed at the Manchester city library and serves 6½ million people in Lancashire, Cheshire and the Isle of Man. No fewer than 110 libraries are in membership, including 28 special libraries. The scheme is based chiefly on the stocks of the Manchester and Liverpool public libraries and although there is a union catalogue it is not by any means a complete one and the basic method of supplying books is done by circulating a bi-weekly list of desiderata among the public libraries. Well over 30,000 requests are handled each year and since 1954 a subject specialisation scheme has been in operation. Also dating from 1935 is the Yorkshire regional library system, housed at Sheffield and dealing with over 10,000 requests each year from 53 libraries. Two special libraries and two university libraries are in membership but all the rest are urban and county. A feature of the Yorkshire system is that there is no union catalogue and instead the five largest libraries in the area—Bradford, Hull, Leeds, Sheffield and the West Riding county library—take it in turn to handle

requests. They are assisted by ten smaller libraries. Another feature is that a charge (now 1/9d) is made to libraries for each application form submitted to the system.

The South Western regional library system was formed in 1937 and although it was the last to be inaugurated it is only fair to say that it incorporated the Cornwall scheme which had been operating since 1927. It has a membership of 56 libraries, including 7 special and 5 university libraries, and it covers Cornwall, Devon, Dorset, Gloucestershire, Hampshire, the Isle of Wight, Oxfordshire, Somerset and Wiltshire. Its headquarters are at the Bristol city library and it handles over 30,000 requests annually from a union catalogue which has over half a million entries.

In Scotland there is a counterpart to the National Central Library in the shape of the Scottish Central Library which was founded in 1921, thanks once again to the Carnegie United Kingdom Trust. It was not until 1939 that the decision was taken to form a Regional library bureau for Scotland and owing to the war the bureau was not actually set up until 1945. Altogether there are now 124 libraries in the Scottish scheme, no fewer than 44 of them being special libraries. There is a union catalogue, and over 16,000 demands are made upon the system annually. Since 1955 there has been operating a joint reserve of the works of Scottish novelists.

NATIONAL COMMITTEE ON REGIONAL LIBRARY CO-OPERATION

It will thus be seen that the regional library systems were set up independently and in rather a piecemeal fashion, and it is not surprising that their constitutions

and their routines vary considerably. Not all of them possess union catalogues, and some have highly developed schemes of subject specialisation while others have none at all. However great these divergences might be, they would have been greater still had it not been for the existence, since 1931, of a body called the National Committee for Regional Library Co-operation. This committee, which consists of representatives from the regions, from the N.C.L., from the universities, from the C.U.K.T., and from the Library Association, attempts to co-ordinate all the schemes of co-operation in the country and is having an increasingly beneficial effect upon them.

As well as standardising the application form used by the N.C.L. and the regions, the Committee has evolved an inter-regional coverage scheme for current British books which has operated since 1st January 1959. This extends the idea of subject specialisation from individual regions to the nation as a whole and it means that inter-library loans of post-1958 British material recorded in B.N.B. are now arranged direct between the regions concerned. This has relieved the N.C.L. of considerable responsibilities and will enable it in the future to concentrate upon the provision of older material and to cope with the increasing demands for foreign literature.

SUBJECT SPECIALISATION

The term "subject specialisation" has been used in the foregoing and some explanation of this term is overdue. It is really another name for co-operative book buying and it became necessary when it was found that in most schemes of library co-operation libraries were tending to duplicate their book selection. As a

result of this there were perhaps too many copies in regions of certain books, and not enough copies of other titles. The metropolitan libraries were the first to begin a comprehensive scheme which they did in 1948, each library agreeing to spend a minimum sum on the subjects allotted to it from the Decimal Classification. Additionally, they agreed to include periodicals and foreign books on the subjects in which they were specialising, and also to store for all time their acquisitions on these subjects.

In 1950 the South Eastern regional library system adopted its scheme of subject specialisation. Here there were at that time 83 libraries in the scheme and these libraries varied very greatly in their size and financial resources. It was essential therefore to work out a scheme with scrupulous fairness and, to this end, a survey was undertaken to find out how much it would have cost to have bought one copy of every book published in a particular year. This total was then divided proportionately among the constituent libraries, and the scheme was put into operation on 1st January 1950, to coincide with the appearance of the *British National Bibliography*. The scheme has now worked well for ten years, few amendments having been found necessary in that time. Other schemes of subject specialisation are now working in Wales, the North West and the East Midlands although some of these are not as comprehensive as the system in the South East.

THE VOLLANS REPORT

One of the actions of the National Committee on Regional Library Co-operation was to call for a comprehensive report on the subject and in 1949 R. F.

Vollans was given this assignment. His report appeared in print in 1952 and it contained numerous recommendations, some of which have been augmented, with others still awaiting fruition. The Vollans recommendations are too many to be quoted here, but they may be read on pages 117 to 138 of his report. Some of the most important suggestions were:—

- (a) the two Welsh regional bureaux to be amalgamated;
- (b) except in the London area, university and special libraries should be incorporated in the regional systems. In the London area, university libraries to make direct application to the N.C.L., and special libraries to be outlier libraries of the N.C.L.
- (c) the N.C.L. should cease to acquire books by purchase and should concentrate upon its co-ordinating and clearing-house activities;
- (d) the union catalogues to be brought up-to-date to a given date, after that, the regions should become self-sufficient by means of subject specialisation schemes.

As a result of the Vollans Report a Joint Working Party was set up and its proposals, which included many of those in the Vollans Report, were issued in 1954. Gradually, these proposals are being augmented.

THE ROBERTS REPORT

The Roberts Committee recommendations as to the structure of the public library service in England and Wales have already been referred to on page 32, but the report contained additional proposals in respect of library co-operation. Briefly these were as follows:—

- (a) the two Welsh regional bureaux to be amalgamated;
- (b) the regional committees to be given statutory recognition and to submit schemes to the Minister of Education for satisfactory systems within their regions;
- (c) after approval by the Minister, it should be obligatory for each local authority to pay its share of the cost, which should include its contribution to the N.C.L.
- (d) local authorities should contribute substantially to the cost of the N.C.L. but should also have greater representation on its governing body, and should play a larger part in its administration;
- (e) the union catalogues to be brought up-to-date as a matter of urgency, and the Treasury to be asked to make a non-recurring grant towards the capital cost of this work.

OTHER SCHEMES OF CO-OPERATION

It might have been thought that the N.C.L. and the regional systems could between them have satisfied all the demands for books and information, but this is very far from being the case. The demands of industry and technology, the needs of legal and medical students, the demand for play sets, and the multifarious enquiries from commerce have all brought into being separate and *ad hoc* systems. One of the earliest of these was the Sheffield interchange organisation, SINTO for short, which has been going since 1933. In this scheme, special libraries in the Sheffield area have joined together to make their book and periodical material mutually available through the agency of the Science

and Commerce department of the Sheffield city library. West London has a similar scheme called CICRIS (Co-operative, Industrial and Commercial Reference and Information Service). Of late this has been referred to as the Commercial and Technical Library Service of West London. Based on the Acton public library, the organisation husbands the resources of ten public libraries in the area, as well as those of 50 other institutions, mainly industrial firms and research organisations. It aims at answering the many requests for information which come from commercial and industrial sources in the area. Another recent example of co-operation of this kind is TALIC (Tyneside Association of Libraries for Industry and Commerce), which is attempting to do for the North East what SINTO and CICRIS are doing for Sheffield and West London respectively.

Special libraries are not being left behind in this direction and SCONUL (Standing Conference of National and University Libraries) has worked out several co-operative projects for its members, while SCOTAPLL (Standing Conference of Theological and Philosophical Libraries in London) has an inter-availability scheme, has published a directory and also a union list of periodicals.

In the past legal and medical students have been such an embarrassment to public libraries because of their demands for the latest editions of text-books that many of these libraries have sought assistance from outside firms. Many now subscribe to Lewis's Medical and Scientific Library and to the Law Notes Lending Library, both of which issue useful printed catalogues of their stock. One of the regional library systems, the North Western, takes out fifty subscriptions to Lewis's

Library, and it has been suggested that other regions could usefully follow this example as an aid to the smaller libraries in their areas.

A more recent development in co-operation has taken place in regard to play sets. There is a large potential demand from schools, colleges and societies for the provision of acting editions of plays in sets and this challenge has been taken up by many public libraries such as Middlesex county, Luton, Plymouth, and Eastbourne, all of which have good collections. It was inevitable that a pooling of resources should take place and now the L.U.C. and the South Eastern and the East Midlands regional bureaux have schemes for the interlending of play sets, maintaining union lists of their stocks.

INTERAVAILABILITY OF TICKETS

The successful operation of the regional systems has helped considerably to break down some of the parish-pump attitude between local libraries and nowadays there are many instances of the interavailability of tickets between library and library. Complete interavailability exists, for instance, between the 29 libraries of the L.U.C., as well as between the co-operating libraries of SCOTAPLL. Reciprocal agreements between neighbouring libraries abound all over the country, Hendon for example, having such agreements with Finchley, Hampstead and Willesden. Holiday resorts have for many years accepted current library tickets from visitors, wherever their home libraries are, and the time may shortly be coming when readers' tickets may be proffered and used in any library in the country.

SOME FURTHER READING

- Hunt, K. G. Subject specialisation and co-operative book purchase in the libraries of Great Britain. 1955.
- Landau, Thomas, ed.: Encyclopaedia of librarianship. 1958. Articles on *National Central Library, Regional library systems, Library co-operation and Subject specialisation*.
- Newcombe, Luxmoore. Library co-operation in Great Britain. 1937. *Chapters 3, 4, 5, and 6*.
- Sewell, P. H., and Plumb, P. W. The regional library systems. 2nd ed. 1956.
- Vollans, R. F. Library co-operation in Great Britain. 1952.
- Great Britain. Ministry of Education. The structure of the public library service in England and Wales. 1959. Cmd. 660. *Chapter IV*.

QUESTIONS

1. Give a short account of the work of the National Central Library.
2. Trace briefly the history of the regional library systems in Great Britain.
3. Write brief notes on subject specialisation; British National Book Centre; interavailability of tickets.
4. Make brief mention of the aims and objects of CICRIS and refer to any similar schemes in other parts of the country.
5. What were the chief recommendations of the Vollans Report and of the Roberts Report in respect of library co-operation?
6. Trace the steps taken between the receipt of a reader's request for a book not in stock and its eventual supply to him through an interlending scheme.

Chapter v

LIBRARY ASSOCIATIONS

THE last hundred years has witnessed a remarkable growth in librarianship as a profession, and it is not surprising to find that, in almost every country, and internationally too, librarians have organised themselves into general and specific associations. The countries which were first in the field in library development were, not unnaturally, also the first to form societies of librarians for the purpose of discussing mutual problems. The American Library Association, for instance, was inaugurated in 1876 and was followed, only a year later, by the Library Association in this country. Now almost every country is similarly organised, and a fairly complete list of library associations of the world can be found in the current *Library Association Year Book*. This useful list contains not only the name and address of each association, but also the name of its president and/or secretary, and its official publications.

INTERNATIONAL ASSOCIATIONS

The major international body is the International Federation of Library Associations (known as IFLA). This really began as an international committee in 1928, and it is only since 1953 that it has been constituted as the IFLA Council. The Federation has no fewer than ten sub-committees, sitting on such subjects

as union catalogues, cataloguing rules, international loans, exchange of publications and so on. Its headquarters is at the United Nations Library, Geneva, and it organises a congress every five years. IFLA announcements and news bulletins are published in the international library periodical *Libri*.

Since 1945 the United Nations has played a prominent part in international librarianship through UNESCO, the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation. Rather than acting as a link between the world's library associations as IFLA does, UNESCO has concerned itself more with the task of spreading the library idea far and wide throughout the world. It is fairly accurate to say that before the second world war, the library idea had developed only in America, in Britain and the Commonwealth, and in the Scandinavian countries. It has been the job of UNESCO working from its Paris headquarters, to introduce libraries to those countries which have not had the benefit of them, and to foster their development. To this end it has organised pilot library projects in India, Ghana, Nigeria and other countries. Neither has UNESCO'S work for international librarianship ended here. It has in addition encouraged and assisted the international exchange of publications, made major contributions to international bibliography, set up its own library and information office, and published much valuable material, including the well-known *UNESCO Bulletin for Libraries*, which appears monthly.

The only other international association which concerns us here is the International Association of Music Libraries, which has a small but active branch in the United Kingdom. The IAML itself publishes

Fontes artis musicae twice a year, while the United Kingdom branch of the Association organises meetings and publishes occasional bulletins. The Association, and its U.K. branch, have also studied such problems as music cataloguing, gramophone record libraries, display techniques and so on. Every student librarian with music interests should join the IAML, which is a body worthy of support.

THE LIBRARY ASSOCIATION

In the United Kingdom the oldest and the largest organisation of librarians is the Library Association, which was founded in 1877 and granted its Royal Charter in 1898. At the outset scholarly librarians took much of the initiative and formed the majority of the membership, but as the urban libraries grew in number in the 1880s and 1890s, the number and influence of municipal libraries in the Association increased accordingly. This newer type of librarian grew tired of the antiquarian bias of the scholarly members and wanted more discussion of the problems of the growing municipal libraries. Gradually the emphasis of the Association changed and it became more and more concerned in reality with the promotion of public libraries although in theory it still retained its interest in the development of libraries in general, as the Royal Charter of 1898 plainly shows. The purposes and powers of the Association, as outlined in the Charter, are as follows:—

- (1) to unite all persons engaged or interested in library work, by holding conferences and meetings for the discussion of bibliographical questions and matters affecting libraries

or their regulation or management or otherwise.

- (2) to promote the better administration of libraries.
- (3) to promote whatever may tend to the improvement of the position and qualifications of librarians.
- (4) to promote the adoption of the Public Libraries Acts in any city, borough or other district within the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland.
- (5) to promote the establishment of reference and lending libraries for use by the public.
- (6) to watch any legislation affecting public libraries, and to assist in the promotion of such further legislation as may be considered necessary for the regulation and management or extension of public libraries.
- (7) to promote and encourage bibliographical study and research.
- (8) to collect, collate and publish (in the form of transactions, journals or otherwise) information of service or interest to the Fellows and Members of the Association, or for the promotion of the objects of the Corporation.
- (9) to form, collect and maintain a Library and Museum.
- (10) to hold examinations in librarianship and to issue certificates of efficiency.
- (11) to do all such lawful things as are incidental or conducive to the attainment of the above objects.

It will be noted that only three of the above purposes are specifically concerned with public libraries.

Since the dawn of the present century libraries have developed in many directions and there is no doubt that the Library Association, dominated as it was by municipal librarians, was slow to recognise the changes and as a consequence missed many opportunities. If it had been otherwise, such bodies as the Association of Special Libraries and Information Bureaux (Aslib) and the School Library Association would probably never have been brought into existence. Nevertheless, it is easy to criticise after the event and the pattern of the Library Association's development has followed, admittedly at several removes, the historical sequence of library development generally.

After the formation of Aslib in 1924, the Library Association gradually woke up to the fact that new types of libraries were creating fresh problems and new personnel who would not be satisfied with a purely public library approach. In 1929 revised byelaws came into force allowing for the formation of sections, although in fact the County Libraries Section and the University and Research Libraries Section were already in existence. Very soon after the second world war the Youth Libraries Section was formed, and this was rapidly followed by the Medical Section and the Reference and Special Libraries Section. Parallel with these sections is the Association of Assistant Librarians, which was founded in 1895, but which became a section of the Library Association in 1930.

Although the present organisation is not perfect, it is a great improvement on what it was thirty years ago, and the improvement has been reflected in the Library Association's membership, which was 240 in 1880, 2,800 in 1930 and 13,000 in 1959. Every member is allowed to belong to two sections of the Association

without extra payment. All the sections hold regular meetings, most of them hold an annual conference, they issue publications, they are organised regionally and nationally, and they have representation on the Council of the Library Association.

The Library Association is also organised regionally, with its eleven branches. These are, in alphabetical order, the Birmingham and District, the Eastern, the London and Home Counties, the Northern, the North Midland, the North Western, the Northern Ireland, the South Western, the Wales and Monmouthshire and the Yorkshire branches. Scotland is covered by the Scottish Library Association, which is in affiliation with the L.A. All the branches are governed by elected committees, they organise meetings, hold conferences, issue publications, and they too are represented on the L.A. Council. New members of the Association are automatically given branch membership without further payment or formality.

The Library Association Council is the governing body of the organisation and it meets five times a year. A separate Register and Examinations Executive Committee governs matters of professional education, examinations and the register of chartered librarians. Other committees of the Council, and these are recommending committees, are the Executive, Finance, House and Library, Library Research, Membership and Publications committees. Since 1934 the Association's headquarters has been at Chaucer House, Malet Place, London, W.C.1, but owing to the fact that the University of London wished to acquire these premises, together with the adjacent premises of the National Central Library, agreement has been reached with the University to hand over these buildings. In return, the

University is providing a site for the Library Association and the National Central Library in Store Street, W.C.1, and will pay for the erection of the new buildings. It is hoped that these new buildings will be in occupation by 1963.

In accordance with its Royal Charter, the Association maintains a very fine library, in which illustrations and now tape-recordings have their place. The library is of course open to all members: books can be lent by post and information given by letter or telephone. The catalogue of the L.A. library was published in 1958 and is an invaluable bibliographical aid. Publications issued by the Association include the *Library Association Record* (monthly), *Library science abstracts* (quarterly), the *Subject Index to Periodicals* (quarterly with annual cumulations), the *Students' Handbook* (annually) and the *Library Association Year Book* (annually). The Publications Committee is an active body with a forward-looking policy and in addition to these regular publications, it issues special subject lists, the L.A. pamphlet series, and such fine individual works as Walford's *Guide to reference material* and Ranganathan's *Prolegomena to library classification*.

There never seems to have been a time when the syllabus of examinations was not under discussion, but it is understood that in this respect the L.A. does not differ from other professional bodies. The constant discussion, and the frequent changes, are no doubt signs of healthful development. At one time the syllabus consisted of six separate subject examinations called sectional certificates. These could be taken in any order and after completion of any four of them the candidate could apply for registration as an Associate of the Library Association. All six sectional certifi-

cates gave the candidate the Fellowship. In the mid-1930s this was changed to a three-tier system—Elementary, Intermediate and Final. The Elementary was a four-paper examination, the Intermediate consisted entirely of classification and cataloguing, while the Final comprised English Literature, Bibliography and Advanced Library Administration. The Associateship was gained after completing the Elementary and Intermediate stages, the Fellowship came after the Final examination.

After the second world war another new syllabus came into operation. This retained the three-tier structure but in a different form. There was an Entrance examination comprising four separate papers, a Registration examination of four groups as we know them today, and a Final of four parts as it is now. This syllabus is substantially the same as that in operation at the time of writing, but there have been some changes. The Entrance examination has become the First Professional examination and has undergone radical change, but the Registration and Final examinations have been altered in detail only. After successful completion of the Registration examination the student, if he has attained the age of 23, can apply for registration as a chartered librarian, becoming an Associate. Fellowship is given to those who have satisfactorily completed the Final examination. Full official details of the examination syllabus and the educational regulations are given in both the *Students' Handbook* and the *L. A. Year Book*. The former is an essential booklet for students because it also contains the examination papers set in the previous year.

Before leaving the Library Association special mention must be made of the work of some of its sections

and branches. The A.A.L. organises correspondence courses for the L.A. examinations and also publishes a useful series of primers and other works of value to students of librarianship. The County Libraries Section issues a series of readers' guides on a variety of subjects: these are authoritative, attractive and cheap. The Reference and Special Libraries Section issues guides to library resources in various parts of the country, while the London and Home Counties Branch issues quinquennial reports on the progress of public libraries in its area, as well as a guide to the periodicals holdings of libraries in the metropolitan area in the shape of the *London Union List of Periodicals*.

ASLIB

The organisation we now know as Aslib was founded in 1924 under the name of the Association of Special Libraries and Information Bureaux, but this title was abandoned in 1949 since which time Aslib has been its official title. The need for such a body arose because of the growth of specialist libraries and research organisations after the first world war, plus the fact that the Library Association was slow to recognise the special needs of these bodies. Although much criticism has been directed against those who governed the L.A. at that time, it is more than likely that an organisation such as Aslib would have sooner or later been set up whatever action the L.A. had taken. In this connection it is noteworthy that the Americans have also found it necessary to set up a separate body for special libraries.

Considering its comparatively brief history the growth of Aslib has proved conclusively the need for such an organisation. It now has 2,000 members whereas

before the second world war it had only 300, and its wide appeal is demonstrated by the fact that it includes in its membership national and public libraries, industrial and commercial firms, learned societies, universities, colleges, government departments and individuals concerned with research and information services.

It was during the war that Aslib really became recognised as an essential body, and that the foundations were laid for its expansion. The varied work which it accomplished for the government during the war led to its being given an annual grant through the Department of Scientific and Industrial Research. These grants, coupled with the increased membership, have led to a great expansion of the work being undertaken regularly by Aslib. In addition to its valuable publications, which will be described in the next paragraph, Aslib provides a comprehensive library with information and consultant services. A translations index is maintained, so that duplication of effort may be avoided, and panels of translators and indexers are kept. Another activity is the documentary reproduction service, whereby Aslib will supply photocopies or microfilms of original documents in libraries. Aslib has branches in Scotland, the North of England and the Midlands, as well as ten groups on such subjects as aeronautics, food and agriculture, textiles and so on. Both the national organisation and the branches hold regular meetings, while an annual residential conference is a feature of the Aslib programme.

The first major publication of the association was the *Aslib Directory: a guide to sources of specialised information* which was issued in 1928 with the help of a grant from the C.U.K.T., and a second edition of this was pub-

lised in two volumes in 1957. Regular publications include the *Journal of Documentation*, devoted to the techniques of recording, organising and disseminating information, and *Aslib Proceedings*, containing papers and reports of Aslib meetings and conferences. The *Aslib Booklist* is published monthly, being a particularly useful list of scientific and technical books. Annual publications include the *Aslib Yearbook* and the *Index to theses*, a classified list of the titles of theses accepted for higher degrees in British and Irish universities. From time to time Aslib issues other books and in this connection particular mention should be made of the merit of the *Handbook of special librarianship and information work*, edited by W. Ashworth and published in 1956.

The association played a leading part in the projects of the *British Union Catalogue of Periodicals* (see page 200) and the *British National Bibliography*. Early in 1959 Aslib took the lease of a new headquarters in Belgrave Square and the opening ceremony was performed by Viscount Hailsham.

SCHOOL LIBRARY ASSOCIATION

The School Library Association was set up in 1937 to promote the development of libraries in schools, to ensure efficient administration, to provide opportunities for school librarians to meet and discuss mutual problems, and to make contact with other bodies having similar interests. Like the L.A. and Aslib it has formed branches in various parts of the country, meetings are held regularly and a library is in process of formation. Its headquarters is in Gordon Square, W.C.1 and it issues free to members a publication called *The School librarian and school library review*, which is published every school term.

SOME FURTHER READING

Aslib. Aslib: what it is and what it does.

Aslib. Aslib Yearbook. *Current edition.*

Landau, Thomas, *ed.*: Encyclopaedia of librarianship.
1958. Articles on *Aslib*; *International Federation of Library Associations*; *Library Association*; *School Library Association*.

Library Association. Students' handbook. *Current edition.*

Library Association. Year Book. *Current issue.*

QUESTIONS

1. Describe the aims and achievements of the International Federation of Library Associations.
2. Mention, in a brief essay, some of UNESCO's chief contributions to international librarianship.
3. Describe the work of any TWO of the sections of the Library Association.
4. Compare and contrast the *Library Association Record* with the *Journal of Documentation*.
5. Write brief notes on any THREE of the following: *Library Science Abstracts*; *Aslib Booklist*; *Five years' work in librarianship*; *UNESCO Bulletin for libraries*; *Index to theses*.
6. Write a short essay on either (a) the International Association of Music Libraries, or (b) the School Library Association.

