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Acquisition of Library Materials from Latin America*

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The most important point to be noted concerning the acquisition of library materials from Latin America is the increasing interest in this part of the world on the part of the faculties of the principal universities in the United States. As recently as ten years ago the Library of Congress, the New York Public Library, the University of California, and the University of Texas were virtually the only major libraries which devoted a large portion or their book funds or staff time to the acquisition of books and journals from Latin America. It should be added that during the decade of the 1940's, assisted by the Carnegie Corporation, several of the Southern institutions began to collect in this area. But, even with this assistance, the Latin American collections which were established did not rival in size or scope the collections on the Far East and the Middle East which were being developed by the major Eastern and Middle Western institutions.

Because of this general lack of interest, there were until a few years ago, very few bibliographies or organized channels for purchasing materials and very few librarians competent to work in this area. In all but a handful of the larger institutions, the most common method of acquiring books and journals from Latin America was through purchases made by faculty members while on trips to that area.

Except in the most important Latin American cities there was almost no organized book trade, and all too often such books as were in stock were by European rather than Latin American authors. For reasons inherent in the situation, it was the custom of Latin American writers to publish their own works and to retain virtually the entire stock in their possession. Only the occasional enterprising bookseller or author seemed to believe it important that works of local authors be kept in stock in the book stores. Not only was there very little contact between libraries.

* Librarians who attended the June 1962 ALA Conference in Miami were also privileged to attend the meeting of the Acquisition Section of the Resources and Technical Services Division and to hear a symposium of specialists on acquiring library materials from newly-developing areas of the world. The six talks were descriptive, advisory, and filled with practical suggestions. They appear here in very much their original form.—Dorothy Bevis.

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in the United States and Latin American book dealers, but the same
might have been said regarding the relationship between librarians in
this country and those in the countries of Latin America.

As recently as 1956, when the first Seminar on the Acquisition of Latin
American Library Materials was held at the Chinsegut Hill Library of
the University of Florida, only eighteen libraries were represented. The
most recent meeting, held in conjunction with the meeting of the Amer-
ican Library Association in Miami, was attended by 55 delegates. Now,
scarcely a year goes by without the announcement of commitments in
this area by one or two additional institutions. Often, these commitments
are in response to language and area study programs, which are heav-
ily supported by the major foundations and by the federal govern-
ment, and which have been responsible for much of the increased buying
by the libraries of the large universities. As stated at the outset, this
awakening interest has had a profound effect on practically everything
concerned with acquisitions from Latin America.

The first organized cooperative step in solving some of these problems
was the organization of the Seminar on the Acquisition of Latin Amer-
ican Library Materials in 1956. Some of the working papers prepared for
the first meeting were:

Sources of Bibliographic Information and the Problems of Selection of
Latin American Materials  Robert E. Kingery
Selections and Acquisition of Latin American Bibliographical Ma-
terial  Carlos Victor Penna
Problems of the Treatment of Latin American Materials in U. S.
Libraries  Imogene Hixson
An International Bookseller’s Relationship with Publishers and
Dealers in Latin America  Dominick Coppola
Major Learned Societies and Institutions in Latin America with
Extensive Publishing Programs  Howard F. Cline
Indexes and Indexing Services to Latin American Periodicals and
Newspapers  Jorge Grossmann

Two major decisions made at that time which have had far-reaching
effects were: (1) the plan to involve Latin American librarians in the
seminars, and (2) the decision to publish the working papers and the
reports of the proceedings. The six successive meetings since that time
have been concerned with:

1957 (Austin, Texas) Mexico: acquisition and exchange of books
1958 (Berkeley, California) Argentina and Chile: booktrade and pub-
lications exchange
1959 (Washington, D. C.) Library support to Latin American area
studies.
1960 (New York City) Caribbean islands
1961 (Carbondale, Illinois) Colombia and Venezuela
1962 (Coral Gables, Florida) Central America and Panama

Library Resources & Technical Services
The published reports of the working papers prepared for these conferences provide some of the most important guides to purchasing in a foreign area which are available to American librarianship.

The next important step in the effort to secure a better representation of Latin America materials in our libraries was the decision by the Association of Research Libraries to extend the Farmington Plan to Latin America. A Latin American subcommittee was appointed in 1959 with instructions to develop a method for acquiring for some library in the United States one copy of each significant monograph published in the countries of Latin America. The original Farmington Plan, developed for Western Europe, excluded periodicals, newspapers, and documents. As the Subcommittee considered its assignments, it became apparent that, especially in some smaller countries in Latin America, the government was the major publisher, and, therefore, that to exclude documents would be to exclude a very important area. The official publications of museums, academies, libraries, and universities are in many countries the most important publications. Therefore, the Subcommittee determined to request institutions accepting Farmington responsibilities to include documents as well as monographs. The Subcommittee was less certain about the practicality of including journals and newspapers, but it decided that an effort should be made to acquire this type of material also.

The development by this time of the area studies concept in American universities prompted the Subcommittee's recommendation that Farmington Plan responsibilities for Latin America be on an area rather than a subject basis. Whenever possible, the Subcommittee made assignments where there was already an area study program involving the given countries, in the hope that there would be a natural, lasting interest in the countries as a result of the commitment by the universities in the area studies programs. The institutions themselves, rather than the Farmington organization select and make their own arrangements with the Latin American dealers.

By 1961 assignments covering Mexico, Central America, and South America had been made to the following institutions:

- Argentina
- Bolivia
- Brazil
- Caribbean
- Chile
- Colombia
- Costa Rica
- Ecuador
- Guatemala, Honduras, Nicaragua, El Salvador
- Mexico
- Panama
- Paraguay
- Peru

Syracuse University
Duke University
University of Illinois
University of Florida
University of California
University of Arizona
University of Kansas
Duke University
Tulane University
University of Texas
University of Arizona
Syracuse University
Cornell University

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If, in the earlier mention of the state of bibliography, book trade and publishing in Latin America, the past tense was used, this was largely for descriptive purposes only. While the past several years have seen considerable improvement in the state of Latin American bibliography, there has been to date relatively little improvement in the process of getting the works of Latin American authors into commercial channels. Dr. Nettie Lee Benson, of the University of Texas, who has been working very closely with the Latin American Cooperative Acquisitions Program sponsored by the New York Public Library and Stechert-Hafner, has estimated that less than ten per cent of the publications on South America ever reach the commercial market.

The first progress report by the Latin American Farmington Plan institutions at the 1962 Seminar indicated that, except in a few of the countries, a great deal of improvement will have to be made before a satisfactory percentage of publications can be obtained from the local book dealers. These dealers are listed in the “Farmington Plan Letter” No. 15 (May 15, 1961). Some are better than others, and the institutions responsible for the various countries, I am sure, will be very happy to report and make recommendations concerning them to interested persons.

At present the greatest hope seems to lie in the Stechert-Hafner administered Latin American Cooperative Acquisitions Program (LACAP). Reports at the recent Seminar indicated that in virtually every country in which this organization operated it was able to send many more publications to the U. S. than were supplied by the local dealers. In what might be considered the second stage in the Stechert-Hafner program, a permanent office has been opened in Bogota, Colombia.* An effort will be made to supply books from all the countries of South America except Brazil, which has been omitted for the time being.

Another attempt to facilitate the acquisition of books from Latin American countries is the publication by R. R. Bowker of the quarterly Fichero Bibliográfico Hispanoamericano. Although much less current, it corresponds roughly to our Publisher's Weekly and is an effort to record the publishing in the countries of Latin America. It is available by subscription from Bowker. The first issue of Latin American Books in Print has been announced by Bowker and should be available soon. It is hoped that a North American market for their books will prove an incentive to Latin American publishers to keep books in print for a longer time and, indeed, to publish works of Latin American authors, which task until now they have left largely to the author himself. It is interesting to note that both the Stechert-Hafner and the R. R. Bowker ventures in a sense are in response to the potential market for Latin American materials in the United States.