Chapter VI

THE STAFFING OF LIBRARIES

As has been seen in chapter III, the committee is the body which governs the library, being responsible for management and policy. The persons responsible for translating that policy into action are the librarian and the members of his staff. It is hardly an exaggeration to say that the success or otherwise of a library depends almost entirely on the quality of its staff. The best-stocked library in the world cannot give anything like a one hundred per cent. service to readers if it does not at the same time possess a keen, efficient and trained staff to exploit the stock to its fullest advantage. The constant aim of the staff, whether in lending, children's reference or research work should be to put the right book or the right information into the hands of the reader. A great deal of tact is necessary in staff-public relations: assistants should be careful not to go too far in recommending books to the public, but on the other hand they should ensure that no person requiring help in the choice of books, or in procuring information from books, should go without it. The good library assistant should therefore be something of a psychologist, able quickly to assess readers' individual personalities and requirements and possessing the tact and bibliographical knowledge to deal with each reader according to his individual needs. Equally desirable is a sound general education with a flair for keeping up-to-date with

world events for, rightly or wrongly, readers expect librarians to have an almost cosmological knowledge. Like the good journalist, the good librarian should know something about everything, and everything about some things.

Knowledge of library stock and the question of assistance to readers is a subject complete in itself, and one which the student librarian will meet in the examinations of the Library Association. It is mentioned here only in passing, because this question of assistance, and how far the staff should go in rendering it, is one that should be considered by every student librarian at an early stage in his training.

STAFF ORGANISATION AND DUTIES

Library staffs range in size from those of three or four assistants to those of hundreds. Indeed, some special libraries perhaps have a librarian-in-charge with no assistants, or perhaps just one. This factor of size, as well as the fact that conditions vary from library to library, makes it impossible to lay down too precisely the duties of the various grades of staff. For instance, the duties of a chief librarian in a large city will be very different from those of the head of a Government department library or from those of a chief in a small town library. But in general it can be said that any chief librarian will be occupied with decisions on internal policy, committee work and administration generally. He will be concerned from time to time with matters of establishment—promotions, new appointments, additions and deletions to the staff, study facilities, leave of absence—all these and other staff matters will be his concern as he prepares his recommendations to the committee or governing body of

the library. He has to view the service as a whole, and he may have to recommend the provision of a new service point or points. If these are agreed he will have to work in close collaboration with the architects. At all times he will have to co-operate with the legal and financial departments of his concern, whether it be a city, a county, a small town, a Government department, a university or an industrial organisation. He must be accessible both to members of his governing body and to the readers who use his library, and he must conduct his correspondence with speed and courtesy. He must be adept at writing reports, being brief and to the point, yet capable of giving prominence to the salient points. As well as taking a global view of the service he should, like a good general, have an eye for detail and should keep a constant eye on matters of routine, so that his staff do not become bogged down with unnecessary work. Major decisions on details of classification, cataloguing, order work and publicity will be taken by him, and he will, of course, bear the ultimate responsibility for everything done by the staff in his name. In the smallest libraries, the chief librarian will probably take a personal part in book selection and perhaps even in such work as classifying and cataloguing.

The post of *deputy librarian* usually exists only in large- and medium-sized systems, and there is a fair measure of agreement as to what the duties should entail. Briefly, these are to take the place of the chief librarian in his absence, to organise the general routine work of the library, to supervise the staff and to deal with establishment matters such as appointments and resignations, time-sheets, holidays and the in-service training of staff. Deputising for the chief librarian means that

the deputy must be *au fait* with the latest developments in the system as a whole and for this reason he should attend all committee meetings and should see all correspondence leaving and entering the department.

Some large municipal library systems with numerous branches include a post in their establishment called *superintendent of branches*. The duties of such a person are implicit in his title—he is, in fact, directly responsible to the chief librarian for the administration of the branch library system as a whole. He is really a co-ordinator, making sure that routine work is done in a uniform fashion throughout the system. He should pay regular visits to the branch libraries, from time to time calling meetings of the branch librarians. He sometimes acts as a co-ordinator of book selection for the branch libraries. He has authority over the branch librarians but is an inferior officer to the deputy.

Next in line after the branch superintendent are the *librarians-in-charge* of the various departments. In a medium-sized public library system, these will be confined to the lending, reference and children's librarians, but in systems of larger size there may be separate departments for such subjects as music, science, commerce, technology, foreign languages, local history and archives, and the librarians-in-charge of these will figure as departmental heads, each being fully responsible for the successful running and development of his department. The organisation of routine work, of staff duties, and the selection of books and other material for their particular sections are their main concern.

The position of *branch librarian* is nowadays regarded as being roughly equal to that of a librarian-in-charge of a department, although this depends upon the size of the branches. Practice varies, and in some systems

branch librarians rank higher than the departmental heads, while in others they rank lower. A branch librarian is an extremely important member of the staff, but his scope and duties differ according to the size of the branch he controls. One fact, however, is inalienable—the branch librarian is the representative of the chief librarian and indeed of the library authority in the area served by his branch, and it is upon his ability and personality that the standing of the library service in that district depends and is judged. The branch librarian will be responsible for his own staff control but, owing to the centralisation of accessioning, classifying and cataloguing which now obtains in most library systems, he will have little real scope except in display work and in personal service to readers. Although book ordering will almost certainly be *organised* centrally, it is customary for the branch librarian to select his own stock and to send periodical lists of desiderata to the central library for co-ordination with the lists of other departments and branches.

All the library's technical and clerical work such as correspondence, book-ordering, accessioning, classifying and cataloguing will normally be carried out at the central library. In large and in some medium-sized services there will be separate cataloguing departments, order departments and clerical departments to carry out these tasks, but in smaller libraries cataloguing will be done by one or two senior assistants, while order work, correspondence and general office routine will be carried out by one or two clerical assistants or typists.

This brings us to the *junior assistants*, with whose work many readers of this book will be only too familiar. The work usually allotted to juniors is admittedly monotonous, but it is certainly not valueless. On the

contrary, juniors carry out some of the most important tasks in a library. The alleged monotony of a junior assistant's life is only a half-truth, much depending upon his or her mental attitude to the job. If the junior is really interested in books and in people his tasks will not really be boring. Senior assistants and those responsible for organising routine work in the library can, however, make a notable contribution to staff harmony and interest if they ensure that the most monotonous routine tasks are fairly distributed and that juniors are not kept working too long on work of this kind. In the main, a junior assistant's work consists of counter duties, charging and discharging books, shelving returned books and keeping the shelves tidy, writing readers' tickets or book cards, dealing with reservations, sending overdue notices and checking the receipt of periodicals. As a rule, the smaller the library the greater the variety of tasks which are allotted to the junior.

Most chief librarians and those holding senior positions in libraries today began as juniors (except some of those trained at the University of London School of Librarianship) and there is little doubt that it is extremely valuable for any chief or senior officer to have had personal experience of the junior's work and problems.

STAFF INSTRUCTIONS

The two chief virtues, and indeed essentials, in library administration and procedure are accuracy and uniformity. One of the best ways to ensure uniformity in the work of the library is to start a file of staff instructions. Such instructions will usually begin with the general, such as laying down the responsibility for

the various departments and the duties of staff, and proceed to the particular, such as detailing the precise way in which books shall be prepared for circulation. Examples of some of the other subjects on which guidance can be given are: custody of keys, fire precautions, the action to be taken in case of fire, disturbances, illness to readers, etc., readers' registration, sending of overdue notices, the reservation system, inter-library loan routine, readers' requests, binding procedure, classification decisions, cataloguing styles, interavailability of tickets and so on.

The file of staff instructions should be read and initialled by all members of the staff, although some libraries make a practice of issuing a copy of the staff manual to all assistants. Some librarians (and a number of assistants) dislike the idea of staff instructions on the grounds that it savours of "head-hunting". But this is not the intention of the staff manual, which should be formulated purely and simply as a means towards the attainment of uniformity, that most desirable attribute of library procedure. Such a file provides a most convenient way of acquainting new assistants with the methods employed in the library. If it is kept in loose-leaf form it is a simple matter to add new instructions as and when they become necessary. For some time now, staff instructions have been a feature of the organisation of many public and special libraries, and it is noteworthy that such a library as the Bodleian has found it necessary to maintain a staff manual in printed form for many years now.

STAFF: PROFESSIONAL AND NON-PROFESSIONAL

One of the most controversial topics in British librarianship used to be that of dividing the staff into

two distinct grades: professional and non-professional. Nowadays, most library administrators in this country are agreed on the desirability of this, but difficulties have arisen in applying the idea, particularly in small and medium-sized libraries, which form the majority in the United Kingdom. The progressive school of thought rightly maintains that we are trying to train too many assistants and that there should be a distinct cleavage between such professional staff as branch librarians, departmental heads, readers' advisers, cataloguers, etc., and the counter or clerical assistants whose duties are confined to the charging and discharging of books, the tidying of shelves and the writing of tickets, cards and overdue. It is now generally agreed that such a separation would ideally be a good thing, always providing that there is a real bridge between the grades so that the ambitious counter assistant can become qualified and can step into a professional post when a vacancy occurs. Until a national library service comes into being, and until our library buildings are planned differently, it is unlikely that this ideal will be translated into general practice in all British public libraries, although it has been a *fait accompli* in American libraries and in some of the larger British libraries for some time. Incidentally, protagonists of the photo-charging and punched card charging methods described in chapter VII have asserted, with some justification, that these methods help considerably in the organisation of staffs into professional and non-professional.

SALARIES, CONDITIONS AND HOURS OF WORK

Before 1939 there was little uniformity in the salaries, hours and working conditions of the staffs of either public or special libraries, and the Association of

Assistant Librarians prepared several reports in their attempts to improve conditions generally. Since the war, this subject has been to the forefront in all walks of life, and few library assistants can complain that their hours and conditions of working are in any way Dickensian. Salaries, either in government, special, public or university libraries, are agreed nationally, and arbitration is called in when disputes occur. One of the few classes of officers still without nationally agreed salary scales are municipal and county chief librarians, who have for years been trying to find a basis for discussion agreeable to the employers' side.

The majority of readers of this book will be those working or intending to work in public libraries, and they should certainly get to know the conditions under which they are employed. These are printed in the *Scheme of Conditions of Service* produced by the National Joint Council for Local Authorities' Administrative, Professional, Technical and Clerical Services. First issued in 1946, there have since been a multitude of amendments which have caused the appearance of revised editions. This scheme inaugurated the 38-hour week for all local government officers, laid down the salary scales of the General Division, the Clerical grades, and the Administrative, Professional and Technical grades, and made conditions relating to sickness, holidays, subsistence and travelling expenses, and other eventualities. Every public library assistant should look up this scheme, for he should know thoroughly the conditions under which he works. In all rate-supported libraries, assistants are therefore working a 38-hour week, the only variations between library and library being the particular time-sheet worked.

Service to the public must always be the prime consideration in the operation of a time-sheet, but it will make for a happy and contented staff if a time-sheet can be devised which avoids "split-duties" and which affords a reasonable rota of free Saturdays for assistants in public libraries. In many non-public libraries the five-day week is worked so that all Saturdays are free anyway, but in public libraries Saturdays are the busiest days. The compilation of a time-sheet is by no means an easy task, and to appreciate the difficulties the student librarian is advised to try working one out for himself. In doing this, it is important to bear in mind that adequate staffing of all departments must be maintained at all times so that queues can be avoided at all counters. Secondly, due allowance must be made for staff meal-times. As far as possible these should be kept the same for each assistant throughout the week, as nothing is more irksome than for an assistant to be allotted early lunch one day, late the next, then back to early, and so on. Finally, there should be close observance of the 38-hour week, or whatever the agreed hours are, so that overtime can be avoided.

QUALIFICATIONS AND TRAINING

Promotion in librarianship depends upon the assistant becoming a chartered librarian, through possession either of the Library Association qualifications or the Diploma of the University of London School of Librarianship, and every ambitious assistant should study for these qualifications. For most assistants this still means studying in their spare time, either privately, by attendance at part-time day or evening classes, or with the aid of the correspondence courses organised by

the Association of Assistant Librarians. Since 1945, however, there have been many improvements in education for librarianship, largely through the setting-up of full-time library schools at London, Ealing, Manchester, Loughborough, Glasgow, Brighton, Leeds, Newcastle and Birmingham.

These schools, which were formed within existing technical colleges, provide a year's course for the Library Association examination which qualifies for associateship, and some of them also provide courses for parts of or the whole of the more advanced examination which qualifies the student for fellowship. Their earliest students were ex-service men and women who attended with a year's leave of absence from their authorities and a Government grant to aid them during their twelve months' studies. Students now attending library schools are chiefly library assistants aided by grants from their local authorities, and in this respect it should be realised that students should apply for a grant to the local education authority for the area in which they reside, and not to the authority for the area in which they work, if that happens to be different from their place of residence.

The ultimate ideal of library training is that all professional assistants should work in an approved library for a probationary period, and then proceed to a library school. Moves are now on foot, and rightly so, for the one-year course to be expanded into a two-year course. Until the library schools themselves expand, however, these ideals cannot be attained for the large numbers of students who are at present studying for the Library Association examinations.

Other improvements, long overdue, have been the

establishment of the system of approved libraries, and the recommendation in the Library Association syllabus that the training of junior staff should be closely supervised by their seniors. In many good libraries this "in-service" training, as it is called, had been practised for many years previously. Every junior assistant, of course, receives a modicum of training for the jobs he has to do, but nowadays most libraries, particularly the larger systems, have well-organised programmes of in-service training, in which senior assistants coach the juniors in both the theory and practice of library science.

STAFF INTERCHANGES

Experience in different types and sizes of libraries is of great value to any assistant, and experiments which have taken place in the interchange of assistants between libraries have generally proved very successful. Efforts to set up organised schemes of staff interchange, however, have usually broken down owing to legal and financial complications, to say nothing of the difficulties of finding suitable living accommodation for staff working far from their homes. Individual interchanges are generally encouraged by public librarians and local authorities, but it should be borne in mind that as public library systems are increasingly standardised in the United Kingdom today, the fullest benefit from an interchange is to be obtained when the participants are from different types of libraries, i.e. from public to special, or from university library to that of a Government department. The absence of an official scheme of staff interchange in the student librarian's area should not deter him if he really wishes to have practical experience in another library. He should write to the librarian of the library of his choice,

and it is quite likely that arrangements will be made for him.

Staff interchange on an international level might be thought to be even more difficult, but in fact many such exchanges have taken place and are indeed in progress at this moment. Edward Sydney helped to organise the visit of British assistants to some American libraries in the late 1940s, although these were not interchanges in the strict sense of the word. Recently the Library Association has initiated a scheme of internships whereby young librarians from overseas are enabled to work for a year in British libraries.

STAFF MEETINGS AND STAFF ORGANISATIONS

In all but the smallest libraries, it is a good idea for the chief librarian to hold periodical staff meetings of his seniors for the purpose of acquainting them with developments and changes in administration, and of discussing with them any ideas which they may have for the betterment of the service. In some of the larger libraries in the United Kingdom such a practice is almost essential and has been a feature of their organisation for many years. Some of these library staff meetings are properly constituted with regular agenda and minutes circulated by a senior assistant who is appointed as secretary.

Staff organisations are a feature in many large and medium-sized systems. Membership is open to all those on the staff, but these organisations are chiefly concerned with welfare and off-duty activities. Sometimes a staff bulletin or magazine is prepared and circulated to all assistants. These activities can be very valuable in helping to weld together a staff,

particularly when the existence of many branch libraries means that members rarely see each other.

APPOINTMENTS, APPLICATIONS AND INTERVIEWS

Staff appointments in libraries are usually publicly advertised, the appropriate periodical to search being *The Times Literary Supplement*. Daily papers such as *The Times*, the *Daily Telegraph* and *The Guardian* also frequently contain advertisements for positions in public, university and special libraries. At the moment, when there is a shortage of librarians for such posts as senior assistants, cataloguers, branch librarians and other specialist posts, if the student has a desire to work in any particular library he should write to the chief librarian, giving outline details of his age, education, and experience. If there is no vacancy available at the time, his name will be recorded for future reference, and he may soon be successful in obtaining an appointment.

Applying for publicly-advertised posts is an art that should be studied carefully. Sometimes the advertisement asks the applicant to send for an application form: this cramps the style of the applicant somewhat, but it at least ensures that he provides the type of information wanted, and there is usually an opportunity to add further details if thought necessary. When application forms are not provided, the candidate should, if possible, type his application. If his type-writing is inefficient, it would pay to have it properly typed. Long paragraphs of prose are not required on an application: instead, it should be tabulated in numbered paragraphs with such headings as name, address, age, date of birth, where educated, educational qualifications, present post, previous posts and general

experience. Copies of testimonials are sometimes called for, but it is more common these days for applicants to be asked to give the names of two or three referees. These referees will only be written to if the applicant is short-listed for the post. But if copies of testimonials *are* required, see that these too are neatly typed and presented. The importance of neat and striking presentation cannot be over-estimated. If the application totals several pages, it might be advisable to staple them together and to add a title-page. Some applicants even bind or staple their applications within a manila cover cut to size. If this is done, see that the front-cover bears a repeat of the title-page material. The application should, by the way, be typed with double-spacing on quarto not foolscap typing paper, and it can be made more attractive by the judicious use of the red ribbon in and amongst the black. Having read through the finished application and being satisfied with its attractive state, make sure that it is submitted to the correct address before the closing date.

If the post is a desirable one there will probably be a number of applicants and it is then usual for a short-list to be selected for interview either by the librarian or by an appointing committee on a certain date and at a certain time. Although it is difficult to avoid having nerves at an interview, the best candidates are those who can at least give the appearance of nervelessness. Beforchand, the candidate will probably have learnt as much as possible about the library where he hopes to work. Reference books will supply much of this information, and more may be gleaned by a visit to the library before the interview. He should take with him to the interview a copy of his application, the originals of his testimonials (if required) and samples or

photographs of any work he has previously done and of which he is specially proud. But don't overdo the samples! Candidates have been seen to enter interviews staggering under the weight of their exhibits. They usually stagger out again fairly quickly—and unsuccessfully!

Try to anticipate as many questions as possible, and rehearse the answers. On the other hand, be ready for the other type of interview which is on the increase these days—the kind where they do not ask questions but merely request the candidate to address the committee on his experience. This calls for self-salesmanship of a high order, and on these occasions the candidate's modesty has to be forgotten for a moment. At any interview, appear as smart as possible, do call the chairman "sir" or "ma'am" and, if appointed, do not forget to thank the committee for the appointment.

SOME FURTHER READING

- Brown, J. D. Manual of library economy. 6th ed. revised by W. C. Berwick Sayers. 1949. *Chapters 6, 7, and 8.*
Corbett, E. V. An introduction to public librarianship. 2nd ed. 1952. *Chapter 8.*
McColvin, L. R. Library staffs. 1939. *Chapters 2, 3, 4, and 6.*

QUESTIONS

1. What is meant by a "staff manual"?
2. Write down your opinions on the subject of the interchange of assistants from library to library.
3. Do you consider that regular meetings of the senior staff of a library are desirable? Mention some of the problems which might be discussed at such meetings.
4. What are the chief provisions of the National Joint Council's *Scheme of Conditions of Service* for local

authority staffs regarding (a) hours of work, (b) annual holidays for General Division assistants over 21 years of age, and (c) travelling and subsistence expenses for officers attending interviews?

5. Write a brief account of the library schools established in the United Kingdom since 1945.
6. Draw up a week's time-sheet for a branch library with a staff of 8 and a separate children's department. The library is open from 9 a.m. to 8 p.m. each weekday. Do not exceed the 38-hour week and avoid split duties.

Chapter VII

LIBRARY DEPARTMENTS AND METHODS

THIS chapter deals with departmental routine in public libraries and it must be clearly understood that in such a small compass the merest mention only can be devoted to each aspect, and it is more than ever necessary for the student librarian to undertake additional reading, details of which will be found at the end of the chapter. In addition to information on methods in lending, reference and children's libraries, some description is given of the routines in gramophone record libraries, mobile libraries and periodicals rooms.

LENDING LIBRARIES: REGISTRATION OF READERS

Most public libraries today have a simple method of registering readers by asking them to complete a standard 5in. by 3in. form of application. Libraries differ, however, in their requirements from readers in the way of guarantees. Some, although these are in the minority, allow all adult readers to register without the counter-signature of a guarantor, and these libraries will have, of course, one standard form of application. Other libraries, the majority, allow ratepayers (i.e. householders and their wives) to register upon their own signature, but lay down that non-ratepayers must obtain the counter-signature of a ratepayer as a guarantee. This involves the provision of two separate and

distinct application forms, which are usually readily distinguished by being of different colours.

In each case, when the completed application form is received, the name and address is checked with the defaulters' file, then with the current electoral rolls or, in the case of a person who has recently changed his address, verified by telephone consultation with the Rates Department of the local council. After checking, the reader's ticket or tickets are made out, and the application form is completed by writing the reader's name as a catchword along the top of the form, which is then filed with the others in alphabetical order. These processes, however, are normally done each morning for the day before, most libraries allowing new readers to take out books immediately upon presentation of the form of application. To make readers wait a day or two before they can actually borrow books is merely to place a most irritating obstacle in their paths, and continues the petty officialdom which most modern librarians have striven to abolish in their libraries.

The number of books which may be borrowed by readers varies from library to library and under the Browne system of charging, soon to be described, readers must have a ticket for every book they borrow. This means that if they are allowed to take two general books and two non-fiction books, four separate tickets must be made out for each reader. Under the photo-charging and punched card charging systems, which will also be briefly described in succeeding paragraphs, the reader has one ticket only which he must present on each occasion that he wishes to borrow a book.

People who are *employed* in the town or district are usually allowed to register at the local public library, even if they happen to reside outside the district.

People who neither live nor work in the administrative area covered by the library are generally allowed to register upon payment of a subscription which is sometimes payable quarterly, sometimes annually. In many areas this does not arise, as some neighbouring authorities have accepted the principle of the inter-availability of tickets, whereby a resident of one town may use his library ticket in the neighbouring town, and *vice versa*. The metropolitan boroughs of London have a complete interavailability scheme. Yet another way of allowing outside readers to use a library is to have a financial agreement between local authorities, so that a fixed sum is paid to the host authority for each outside reader registered. Examples of this kind of arrangement occur in Middlesex, among other places. Finally, most holiday resorts accept current library tickets from anywhere in Great Britain. Increasing use is being made of this facility, and librarians at these resorts say that the system is greatly appreciated and rarely abused.

The defaulters' file, which has been found necessary in most libraries, has already been mentioned. This is usually merely an alphabetical index for quick reference, kept on 5in. by 3in. cards, of the names and addresses of readers who have, in the past, failed to return books. The authors, titles and prices of the non-returned books are also listed on the cards. It is essential that all new applications should be checked with this file.

Changes of address should be recorded by the registration department both on the readers' tickets and on the original application forms. To assist in keeping the records of readers' addresses reasonably up-to-date, tickets are usually made out to expire after two or three years. Ticket renewals are handled differently in different libraries but, for the Browne

charging system which is still used in most British libraries, one of the best methods is to use different coloured tickets each year so that expired tickets can be readily spotted by the counter staff. All readers registered during 1962 should have their tickets dated to expire on December 31st 1964, and all tickets with that expiry date will be made out on one colour, say green. Readers registering during 1963 would have tickets of a different colour, say orange. This would mean that on January 1st 1965 all green tickets still in use are due for renewal. In this way, staff do not have to be continually checking the renewal date on readers' tickets. The actual expiry date, and the period of availability are, of course, matters for the individual library. Some librarians might prefer June 30th as a general expiry date each year, on the grounds that their libraries are not so busy then as they are in December.

As already stated, practice varies on the question of how many books may be taken out by readers. Some charging systems have little or no control over this factor, but libraries on the Browne charging system sometimes allow each reader a general ticket, a non-fiction ticket and a music ticket, although in some libraries two or more general tickets are issued. The question always to be considered is whether the stock of the library is large enough to permit the issue of extra tickets to readers. Some control was necessary in the past when library stocks were inadequate, but now that stocks are generally better books can be issued in greater numbers. Students particularly should be given generous treatment: extra tickets and extended loan periods should be granted to those who request them for specific purposes. The only stipulation to

extended loan periods is that the books should be returnable on demand, if they are requested by other readers. Public libraries, far from putting obstacles in the way of readers who want books, should go out of their way to meet genuine book needs.

ISSUE METHODS AND CHARGING SYSTEMS

Since the commencement of public library systems, there has been a variety of issue methods or charging systems, including the Cotgreave indicator, the ledger method, the Newark system, the Browne method, the Dickman system, token-charging, photo-charging, punched card charging, and there have also been combinations of some of the above. Of those historic methods, the ledger and the indicator, nothing will be said, as information on them may be obtained, if required, from chapter 35 of Brown's *Manual of library economy*. The Dickman and the Newark systems are American, and a good description of the latter can be found in Harrod's *Lending library methods*, chapter 7. The method traditionally in use in British public libraries is the Browne system. In this method, each book has a book card which, when the volume is issued, is placed inside the reader's ticket. The latter is in the form of a pocket and this, with the book card, forms the charge. On the book card is written the accession number of the book, its class number, author and brief title. Charges are usually arranged in order of the accession number, but in some libraries they are sorted in two sequences—fiction in alphabetical order of author and non-fiction in order of class number. The charges are filed in trays according to the date of issue or date of return.

Readers will not need telling that most public library

buildings today are hopelessly small for the volume of work they are doing. Congestion is reported from nearly every system in the country, and at no point within the library is this congestion more noticeable than at the counter, which is invariably too small. No wonder that in the last ten years or so British librarians have been increasingly concerned with techniques for issuing books. To begin with, some libraries experimented with the "delayed discharge" of books which operated as follows. As soon as a queue began to form, readers' books were not discharged straight away in the usual fashion. Instead, each reader was handed a card with a printed number upon it. A counterfoil of the card containing the same number was placed in the book. As time permitted, all the "delays" were discharged, the counterfoil card being put inside the reader's ticket and filed in number order on the exit counter. When the reader approached the exit counter to have his book charged, he handed in his copy of the numbered card while the assistant traced his ticket from that number.

In smaller libraries, delayed discharge was effected by merely asking the reader to proceed into the library. When the book had been discharged the reader's ticket was filed at the exit counter in name order, and was traced by merely asking the reader's name when he presented himself at that counter.

But these were mere expedients and when it became obvious that book issues were continuing to increase new issue methods were sought. At Westminster a special problem was posed because a very large number of office workers exchanged their books during the lunch-hour period and the queues of readers waiting to hand in their books under the Browne issue system

were intolerable. To solve this, a token issue system was evolved. In addition to readers' tickets, which have to be produced at every transaction, borrowers are given a number of tokens. A token is surrendered whenever a book is borrowed, and a token is given to the reader whenever he returns a book. In so far as it practically abolished the queues the system is considered successful, although it has some drawbacks, chief among them being that no real check of the stock is possible under the system. The Westminster librarians assert that the idea works well there, but they have warned other librarians that the scheme is not necessarily for export. Despite this warning, a number of other libraries have adopted the system, with some variations.

Meanwhile, other librarians were experimenting with what we now know as photo-charging. The Shaw photo-charger was used in America shortly after the second world war, but in this country it was E. V. Corbett who first introduced photo-charging at Wandsworth. It has since been adopted in numerous other libraries. With this system the usual date labels are dispensed with, and instead serially numbered transaction cards are used. Readers are issued with a kind of season ticket recording name, address and the date to which it is available. At the exit counter, the reader's ticket, the book card and a transaction card are photographed on to 16mm. panchromatic film: the book card and transaction card are replaced in the book, while the reader retains his ticket. To obviate the need for book cards some libraries photograph the fly-leaf on which essential details have been inscribed. As well as being numbered, the transaction cards are serially lettered in order to facilitate with overdues.

When the book is returned a glance at the serial letter tells the assistant if a fine is due. The reader passes into the library and the assistant merely takes the transaction card out of the book for refileing by letter and number. Overdues are discovered by checking the files of transaction cards, while reserved books are checked with a visible index.

Punched cards have also been used for book charging systems, either combined with photo-charging, as at Croydon, or without that combination, as at Holborn. At the latter library, the reader's season ticket has a serial number and at the exit counter a punched card operator punches the book number and the reader's number on two punched cards, one of which is placed in the book and the other is filed. Each day the punches are pre-set to record the date of issue so that this does not have to be punched for every transaction. On return the assistant takes the punched card out of the book and the reader passes the counter without delay. As with photo-charging, overdues are discovered by a process of elimination, the returned cards being checked by machine against the original file. Reserved books are discovered by checking against the visible index of reservations.

The increasing number of librarians who have adopted either token, photographic or punched card charging all report satisfaction with the various systems, and claim advantages over the Browne method. In spite of this, we are still in an experimental era as far as book issue methods are concerned, and it is more than likely that the perfect method has yet to be invented.

RENEWALS AND OVERDUES

In most libraries the period of issue is fourteen days, but here again experiment is in the air and here and

there a period of three weeks has been fixed. Readers are nearly always allowed to renew books for further periods, if they are not reserved by other people. Under the Browne system the renewal process is straightforward when the book is actually returned to the library. The new date due is merely stamped on the date label and the charge is inserted in the current day's issue. When the request comes via the telephone or by post the charge is left in the original date and a slip inserted to denote the new date due.

To encourage the more frequent circulation of books, fines are usually charged on overdue books. There has been some doubt about the legality of this, although by now many English towns and counties have a clause in local Acts of Parliament allowing for library fines to be charged. The Roberts Committee Report (Cmnd. 660) makes a clear recommendation that reasonable fines should continue to be charged to adult readers, though not to children. At Dagenham no fines are charged at all; at other places it has been found necessary to levy quite punitive fines.

In most public libraries, readers are regularly reminded about their overdue books. At one time it was quite common for three reminders to be sent—first a postcard when the book was 2 or 3 weeks overdue, then a second notice (often a postcard printed in compelling red), and finally a stencilled letter, threatening to put the matter in the hands of the legal department if the books were not immediately returned. The high cost of administration, coupled with the increasing number of overdue books, has compelled many librarians to look again into the question of overdue books, with the result that many libraries now send only two reminders. Instead of postcards, however, which are

often forgotten and sometimes even lost in the post, a folded circular is sent. If the reader remains impervious to these written appeals, a telephone call may be made, or sometimes a personal call at the reader's home. Finally, the recalcitrants are reported to the legal department who usually send letters threatening legal action. In order to attract overdue books, some libraries have experimented with a "fines amnesty" week and have let it be known that during a particular week no fines will be charged on overdue books. The results have been mixed but, generally speaking, such weeks cannot be said to have been a great success.

In the case of very popular books, librarians sometimes reduce the period of loan from 14 days to 7, or else they double the fines rates on these particular books. Both measures have as their aim the more prompt return of these books in the public interest, but if these methods are adopted the books themselves must contain bold labels drawing the attention of readers to these special conditions of loan.

RESERVATION OF BOOKS

It is common practice in public libraries today to have a scheme whereby readers may for a small fee reserve any book which is in stock but not on the shelves at the time of asking. The fee, usually 3d. but sometimes higher, is charged to cover the cost of printing and posting a card to inform the reader when the book is available for him. Some libraries do not accept reservations for fiction, but this restriction should be avoided if possible. When a reader wishes to reserve a book, his name and address is written on the front of a printed postcard, and on the reverse is inserted the

author and title of the book required. All reservation cards are serially numbered and filed in author order. Under the Browne system the book is "stopped" in the issue by having a distinctive signal placed in the charge. When the book is returned, the assistant sees the reserved signal and instead of returning the book to the shelves, puts it on the reservation shelf. Later, all these are dealt with, the reserve cards being extracted from the file and sent to the readers concerned. Books are usually kept for about three days: if not claimed they are either put back into circulation or, if still reserved, the next card on the list is sent. Both the photo-charging and punched card systems, as well as the token-issuing system, require the use of a visible index for checking reserves. For this, it is best to have a sorting room adjacent to the counter. All returned books go to this room where they are checked against the visible index and retained if reserved. The opportunity is also taken to see if the book requires repair or rebinding. If it does not, and is not reserved by any reader, it is then shelved in the normal way.

OTHER SERVICES TO READERS

In the past few years many efforts have been made to give a really personal service to readers. The book reservation system comes under this heading, although it is an old-established idea, but of recent years we have seen the advent of the reader's adviser, usually a senior assistant specially detailed to deal with readers' book wants and queries. In addition, most libraries now provide a good deal of printed guidance. New readers, for instance, should be presented with a pamphlet detailing library facilities and privileges. Folders listing new books on a particular subject, or bulletins

listing new books are regularly published by many libraries. Nearly everywhere readers are encouraged to recommend books, while some libraries have started indexes of readers' interests, which enables details of new books on certain subjects to be sent to the readers who are most interested in those subjects. Reading lists should be willingly compiled either for individual readers or for adult classes and societies and, as has already been suggested, extra tickets and extended periods of loan should be granted where possible to serious library users.

THE CHILDREN'S LIBRARY

The children's library is one of the most important departments in the system. Children become adults in a surprisingly short time and those who have enjoyed a good children's library service in their youth become better and more intelligent users of the adult library in later life. The children's library is usually a microcosm of the whole library as far as contents and routine are concerned. Normally occupying only one room, it contains fiction and non-fiction books for home-reading arranged in a similar manner to those in the adult library; it has a quick-reference collection which helps to familiarise the children with the use of dictionaries, atlases and encyclopaedias; and it usually provides a selection of children's periodicals.

A simplified version of the classification scheme is customary for the children's library, and the catalogue too is duly simplified. Registration is on similar lines to the system employed in the adult department, except that the signature of the parent or teacher is usually required on the application form. Age limits of admission vary. Some libraries admit only those

children aged 9 to 15, but in more enlightened places they cater for the very young and have virtually no age limits. The issue system is nearly everywhere by the Browne method, for those libraries which have photo-charging or punched card charging in their adult departments rarely use these methods in their children's libraries. An increasing number of libraries have abolished fines for overdue books in the children's library, and the recommendation of the Roberts Committee (Cmnd. 660) will no doubt add to the numbers. In place of the fines, offenders are warned and sometimes, if they persist in keeping books overdue, their tickets are suspended for a period. One wonders, however, if this is the best way to deal with the problem.

The staff of the children's library, particularly the children's librarian, must be chosen with care. Special qualities are needed—patience, tact, sincerity and sociability—as well as organising ability and a wide knowledge of children's literature and child psychology. The children's librarian is usually allowed a good deal of latitude in the running of her department. She normally does her own book selection, arranges displays, selects books for school libraries where these are provided, visits schools to give talks, receives school classes in the library, compiles printed or duplicated lists of new books, and generally she endeavours to keep the children's library as bright and attractive a place as possible.

Extension work is often undertaken in the way of story hours and library lessons. Story hours are sometimes arranged as a winter syllabus, one a week being held at the children's library through the winter months. Normally the story hour consists of the

reading or telling of a story by the children's librarian or a member of the staff, but it should always be remembered that narrative is a great art and that a poor storyteller can ruin a good story. A recent experiment with tape-recordings in the children's library proved to be a novelty that was accepted with enthusiasm by the young listeners. A story hour series need not be confined to actual stories. Straight talks can be included, especially if they are illustrated with the epidiascope or with colour slides or transparencies. One thing to bear in mind is that where possible story hours should be related to the use of books—displays of relevant books or lists of recommended books should be a feature of every story hour.

Children's book weeks are activities which have been very successful in many places. They consist usually of a programme of talks by favourite children's authors, an exhibition of children's books past and present, and possibly competitions for which book prizes are sometimes awarded. An essential factor in the success of a children's book week is the co-operation of the schools and the teachers. Given that, the venture nearly always results in a visible improvement in the quality and quantity of children's reading.

Co-operation with schools and teachers is in any case a cardinal necessity in the success or otherwise of children's library work generally. Field work is frequently undertaken by the children's librarian by visiting schools and addressing teachers and children on the work of the library. But a better idea is to arrange for classes to visit the library for a lesson conducted by the library staff. Such visits should be of about $1\frac{1}{2}$ hours' duration and the time could be filled in with a programme on the following lines.

First there should be a brief talk on the library as a whole, who owns it, how it is governed, and where the money comes from. A few pointed remarks on the care and handling of books could also be included here. This should be followed by a talk by a different person on how to use the catalogue and how to find books on the shelves. Of necessity, this talk should be in broad outline only, and a prepared blackboard often comes in useful here.

Following this, some practice on the use of the catalogue and book-finding should be given. For this purpose, it is a good idea to split the class into two halves, one half gathering round the catalogue for a more detailed explanation by a member of the staff, while sample catalogue cards representing books on the shelves are distributed to the other children whose job it is to find the books from the information given. It usually happens that children are particularly quick at this after they have heard the explanatory talk. After changing round, the final period can be devoted to a conducted tour of the entire library. The class should be divided into small units, each conducted by a member of the staff, and the parties should be taken in turn through the adult lending department and the reference library, while it is sometimes a good idea to show them the workrooms and to demonstrate the processing of a new book.

To explain and to demonstrate the use of reference books, it would be necessary for the class to pay another visit to the library. On this occasion there would first be an explanatory talk defining the various reference books such as encyclopaedias, yearbooks, atlases, dictionaries, concordances, bibliographies and so on, and this would be followed by what has become

known as a "treasure hunt" with reference books. Cards are distributed, each containing a question and the name of the reference book which will supply the answer. Only one card must be written for each book and members of the library staff must supervise carefully to see that the children really find the required information. When they have, they are given fresh cards, so that after some time they will have handled quite a number of the best-known reference books.

The programme outlined above is only a suggested one, but it has worked well in several library systems. It must be remembered that such lessons need very careful preparation, and involve the presence of at least three members of the staff. Each of these should be responsible for one of the short talks and should take part in the supervision of the demonstrations.

REFERENCE AND LOCAL HISTORY LIBRARY

Work in reference and local history libraries is becoming increasingly specialised, and it is not proposed here to cover the subject in great detail. In any case, the student librarian is referred to chapter XI of this book, which describes some of the best-known reference books, and in addition he is directed to the readings given at the end of this chapter.

Every library has its quick-reference section, ranging from a shelf or two of reference books in the smallest permanent branch libraries to the important reference libraries of such cities as Manchester, Birmingham, Liverpool, Glasgow and Edinburgh. The peculiar character of reference work is, of course, that of answering questions or providing information from books for readers. For this reason the book stock, the staffing

and the routine methods of a reference library differ considerably from the other departments.

The medium-sized reference library will contain directories, encyclopaedias, dictionaries, Government publications, bibliographies, atlases and maps, mathematical tables, yearbooks and so on, supported by the recognised reference books in each subject. There will almost certainly be a Local History Collection, containing as much local material as it has been found possible to amass, whether books, manuscripts, maps, pictures, leaflets, programmes, illustrations, slides and the like. In the largest library systems, the reference library contains text-books on individual subjects as well as all the general reference books already mentioned. It may grow to such proportions that, as at Manchester, separate technical, commercial and foreign libraries are set up or, as at Edinburgh, separate departments (including reference and lending stock together) are formed for each main subject. Liverpool too is notable in this field, having recently inaugurated an international library.

The staffing of a reference library is a matter of the highest importance. The work calls for a high degree of bibliographical knowledge, ingenuity and flexibility of mind, and the right psychological approach to readers. The latter is vitally important for one of the most difficult tasks confronting a reference librarian is to get the enquirer to say *exactly* what he wants in the way of information. As a consequence of all this, good reference librarians are extremely valuable members of any library staff.

The stock of a reference library is rarely kept on the open shelves in its entirety, owing to its size, also to the fact that much of it is of occasional use only, and finally

because it may contain many books of a rare and irreplaceable nature. Usually only the best-known and most-used reference books are kept on the open shelves, the remainder being readily accessible in book stores or "stacks", as they are known in large reference libraries. The whole stock will, of course, be represented in the catalogue, but those books not kept on the open shelves should have their catalogue entries plainly marked to the effect that they are reserve stock and that they are available on application to the staff. Access to open-shelf books will be without formality, but a simple form is normally used when the reader requests a particular book from the stack. What the library staff should aim at here is speed in providing the book, as readers naturally find long waits irksome.

Reference libraries differ from other departments in their general layout and furnishings, the most modern being fitted with flat-topped study tables fitted with local lighting. Special attention is nowadays being given to research students, and in some libraries study carrels are provided. At the end of his day's research, the student is issued with the key to the carrel so that he can lock it up and begin straight away next morning. In other libraries, as at Plymouth, a study room is preferred, but here again the desks can be locked and the student is issued with the key for that purpose. Special shelving is required in reference libraries, as so many of the books are large and deep, and there is also a need for special furniture in the way of map tables and cabinets, vertical files for keeping illustrations, cuttings and manuscripts. Microphotography is revolutionising reference work, and nowadays most reference departments have their microfilm readers, through which students and readers generally may scan

old documents or newspaper files on microfilm, microfiche or microcard. Finally, photostat equipment is a part of all large reference libraries, so that photocopies of written material can speedily and cheaply be provided for readers.

PERIODICALS AND NEWSPAPERS

The provision of periodicals and newspapers in libraries calls for little in the way of routine work. Their arrival, of course, has to be checked on a register, and the visible index type is preferable to the old-fashioned ledger. Invoices have to be checked, and the method of display has to be decided upon. The modern tendency is to reduce the number of newspapers taken, but periodicals remain an important part in the library's information service. They should be kept in periodicals' cases with transparent fronts and lettered spines, and displayed on racks so that their titles can be clearly seen. Another matter which calls for attention is the disposal of periodicals after use. Ephemeral publications may very well be sold to members of the public at a reduced price, but if this practice is indulged in it is advisable to have a simple form of contract in which the library does not hold itself responsible for the condition of the periodicals when they are made available to buyers of them. Periodicals, particularly those on technical subjects, are of special value for their up-to-date information on the subjects of which they treat, and for this reason the best of them are usually filed and sometimes bound for addition to the stock of the library.

A brief classified list of periodicals is appended but at the same time attention is drawn to the fact that the *Writers' and Artists' Year Book* contains a much fuller

classified index. Student librarians should, if possible, handle all the periodicals mentioned below, and should get to know their format, scope and contents, remembering that periodicals are as important as the best reference books.

ART AND COLLECTING

Antique Collector	Burlington Magazine
Apollo	Connoisseur
Architects' Journal	Museums Journal
Artist	Studio

ECONOMICS AND POLITICS

Economist	Spectator
Financial Times	Quarterly Review
Investors' Chronicle	Tribune
New Statesman and Nation	Twentieth Century

EDUCATION

Education	Times Educational
Schoolmaster	Supplement
Teachers' World	Universities Quarterly

LITERARY

Books and Bookmen	London Magazine
Bookseller	Listener
Contemporary Review	National and English Review
Cornhill Magazine	Plays and Players
Encounter	Poetry Review
Library Review	Times Literary Supplement

MUSIC

Gramophone	Music and Musicians
Music and Letters	Musical Times
Music Review	Opera

NATURE, COUNTRY LIFE AND GARDENING

Country Life	Gardeners Chronicle
Countryman	Homes and Gardens
Farmers Weekly	Naturalist
Field	

RELIGION AND PHILOSOPHY

Baptist Times	Hibbert Journal
British Weekly	Jewish Chronicle
Catholic Times	Methodist Recorder
Christian Herald	Mind
Church Times	Psychic News
Congregational Monthly	Tablet

SPORTS, HOBBIES AND SOCIAL

Cricketer	Queen
C.T.C. Gazette	Sphere
Fishing Gazette	Tatler and Bystander
Gibbons' Stamp Monthly	Woodworker
Model Engineer	Yachting World

SCIENTIFIC AND TECHNICAL

Autocar	Modern Transport
Automobile Engineer	Motor
BBC Quarterly	Motor Cycling
Builder	Municipal Journal
Electrical Review	Nature
Engineer	New Scientist
Engineering	Practical Mechanics
Flight	Practical Photography
Gas World	Practical Wireless
Machinery	Practitioner

TRAVEL

Blackwood's Magazine	Geography
Geographical Journal	National Geographic
Geographical Magazine	Magazine

CHILDREN'S

Boy's Own Paper	Junior Bookshelf
Children's Newspaper	Meccano Magazine
Elizabethan	New Venture
Hobbies Weekly	Pictorial Education

MOBILE LIBRARIES

Many counties, as well as towns which cover large areas, have attempted to solve the problem of serving readers in outlying areas by providing a mobile or travelling library service. These mobile libraries are either rigid vehicles or trailer-type vehicles, and they carry anything from 750 up to three or four thousand volumes depending on their size. The shelves face inwards and are tilted and rimmed so as to prevent books from falling off whilst the vehicle is in motion. A small issue desk is fitted at one end of the vehicle and portable steps are carried, these being fitted into position when the library arrives at one of its scheduled stops. County mobile libraries which serve areas of scattered population may visit certain areas only each fortnight or even each month, and when this is the case readers are allowed to take quite a number of books at each visit. In towns, mobile libraries work to a scheduled programme, visiting particular sites at fixed hours each week. These sites are usually marked with small neat notices informing the public of the times and durations of the visits, and it is customary these days for a mains supply of electricity to provide the mobile libraries with lighting and heating during their sometimes long halts. Natural lighting is provided from toplights and these are usually hinged to provide ventilation in warm weather.

Mobile libraries need a centre from which to operate,

and in which to accommodate the pool of stock from which their contents are chosen. They need too, a separate librarian-in-charge with as many assistants as are considered necessary to run the system. In every way, a mobile library department is organised in a way similar to that in which ordinary branch libraries are organised. Books are issued in the same way, readers' reservations and requests are taken, overdue notices are sent from the operating centre, and generally the department is just like an additional branch. Bad weather can sometimes dislocate services in winter and when this happens care must be taken to adjust fines and to keep reserved books for a longer period so that the readers do not suffer unduly. No mobile library can ever be as satisfactory as a permanent branch, but it is often the answer to the difficult problem of serving a number of perimeter areas none of which is big enough to justify a permanent library building. Mobile libraries have often been found useful in supplying rapidly growing areas, until such time as those areas can be supplied from a new permanent branch.

GRAMOPHONE RECORD LIBRARIES

Since 1946 the growth of gramophone record departments in British public libraries has been phenomenal, and two factors may be said to account for this. First there has been what J. H. Davies describes as a quite remarkable rise in the standards of musical appreciation since the war and secondly, since 1950 the advent of the long-playing record has revolutionised the presentation of music and speech on records.

The first record libraries in this country consisted entirely of standard 78 r.p.m. discs. Not only were

these very fragile, but also they necessitated having several discs for a long work such as a Beethoven symphony. In 1950 the first 33 r.p.m. long-playing discs were put on sale here. In contrast to the standard 78 r.p.m. records these are unbreakable and they enable a whole symphony to be played on one side of a twelve-inch disc. They are not, however an unmixed blessing, for although they cannot be broken they are very easily damaged by rough handling or if they are played on a machine with a stylus which happens to be worn or damaged. The discs must be kept scrupulously clean, and should be wiped with a barely damp cloth or sponge both before and after playing. This susceptibility to damage means that a public record collection must have hard-and-fast rules, and a ceaseless propaganda is necessary in order that users do not ruin the records through careless, negligent or ignorant handling. It is quite essential that the librarian-in-charge of a gramophone record library and all the staff who work there should not only have a good knowledge of music and records, they should also be tactful in their handling of the public. In this department above all it is quite essential that relations between the staff and the public should be as good as possible.

In most gramophone record libraries, users complete a separate form of application and are allowed to take one record at a time, or one complete work if it happens to consist of more than one disc. One or two libraries have an open-access system, which allows users to handle the discs before taking them, but the commoner practice is to work on the indicator system. Cards, usually arranged alphabetically by composer, are placed on an indicator to represent those records which are available for loan. The intending borrower makes

his choice from the indicator and hands in the card at the counter. When the record is supplied to him, the card is placed in his member's ticket and serves as the charge. Before issue it is essential that both the assistant and the member should examine the disc and ensure that any existing damage is marked by chinagraph or other means. On return the disc is again examined. Records are catalogued with entries under composers, titles and artistes, but the arrangement on the presses is often, though not always, by maker's number. Records are usually issued for a fortnight, and are renewable if not reserved. Reservations are taken in the usual way, and fines charged for overdue discs. One essential in the gramophone record library is an excellent reference section, consisting of files of the *Gramophone*, makers' catalogues, and all the recognised reference books on music and records. In these days there is an increasing number of speech records being issued, such as poetry readings and Shakespearean and other plays, and it will be found that these are in considerable demand. Language tuition records are also in demand, but their presence in the collection causes considerable difficulties. If these can be overcome, there is no doubt that this is a worth-while educational service.

The gramophone record library calls for a certain amount of equipment, chief among which must be a good record-player and amplifier so that records can be tested. A microscope for examining styli is another useful piece of equipment, as is the "Parastat", a device for cleaning long-playing records and getting rid of the static which accumulates on the plastic surface. Another consideration is the provision of special stationery for the issuing of records. Cardboard

sleeves with printed date labels are of course a necessity, while some libraries issue their discs in protective cartons or boxes.

A modern tendency is to combine the gramophone record library with the music department, with a separate librarian-in-charge and a specialised staff. This is a very logical development, enabling users to have before them not only a stock of records but also the whole of the music, including miniature scores, textbooks, reference books and periodicals. Where space permits, small listening cubicles are provided so that students can hear records on the premises.

It should be mentioned that most libraries issue their discs to individual borrowers, but a minority still restrict issues to societies only. The existence of a gramophone record section has also led some libraries to introduce lunch-hour concerts on their premises.

SOME FURTHER READING

- Brown, J. D. *Manual of library economy*. 6th ed. revised by W. C. Berwick Sayers. 1949. *Chapters 24-28, 32-33.*
- Corbett, E. V. *An introduction to public librarianship*. 2nd ed. 1952. *Pages 72-97.*
- Gray, Duncan. *Fundamentals of librarianship*. 1949. *Chapters 6, 12, 13, and 14.*
- Harrod, L. M. *Lending library methods*. *Chapters 6, 7, 8, and 9.*

QUESTIONS

1. What essential records must be kept in the registration of readers, and what are their particular purposes?
2. Describe briefly the methods adopted in your library for the reservation of books.

3. Describe a typical day's work in the type of library in which you are employed.
4. State the advantages and disadvantages of (a) the Browne pocket-charging system and (b) photo-charging
5. Set out briefly the action you would take if you were allowed to institute your own system of dealing with overdue books. Indicate the time you would allow between each stage.
6. Describe in outline the work of *either* (a) a mobile library *or* (b) a gramophone record library.

Chapter VIII

THE BOOK STOCK

FEW student librarians get the necessary experience to enable them to appreciate the work involved before books are ready to be issued to readers. The purpose of this short chapter is to outline these processes, through selection, ordering, processing and stock recording, so that the student can answer what is a very common question in examination papers.

BOOK SELECTION

The selection of material for the library is a most important task and those responsible for it should have a wide knowledge of books, particularly in regard to present-day authors, and should also have the alert sense and necessary experience to assess public demand in advance. In the smaller library systems book selection is normally carried out by the chief librarian although he should always be ready to welcome suggestions from readers and from his own staff. In the larger library services, the selection of material is usually in the hands of a buyer, who collects requirements from all departments, including readers' requests, visits bookshops, interviews book salesmen and generally co-ordinates the book order and selection departments.

Today there are many, probably too many, aids to book selection, but it is never too early to get to know the best bibliographical and periodical aids. For

British librarians, whether they administer government, university, public or special libraries, the indispensable aid since January 1950 has been the *British National Bibliography*, which appears weekly, and is cumulated quarterly and annually. The B.N.B. is self-supporting and is governed by an *ad hoc* body with representatives from the British Museum, Aslib, the Library Association, the Publishers' Association, the Booksellers' Association and other bodies. Its entries are based on the books which are legally deposited at the British Museum by publishers under the Copyright Acts. For classification, it uses the Decimal scheme with variations, and all the entries are fully catalogued according to the classified code, with author, subject and title indexes. Five-yearly cumulations of the index and of the subject catalogue are now also available. As time progresses, the value of B.N.B. is becoming more and more apparent to librarians. Not only is it the weekly list on which they base their book selection, it also enables staff and readers to trace books from their authors or titles, while the compilation of subject reading lists has now been made an easy matter. It is not, of course, a complete guide to book selection, because it does not include music, maps or foreign books (except those which are published or available in England), but it is nevertheless an indispensable guide. For music, the Council of the British National Bibliography has since 1957 been producing the *British Catalogue of Music*: this appears quarterly and one point of interest about it is that the entries are arranged according to a new and specially compiled scheme of classification. This publication too is fully indexed and is cumulated annually.

Other aids to current book selection appear in such

periodicals as *The Times Literary Supplement*, the *Listener*, the *New Statesman and Nation*, the *Spectator*, the *Observer*, the *Sunday Times*, *The Times*, the *Daily Telegraph* and *The Guardian*, all of which contain regular reviews of current general literature. The book selector also uses such special periodicals as *Nature*, which reviews scientific books, the *Musical Times*, which pays special attention to books on music, the *Connoisseur*, which reviews art books, *Engineering*, which covers technical books, and many others on many other subjects. There are also such aids as the *Bookseller* and the *Publishers' Circular*, both of which are trade publications appearing weekly and carrying lists of books published in the previous week as well as lists of forthcoming books. A newer periodical *Books and Bookmen* is useful for its general reviews as well as for listing forthcoming books, while a good reminder list is *Books of the Month*, which reviews and lists books issued during the previous month. *British Book News*, issued under the auspices of the British Council, is primarily intended for overseas readers, but it is well annotated and is a useful check list. Basic bibliographical aids of which all students should be aware of are the *Cumulative Book Index*, Whitaker's *Cumulative Book List* and the *Reference Catalogue of Current Literature*. The former is an American publication, a monthly list of new books in dictionary catalogue form, and cumulated into a bound volume every six months. Larger cumulations appear at longer intervals. Since 1930 the C.B.I. has included not only American books but also those published in Great Britain and in other English-speaking parts of the world, and this is one of the great merits of the publication. Whitaker's *Cumulative Book List* is a British publication and it includes only those books

published in the United Kingdom. It is based on the lists which appear weekly in the *Bookseller*, and these are cumulated into the annual volume known as the C.B.L. The *Reference Catalogue of Current Literature* is a two-volume publication of British books in print. It appears at irregular intervals, the last edition at the time of writing being that of 1957. The first volume is arranged by authors, and the second by titles.

BOOK ORDERING

The books having been selected, with the aid of the above guides, they have then to be ordered. Some purists in the profession have deplored the fact that, on the whole, librarians have failed to evolve a systematic method of book selection. There is no need for such disparagement, for book selection does not lend itself to rigid systematisation. In book ordering however, system is not only desirable, it is absolutely necessary. Methods differ from library to library, but the general method of recording book orders is to make out a card or slip for every book ordered and to file these in alphabetical order. It is a good idea to have these cards or slips in printed form, so that they may be subsequently used as accession records. Such a record need only contain details of author, title, publisher, price, date of order, from whom ordered, date of supply, allocation and accession number. As each book is supplied the record card should be completed and passed to the accessions department.

In most public libraries readers' requests are encouraged and today they form a considerable proportion of books on the order list. Such requests are usually made on a standard 5in. by 3in. card printed on both sides. The front contains spaces for author,

title, publisher and price of the book, with additional blanks for the reader's name, address, telephone number and the date. On the reverse can be printed details for office use only, such as whether the request is approved or rejected, whether the purchase will be made new or second-hand, or whether the request will be satisfied by borrowing through the inter-library loan system. A reader's request card such as this can be used as the order card, but it is better to prepare a separate order card so that when the book arrives the order card can be sent to accessions in the usual way, while the reader's request card stays with the book throughout its processing. When the book is ready for issue, the reader can be informed that the book is available and that it is being reserved for him.

BOOK PROCESSING

At an early stage in their development, student librarians should get to know the processes through which a book goes between its arrival from the book-seller and its appearance on the shelves of the library. This should be an easy matter for those who have worked in a library for a short time and have kept their eyes open. The stages of book preparation, or processing, can be briefly tabulated as follows:—

Check of book with invoice

Rough collation (i.e. physical check of book)

Classification

Accessioning

Cataloguing

Labelling

Lettering on spine

Final check of all processes before shelving

Now to examine these processes in a little more detail. As the new books are unpacked they are assembled for comparison with the invoice which the bookseller may either have included with the consignment or have sent under separate cover. Care must be taken to ensure that the correct prices have been charged, that the correct discount has been allowed, and the invoice must be checked for addition. Many libraries make use of a "process-stamp" which is imprinted usually on the back of the title-pages of books as they are added, and this has spaces for filling in the vendor's name, price, date of addition, etc. These details may either be filled in by the person checking the invoice or they may be completed at a later stage in the accessions department. The process-stamp, if used, should be kept as small and as neat as possible, a sample ruling being as follows:—

NORTHTOWN PUBLIC LIBRARIES			
Vdr.	DT.	Price	PG/-
Dept.	CR.	Date	5/60
Class	820.9	Acc. No.	98216

As will be seen from the above example, it is desirable to use a simple code to fill in the details of vendor and price. The initial letters of vendors' names will suffice as a code, so long as the same letter does not occur twice. Some librarians deplore the use of the process-stamp in books but when they are not in use, clerical and cataloguing staff tend to pencil in the source and price,

the class-number and the accession number. If these details are essential in processing, as would seem to be the case, then they should be entered neatly and uniformly, and the process stamp is the best way to ensure this being done.

At the same time as the book is unpacked and checked with the invoice, a rough check is carried out to make sure that the book has no physical imperfections. It sometimes happens that the book has been damaged in transit or that, owing to binders' errors, a section of the book is missing or has been duplicated. In the event of any such imperfections, the book will be returned to the bookseller, who will supply a perfect copy in its place. If he is unable to replace it, he will send a credit note, enabling the amount to be deducted from the full invoice before payment.

After these preliminaries the book (if non-fiction) will proceed to the classifier's desk or shelves for classification, and then it will be accessioned. Fiction will proceed direct to the accessions department immediately after being checked with the invoice. Here it should be mentioned that some libraries no longer accession fiction books. The various methods of accessioning will be more fully described later in this chapter under the paragraph headed "Stock recording". Following accessioning, the book proceeds to the cataloguer, although here again it should be noted that in some libraries accessioning takes place after cataloguing, especially when the system does not use the accession number for arranging charges in the issue. It is where the accession number is used for this purpose that accessioning sometimes takes place before cataloguing, in order that the accession number can be included on the catalogue entries.

After cataloguing, the book is stamped and labelled, and the class-number is lettered on the spine, either with an electric pen or stylus or preferably with the aid of a gold tooling set similar to that used by bookbinders for their tooling. This gives greater permanence to the lettering. It is not generally realised by student librarians and assistants generally that lettering is one of the most important jobs in library routine. If the lettering on the spine of a book is indecipherable, the last link in the chain of book-finding destroys the efficacy of the whole system. The entire object of classification and cataloguing, on which a formidable amount of time and money is spent in every library system, is to enable books to be grouped into the most useful order and to enable them to be found easily. If the lettering system is inefficient, then the whole book-finding system is inefficient and all the work that has gone into classification and cataloguing is wasted.

Before the book finally goes on to the shelves, a final check takes place. This is often done by a senior assistant, who checks every process to make sure that everything has been done and that all is in order.

STOCK RECORDING

The object of stock recording, or accessioning, is to show the history of any particular book from the time of its arrival in the library to the time of its withdrawal.

Stock records are usually called accessions registers and they may be in ledger, loose-leaf ledger, card, slip or punched card form. The information included in an accessions register usually comprises such details as accession number, author, title, publisher, date of publication, edition, price, vendor, class

number, date of addition and allocation, that is, the department or branch to which the book has been allocated.

The ledger form of accessioning is no longer in favour owing to its inflexibility, although ledger accession registers still exist in older libraries. It is essential that registers should be flexible, because most libraries today have a high rate of turnover in regard to additions and withdrawals. The loose-leaf ledger form is an improvement as it enables pages to be re-written as they become congested with replacements and withdrawals. But even this method is not so flexible as the use of cards or slips. One card or slip is made out for each book added to stock, and these are then filed either in accession number order, class-number order or author order. It is advisable that the arrangement should be the same as that in which the charges in the issue are arranged. When the book is withdrawn from the library, the accession card or slip can be destroyed and the vacant accession number used again for a new book or replacement. Many libraries maintain records of withdrawn books, but there is little justification for what seems to be a useless and time-consuming record. Accuracy in maintaining the accessions register is essential at all times for it is regarded as the official stock record of the library. In case of fire, it should, along with the catalogue and the issue records, be one of the first items to be taken to safety, as it will be required by the insurance company for assessing the value of the losses caused by the fire.

STOCKTAKING

Stocktaking is one of the most formidable tasks to be undertaken by the staff of any library, as it involves

a physical check of each book in stock according to the accession records. In a library which is not open to the public, stocktaking is comparatively easy, but it is not so straightforward when the library is serving the public. Some authorities close their libraries for the purpose of stocktaking, but such interference with a public service is difficult to justify. An alternative to stocktaking is to have a census of the books in the library. This count, deducted from the total number of books according to the stock records, will show the *number* of books missing at the time of the check but will not, of course, give any information as to the actual titles. For most libraries the days of annual stocktaking are over, owing to shortage of staff, but a useful idea is to compromise by having a stocktaking say, every five years, with a simple census in between each stocktaking.

Methods of stocktaking naturally vary according to the kind of stock records which different libraries use. Where a library system uses a running accession number for each book, and arranges its charges in the issue according to accession number, it is a good plan to have large cards with the numbers 1 to 1,000 printed upon them. If the library or department has say, 100,000 books in stock, 100 of these cards will be needed. The shelves are then checked systematically, and each book present on the shelves has its accession number neatly deleted on the card. The issue records are then dealt with, each accession number in the issue being crossed out. In stocktaking, care must be taken to ensure that no book actually present is recorded as missing, and for this reason books at the binders, books awaiting repair and binding, books waiting for individual readers, and those in reserve stock must all be

carefully checked and recorded. When the librarian is satisfied that all books have been checked, the cards will tell him that the accession numbers not crossed out represent missing books. The authors and titles of these books can then be ascertained by reference to the accessions register.

Another method of stocktaking is to use the accessions register itself as a check, particularly if this is in the flexible form of cards or slips. The cards in each tray are checked with shelves, issue, stack, binding, etc., and as each book is recorded as present the card can be placed back into the tray, perhaps being date-stamped or marked in some other way to indicate that the book was present at stocktaking. Cards for books which cannot immediately be found should be kept in a separate sequence for further checking. When the stocktaking is completed, those cards still remaining in the separate sequence represent the missing books.

These are only two methods of carrying out this arduous task. There are others, and in fact each library will have to work out its own method of stock-taking according to the particular circumstances of its stock and records.

STATISTICS

Every student librarian should have an outline knowledge of the various statistics kept by his library, and the reason for their maintenance. In the past most librarians have tended to keep too many statistics and there has been some streamlining in this direction of recent years. But tradition dies hard and it is still quite certain that unnecessary statistics are still being maintained in many libraries. Every librarian should

regard it as his urgent duty to keep only those statistics which have a definite use.

The essential records are those concerning stock, readers, and the use made of the library. For the first-named it is usually necessary to know the total stock, the number of books in each department or branch, and perhaps the number of books in each class. Statistics of readers' registration consist of numbers of readers and tickets, while some public libraries keep an analysis of readers according to the wards in which they reside. The object of course of this latter practice is to determine the effective spheres of influence of the existing libraries and to show where additional branches might be needed. The work involved is however very time-consuming and if such figures are ever really required it might be more economical to carry out a spot check. One wonders also, whether statistics of readers' tickets fulfil any useful purpose, and whether the only figures really needed in readers' registration is the total registered, a total easily kept up-to-date by adding new registrations and renewals, and deducting lapsed readers.

Issue statistics are kept by most libraries as a guide to their use. Here again it is common in public libraries to analyse the total issue into the main classes of the classification scheme in use, but there has been a welcome trend recently to abandon such detail and merely count the books issued under two main headings, fiction and non-fiction. Many librarians have adopted various labour-saving means of counting the issue. Where the Browne charging system is in use, small reset counters have been installed. Like a cyclometer, but operated manually, this type of counter has a lever which the assistant clicks for each issue as it is filed.

The latest numbers of the counters can be seen at a glance so that the issue of fiction and non-fiction can be read off at any time of the day. This is useful if information is ever required as to the use of libraries during particular opening hours. A few libraries ingeniously make the first number of the accession number the same as the main class of the Decimal Classification into which the book falls: this too is a great aid in issue-counting. Issues in systems which use photo-charging can be read off quite readily by reference to the serial numbers of the transaction cards used each day. Finally, most libraries keep ready figures of inter-library loans, both books borrowed and books lent.

In these days when labour costs are so high it behoves every librarian to prune his statistics, and if he thinks he is keeping them for the benefit of his governing body, he should ask that body if they really require the figures. It is strongly recommended that libraries should maintain only the following statistics:—

- (a) total stock; stock of each department or branch; and (perhaps) the number of books in each class.
- (b) total of registered readers.
- (c) departmental and branch issues divided only into non-fiction and fiction.
- (d) books lent and borrowed through the inter-library loan system.

Monthly and annual reports to library authorities have in the past been far too statistical. Both are more likely to succeed in their purpose when the statistics are kept brief and are combined with lively comment on library trends and happenings. The Library Associa-

tion has a recommended form for the presentation of figures in annual reports. This is now being used by most librarians in their annual reports, but the student should refer to the skeleton outline which was printed in the *Library Association Record* of January 1948. At the time of writing, the outline is under revision, but no amendments have yet been published.

BINDING ROUTINE

A few larger library services maintain home binderies, in which all or part of the book stock is rebound, reinforced or repaired as occasion arises. It is maintained by some of those who have been operating home binderies for a long period that they are cheaper than using outside contractors. Be that as it may, it must be said that the work done by the recognised binding firms is generally first-class, while the highly competitive prices tend to keep costs down. It is not surprising therefore that the great majority of libraries send their rebinding work to the outside firms. The clerical work connected with this is easily enough organised and carried out, but accuracy is of the greatest importance, especially in the instructions given to the contractor as to the style and lettering of each book.

Methods differ, but not in essential. It is the practice in some libraries to type in duplicate the lists of books to be rebound, one copy of the list going to the binders to serve as a check list for the receipt, despatch and invoicing of the books, the other being retained by the library to serve as a check list on the return of the books. An alternative practice is to have a binding order book with counterfoils so that particulars of each book can be entered, and a carbon copy taken. The original is sent with the books to the binders, and is

eventually returned with their invoice, the carbon copy remaining in the book as a permanent record. Which-ever method is used the only details required are date sent; author and title in form required for tooling on spine; class number; binding style; and date of return. Nowadays it is general to list only the non-fiction sent. Libraries which send to outside binders large consignments of fiction usually request them to be bound in assorted colours or styles, and they simply retain the book cards as evidence of their having been sent to the binders. When the books are returned, the book cards are re-inserted in the pockets.

CARE OF BOOKS

While on the subject of binding, a few words may perhaps be added on the care of books generally. On page 173 of his *Manual of book classification and display*, Dr. E. A. Savage has some very pointed remarks and a very telling anecdote to relate on this subject. He is quite right in maintaining that standards of book-handling and book care have deteriorated very much in the last twenty years or so, and that many library staffs are as much to blame as the public—more so, really, because they should know better. Because books belong to a library which is communally owned, there is no reason why they should be treated with the vandalism described by Dr. Savage. There is room for very great improvement in the handling and care of books by junior assistants. Neither are senior assistants blameless. Books requiring minor repairs pile up rapidly in busy libraries, and too often the job of effecting such repairs as tipping-in loose leaves and plates, repairing torn pages, and removing marks and stains is given to the nearest junior assistant without any

explanation as to the neatest methods of repair. Perhaps when those who now read this book become senior assistants themselves, they will remember these remarks and will effect reforms with such energy that the care of books will re-assume its rightful place as a most important aspect of librarianship.

Recently the advent of the plastic book jacket has been an important factor in maintaining the attractiveness of new books and in helping to prolong their lives. Readers appreciate the fact that the plastic jackets preserve the original dust-jackets of books, and the plastic generally has a psychological effect upon readers, who tend to handle with more care books which appear to be in good condition. There can be few libraries these days which are not making use of plastic jackets. They can either be bought in bulk in the various book sizes, and placed on the books during processing by the library staff; or the work can be done by the booksellers supplying the books, or by specialist contractors. Another method is to buy rolls of plastic which can be cut off to any required book size and fixed on the book by the staff of the library.

Reinforced bindings are another factor in the struggle to maintain attractive books on library shelves. These have been introduced by a number of the recognised library binding contractors. By arrangement with various publishers they buy the sheets of selected new books and reprints and bind them for libraries in attractive and reinforced bindings. Frequently the dust-jacket is incorporated in the binding by covering it with a fine plastic. Children's books especially lend themselves to this treatment, and the whole development is one that has been warmly welcomed by librarians.

OFFICE ROUTINE

This chapter is concluded with a very short description of office routine in libraries, because few student librarians have the opportunity to become acquainted with this work in a practical way. In the smallest libraries, one member of the staff is usually earmarked for clerical work, perhaps in addition to normal library duties. In larger services, two or more clerical assistants will be needed, while in the biggest systems a separate clerical section is necessary to keep up with office and administrative work. The chief duties involved in library office work are:—

- (a) typing and filing of correspondence;
- (b) typing and duplicating of committee reports, book lists, lecture programmes, exhibition catalogues, etc.;
- (c) maintenance of postage books, petty cash accounts, order books, etc.;
- (d) check of goods with invoices, check of invoices and discounts, preparation of invoices for certification and payment, and maintenance of expenditure books;
- (e) maintenance of receipt books and paying-in of cash receipts;
- (f) frequent check of stationery items and re-ordering of essential supplies.

It is impossible, and indeed unnecessary, to describe these duties in detail within the small scope of this book, but a few general remarks may prove helpful. The typing and filing of correspondence is an important and responsible duty. The librarian should insist on a fixed style of typing, so that all correspon-

dence leaving his library conforms to a neat and legible pattern. With every outgoing letter there should be a carbon copy and this should be filed with the letter, if any, to which it is a reply. The best method of filing papers is to use manila folders in a vertical file. As far as the arrangement of the folders is concerned, there are several alternative methods, and the librarian will no doubt choose that which is most convenient for his own use. One way is to arrange them alphabetically by correspondent, but this has the disadvantage of separating papers relating to the same subject, and a subject-index would be necessary. Alternatively, the arrangement can be alphabetical by subjects, but here an index of correspondents is desirable. A third method is to combine the two systems previously mentioned, that is to have an alphabetical arrangement of both subjects and correspondents. This frequently results in cross-classification, but is a good rough and ready arrangement for small libraries. The fourth, and probably the best method, is to classify the papers systematically according to some published scheme, such as the schedules 020-029 in the Decimal Classification, or according to J. D. Stewart's *Tabulation of librarianship*. The latter has proved to be an effective and up-to-date scheme, and has been put into operation in a number of libraries. Whatever systematic arrangement is used, an index of correspondents should be maintained.

Any good book describing the elements of office routine will give the student useful information on simple bookkeeping, such as the maintenance of postage books, petty-cash account books and receipt and expenditure books. A few words should perhaps be added here on the use of order books. These are in fairly

universal use in government departments, universities, local authorities and industrial organisations and the most usual kind provide for the recording of orders in triplicate. The first copy (the original) is sent to the vendor, the second copy is attached to the invoice after the goods have arrived, and the two are sent to the finance department, while the third copy remains in the order book as a record.

If, as is often the case in dealing with booksellers, it has been found necessary to return some unwanted books, the bookseller will remit a *credit note*. This is an invoice in reverse: it acts as proof that the goods have been returned and it enables the librarian to deduct the amount from the original invoice, thus arriving at a correct total for the goods actually supplied and kept.

SOME FURTHER READING

- Brown, J. D. *Manual of library economy*. 6th ed. revised by W. G. Berwick Sayers. 1949. *Chapters 5 and 14*, also *paras. 350-7*.
- Corbett, E. V. *An introduction to public librarianship*. 2nd ed. 1952. *Pages 98-109, 115-121*.
- Gray, Duncan. *Fundamentals of librarianship*. 1949. *Chapters 7, 10 and 11*.

QUESTIONS

1. Define, with brief descriptions, (a) an order book; (b) a credit note; (c) process stamp.
2. Describe any system known to you for filing correspondence and papers in a library office.
3. Describe the system of accessioning in use in your library. Make, in addition, brief mention of any alternative system known to you.

4. What is a home bindery; a vertical file; a book census?
5. Name six newspapers and periodicals which serve as useful aids to book selection, giving some idea of their scope and use.
6. Describe the routine work involved in sending consignments of books to library binding contractors.

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Chapter IX

ELEMENTS OF CLASSIFICATION

STUDENT librarians are expected to understand the way in which books and other material in their libraries have been grouped. In addition to this grasp of the fundamental principles of classification (or grouping) they should know something of the relationship between classification and cataloguing; of the special features of book classification; the simple rules for classifying books; how to determine the subject-matter of a book; and they should also possess an outline knowledge of such practical problems of book arrangement as shelf-guiding and broken order. The object of this chapter is to acquaint students with an outline of the elements of book classification.

Before dealing with this subject in detail it is perhaps necessary to assure young students that book classification is a perfectly straightforward subject, and that it can be understood, certainly its elementary stages, after a little quiet thought. Rightly or wrongly, a tradition has grown up in the profession that book classification is an intricate and complicated subject. This opinion has been fostered, and is still being fostered by senior librarians, and it is a pity because it has caused a panic approach to the subject by many students. In recent years tutors have done much to offset this approach, but book classification remains one of the most feared subjects in the study of library science.

WHAT IS CLASSIFICATION?

Classification is the process by which we group things according to their likenesses and separate them according to their differences. In everyday life this process is automatic, because we classify things unconsciously in our thoughts almost every time we use an adjective. When we think of the term "cat" we automatically exclude from our thoughts every other kind of animal. If we go further and think of "a black cat" we narrow our field still further, excluding from our grouping all cats which are not black. We carry the grouping process further still when we say "a big black cat", the extra adjective helping to class the type more definitively, and to separate it from all small black cats.

The object of classification is to arrange things in the most convenient order for the purpose in hand. Note the word "convenient", for convenience is the deciding factor which should govern the particular way in which things are classified. It will be perfectly obvious that the same things can be classified in different ways by different people for different purposes. It does not necessarily follow that one way is right and another way is wrong, for everything depends upon the purpose for which the classification is being made. The bank cashier who arranges coins in piles according to their value is doing so because it suits his convenience in reckoning them. A numismatist, on the other hand, may be found arranging them in historical order. In each case the arrangement is the most suitable one for the purpose in hand.

In everyday life examples of classification abound, and the student should learn some examples and be ready to quote them in an examination answer. For

instance, in a tobacconist's shop the cigarettes are arranged by make, because it is by the make that the customer asks for them. In a general store, commodities are arranged separately so that the shop assistant can go straight to the shelves containing sugar or coffee or tea when he is asked for these things.

It is not proposed to say anything further at this stage about the meaning and purpose of classification, except to point out that there are several brief and eminently clear explanations, particularly in W. C. Berwick Sayers' *Manual of library classification* and in W. Howard Phillips' *Primer of book classification*, and to these the student is confidently referred.

BOOK CLASSIFICATION

As far as books are concerned, it must be obvious that there are many possible ways of arranging them, either by size, by press, by publisher, colour of binding, alphabetically by subject, alphabetically by author or systematic subject arrangement. In the early days of libraries books were grouped, arranged or classified by all these methods, and probably in other ways as well, but it was eventually discovered that the most convenient characteristic, or way of arranging books, was to group them systematically by subject. This method, by the way, was found to be the best for both readers and librarians. Consequently a number of schemes of book classification were evolved by librarians: these have been published in book form and have been used in practice by various libraries.

Chief among these book (or bibliographical) schemes is the *Decimal Classification*. This was formulated by Melvil Dewey, an American, in 1876, and it is now in its 16th edition. The early editions were relatively

simple but, as edition followed edition, the sub-divisions were carried further and further until the 14th edition, which appeared in 1942, represented a kind of summit in the development of the scheme. All this expansion had taken place without any reallocation of the original classes and main divisions, and it became increasingly obvious that the proportions of the scheme were becoming ill-balanced and out-of-date. Drastic changes were decided upon, and in 1951 there appeared the 15th (or standard) edition. This was compiled by the staff of the Library of Congress in Washington, and shows some influence of the Library of Congress' own scheme. In 1958 the 16th edition appeared, in two volumes. Based on the previous edition, which had been criticised for its lack of detailed schedules, the 16th edition revealed schedules which were sub-divided in much greater detail than was the case in the Standard Edition. Despite its many faults, the *Decimal Classification* is the most popular scheme in the English-speaking world, a large majority of libraries in Great Britain and the U.S.A. using it. The D.C., as it is known, is used by the *British National Bibliography* for its classified arrangement, and it also formed the basis of the *Universal Decimal Classification* which is mentioned on page 158.

In 1891 the *Expansive Classification* of Charles Ammi Cutter was published in Boston, Mass. It was adopted by a few libraries in America but has had no vogue in Europe, although European librarians have admired some of its features. Cutter's scheme is no longer in the syllabus of the Library Association. The *Library of Congress* classification was formulated in outline in 1899 by Dr. Herbert Putnam, but it has since been greatly expanded and each class is now published

separately. This scheme was specially prepared for the Library of Congress itself, and as this was, and is, a huge collection on a national scale, special problems were presented which the classification scheme tried to accommodate. For this reason, the Library of Congress (or L.C.) scheme was not advanced as a classification for adoption by other libraries. Nevertheless, it has been used by some other libraries, notably the National Library of Wales and the Edinburgh Public Libraries.

A diminishing number of libraries in Great Britain are classed according to Brown's *Subject Classification*, which was first published in 1906, with second and third editions in 1914 and 1939 respectively. Its formulator was James Duff Brown, a celebrated British librarian who felt the need for a book scheme with a British approach contrasting with the American approach offered by the *Decimal Classification*. The *Subject Classification* set out to be a one-place scheme, by which is meant that each subject has one place and one place only, whatever its aspects and however many its ramifications might be. Latter-day thinkers and practitioners have criticised Brown's approach although some features in his scheme have been admired and indeed imitated. The scheme has been found satisfactory for small and medium-sized libraries in Britain but, lacking an organisation to keep it up-to-date, it has fallen upon individual librarians to do this task separately. Unless a fourth and succeeding editions are forthcoming, it seems likely that sooner or later time and circumstances will force the few remaining Brown libraries to change over to the *Decimal Classification*.

The *Universal Decimal Classification* is an expansion of the Dewey scheme which was begun at Brussels in

1895. As its name suggests, it was an attempt to make the *Decimal Classification* more applicable to the world in general, and to extend it so that it could be used for arranging not only books but MSS., cuttings, prints, pictures, slides and other miscellaneous material. The *UDC* should not be regarded as a mere extension of the *Decimal Classification*, because it is to all intents and purposes a separate scheme with many different features. Its auxiliary signs, which are additional to the *DC* notation, should be particularly studied. Abridgements of the *UDC* scheme in English are published by the British Standards Institution.

One of the most interesting of published classification schemes is the *Colon Classification* of S. R. Ranganathan, published at Madras in 1933. Dr. Ranganathan saw real problems in book arrangement which were not fully solved by the enumerative schemes of Dewey, Brown and Bliss, and his own scheme is not an arranged list of subjects. Instead he provides the classifier with the material for evolving his own class-number, and it is his claim that every book, however minute and specialised its topic might be, can be given a specific number in the *Colon* scheme. Much original thought went into the preparation of this scheme and it has many novel features. Although it has not yet been put into practice in a general British library, it has already influenced many classifiers, particularly those of the *British National Bibliography*, and it has had an effect upon the scheme specially prepared for the *British Catalogue of Music*. This scheme was published in 1960.

The latest of the modern book schemes to be completed is the *Bibliographical Classification* of Henry Evelyn Bliss, published in New York from 1935 onwards, and finally completed in four volumes which

were issued in 1953. The *Bibliographical Classification* was formulated by Bliss for use in his own library, that of the City College of New York. He began work on it as early as 1903 and its completion was the result of a lifetime's study of the organisation of knowledge as presented in book form. The scheme has a growing number of adherents in Great Britain and a few special libraries are using parts of the scheme for arranging their material. They are greatly helped by the issue of a bulletin published by the H. W. Wilson Co. which helps to keep the scheme up-to-date for its users.

SPECIAL FEATURES OF BOOK CLASSIFICATION

As readers will already have gathered, a printed classification for arranging books is called a *scheme*. The *schedules* are the headings which comprise the scheme. In addition to the schedules, systems of book classification include certain auxiliaries such as:—

- (a) a Generalia class
- (b) form classes
- (c) form divisions
- (d) a notation
- (e) an index

These will now be explained in greater detail.

None of the above features are necessary in, nor are they part of, a classification of knowledge (or ideas). But any one book contains a great number of expressed ideas, and a scheme for classifying books will be quite different from a classification of ideas (or knowledge classification). The very order of the schedules will be different, because a book classification must to some extent be governed by the physical form of books. The first three of the five features listed above appear

in most book schemes because the physical form of books dictates their presence. The last two features, the notation and the index, are essential because without them we could not apply the schedules of a scheme to the actual books on the shelves. At this stage in his study of classification, all the student need know is a brief definition of each of the features listed above, together with some idea of their purpose.

A *Generalia class* is a special feature of a book classification designed to accommodate such general works as encyclopaedias, general periodicals and newspapers, and other types of books which treat of knowledge in general. The *Generalia class* in the *Decimal Classification* comes at the beginning of the scheme and has an outline as follows:—

- 000 General Works
- 010 Bibliography
- 020 Library Economy
- 030 General Encyclopaedias
- 040 General collected essays
- 050 General periodicals
- 060 General societies (including Museums)
- 070 Journalism—Newspapers
- 080 Polygraphy—Special Libraries
- 090 Book rarities

Although the contents of most generalia classes are indeed general subjects, some schemes include here subjects which are considered to be pervasive of other classes. For example, in the *Subject Classification*, mathematics and logic are included in Generalia, while in the *Decimal Classification* the inclusion of bibliography will have been noted.

Generalia classes are usually considered to be form classes, that is, a class of books grouped by the *form* in which they are written and presented. In so far

as it includes encyclopaedias, essays, periodicals, bibliographies and newspapers, Dewey's class 000 is indeed a form class, but because it contains such actual subjects as librarianship, journalism, book rarities and museums, it is more accurately described as a mixture of a form and a subject class.

Form classes, as has just been said, are those containing books written in a certain form, e.g. in the form of an encyclopaedia, or of an essay, or in the form of poetry or drama. The normal form class in a book classification is the Literature class, which usually includes poetry, drama, fiction, essays, speeches and letters. The Literature class in the *Decimal Classification* is numbered 800 to 899. In this class, Dewey divides first by language as follows:—

- 800 Literature—general
- 810 American literature
- 820 English literature
- 830 German literature
- 840 French „
- 850 Italian „
- 860 Spanish „
- 870 Latin „
- 880 Ancient Greek
- 890 Other literatures

Within these divisions, he again sub-divides, this time according to the form in which the books are written, e.g.

- 820 English literature—general
- 821 „ poetry
- 822 „ drama
- 823 „ fiction
- 824 „ essays
- 825 „ oratory
- 826 „ letters
- 827 „ satire and humour
- 828 „ miscellany

Even though the 800 class of the *Decimal Classification* appears to be completely a form class, it is again to some small extent a mixture of form and subject, because it includes (and rightly so) books *about* the various forms as well as books written in the various forms. For example, the English poetry schedules will include not only Browning's *Poems* but also books about Browning's poetry.

Form divisions are really the generalia divisions of each particular subject. It will be obvious to students that any subject may be presented in books in different forms, say in essay or in encyclopaedic form, or from different standpoints, such as the historical or the philosophical standpoint. Recognising this, the formulators of the chief bibliographic schemes have added these so-called "form divisions" to the schedules of their schemes. In the *Decimal Classification* these are known as *common form sub-divisions*, because they can be applied to most (though not to all) parts of the schedules. These common form sub-divisions are nine in number, as follows:—

- 01 Philosophy, Theories
- 02 Compends, outlines
- 03 Dictionaries, encyclopaedias
- 04 Essays, lectures
- 05 Periodicals
- 06 Societies, associations
- 07 Education, study, teaching
- 08 Polygraphy, collections
- 09 History

A few simple examples of their use will suffice, e.g.

"The philosophy of history"—900=History, 01=
Philosophy, therefore the full class number is
901.

"The history of philosophy"—100 = Philosophy, 09 = History, therefore the full class number is 109.

"An outline of science"—500 = Science, 02 = Outlines, therefore the full class number is 502.

"Encyclopaedia of art"—700 = Art, 03 = Encyclopaedias, therefore the full class number is 703.

"The teaching of music"—780 = Music, 07 = Teaching, therefore the full class number is 780.7.

A *notation* consists of the symbols which are adopted in a book classification to signify the classes, divisions and sub-divisions which form the schedules. A notation may be *pure* or *mixed*, a pure notation being one in which only one kind of symbol is used, and a mixed notation being one in which two or more kinds of symbols are used. The notation of the *Decimal Classification* is pure, as figures only are used, but the notations of the *Subject Classification* and the *Library of Congress Classification* are mixed, for in both of them letters and figures form the notation. In passing, it may be remarked that the chief essentials of a notation are that it should be brief, simple, flexible and easy to say, read, write and understand. It should also convey as much as possible the order of the schedules. It does not matter whether a notation is pure or mixed, so long as it satisfies most or all of these conditions. Some schemes feature *mnemonics* in their notation. A mnemonic is a memory-aiding device and it is in the *Decimal Classification* that we see mnemonics most skilfully used. The form divisions already mentioned, because they are common throughout nearly the whole of the scheme, acquire a mnemonic value because they are so often in use. Another memory-aid in DC is

the system of geographical sub-divisions. At frequent points in his scheme Dewey says: "Divide like 940-999", and two examples of the use of this device may perhaps be adequate. At 581.9 for instance this instruction occurs, enabling a book on the flora of Wales to be classed at 581.9429, the 429 being the geographical number for Wales. Again, the phrase occurs at 328 so that a book on the political parties of France would be classed 328.44, the 44 being derived from 944, the history number for France. A further example of DC mnemonics is the planned similarity in the Language and Literature classes. For example, 430 is German language, 830 German literature, while 460 is Spanish language and 860 Spanish literature. The 3 is derived from 943 History of Germany, and the 6 comes from 946, History of Spain.

An *index* is an alphabetical list of the terms or names used in the schedules, giving the notation for each term. It is an essential tool, without which no book classification can be complete. There are two types of index, the specific and the relative. The former gives one entry only for each subject mentioned in the schedules, and an example of the specific index is that printed at the end of the *Subject Classification*. The relative index, on the other hand, lists each subject in all its relations with other subjects. Dewey uses a relative index in his *Decimal Classification*. The difference between the two types of index may best be illustrated by a simple comparison taken from the indexes of the Subject and the Decimal Classifications:—

Brown's Specific Index
Porcelain D 972

Dewey's Relative Index
Porcelain
ceramics 738.2
chemic technology 666.5

cleaning domestic economy	648.54
plates and vessels prac. chemistry	542.232
radio insulating material	621.3841 791014
strength of, eng. supports, photo chem.	771.5265
ware domestic economy	642.7

The above illustration will surely suffice to show the difference, not only between the two types of index, but also between Brown's one-place scheme and Dewey's method of enumerating all aspects of a subject. In the *Subject Classification*, both the technical and the artistic aspects of porcelain must be classed at the one place, simply because there is no other place to class them. In Dewey, on the other hand, books on the different aspects of the subject can be classed in their several and separate places, and there can be no doubt which is the more correct and convenient method.

To conclude this section on book classification here, in brief, are the essentials of a good bibliographical scheme. It should be complete, covering all branches of knowledge, and it should be kept up-to-date by frequent revisions. If possible, a bulletin should be published giving decisions and placings for new subjects. This is done for the Bliss scheme and, in the 16th edition of DC it was announced that a similar method would be adopted for keeping that scheme up-to-date. Schemes should also be systematic, proceeding from the simple to the complex, and the terms used in them should be clear and comprehensive. A good scheme

should be printed in convenient form and it should be flexible and expansible. Finally, it should include, as we have already seen, generalia and form classes, form divisions, a suitable notation and an index, preferably a relative index, to the schedules.

PRACTICAL ASPECTS OF BOOK CLASSIFICATION

Although it is realised that the young student librarian neither gets, nor is ready for, practical experience in the classifying of books, he may justifiably be expected to know how to determine the subject-matter of a book, and the rules to be observed when classifying books. Both these points are covered in note form in the chapter headed "Practical application of book classification" in W. Howard Phillips' book *A primer of book classification*. There is no point in repeating them here, so long as the student fully understands the necessity for referring to these pages in Phillips without delay.

Elementary problems of shelf arrangement, guiding and display work are the concern of every librarian, and these must be mentioned here in a little more detail. Once books are classified according to a recognised bibliographical scheme, it would appear that the obvious order in which to shelve them would be strictly according to the notation. One does not have to work long in a library however, to realise that practical considerations preclude this. Fiction, for instance, is stocked in such numbers that, if it were classified at 823 (assuming the *Decimal Classification* to be in use) it would dislocate the whole scheme of arrangement if all the novels were shelved at that number. Most libraries, therefore, treat fiction entirely separately and arrange it on the shelves in alphabetical order of author. Music too, on account

of its size, demands a different type of shelving from the normal, and this usually means that it cannot be shelved between the photography books of 770-779 and the sports and pastimes books of 790-799. Indeed, since the advent of gramophone record libraries, many library authorities have formed an entirely separate department for music and records. In addition, in nearly every class there are oversized books such as quartos and folios which demand special shelving and arrangement. The commonest treatment for oversized books is to shelve them all together in a separate sequence from 000 to 999. The catalogue entries for these books must be marked in some way so that readers wanting any of them will be directed to the oversized shelves. Special collections, such as bequests of books on a particular subject, often have to be kept as separate entities because of the terms of the bequest, and this too is a factor which leads to an additional sequence. Finally, shelf arrangement may be affected by displays of books on particular subjects which the library may arrange from time to time. Books forming part of a display will be taken out of their correct classified sequence and put together on special shelves, book troughs or display tables. This is called *broken order*, but it should be noted that the shelving of oversized books in a separate sequence of the scheme is not broken order so much as a parallel arrangement.

One of the most important practical aspects of book classification is that of guiding the library. A library without guides is worse than a road system without signposts. The guides usually provided are:—

- (a) a catalogue
- (b) a plan of the library

- (c) class guides printed at the end of each case
- (d) shelf guides
- (e) class-numbers lettered on the spines of the books
- (f) a personal guide or library host for new readers
- (g) a reader's adviser on duty at all times
- (h) a printed pamphlet describing the use of the catalogue and containing a brief explanation of the classification scheme and the shelf arrangement.

By far the most important of those listed above is the personal guide or library host. Very often this job is done by the reader's adviser. Personal experience tells us that there are so many posters and placards in modern life that people generally are becoming immune to written advice and directions. Essential though shelf labels and printed guides might be, people take more notice of oral advice and this is where the personal guide comes in useful. An increasing number of libraries have successfully instituted the practice of personally showing round new readers, and explaining the system of book arrangement to them. The library host should become a permanent feature in all libraries.

CLASSIFICATION AND ITS RELATION TO CATALOGUING

For a description of the classified catalogue the student should turn to the chapter on the elements of cataloguing. This present chapter is concluded with a brief account of the relationship between classification and cataloguing. These two subjects are complementary because they are both aids which librarians have devised to help readers to find the books they want. The essential difference between classification and cataloguing is that whereas in classification a book

may be given only one place on the shelves, in the catalogue it may be represented in several places. For example, a book treating equally of architecture, sculpture, painting and engraving presents a problem to the classifier. He can only give it a place: shall he place it with the books on architecture, with those on painting, with those on sculpture, or with those on engraving? There is a fifth possibility: shall he regard it as a book on art generally and place it with the general books on the subject? Whatever decision he comes to, the classifier should be guided by the law of convenience, that is, he should place the book where it will be most useful to the majority of readers. The cataloguer has no such problem: dealing as he does with cards or slips he can represent the book in the catalogue under *each* of its subjects, so that the students of architecture, engraving, painting and sculpture will, on consulting the catalogue, be informed of the book's presence and place in the library.

In this way, therefore, are cataloguing and classification complementary and of mutual assistance to each other.

SOME FURTHER READING

- Brown, J. D. *Manual of library economy*, revised by W. C. Berwick Sayers. 6th ed. 1949. *Chapters 1 and 17*.
- Corbett, E. V. *An introduction to public librarianship* 2nd ed. 1952. *Pages 125-181*.
- Landau, Thomas, ed.: *Encyclopaedia of librarianship* 1958. *Article on Classification*.
- Phillips, W. Howard. *A primer of book classification* *Pages 9-63, 182-3, 204-7*.

Sayers, W. C. Berwick. An introduction to library classification. 9th ed. 1958. *Chapter 1, also Preface for the beginner.*

Sayers, W. C. Berwick. Manual of book classification. 3rd ed. (revised). 1959. *Preface, and chapter 1.*

QUESTIONS

1. What do you need to know about a book before classifying it?
2. Define the following, with examples: (a) generalia class, (b) form class, (c) common-form sub-divisions.
3. What is meant by (a) a mixed notation, (b) relative index, (c) specific index, (d) mnemonics? Illustrate.
4. What are the chief rules for classifying books?
5. What guides do you consider necessary to give readers the fullest information about the arrangement of books in a library?
6. In what ways are classification and cataloguing complementary to each other?

Chapter x

ELEMENTS OF CATALOGUING

A CATALOGUE is an essential tool in any library, as necessary as a plan in a town guide or as an index in a book. It is essential not only to the readers who use the library, but also to the staff who administer it. Without an efficient, up-to-date catalogue the staff cannot tell what books there are in the library, they cannot display to readers the library's resources on any particular subject, and they lack a ready guide to the library's strengths and weaknesses, and this latter facility is one of the most important aids in book selection.

At an early stage therefore, the student librarian should be introduced to the study of cataloguing. He should be able to understand such things as the principles governing the use and purpose of author and subject catalogues, the differences between main and added entries, the advantages and disadvantages of the various forms of catalogues, and the meaning of the many terms used in connection with cataloguing. The kernel of these requirements lies in the student's understanding of the scope and use of the varieties of author and subject catalogues. Consequently, the bulk of this chapter will be devoted to a description of the dictionary and classified types of catalogue.

Very briefly, the purpose of a library catalogue may be said to be:—

- (a) to show what books the library possesses by a certain author.
- (b) to show the stock of the library on a certain subject.
- (c) to show whether the library has a book bearing a certain title.
- (d) to show, on each entry, such bibliographical information as date of publication, number of edition, whether the book is illustrated or contains maps, its size and its pagination. The entry will also contain the accession number of the book, and a reference to its location, i.e. its class number and the particular library where it is in stock.

The chief types of library catalogues are the author catalogue, the dictionary catalogue, the classified catalogue and the alphabetical-classed catalogue. The author catalogue speaks for itself, being simply a list of the books in the library arranged by their authors. It is rarely used these days and need not concern us here. Neither need the alphabetical-classed catalogue, which is also uncommon nowadays. In this, books were listed under their subjects, and these subjects were then arranged in alphabetical order. It is proposed therefore, to concentrate upon the dictionary and the classified catalogues later in this chapter.

DEFINITIONS

Before proceeding any further, it might be as well to consider the terminology of cataloguing. Already in this chapter some terms have been used which are probably strange to the student librarian. Cataloguing is a subject which necessitates students possessing a precise understanding of bibliographical terms and it is

very essential that these should be defined briefly yet exactly. Most text-books on cataloguing (with the exception of the *Anglo-American Joint Cataloguing Code*) include lists of definitions at the end, almost as an afterthought. I feel that definitions are so vitally important for the cataloguing student that they should appear at the beginning of any chapter or book about the subject. Furthermore, they should be read, understood and mastered before the student proceeds with the rest of the chapter. The list of definitions which follows is brief and has been purposely kept to an absolute minimum: longer and more comprehensive lists may be found in the *Anglo-American Joint Code* and in H. A. Sharp's excellent work *Cataloguing: a text-book for use in libraries*.

Added entry: a secondary entry, usually under editor, title, subjects, etc. It is usually much less complete than the main entry (*q.v.*).

Analytical entry: entry of some *part* of a book or of some article or play in a collection, including an indication of the book containing it. Analytical entries may be made under authors, subjects or titles.

Annotation: a brief, descriptive note of a book's contents written by the cataloguer and included at the end of the entry.

Author entry: an entry of a book under its author's name, which may consist of a personal name, a corporate (*q.v.*) name, initials or a pseudonym.

Caption: the heading printed at the beginning of a chapter, section or page.

Catalogue: a list of books in a library, arranged according to some definite plan. It differs from a bibliography, which is a list of books not confined to those in any one collection.

Central cataloguing: strictly speaking, this refers to the cataloguing of all books in a library system at one

central point, i.e. the books are not catalogued at the individual branch libraries to which they are allocated. The term has, however, lately been used in the sense of co-operative cataloguing.

Classified catalogue: a catalogue arranged in classified order of subjects. A classified catalogue in a library is usually arranged according to the classification scheme in use in the library.

Collation: that part of the description which states the number of volumes, pages, illustrations, maps, etc., constituting the book.

Colophon: a statement at the end of a book giving the author's name, title, printer, publisher, date and place of printing and publisher's or printer's device. In modern books the colophon omits many of the above details but it was an important bibliographical feature of most books printed before the nineteenth century.

Compound name: a name consisting of two or more proper names joined either by a hyphen, a conjunction or a preposition.

Co-operative cataloguing: refers to the cataloguing of books and the distribution of cards or slips by a central agency, e.g. the Library of Congress in the U.S.A. and the British National Bibliography in the U.K.

Corporate entry: entry under names of governments, institutions or societies for books published in their name or by their authority.

Dictionary catalogue: a catalogue containing entries under authors, subjects and titles of books catalogued. All these entries, with cross-references in addition, are arranged in one alphabetical sequence, as in a dictionary.

Editor: one who prepares for publication a work by another writer, or a collection of material by several other writers.

Edition: all the copies of a book issued at one time and printed from the same set of types.

Entry: the record of a book in the catalogue. Types of

entry include main entry, added entry, title entry, author entry, analytical entry, series entry.

Format: the size and shape of a book.

Half-title: the short title of a book, printed without the author's name, usually on the leaf preceding the title-page.

Heading: the word by which the alphabetical place of an entry in a catalogue is determined. It may be the author's name, the subject or the first word (not an article) of the title.

Imprint: the statement usually found at the foot of a title-page including the publisher's name, place and date of publication.

Joint-author: one or two or more authors who have collaborated to write a book.

Main entry: the principal entry for a book. In a dictionary catalogue this is the author entry. The main entry contains the fullest description of the book.

Pagination: that part of the collation giving the number of pages in a book.

Pseudonym: an assumed name under which an author writes, e.g. George Eliot was the pseudonym of Mary Ann Evans.

Recto: the right-hand page of an open book.

Reference: a direction from one heading to another.

Series: books related to each other, being issued by the publisher in a uniform style under a collective series title.

Series entry: an entry in the catalogue under the name of a series, showing the names of the books in the series possessed by the library.

Sobriquet: a nickname.

Subject entry: an entry under the name of the specific subject treated by the book.

Title-page: the page at the beginning of a book detailing the author's name, the full title of the book, and the imprint.

Tracings: indications on the main entry showing what

added entries and references exist in the catalogue for the book. These are important if alterations have to be made to the existing entries, or if the entries have to be withdrawn altogether.

Union catalogue: a catalogue, showing locations, of all the books in the libraries of an organised area, e.g. the London Union Catalogue, which contains entries for all the books in the public libraries in the Metropolitan area of London.

Verso: the left-hand page of an open book.

Volume: a book distinct from other books by reason of having its own title-page and pagination.

TYPES OF CATALOGUE

The three types of catalogue with which students should be cognisant are the printed, the card and the sheaf types. At one time, about the beginning of the century, there was a vogue for producing complete printed catalogues of public libraries, but this was for the very good reason that most libraries were closed access, working on the indicator system, and printed catalogues were almost a necessity. As more and more libraries went over to the open-access system, printed catalogues became less essential and their disadvantages became more apparent. Briefly, these were that they were laborious and costly to produce and secondly, they were out of date before they appeared, and could only be kept up-to-date by frequent supplements. Most libraries today keep an up-to-date catalogue of either the card or the sheaf type, and they draw attention to recent additions or to books on special subjects by the issue of quarterly bulletins, folders or pamphlets. Latterly there has, however, been a return in some quarters to the printed catalogue, a move probably inspired by the success of the *British*

National Bibliography. Westminster Public Libraries, for instance, have been producing an annual classified catalogue of additions for the past few years, while Liverpool and Manchester have published notable subject catalogues of parts of their stock.

The printed catalogue has the disadvantage of being inflexible, but a cardinal virtue of both the card and the sheaf catalogue is that they are flexible, allowing of insertions indefinitely. Both are quite expensive to maintain, being heavy not only on stationery but also on the necessary furnishings, card catalogue cabinets being particularly dear. They are also costly in terms of staff time, especially in a system with branches where union catalogues are maintained. Of the two kinds, perhaps the sheaf type is more convenient and popular with the public, as a person wishing to consult it may withdraw the particular binder he wants from its pigeon-hole and take it to a table, sit down and consult it in comfort and at his leisure. Card catalogue drawers, on the other hand, are not intended to be parted from the cabinet and a person consulting a card catalogue is forced to stand. Another disadvantage of the card catalogue is that the consultant masks about ten or fifteen other drawers while he is consulting his particular tray, a drawback which need not apply to the sheaf catalogue.

THE DICTIONARY CATALOGUE

This has been a very popular form of library catalogue for general public libraries, and it has been particularly favoured in America, where it is used almost exclusively in public libraries. It is called a dictionary catalogue because the entries, consisting of author entries, subject entries, cross-references and title entries, are arranged

in one alphabetical sequence from A to Z. In a dictionary catalogue the main entry for all books (except anonymous ones) is the author entry. Added entries usually appear under the subject or subjects treated by the book, and the title if the subject is not implicit in the title. Two examples may suffice to demonstrate at this stage the use and purpose of the dictionary catalogue.

MAIN ENTRY (i.e. Author entry)

FODOR, Eugene, *editor*.

914

Jet age guide to Europe: a comprehensive handbook of 32 countries. London, Neame. [1959]. 825 p. illus. 43 plans. 21 cm.

ADDED ENTRY (in this case Subject entry)

EUROPE—Travel and Description.

914

Fodor, Eugene, *editor*.

Jet age guide to Europe: a comprehensive handbook of 32 countries. London, Neame. [1959]. 825 p. illus. 43 plans. 21 cm.

The above is an example of a book which does not require a title entry, the subject being quite apparent from the title. Below, I give an imaginary example of a book dealing with several subjects and requiring a title entry in addition. It will be noted that there is no limit to the number of subject entries which may be made in a dictionary catalogue.

MAIN ENTRY

ANDREWS, James Balfour.

704

Four ways: essays on architecture, sculpture, painting and engraving. London, Jenks. 1960. 266 p. front., 40 plates. 25 cm.

ADDED ENTRY (Subject)**ARCHITECTURE**

704

Andrews, James Balfour.

Four ways: essays on architecture, sculpture, painting and engraving. London, Jenks. 1960.
266 p. front., 40 plates. 25 cm.

ADDED ENTRY (Subject)**SCULPTURE**

704

Andrews, James Balfour.

Four ways: essays on architecture, sculpture, painting and engraving. London, Jenks. 1960.
266 p. front., 40 plates. 25 cm.

ADDED ENTRY (Subject)**PAINTING AND PAINTERS**

704

Andrews, James Balfour.

Four ways: essays on architecture, sculpture, painting and engraving. London, Jenks. 1960.
266 p. front., 40 plates. 25 cm.

ADDED ENTRY (Subject)**ENGRAVING**

704

Andrews, James Balfour.

Four ways: essays on architecture, sculpture, painting and engraving. London, Jenks. 1960.
266 p. front., 40 plates. 25 cm.

ADDED ENTRY (Title)

Four ways: essays on architecture, sculpture, painting and engraving, by James Balfour Andrews. 1960.

704

Note that the title entry is often abbreviated and does not contain full bibliographical details. In some dictionary catalogues the added entries are similarly abbreviated, leaving the main entry the only one containing a full description of the book.

The popularity of the dictionary catalogue for general public libraries is due to the fact that its arrangement and use is easily explained to readers. The simple requirements of general readers are usually for books by a certain author, books on a certain subject, or a book with a certain title, and it is comparatively easy to demonstrate to readers that in the dictionary catalogue all these entries are sorted into one alphabetical arrangement.

Unfortunately, the dictionary catalogue does not meet with the full approval of many British librarians, and in this country the catalogues of most special libraries, as well as of many public libraries, are in the classified form. The dictionary catalogue is frowned upon because the use of subject headings in this form can easily lead to confusion and chaos in the hands of inexpert cataloguers. An inexorable rule of dictionary cataloguing is that subject entries for books must be made under the name of the *specific* subjects treated by those books, and that references must always be made from the *general* to the *specific* and not vice-versa. Edward Hutton's book on Rome would for instance be entered under ROME and not under ITALY. But there would have to be a cross-reference from ITALY to ROME and to all other towns and parts of the country treated in books possessed by the library. For example, in a small library catalogue one might find such a reference as the following:—

ITALY

See also under LOMBARDY; MILAN;
NAPLES; ROME; TURIN; UMBRIA;
VENICE.

because the library possesses books on these specific cities and provinces, and the books have been entered

under these names in the catalogue. This method means, however, that when a new book is added on a city or province not previously represented, that particular city or province must be added to the reference. In actual practice therefore, most libraries using the dictionary catalogue would have a kind of umbrella reference, as follows:—

ITALY

See also under names of individual provinces and cities, *e.g.* LOMBARDY, NAPLES, ROME, etc.

A reference of this kind, once made, can be left in the catalogue and needs no additions. Even though it leaves readers wanting books on specific parts of the subject to look under the names of the specific subjects themselves it is quite an effective form of reference. It is owing to the difficulties which arise from subject entries and cross-references that confusion can occur in dictionary catalogues, and these difficulties, coupled with the fact that this form does not readily show the relations between subjects, have prejudiced many librarians against its use.

The answer to these difficulties is to provide the cataloguers with a set list of subject-headings and references. American librarians discovered this a very long time ago, and there are in existence at least three printed lists of subject-headings for use in dictionary catalogues, viz.: Minnie E. Sears' *List of subject headings for small libraries*, the ALA *List of subject headings for use in a dictionary catalog*, and the Library of Congress's *Subject headings used in the dictionary catalogs of the Library of Congress*.

Libraries using the dictionary catalogue often compile their own lists of subject-headings, using the above as

bases and making due allowances for differences between American and English terms. The lists should be preferably made out on interleaved pages, so that additions can be made in the proper sequence as the inevitable new subjects arise. The obvious advantages of a list of subject-headings on the desk of the dictionary cataloguer are that it saves time and many excursions to the actual catalogue, and that it makes for uniformity, so that a succession of cataloguers can, if necessary, be employed without affecting the uniformity and accuracy of the catalogue as far as subject-headings are concerned.

THE CLASSIFIED CATALOGUE

The popularity of the classified catalogue in British libraries, both public and special, has already been mentioned, and when the *British National Bibliography* began publication in 1950 the fact that it was in classified form was almost taken as read by British librarians. Its annual volumes provide the young student with an excellent opportunity of studying a fine example of the classified catalogue, with author and subject indexes. Furthermore, the example of *B.N.B.* has converted a number of British libraries to the form, with the result that the classified catalogue has at this time perhaps more adherents than ever before.

The classified catalogue is undoubtedly easier for cataloguers to keep in order, but on the other hand it is not easy to explain to the general reader. The writer's opinion on the vexed question of the dictionary versus the classified type of catalogue is that for small and medium-sized public libraries catering for the general reader, the dictionary catalogue might be preferred because it is easier for the public to understand and use. For larger public libraries, for special

libraries, and for all collections which are pre-eminently used by more serious readers, the classified catalogue with author and subject indexes is undoubtedly to be preferred. Recent increases in the student population have meant greater demands on libraries from readers who generally make a subject-approach to books, and this factor too has strengthened the claims for the classified catalogue as against the dictionary form.

But what is a classified catalogue? It is one in which the main entries are arranged in the same order as the classification scheme in use or, if you like, according to the order in which the books are arranged on the shelves. The heading, or arranging factor, of each entry is not the author or the subject, as in the case of the dictionary catalogue, but the class-number itself.

This mode of arrangement means, of course, that it is impossible for anyone to understand the sequence of entries unless they are quite familiar with the classification scheme in use. Very few readers are in fact familiar with library classification, so that the main catalogue remains more or less a staff tool. Further aids to readers are however provided in the shape of separate author and subject indexes. These, particularly the author index, are more heavily used by readers than the main catalogue. The main entry, that is the one in the main catalogue, is of course the most complete entry. The author index entry usually contains little more than the author's name, the title of the book, its date and class-number, while the subject index entry contains merely the name of the subject and a straight reference to the class-number. Students are again reminded that they can see good examples of author and subject indexes at the end of the annual, quarterly or monthly volumes of the *British National*

Biography. It might help further however, if classification catalogue entries for the example already used are added here, as follows:—

MAIN ENTRY

914

FODOR, Eugene, *editor*.

Jet age guide to Europe: a comprehensive handbook of 32 countries. London, Neame. [1959]. 825 p. illus. 43 plans. 21 cm.

AUTHOR INDEX ENTRY

FODOR, Eugene, *editor*.

914

Jet age guide to Europe. [1959].

SUBJECT INDEX ENTRY

EUROPE—Travel and description.

914

It is seen that in the main entry the class-number takes a place of honour in the top-left-hand corner of the card slip: this is because all entries in the main catalogue are arranged by the class-number or symbol.

The outstanding advantage of the classified catalogue is that all related subjects appear together, which means that the library's resources on a particular subject can easily be ascertained. Take gardening, for instance: a reader can get hold of the binder containing entries under 635 and by the time he has perused each slip until he has reached 636 he has had before him a complete conspectus of the library's holdings not only of gardening generally but also in all the specific aspects of gardening. If the same reader were to consult a dictionary catalogue he would presumably look first under GARDENING and at the end of those entries he would find a reference directing him to numerous sub-topics such as ROSES or TOMATOES. To obtain the same bird's-eye view which the classified catalogue has

afforded him, he would have to make very many separate references to the dictionary catalogue. Thus, in giving a quick survey of the stock, or for ease in assisting the staff in the compilation of subject lists, the classified catalogue has an over-riding advantage over the dictionary form.

Whichever form of catalogue is used in a library, two things are essential:—

- (a) accurate and uniform cataloguing by trained cataloguers;
- (b) the need for adequate written guides giving directions to the public on how to use the catalogues.

As far as guides are concerned, the readers cannot have too many of these. In a card or sheaf catalogue, every drawer or binder should contain a distinctive coloured card or slip giving brief directions as to its use. Adjacent to the catalogue there should be posters or placards giving more detailed directions, with examples. Finally, many libraries issue new readers with a folder on the use and resources of the library, and this too should contain paragraphs on the understanding of the catalogue. Here again use should be made of examples, for most readers can understand these more easily than detailed directions. Students should peruse the catalogue guiding in their own and other libraries. Once again, *B.N.B.* is an invaluable aid to study, for its annual volumes contain clearly worded guides to its use, and these could easily be transplanted, with variations, to libraries using the classified catalogue.

MAIN AND ADDED ENTRIES

The difference between main and added entries should already be apparent to the discerning student

from what has already been explained in this chapter. This opportunity is however taken to define main and added entries in this separate section.

In a dictionary catalogue the main entry is generally, though not always, the author entry. In the case of an anonymous book, entry is made under the title, which becomes the main entry. Added entries are made under subjects, forms, series and sometimes under title, but it should be noted that, for anonymously written books, the title entry will be the main entry. In a classified catalogue the main entry is the subject entry, with the class-number as the arranging factor. The author and subject index entries become the added entries, while other added entries may appear in the form of references and analytical entries.

REFERENCES

No difficulty should be experienced in regard to the difference between *see* and *see also* references. With the aid of a few examples this difference can be explained quite briefly. A *see* reference is one which is made from a heading under which there are no other entries to a heading which contains other entries. When it is desired to refer from a heading which contains other entries to another heading then a *see also* reference is used, e.g.:—

FRANCE

See also names of provinces, e.g. BRITTANY, NORMANDY, etc., names of departments, e.g. EURE, SEINE-ET-OISE, etc., and names of individual cities and towns, e.g. CALAIS, PARIS, etc.

A *see also* reference is used here because (presumably) there are already many other entries under the heading

FRANCE and you are asking the enquirer to see *also* under other headings which have something to do with parts of France. Examples of *see* references are as follows:—

ORNITHOLOGY

See BIRDS.

JONES, Frederick BARRETT.

See BARRETT-JONES, Frederick.

In both examples it is obvious that there can be no other entries under the headings referred from. In the first instance the reader is being referred from one term to a simpler synonym of the same term, while in the second case the reference is a direct one from one form of an author's name to a form more acceptable for cataloguing purposes.

CODES OF CATALOGUING

It cannot be stressed too frequently that accuracy and uniformity are the prerequisites of good cataloguing, and we have already seen that as far as subject-headings for a dictionary catalogue are concerned it is essential to have a definite list which the cataloguer can use as a constant guide. But how about the technical process of cataloguing itself? How are we to ensure uniformity in the matter of making catalogue entries? It will be immediately obvious to any student who devotes a little thought to the subject that there are many ways of making entries for books, and that when the cataloguer is confronted with books written by noblemen, married women, pseudonymous and anonymous writers, corporate authors and many other varieties of authorship and editorship, decisions must be made so as to ensure uniformity of entry. These decisions, when

gathered together with examples, are known as cataloguing codes.

There are three well-known cataloguing codes in existence, viz.:—

C. A. Cutter's *Rules for a dictionary catalog*, which was first published in 1876;

The British Museum's *Rules for compiling the catalogues in the Department of Printed Books*, which first appeared in 1839;

The *Anglo-American Joint cataloguing code*, compiled by committees of the Library Association and the American Library Association, which was first published in 1908 and has since been reprinted many times. Revision of this code is proceeding at the time of writing.

The most important of the above codes, from the point of view of student librarians in general public libraries, is the *Anglo-American Joint Code*, and the student should examine its contents, even though a detailed knowledge of it is not required at this stage. Although there are 174 rules in the Code, some are more used than others, and the following have been selected as the most important, largely because they are the most used rules in practical cataloguing.

1. Author entry; 2. Joint-author entry; 4. Illustrators;
5. Engravers; 6. Cartographers; 7. Architects; 8. Music; 9. Librettos; 13. Commentaries; 15. Indexes;
16. Concordances; 17. Epitomes; 19. Revisions;
21. Translations; 25. Compound surnames; 26. Surnames with prefixes; 31. Popes, sovereigns; 32. Princes of the blood; 33. Noblemen; 34. Ecclesiastical dignitaries; 38. Pseudonyms; 39. Sobriquets; 40. Change of name; 41. Married women; 58. Corporate authors—general rule; 112. Anonymous authors—general rule.

Let us now look at the above rules in more detail. Rule 1—Author entry simply states that a work should be entered under the name of its author whether individual or corporate. Rule 2—Joint author entry states that a work written jointly by two authors (including correspondence) should be entered under the name of the one first mentioned on the title-page, followed by the name of the second. If there are more than two authors the form Smith, William, *and others* is to be adopted.

Rules 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, and 9 are straightforward and are similar in content. Briefly, they lay down that books of illustrations, or engravings, or maps, or plans of buildings, or music, or librettos should be entered under the illustrator, the engraver, the cartographer, the architect, the composer and the librettist respectively. Various added entries are suggested under the different rules, but these need not concern us here. Only at a later stage in his development will the student librarian be required to know all the rules in great detail.

Rule 13 deals with commentaries and it states that when the text of a work is given with a commentary, the work should be catalogued under the name of the author of the text and a reference or added entry made under the name of the author of the commentary. Under rule 15 indexes are likewise entered with the works to which they belong, added entries being made under the names of the compilers of indexes. The same principle applies in rules 16, 17, and 19, concerned respectively with concordances, epitomes, and revisions. Entry in each case is under the original author, with an added entry under the compiler, the epitomizer or the reviser. In rule 21, translations are dealt with in exactly the same way.

Rule 25 deals with authors possessing compound surnames, and the Joint-Code rule is to enter under the first part of the name and refer from the other part or parts. The following rule, No. 26, deals with the difficulty caused by authors whose surnames include prefixes. This is largely a language problem and the rule is made more complex by allowing for the usage of different countries. The general rule is to enter under the part of the name following the prefix, *except* in English; in French when the prefix consists of or contains an article; in Italian and Spanish when the prefix consists simply of an article; and when the prefix and the name are written as one word. Naturalised names with prefixes are to be treated according to the rules for the language adopted. It may fairly be said that the exceptions outnumber the instances under the general rule, and it is necessary to give some examples of the exceptions.

English: De Quincey, De La Roche, Le Gallienne, Van Druten.

French: Du Bellay, La Rochefoucauld, Le Sage; *but* Balzac, Honoré de because the prefix does not contain or consist of an article.

Italian and Spanish: La Farina, Lo Gatto; *but* Farina, Jose da, and Torre, Francesco della because these prefixes do not consist solely of an article.

Sovereigns and popes are dealt with in rule 31, which simply directs that they should be entered under their forenames. This applies also to saints and to other persons known by their forenames only, for example, Geoffrey of Monmouth. The next rule, No. 32, deals with members of royal families, and lays down that these should be entered under their forenames, with references from their titles. Rule 33 deals with noble-

men: these are to be entered under their family names with references from their titles, e.g.:—

Lubbock, John, *1st baron Avebury*.
refer from
Avebury, John Lubbock, *1st baron*.

Ecclesiastical dignitaries, other than popes and saints, are covered by rule 34 which directs that they should be entered under their surnames. References are to be made from their secs, in the case of archbishops and bishops of the Church of England. Rule 38 is the next which concerns us, that dealing with pseudonyms. Entry should be made under the pseudonym when the real name is not known, with the addition of the abbreviation *pseud.* in the heading. An added entry is to be made under the title. Rule 39 permits the use of sobriquets or nicknames when they are universally known and used as in the cases of Tintoretto, El Greco, Giorgione, and others.

Another difficulty for cataloguers arises when authors change their names or add to it a second after having published under the original name. Rule 40 copes with this problem by stating that the heading is to consist of the original name followed by the word *afterwards* and the name subsequently used. In similar fashion, rule 41 deals with married women by stating that they should be entered under the earliest names which they have used as authors. References are to be made from later names. This means that if a woman writes a book under her maiden name it is entered under that name, and if she later marries and continues to write books the maiden name is still used as the form of entry, but reference is made from the married name.

Rules 58 to 112 deal with corporate authorship, that is, the cataloguing of books published by governments, departments, bureaux, offices, societies, associations and similar bodies. These are generally entered under their names, but for the exact rules the student is referred to the Code itself, for they are too numerous to quote here. Rules 112 *et seq.* deal with anonymous works, which are a frequent source of concern to cataloguers. The general rule is to enter them under the name of the author when it is known, otherwise make an entry under the first word (not an article) of the title. Added entries should also be made for the titles of all anonymous works whose authors are known, and when the work relates to a particular person or place an added entry should also be made under this name.

Although a brief selection only of the 174 rules has been made and briefly treated, the student is reminded that all the rules are important and that as he progresses in his studies he will need detailed knowledge of all of them both in theory and for practice. Before leaving the *Anglo-American Joint Code* it should be mentioned that American practice differs from the British in regard to several of the most important rules, and these variations should be noted by all students.

DESCRIPTION

As has already been mentioned, the fullest form of entry in a catalogue is reserved for the main entry, that is the author entry in a dictionary catalogue. There are, in fact, so many details to be included that rules exist to ensure a uniform order for them. The details on a main entry are known as the *description* and a possible order for them is as follows:—

Author's name

Title (in the form given on the title-page)

Edition (after first)

IMPRINT

Place of publication

Name of publisher

Date of publication

COLLATION

Number of volumes and/or pages

Illustrations (type of illus. in following order)

(i) frontispiece (*frontis.* or *front.*)

(ii) illustrations (*illus.*)

(iii) plates (*pls.*)

(iv) photographs (*photos.*)

(v) portraits (*portrs.*)

(vi) maps (*maps*)

(vii) plans (*plans*)

(viii) facsimiles (*facsim.*)

(ix) tables (*tabs.*)

(x) diagrams (*diagrs.*)

Size (height in cms. or inches)

Series note (where applicable)

Contents (if necessary)

Annotation (if necessary)

Few books, if any, will require a description containing all the above items, but two examples may suffice to demonstrate the order of the entry's details.

BATEMAN, James.

751.45

Oil painting. London, Studio Publications. 1957.
96 p. *front.*, *illus.*, *diagrs.* 25½ cm. (*How to do it*
series, No. 68).

Another example:—

NAYLER, Joseph Lawrence, and OWER, Ernest.

629.13

Flight today. 4th ed. London, Oxford University
Press. 1957. 184 p. *front.*, *illus.*, *plates*, *map*, *tabs.*,
diagrs. 22½ cm. (*Pageant of progress series, No. 2*).

Some title-pages, particularly those of older books, are very wordy and it is not always necessary to transcribe them word for word. Much is left to the discretion of the cataloguer but if he does omit anything he should indicate the omission by the usual three dots, viz., . . . , a legitimate device for noting that something has been left out.

REPRODUCTION OF CATALOGUE ENTRIES

In recent years there has been a greater realisation of the value of union catalogues, that is, those which list and show the location of all books in the libraries of a country, a region, a county or a town. In Great Britain there are the union catalogues of the regional bureaux, while most modern services in towns with several branch libraries maintain union catalogues of their stock. This is probably the most efficient way of utilising to the full a library's resources, but it is quite a costly way and at Tottenham the branches have no catalogues but can quickly contact the master catalogue at the central library through the medium of "Deskfax", a facsimile teleprinting device. The teleprinter, like the punched card and the electronic brain, is destined to play a great part in the future of libraries and information services, but in the meantime the union catalogue still holds the stage, and it probably will for quite some time to come.

One of the problems which came in the wake of union cataloguing within town and county library services was the reproduction of catalogue entries in sufficient quantity. The library service which had the sheaf catalogue was fortunate in this respect for there existed several types of duplicator which easily adapted themselves to the reproduction of catalogue entries on

slips. The libraries with card catalogues were not so lucky until librarians began experimenting with and adapting addressing machines for this purpose. Now-a-days a high standard of neatness and efficiency can be achieved in this way, so that whether a library service has the sheaf or the card catalogue the means now exist for it to produce as many copies of its union catalogue as it wishes.

CO-OPERATIVE OR CENTRAL CATALOGUING

Librarians have also been concerned with the question of co-operative or central cataloguing. As its name suggests, this term is applied to attempts to catalogue books from a central agency, leaving libraries to purchase their requirements and saving them the time, trouble and expense of cataloguing the books themselves. In the U.S.A. the Library of Congress has long been responsible for the central cataloguing of books and the distribution of cards to subscribing libraries. In the United Kingdom one of the first efforts to supply libraries with printed catalogue cards for new publications was organised on a commercial basis by Harrods, but after a three-year run the scheme was abandoned owing to lack of support. In 1950 the *British National Bibliography* began publication with its weekly lists of fully classified and catalogued titles, quarterly and annually. At the outset many British librarians were disappointed that its services did not include printed entries on cards or slips, but time has remedied this state of affairs and now B.N.B. supplies printed cards and slips at reasonable cost. Libraries can subscribe for complete sets or they can, if they prefer, order cards or slips for individual books simply by quoting the B.N.B. numbers required. Another

co-operative cataloguing service is that provided by Her Majesty's Stationery Office which issues, on a subscription basis, printed catalogue cards for all government publications.

With these services available, it might be thought that libraries could dispense with their cataloguing departments, merely leaving it to clerks to order the necessary printed cards or slips from B.N.B. and H.M.S.O. But the problem is not as simple as all that. Experience has shown that only about seventy per cent, or perhaps even less, of a library's current additions are represented in B.N.B. The remainder comprise such items as foreign books, maps, music, MSS., and other fugitive material, as well as publications which are pre-1950, and therefore pre-B.N.B. Meanwhile, the problem of fitting the co-operative cataloguing services into the existing cataloguing machinery is one which is being tackled in varied ways by the different libraries concerned.

SOME FURTHER READING

- Akers, S. G. Simple library cataloguing. A.L.A. 1933. *Introduction, and chapters V, VI, and VII.*
- Corbett, E. V. An introduction to public librarianship. 2nd ed. 1952. *Pages 185-241.*
- Gray, Duncan. Fundamentals of librarianship. 1949. *Chapter 9.*
- Norris, D. M. A primer of library cataloguing. A.A.L. 1952 (repr. 1955). *Chapters 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, and 7.*

QUESTIONS

1. What is the purpose of providing a catalogue in a library?
2. Define the following, with an example of each:—

Added entry; Corporate entry; Edition; Imprint; Colophon; Series entry.

3. Explain (in 250 words) how the dictionary and classified types of catalogue differ from each other.
4. What are "tracings"? Write a brief note showing their particular importance in a dictionary catalogue.
5. Name three well-known printed codes of cataloguing rules. State which code is used in your library, and mention any important variations which your library has adopted.
6. What is (a) a pseudonymous book and (b) an anonymous book? Show how these would be entered according to the *Anglo-American Joint-Code Rules*.

Chapter XI

BIBLIOGRAPHIES AND REFERENCE MATERIAL

AT one time the syllabus for the most elementary of the Library Association's examinations included twenty-three reference books which students were intended to know fairly intimately. It is this basic list, plus a few more considered to be just as essential, which forms the foundation of this chapter. The majority of these bibliographies and reference books will be found on the shelves of even the smallest libraries, and student librarians must handle them and get to know their scope, contents, arrangement and use as thoroughly as possible. This chapter offers a brief description only of these books, and it cannot be stressed too strongly that there is no alternative to constant personal handling of them and practice in their use. The questions at the end of the chapter will afford some practice, but students should go much further than this, if possible setting themselves questions which can be answered by recourse to reference books. If they can get experience in a busy reference library, so much the better. They will soon find out that a good reference librarian must be like a literary detective. Varied problems come thick and fast from enquiring readers, and only by personal knowledge of the contents of reference books can these posers be readily answered. If actual reference library experience cannot be obtained, visits to and personal use of other good reference libraries are recommended.

Remember—knowledge of reference books cannot really be taught by a text-book, or by a correspondence course, or by listening to lectures: only personal practice in the use of them can do that.

Brewer's Dictionary of phrase and fable

How better can one describe this unique reference book than by citing its sub-title—"the derivation, source or origin of common phrases, allusions and words that have a tale to tell". One might also quote a phrase of the compiler's when he described his book as "a treasury of literary bric-a-brac". It is, in fact, a monumental compilation of words and phrases, alphabetically arranged, with explanations. The sort of queries that this book can answer are:—

- (a) what was the origin of the barber's pole?
- (b) what was the origin of the name Piccadilly?

There is also an appendix consisting of an alphabetical list of English writers with brief biographical details of each. Dr. Brewer also compiled a *Readers' Handbook*, on similar lines to his *Dictionary*, except that it deals specifically with literary allusions, references, proverbs, plots and characters.

British Union Catalogue of Periodicals

This work appeared in four volumes between 1955 and 1958, and was edited by J. D. Stewart, assisted by Muriel Hammond and Erwin Saenger. The Council of the BUCOP piloted the scheme to its successful conclusion. To have such a union catalogue of periodical holdings in British libraries was the idea of Theodore Besterman. It is a record of the periodicals of the world from the 17th century to the present day,

arranged alphabetically under the names of the periodicals with information as to the holdings of no fewer than 440 leading British libraries of all types. It may give some idea of the tremendous scope of the work to say that over 140,000 periodicals are listed. Arrangements are being made to keep the work up-to-date by the issue of supplements from time to time.

Chambers's Encyclopædia

An old-established family type encyclopaedia in fifteen volumes which is completely British in its approach. It first appeared in 1860-8 when it was published in parts but several editions have appeared since then, the latest being that of 1959. The articles are generally shorter than those in the *Encyclopædia Britannica* and are now signed, although this was not the case in the earlier editions. The articles are also less detailed and less scholarly than those in the *Britannica*, though this does not mean that they are less accurate or reliable. The longer articles have brief but up-to-date bibliographies, while the line illustrations of earlier editions have now been replaced by plates of excellent quality. The fifteenth volume consists of maps, with an excellent index of places, together with an index to the entire work. Unlike the *Britannica*, *Chambers's Encyclopædia* does not publish an annual supplement but from 1952 there has appeared *Chambers's Encyclopædic World Survey* at annual or biennial intervals. To some extent this survey helps to bring the main work up-to-date but it has the disadvantage of not being presented in encyclopaedic form.

Columbia Lippincott Gazetteer of the World

A gazetteer is an alphabetical list of places, rivers, lakes, mountains and other geographical features giving

information as to their whereabouts. One of the finest of those now available is the *Columbia Lippincott Gazetteer*, the latest edition of which was published in 1952. Actually it was a new work, although based to some extent on *Lippincott's Gazetteer* which had last appeared in 1931. In addition to providing all the required information about world geographical features, however small or remote, in its 2,148 pages, it offers helpful advice on pronunciations of place-names, and gives the populations of cities, towns, villages and hamlets.

Crockford's Clerical Directory

Crockford is the official reference book of the Church of England and has been so since it first appeared in 1858. Until 1948 it appeared annually but since then it has been published every two years. It contains a who's who of the clergy, as well as general information on the Church, its cathedrals, archbishops, bishops and establishments. From it one can discover who is the clergyman for a certain parish, what the living is worth, who are the chaplains to the services and so on. In every issue of Crockford there is a preface which is usually very topical and invariably controversial.

Cruden's Concordance to the Old and New Testaments

Cruden's Concordance was first published in 1737 and it has since been re-issued many times by different publishers. It comprises phrases and quotations from the Bible, and refers the enquirer to chapters and verses. It is useful for its concordance to the Apocrypha, although some editions have omitted this feature. Proper names are included in the concor-

dance as well as common words. Undoubtedly Cruden is a vast store-house of information on the Bible, its contents and its allusions.

Cumulative Book Index

An American publication, issued by the H. W. Wilson Co. It is a monthly list of books published in the English language, arranged in dictionary catalogue order, and is known to librarians as the C.B.I. It cumulates month after month until a six-monthly volume is formed. Pseudonyms are entered under real names (e.g. Shute under Norway) and great trouble is taken to give the full names of authors. It has been appearing since 1898 and since 1930 it has included books published in Great Britain and the Commonwealth as well as those issued in the U.S.A. The present state of the cumulated volumes is as follows:—1928–1932; 1933–1937; 1938–1942; 1943–1948; 1949–1952; 1953–1954. A cumulation of the half-yearly volumes since 1954 will shortly be issued. Note that the C.B.I. supplements the *U.S. Catalog of Books in Print*, January 1, 1928.

Debrett's Peerage, Baronetage, Knightage and Companionage

This annual compend contains a great amount of information on the Royal Family, the nobility and on governmental, diplomatic and consular circles. Full biographical details are provided for peers, baronets, knights and their families, and also for companions of orders. There are also full descriptions of orders, information on titles and modes of address, tables of precedence, names of members of the British and Commonwealth governments, the U.S. cabinet and state governors, the French Government, as well as

the names of British diplomatic representatives abroad and foreign diplomats in this country. Holders of the Royal Warrant (i.e. tradesmen) are listed, and an alphabetical index to the book's contents is included at the beginning.

Dictionary of National Biography

Familiarly known as the D.N.B., this standard biographical dictionary was first published in 63 volumes from 1885 to 1901. In 1908-9 however the work was re-issued on thinner paper in 22 volumes and edited by Sir Leslie Stephen and Sir Sidney Lee. An examination of the 22 volumes will show that the first 21 cover biographies from A to Z, while volume 22 forms the first supplement. The second and third supplements, covering the lives of celebrities up to 1921, appeared in 1921 and 1927 respectively. Three more supplements have since covered the lives of famous British people up to 1950, while a one-volume edition of the whole work up to 1921 appeared in 1930 as the *Concise Dictionary of National Biography*. The reputation of the D.N.B. as a comprehensive and scholarly reference book of British biography is well-founded. The complete work, with its supplements up to 1950, contains nearly 40,000 entries. The articles, which are of varying length, are written by specialists and are signed. Excellent bibliographies are provided at the end of most of the articles, though these are now not up-to-date.

Encyclopædia Britannica

This is, of course, the standard general reference encyclopædia in the English language. Now in its 14th edition, it first appeared in 1768-71 when it con-

sisted of three volumes only. The second edition, in 1777-84, was in ten volumes and successive editions grew progressively in size until the 14th edition, which came out in 1929, and consisted of 24 volumes. Entries and articles in the encyclopaedia are arranged alphabetically; articles on specific subjects are written by specialists and are signed with the initials of the writers. An index of the initials at the beginning of the encyclopaedia gives the full names and designations of the contributors. Features of the *Encyclopædia Britannica* are the bibliographies provided under each article, the excellent illustrations, and the atlas and the relative index to the whole encyclopaedia, both the latter being contained in volume 24. Although originally a British publication, it is becoming rapidly Americanised and due allowance must be made for this, particularly in the political and historical articles. In 1946-7 a new issue of the encyclopaedia appeared: this was not the 15th edition but the 14th edition revised. The *Encyclopædia Britannica* is now stated to be on a ten-year revision basis and no actual 15th edition is therefore scheduled for publication. The main reason for this, of course, is that knowledge is changing so rapidly especially in scientific and technical fields, that any new edition as such would be hopelessly out-of-date before it appeared. The annual printings of the work which now take place offer the opportunity for articles to be revised yearly. Mention must also be made of the *Encyclopædia Britannica Book of the Year*. This, a yearly one-volume supplement, first appeared in 1938 and has become a regular feature. From it, a reader can get a useful résumé on the events of the year before, on any subject from cricket to libraries, or from aeronautics to zoology. Another feature of the Britan-

nica service is that purchasers receive a number of coupons and are entitled to write to the publishers for information on any subject, enclosing a coupon each time they write.

Grove's Dictionary of music and musicians

First published in 1879, this standard work is now in its fifth edition, which appeared in 1954 in nine volumes, under the editorship of Eric Blom. It is the standard encyclopaedia of music and it contains signed articles, with bibliographies. The volumes are arranged in one alphabetical sequence of entries, which include musical history, theory and practice, instruments, musical terms, biographies of musicians and composers, and articles on individual compositions, songs and operas. It does not give opera plots: for these one must refer either to Gustav Kobbé's *Complete opera book* or to J. Walker McSpadden's *Opera synopses*. Grove is very useful for the lists of works by each composer, arranged where possible by the opus numbers.

Haydn's Dictionary of dates

This one-volume reference book first appeared in 1841 and has run into many editions since then. It does not, however, appear at regular intervals and the last edition was published in 1910. It is an invaluable historical work, in the form of an alphabetical list of places, peoples and movements with historical data under each entry. For instance, under the heading *Libraries* will be found a chronological outline of their early history. A most useful book for anyone requiring historical outlines of *any* subject, or for those who wish to check dates of battles, accessions, dates of birth and

death of historical personages, Parliamentary Acts, or events of almost any kind. Haydn does not confine himself to British history: his book covers world history up to midsummer 1910.

Kempe's Engineer's Year Book

Kempe has appeared annually since 1894. Previously in one volume, it has for a number of years been issued in two volumes, but the two form one complete book and are not sold separately. It is on a three-year revision plan, so that each volume is fully revised once in three years, minor corrections being effected on the other volume. The *Year Book* contains formulae, tables, data and memoranda for civil, mechanical, electrical, marine, gas, steam, oil, aero, mine and metallurgical engineering. Kempe is best approached by the index, which is a relative one of over 120 pages. Another useful feature is the buyer's guide at the end of the book—a classified directory of the leading engineering and allied firms which advertise in the *Year Book*.

Municipal Year Book and Public Utilities Directory

This is the standard reference book for local government in this country. After the preliminaries which review the work of the previous year in outline, the main section of the year book is a complete list of local authorities in the British Isles, arranged alphabetically under their status. For instance, Essex will be found under the county councils, Bournemouth under the county boroughs, Willesden under the municipal boroughs, Bermondsey under the metropolitan boroughs, and so on. Under each authority will be found information as to its population, area, rateable

value, rates, debt, members of its council, the chief officers and the date and time of its council meeting. A description is added of the authority's facilities and services, making particular mention of any important buildings owned. Another section of the year book is departmentalised so that, under Housing, for instance, one can find a list of the housing officers of each authority, together with information on housing achievements and trends. Full statistical information is given in each section.

The Oxford companion to English literature

An encyclopaedia of English literature, first published in 1932, revised in later editions. It contains a list of authors, titles, characters in books, allusions and literary references in one alphabetical sequence. Under every British writer (and the best-known foreign ones) will be found the dates of birth and death, brief biographical details and chief works, with dates of publications. Under titles of books, a brief synopsis is given in most cases, while under the name of each character a reference is given to the author and title of the book in which the character is featured. The latest edition of the *Oxford companion* contains a perpetual calendar and a valuable chapter on copyright and the legal deposit of books. Thus the sort of questions, among others, that this reference book can answer are:—

- (a) what were the chief works of Dryden and their dates of publication?
- (b) who wrote *Polyolbion*?
- (c) in what book does George Osborne appear?

The first edition of the *Oxford companion* was edited by Sir Paul Harvey, and published in 1932, the latest

available edition being the 3rd published in 1946. Following the immediate success of this book, the publishers have brought out Oxford companions on other subjects. These are the *Oxford companion to music*, edited by Percy A. Scholes (now in its 9th edition), the *Oxford companion to the theatre*, edited by Phyllis Hartnoll, now in its 2nd edition; the *Oxford companion to classical literature*, edited by Sir Paul Harvey; the *Oxford companion to American literature*, edited by J. D. Hart; the *Oxford companion to the Christian Church*, edited by F. L. Cross and published in 1957; and the *Oxford companion to French literature*, planned by Sir Paul Harvey and edited partly by him and partly by Janet E. Haseltine. This latter appeared in 1959. All the Oxford companions are sound, reliable guides and will be found in all good reference libraries.

The Oxford English Dictionary

The full title of this standard dictionary of our language is *The New English Dictionary on historical principles: founded mainly on materials collected by the Philological Society*. It was edited by Sir James Murray and was published, in ten volumes and a supplement, between 1888 and 1933 by the Oxford University Press. It is variously known either as *Murray's Dictionary*, the *New English Dictionary* or the *Oxford English Dictionary*, and often abbreviated as the N.E.D. or the O.E.D. In 1933 a new edition was published under the title *The Oxford English Dictionary*, in twelve volumes and a supplement. A monumental work, its vocabulary exceeds 410,000 words, for each of which it gives pronunciation, alternative spellings, derivation and definition. It is specially noteworthy for its historical method of definition, for it gives, with

quotations, differences of meaning and usage during the past 800 years. It claims, in fact, to include all words now in use or known to have been in use since the year 1150. The work is too large perhaps for use in the home or small office or library, so the publishers have issued abridged editions of Murray in the following forms:—

Shorter Oxford English Dictionary. 2 vols. 3rd ed. with revised addenda. 1955.

Concise Oxford Dictionary of Current English. 4th ed. 1951.

Pocket Oxford Dictionary on Current English. 4th ed. 1942.

Post Office Telephone Directories

Telephone directories are most useful for supplying addresses of private individuals and firms, and they are often more reliable than commercial and street directories as they are revised and kept up-to-date more frequently. Local telephone directories are issued in sections, but a yearly subscription to the GPO will provide libraries with a complete set of British telephone directories as they are published. In this set the sections are bound together in linen covered volumes. A separate index of places in booklet form proves invaluable to reference assistants. The full set is as follows:—

Vol. 1. London (in 4 parts, A–D, E–K, L–R, S–Z).

Vol. 1b. Essex; Hertfordshire and N. Middlesex; West Middlesex.

Vol. 1c. Kent; Surrey.

Vol. 2. Cambridge; Colchester; Norwich; Southend.

Vol. 3. Bedford; Guildford; Oxford; Reading.

Vol. 4. Brighton; Canterbury; Tunbridge Wells.

- Vol. 5. Bournemouth; Exeter; Plymouth; Portsmouth; Southampton.
- Vol. 6. Bristol; Gloucester; S. Wales (E); Swansea and S.W. Wales; Taunton.
- Vol. 7. Birmingham; Coventry; Shrewsbury; W. Midlands (N. and S.).
- Vol. 8. Leicester; Northampton; Nottingham; Peterborough.
- Vol. 9. Hull; Bradford; Leeds; Lincoln; Sheffield.
- Vol. 10. Middlesbrough; Newcastle; York.
- Vol. 11. Manchester; Stoke-on-Trent.
- Vol. 12. Chester; Liverpool.
- Vol. 13. Blackburn; Cumberland, Westmorland and N. Lancs; Isle of Man; Preston.
- Vol. 14. Aberdeen; Dundee; Edinburgh.
- Vol. 15. Glasgow; Northern Ireland; Scotland West.

Classified (trades and professional) directories are also available for most of the telephone areas. Foreign telephone directories, such as those for Eire, France, Holland, etc., are available on a subscription basis from the GPO.

Readers' Guide to Periodical literature

An American publication, issued by the H. W. Wilson Co. It indexes in dictionary catalogue form, that is, under author, subject and title (when necessary), articles appearing in well over 100 American and British periodicals. It differs from the Library Association's *Subject index to periodicals* in that it is published fortnightly and is cumulative. By "cumulative" we mean that the fortnightly numbers are eventually gathered together and put into one alphabetical sequence to form an annual volume. This process is continued with the annual volumes which are themselves eventually gathered together into "permanent cumulated volumes" generally covering four or five

years. The *Readers' Guide to periodical literature* has been issued since 1900 and there are, at the time of writing, 20 permanent cumulated volumes covering 1900 to February 1957. Since 1935 there has been issued an *Abridged Readers' Guide to periodical literature*, eleven permanent volumes of this having been published up to May 1958.

Roget's Thesaurus of English words and phrases

Peter Mark Roget was the originator of this classic work which first appeared in 1852 after fifty years' research. There have been countless editions of the *Thesaurus* since its first publication. It is really a dictionary of synonyms and antonyms and the arrangement is worked out on a philosophical basis which is fully explained by Roget in an introduction and with the help of tables. Most modern readers refer directly to the comprehensive index, which occupies most of the rear half of the book. Against each word in the index are numbers which refer the reader to the headings in the main work. Roget is used extensively by writers and by all who require to have a comprehensive list of synonyms and antonyms before them.

Statesman's Year Book

An annual publication which first appeared in 1864. It is a reference book about the countries of the world containing statistics and general information about them. There is information about the United Nations—its membership, organs, budgets and specialised agencies such as UNESCO and UNRRA. Then follows a most useful set of comparative statistical tables about world food production. The main part of the book is a list of countries—first, the British Commonwealth of Nations, then the United States of America,

dealt with state by state, and finally other foreign countries arranged alphabetically. Under each country or state information is given under the following headings:—Constitution and government; local government; area and population; religion and education; justice; finance; production and industry; commerce; transportation and communications; banking and credit; money, weights and measures; diplomatic representatives; and books of reference giving further information about the countries.

Stevenson's Book of Quotations

The full title of this reference book is the *Home book of quotations: classical and modern*, compiled by Burton E. Stevenson. It is an American publication and was first issued in 1934. The quotations, over 50,000 of them, are arranged alphabetically by subject, and under each subject alphabetically by author. There is an index of authors, so that if the author of a quotation is known the search can be narrowed down by referring to this index. Finally, there is a concordance or word-index to the quotations. In almost every quotation there will be one or two catchwords and reference to these in the concordance will usually direct the enquirer to the full quotation and other details he requires. At the beginning of the book there is a guide to its use, and all students should read and master this. It should be noted that Stevenson is the compiler of a companion volume entitled *Stevenson's Book of Shakespeare Quotations*.

Subject Index to Periodicals

This has been published annually by the Library Association since 1915 except for the years 1923 to

1925 inclusive when no volumes were issued. The index is arranged alphabetically by subjects, and under each subject heading will be found the authors, titles and names and dates of publications in which articles on the subject appeared during the year covered. Those wishing to find out, for example, what articles were written on printing in 1959 will find the references under the name of that subject in the 1959 volume of the *Subject Index to Periodicals*. The first approach to the book should be via the preface, which gives brief instructions on how to use the index, stressing that as it is arranged on dictionary catalogue principles, cross-references play an important part in its use. In an effort to increase the usefulness of the *Subject Index*, paper-backed quarterly issues have been appearing since 1957, but these are eventually incorporated into the bound annual volume. From 1961 the cumulated volume, though not the quarterly parts, will be equipped with an author index.

Times Atlas of the World

This atlas originally appeared in parts from 1920 to 1922. The original issue was of 112 double maps in loose-leaf form, with the index in a separate volume, but bound editions were later produced in both Britain and America. From 1955 to 1960 a new edition, the Mid-Century edition, appeared in five volumes, as follows:—Vol. 1. World, Australasia, E. Asia; Vol. 2. S.W. Asia and Russia; Vol. 3. Northern Europe; Vol. 4. Southern Europe and Africa; Vol. 5. The Americas. The whole atlas presents cartography *par excellence*, the maps being based on the latest surveys and explorations. Each volume is self-contained with its own index. Against each name in the index is given its

latitude and longitude, as well as the plate and map reference where it can be found in the atlas. Students should become thoroughly acquainted with this standard atlas, getting as much practice as possible in finding places on the maps from the index.

Webster's New International Dictionary of the English language

An American dictionary, the first edition of which dates from 1828, and the latest, in two volumes appeared in 1957. It is famous for the clarity of its definitions and noteworthy also because its alphabetical list of words includes foreign phrases, abbreviations, proverbs and proper names all in the same sequence. Its appendices include a list of abbreviations, signs and symbols, forms of address, a pronouncing gazetteer and a pronouncing biographical dictionary. On looking into Webster the discerning student will notice that each page is divided into an upper and a lower part, the latter containing minor, obsolete and rare words, alternative spellings and the longer proverbs and foreign phrases.

Whitaker's Almanack

A truly general reference book containing, as its title-page says . . . "a vast amount of information respecting the government, finances, population, commerce, and general statistics of the various nations of the world, with an index containing over 20,000 references". It has appeared annually since 1868, and is now published in three editions—(a) a library edition in leather binding and with coloured maps; (b) a complete edition bound in cloth; and (c) a shorter edition in paper covers. The cloth-bound edition is the one most generally stocked in reference libraries, and it should be particularly noted that the shorter

edition is very unsatisfactory for library purposes because it contains only about 60 per cent of the total pages of the complete edition. The key to *Whitaker's Almanack* is its index: if you want information say, about canals, refer to the index, which is at the beginning of the book, for the page references. A perusal of the index as a whole will afford an idea of the tremendous scope of this popular and much-used reference book. Many practising reference librarians never cease to be amazed at how often *Whitaker* supplies answers where more abstruse reference books fail. Moral—try *Whitaker* first!

Whitaker's Cumulative Booklist

This appears quarterly as a classified list of books published during the preceding quarter. An author and title index is added to the list which is cumulated from the lists of recently published books which appear weekly in the *Bookseller*. These lists are cumulated monthly and quarterly and the quarterly lists are themselves cumulated as the year goes on to form three-monthly, six-monthly, nine-monthly and finally twelve-monthly volumes, the latter forming the annual volume. Annual volumes have now been published since 1926, and since the war the publishers have adopted a policy of producing five-year cumulated volumes. *Whitaker's* also publish the *Reference Catalogue of Current Literature*, a two-volume work, one of authors, the other of titles, of books in print. The Ref. Cat., as it is known, is a standard ready-reference book for librarians and booksellers, but it does not appear regularly. Used in conjunction with the *Cumulative Book List* however, it provides the answer to the majority of bibliographical queries in regard to current literature. Each entry in the C.B.L. gives author,

title, size, pagination, publisher and price of the book, also the month in which the book was published. Abbreviations are widely used, and students should learn the meaning of these to aid them in making their references quickly.

Who's Who

An annual biographical dictionary which published its centenary volume in 1948. It contains many thousands of entries, arranged alphabetically, chiefly of British men and women but also including notable foreigners. The information under each entry includes full name, description, date of birth, children (if any), where educated, activities, publications, recreations, clubs, present address and telephone number. Entries are made by the autobiographers themselves, and once access is gained to *Who's Who*, the entry remains in until after the death or criminal conviction of the person. *Who's Who* deals with living people, but is supplemented by four volumes of *Who was Who*, covering notabilities who died within the period 1897-1915, 1916-28, 1929-40 and 1941-50 respectively. *Who's Who* also contains, apart from the main list of biographies, a list of abbreviations used, an obituary list of notabilities who died during the previous year, and information about the Royal Family.

Willing's Press Guide

Another standard reference book which has been published annually since 1871. The main index in the book is an alphabetical list of newspapers and periodicals published in Great Britain and Ireland, giving the year of establishment of the publication, its frequency, price and the address of its editorial offices.

Following this is a classified list of periodicals arranged alphabetically by subject: for a complete list of British archaeological publications, for instance, look up Archaeology in this classified list. The *Press Guide* goes on to list dominion, colonial and foreign publications. Much other useful information is contained in the book including, among other items, the London addresses of provincial publications, details of film and television newsreels, and a list of reporting and news agencies.

Wisden's Cricketers' Almanack

Wisden, the *vade mecum* of all cricket enthusiasts, was first published in 1864, and has appeared annually ever since, even during the periods of the two world wars, when first-class cricket was in abeyance. Cricket-lovers look forward to the appearance of the hundredth issue of *Wisden* which will take place in 1963, and in the meantime sets of the almanack are rapidly becoming collectors' pieces, copies of the earliest issues fetching quite high prices. As well as containing the laws of cricket and fixtures for the coming season, *Wisden* presents complete scores and records of Test, county, university and school cricket in the preceding season, as well as cricket records of all kinds for batting, bowling, fielding and wicket-keeping. Articles on topical features of the game now appear in the almanack in increasing numbers, while cricket books of the previous year are also reviewed. *Wisden* appears in two editions, one in limp linen covers, the other in full cloth boards, but the contents are identical. A very comprehensive index is provided at the beginning of the book and the stranger to *Wisden* should make the index his first port of call.

World List of Scientific Periodicals

The full title of the latest edition of this work is *A World List of Scientific Periodicals published in the years 1900-1950*. It first appeared in 1925-7 when it covered scientific periodicals down to 1921, but the second edition, published in 1934, covered periodicals to 1933. The third edition, published in 1952, takes the coverage to 1950. It lists alphabetically about 50,000 periodicals which have been published or are being published throughout the world on scientific subjects. Under each periodical is given (a) full title, (b) abbreviated title in italics, and (c) indications of the libraries holding copies and their particular holdings. Some 247 libraries are listed, and in using the *World List* the student should particularly note and master the scheme of abbreviations for various libraries. It is to be noted that many periodicals are listed showing that no library apparently has any holdings of them. Thus, as the editorial note claims, it is thus a bibliography as well as a union list.

Writers' and Artists' Year Book

Described as a directory for writers, artists, playwrights, film writers, photographers and composers, this yearly reference book first appeared in 1908. Beginning with a journalist's calendar, which is useful for giving centenaries and anniversaries, the main section is an alphabetical list of British journals and magazines, giving the names of their editors, addresses, brief descriptions of the purposes and contents, requirements in the way of literary and artistic material, and the payment rates. Similar directories, though necessarily briefer, are given for Commonwealth and American journals. Then follow lists of agencies of

all kinds, details of indexers, translators and literary prizes. There is also a markets section, giving hints on marketing plays, film scenarios, broadcasting material, photographs and drawings. A reference section offers useful articles on copyright, libel, censorship, performing rights, proof correcting and other subjects of interest to the writer and the artist. Of special interest to the librarian are the list of pen-names and pseudonyms, and the classified index of journals and magazines, in which the periodicals are arranged according to their subjects.

Other reference material

The foregoing constitutes a guide to just a few of the reference books which student librarians should know intimately. There is, of course, much more reference material which students should get to know, whether they are specialising in this field or not. There are commercial directories, such as *Kelly's Directory of merchants, manufacturers and shippers*; street directories such as the *Post Office London Directory* or *Kelly's* directories of most of the large cities and towns of Great Britain. Time-tables are a source of information which student librarians must utilise and master as soon as possible, particularly as most enquirers are unable to use them properly, or profess to be so unable. As well as *Bradshaw* and the *ABC* railway guides, the guides published by British Railways themselves should be known and mastered. Continental railway time-tables are in increasing demand these days, so that *Cook's Continental Timetable* should be studied. For buses and coaches the *ABC Coach and Bus guide* gives details of regular services in Great Britain and on the Continent, while for air journeys the *ABC World Airways Guide* is

essential. All these guides contain prefatory directions as to their use, and these should be carefully studied as they undoubtedly save the time of the user.

Professional registers are useful and much-used reference material these days, and they include such publications as the *Law List*, the *Medical Register*, the *Dentists' Register* and the *Library Association Year Book*. Dictionaries of most foreign languages will be stocked in general reference libraries, a good example being J. E. Mansion's French-English dictionary. Guides to British government publications are published daily, weekly, monthly and annually by Her Majesty's Stationery Office, while ordnance survey maps are issued by the Ordnance Survey Office. Both these classes of publications should be stocked, and the use of them studied and learnt. General encyclopaedias have already been described in the shape of the *Encyclopædia Britannica* and *Chambers's Encyclopædia*, but it should not be forgotten that there are smaller examples such as *Everyman's Encyclopaedia*, and foreign ones such as the French *Larousse* or the American *Collier's Encyclopaedia*. There are also, of course, many encyclopaedias on specific subjects, such as the *Catholic encyclopaedia* or Thompson's *International cyclopaedia of music and musicians*.

Finally, there are bibliographies, library catalogues and indexes, all of which are being increasingly used as reference materials. Bibliographies can be general, such as the *English catalogue of books*; they can deal with specific classes of authors such as Halkett and Laing's *Dictionary of anonymous and pseudonymous literature*; they can deal with a specific subject such as the *Bibliography of British history* published by the Oxford University Press; or they can deal with particular authors or

personages such as the *Shakespeare bibliography*, by Ebisch and Schücking. Library catalogues can likewise be general, such as the Glasgow Public Library catalogue, or they can deal with a special subject or collection such as the Gloucester Public Library's *Catalogue of the Gloucestershire collection*. The same applies to indexes, which can be as general as the *Official Index to "The Times"*, or specific such as Grainger's *Index to poetry and recitations* or Sears and Crawford's *Song index*.

There are, of course, very full guides to available reference material. A. D. Roberts' *Introduction to reference books* is an excellent text-book on the subject, while A. J. Walford's *Guide to reference material* is the latest published bibliographical guide.

QUESTIONS

1. Select twelve one-volume quick reference books for use in a small branch library. Do not include street directories or time-tables.
2. Which reference books would you turn to in answering the following questions:—
 - (a) biographical material about Harold Macmillan.
 - (b) who wrote the line "They also serve who only stand and wait"?
 - (c) import and export figures of Uruguay
 - (d) names and addresses of newspapers published in Manchester.
 - (e) the present loan debt of the Surrey County Council.
3. Describe briefly the contents, scope and arrangement of any *three* of the following reference books: Cruden's *Concordance*, L.A. *Subject Index to Periodicals*, Grove's *Dictionary of music and musicians*, the *Dictionary of National Biography*, Whitaker's *Cumulative Booklist*.
4. Mention and describe any well-known atlas suitable for public use in a reference library.

5. What are the points of difference between (a) the *Encyclopædia Britannica* and *Chambers's Encyclopædia*? and (b) the *Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature* and the *Subject Index to Periodicals*?
6. What is meant by the word *cumulative*? Give examples of one English and one American publication which illustrate your explanation.
7. Write brief notes on the standard British and Continental rail and bus guides, also the *ABC World Airways Guide*, mentioning some of the useful general information they contain.
8. Select one example of each of the following types of reference book, with brief notes on the scope and use of each: (a) commercial directories, (b) street directories, (c) professional registers, (d) subject bibliographies.

Chapter XII

EXAMINATION HINTS AND TECHNIQUE

IN view of the fact that most readers of this book will be new to Library Association examinations, it may not be out of place to conclude with a brief chapter giving practical advice on how to approach them. Much of what is said here should be borne in mind throughout the student's progress in librarianship. All of what is said has been said before, and no doubt it will be said many times again. The fact that such constant repetition is necessary is a sign that few students take any real notice of this advice but, for what it is worth, it is being repeated in the hope that some candidates will take due notice and will translate the hints into practice in the examination room.

GENERAL NOTES

For the past fifteen years, Library Association examinations have been in three stages:—(a) the Entrance or latterly the First Professional examination; (b) the Registration examination in four parallel groups; and (c) the Final examination also in four parts. After successfully passing the First Professional and the Registration examination the student, if 23 years of age, could apply for admission to the Register as an Associate of the Library Association (A.L.A.). After successfully completing the Final examination application could be made for the Fellowship of the

Library Association (F.L.A.). Both Associates and Fellows are known as *chartered librarians*.

At the time of writing the syllabus of the Library Association examinations is being revised and it is likely that a new syllabus will come into operation within the next few years. For this reason this entire book has been re-written simply as an introductory guide for students and it is not related to any particular examination. It is offered as a contribution towards education for young student librarians rather than as a cram-book. Similarly, these notes on examination technique are purposely being kept as general as possible. Students should however be reminded that Library Association examinations are held twice yearly in various of the cities and larger towns of the United Kingdom. Entry forms are due at the Library Association headquarters by March 31st and September 30th each year. The examination times are usually from 10 a.m. to 1 p.m. and from 2.30 p.m. to 5.30 p.m. In the examination room, each candidate is provided with an examination answer book, on the front of which he should write his number, the date and the name of the particular examination he is taking. Printed on the front cover of the script-book is a list of instructions to candidates. These should be read most carefully: among others things, it is pointed out that the question need NOT be written out, but the number of each question should appear on the top of EACH page of the answer. Candidates should particularly note that they should begin each answer on a fresh page, that they should not write in the margin, and that handwriting, punctuation, spelling and general presentation of answers will be taken into consideration by the examiners when marking the answers.

On receiving the question paper, candidates should read it carefully, particularly noting how many questions are to be attempted. All questions usually carry equal marks, and they may be answered in any order.

PRESENTATION OF ANSWERS

Examiners are only human, and when they are confronted with a pile of examination scripts to mark they become perhaps slightly less than human. The wise candidate will bear this continually in mind and will try to present his answers in an attractive style planned to appeal straight away to the examiner.

The candidate should attend the examination armed with his favourite pen, for he will have to write fairly rapidly, and at the same time he must remember to write *legibly*. Legibility of handwriting should go without saying, but one regrets to have to say that there are still very many people about whose handwriting is difficult and sometimes even impossible to decipher. Those who fall into this category should take special care in the examination for examiners are not exactly endeared to candidates whose writing is so bad that their answers take twice as long to read as the normal script. All candidates get fair treatment: make no mistake about that. But a warning is printed on the cover of every Library Association examination answer book that style, handwriting and punctuation will be taken into consideration when marking the answers. Some marks are indeed allotted in the examiners' marks scheme for style and presentation, and these might very well make all the difference between a pass and a fail in the case of a border-line script.

Another important factor in presentation is the judicious use of paragraphs. Everybody is aware of the need for paragraphs but experience has shown that in the examination room many students scribble away laboriously and forget all about this need. Many who do use paragraphs do so without any rhyme or reason: the result is not a planned answer but one that is broken up into paragraphs just when the candidate happened to think about it. Another point is that students should not forget to indent the first line of each paragraph.

The only sure way to produce a planned answer, divided into logical paragraphs, is to get into the habit of jotting down a skeleton answer on a piece of rough paper before starting the actual answer in the script-book. Do not scribble the skeleton outline in the script-book itself, and do not include the rough paper in the script-book when sealing it up at the end of the examination. Most examination questions, particularly those demanding answers in the form of essays, should be approached in this way. Read the question carefully, think of all the possible points you wish to make and jot them down on your rough paper. Then put them into some sort of sequence under three or four headings. These will later form your paragraphs, and there are few questions that cannot be attempted in four paragraphs, as follows:—*Introduction, Thesis, Explanation (with examples if possible), Conclusion*. If the student feels that the use of the skeleton outline is going to be difficult he should practise it before the examination. Most students will quickly get into the way of it and will save themselves time and trouble in the examination, as well as producing a neater, more logical and better presented answer.

LENGTH OF ANSWERS

In most, though not all, the Library Association examinations six questions have to be attempted in three hours and this, on the face of it, gives half an hour for each answer. Students would however, be well advised to allow only 25 minutes per answer, for considerable time is used up in reading and re-reading the questions, and in reading through the answers when they have been committed to paper. Candidates should work with a watch if possible, and they should get practice beforehand by answering the questions set at previous examinations. These are printed in the *Students' Handbook* which is issued annually by the Library Association, and they will be found to be an indispensable guide to the standards of the examinations. Indeed, these questions *must* be studied throughout the candidate's preparation, and it is suggested that just before the examination he should sit down and try to answer them under examination room conditions, that is, without notes and text-books, and working with the clock. Generally speaking, unless answers are particularly asked for in note form, they should be written in essay form, but this is by no means an inexorable rule. Some questions on the subjects of classification or cataloguing lend themselves to answers in tabulated form: this is a matter for the discretion of the candidate. Certainly no candidate will be failed for this type of presentation, assuming that he includes the required material and that he has not been specifically asked for an essay. The essay form of answer should, as a general guide, be *about* three hundred words long, that is, just about a page or slightly over a page of the script-book in the normal person's handwriting. If the question gives definite guidance on the length of the

answer (e.g. *Write notes, about 150 words each, on TWO of the following . . .*) entrants should make sure that their answers comply with the stated length. Certainly they should not err by more than twenty per cent. (in this instance 30 words) either above or below the length demanded.

LITERARY STYLE

Throughout the examinations a clear and concise literary style is most important. Whether the candidate is discussing the pros and cons of the dictionary catalogue, the merits and demerits of the *Decimal Classification*, or describing the government of a university library, all answers should be presented to the examiners in good, clear, succinct English prose. Style is particularly important in the examinations dealing with the applied librarianship of the various national literatures. There are several good books on literary style, but students are particularly referred to Guy Pocock's *Pen and ink*, which gives plenty of good advice on the writing of good English to the person who is prepared to read it thoughtfully.

To the habitual bad speller and poor punctuator the only advice that can be given is that he should pay more attention to the printed words and sentences in the books and newspapers he reads in his daily life. But much bad spelling and faulty punctuation is sheer carelessness: one answer is to acquire the habit of reading through what has been written before going on with the next question. If this were done by all candidates many mistakes of spelling, punctuation, omitted words and bad sentence construction would be averted.

CONCLUSION

Is it worth it? That is the question which many student librarians must ask themselves either before or during their studies towards chartered librarianship. Salaries compare unfavourably with many of the other professions, and working hours, though no longer than other people's, are often more awkward. Promotion prospects are not all they might be, either in public or in special libraries. The way towards the goal of being a chartered librarian seems long and improbable of achievement. No wonder that many student librarians ask themselves if it is worth the trouble, before either falling by the wayside or leaving the profession altogether.

But it should not be forgotten that there are many compensations in librarianship, in particular the contact it brings with books and with a variety of people. These contacts are in themselves rewarding, though they may not appear to be at the time. Then too there is that sense of vocation which all librarians experience especially when they have achieved the well-known ideal of putting the right book into the hands of the right reader. More than most people, librarians can subscribe to the philosophy that man does not live by bread alone.

This book ends justifiably on a note of hope for the future. The profession has expanded throughout its modern existence and there seems no doubt that it will continue to expand. Since 1945 we have witnessed a phenomenal growth of special libraries, so much so that in the London and Home Counties area alone they outnumber the public libraries by more than three to one. The trend continues as libraries are featured more and more in industrial firms, professional organi-

sations, technical and training colleges, government departments, universities and university colleges.

Library development in the Commonwealth is offering opportunities, while the expansion of British Council libraries abroad is another step forward. In the public library field the Roberts Committee has made firm recommendations for expanding total staffs and the number of chartered librarians, particularly in the specialist posts of reference, children's and technical librarians. There seems every hope that the future will bring a continuing expansion to the profession, with better pay and more opportunities. The doubting student of today can be assured that his services will be needed and will be valued in the expanding world of librarianship tomorrow.

APPENDIX

SOME ABBREVIATIONS COMMONLY USED IN BRITISH LIBRARIANSHIP

A.A.L.	Association of Assistant Librarians
A.L.A.	Associate of the Library Association; American Library Association
A.M.C.	Association of Municipal Corporations
A.M.C.L.	Association of Metropolitan Chief Librarians
ASLIB	Association of Special Libraries and Information Bureaux
B.A.	Booksellers' Association
B.M.	British Museum
B.N.B.	British National Bibliography
B.N.B.C...	British National Book Centre
B.S.I.	British Standards Institution
BUCOP	British Union Catalogue of Periodicals
C.C.	County Council
C.C.A.	County Councils Association
CICRIS	Co-operative Industrial and Commer- cial Reference and Information Service
C.M.L.	Central Music Library
C.U.K.T.	Carnegie United Kingdom Trust
D.C.	Decimal Classification (of Dewey)
D.S.I.R.	Department of Scientific and Indus- trial Research
F.I.D.	Fédération Internationale de Docu- mentation
F.L.A.	Fellow of the Library Association
H.M.S.O.	Her Majesty's Stationery Office

I.A.M.L.	..	International Association of Music Libraries
I.F.L.A.	..	International Federation of Library Associations
L.A.	..	Library Association
LADSIRLAC	..	Liverpool and District Scientific, Industrial and Research Library Advisory Council
L.A.R.	..	Library Association Record
L.C.	..	Library of Congress; Local Collection
L.C.C.	..	London County Council
L.U.C.	..	London Union Catalogue
L.U.L.O.P.	..	London Union List of Periodicals
M.J.F.R.	..	Metropolitan Joint Fiction Reserve
MS. or MSS.	..	Manuscript or Manuscripts
M.S.C.	..	Metropolitan Special Collections
NALGO	..	National and Local Government Officers' Association
N.B.L.	..	National Book League
N.C.L.	..	National Central Library
N.C.R.L.C.	..	National Committee for Regional Library Co-operation
N.D.	..	No date
N.L.B.	..	National Library for the Blind
O.E.D.	..	Oxford English Dictionary
O.P.	..	Out-of-print
P.A.	..	Publishers' Association
R.L.S.	..	Regional Library System (more commonly used in respect of particular regions, e.g. N.W.R.L.S. North Western Regional Library System)
S.C.E.L.	..	Standing Committee on Education in Librarianship
S.C.L.	..	Scottish Central Library
SCONUL	..	Standing Conference on National and University Libraries

SCOTAPLL	..	Standing Conference of Theological and Philosophical Libraries in London
SINTO	..	Sheffield Interchange Organisation
S.L.A.	..	Scottish Library Association; School Library Association
S.M.C.C.L.	..	Society of Municipal and County Chief Librarians
TALIC	..	Tyneside Association of Libraries for Industry and Commerce
U.D.C.	..	Universal Decimal Classification; Urban District Council
UNESCO	..	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation
W.E.A.	..	Workers' Educational Association

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