While these are important new efforts toward extending the coverage of acquisition of books from this area, it must be remembered that they are concerned primarily with books which get into the commercial market and must be viewed in the light of Dr. Benson's statement, noted above, that only ten per cent of the material published in Latin America ever reaches the book trade. The whole area of government documents, many of the periodicals, and the publications of the universities, museums, academies, and learned societies are largely by-passed by both Stechert-Hafner and Bowker. In an effort to secure a greater percentage of this material, the Farmington Plan Subcommittee on Latin America has concluded an agreement with the United States Book Exchange and the Library of Congress by which duplicate Latin American imprints from the Library of Congress and the Latin American books in the USBE are made available to the libraries having Farmington assignments in Latin America. Priority will be given to the institutions having responsibility for individual countries. However, as time goes on, a great many of the titles will already have been acquired by the Farmington institutions through other channels, and an increasing number of these books will then be available to other libraries having agreements with the United States Book Exchange. Since the bulk of this material is originally acquired on exchange, a high percentage of it, it is hoped, will be publications of organizations, institutions, and governments which do not ordinarily reach book markets. Ultimately, this plan should be of great benefit to many university libraries. Because the USBE already has extensive commitments for the exchange of periodicals, it has not been possible to include periodicals in the present plan. However, it is recognized that some arrangement must be made for them at a future date.

The question of the acquisition of government documents is still, to a large extent, unanswered. The study carried on by Donald Wisdom for the Farmington Plan Subcommittee on Latin America in 1961, of the holdings of the government documents of foreign countries in American libraries, indicated that many of the documents did not exist in any institution in this country. There can be no question that they are important, and every effort should be made to see that at least one set of every major government serial of the Latin American countries is found some place in the United States. This, again, seems to be the type of problem which should be approached cooperatively. The University of Florida Libraries at present have underway a project to determine what publications do exist, and hope to follow this with another to ascertain where in the United States they are held. This whole project is complicated by innumerable changes of title. The next step needs to be a plan to secure in the original, or in microfilm, sets of the major series. At least a start is being made.

Another attempt to make available some of the government publications of these countries is the recently-announced plan of Falls City Microcards to undertake a microcard edition of those Latin American official documents recorded in the Inter-American Review of Bibliography

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Two other cooperative acquisition projects which, while not concerned specifically with Latin America, are important aids in obtaining specific types of material, are the Association of Research Libraries Foreign Newspaper Microfilming Project and the joint ARL-New York Public Library project to film the official gazettes of foreign countries.

Through the newspaper project, 22 Latin American newspapers are being filmed currently. The New York Public Library is filming the official gazettes of 36 Latin American and Caribbean countries and territories. Subscriptions to both projects may be arranged through the Midwest Inter-Library Center. Positives of the newspapers may be purchased from MILC. The New York Public Library offers for sale positives of the gazettes.

When one considers the increased number of publications from Latin America added to United States libraries in the past ten years, it is clear that considerable progress is being made. Particularly is this progress evidenced by our greater knowledge of the bibliography of that area and by the several cooperative acquisition efforts, which seem to be on a firm footing. It must be recognized, nevertheless, that practically all the initiative and effort have been on the part of librarians, publishers, and book dealers in the United States. They cannot be successful until their counterparts in the countries of Latin America come to realize that our interest is real and continuing; for, in most of these countries, difficulties of communication and transportation, lack of technical knowledge, as well as government regulations, must be overcome before bibliographical control of publications can be achieved and a true international book trade established. All of this cannot be accomplished overnight, but the response by Latin Americans in the last few years gives every reason to believe that it will be accomplished.
Acquisition of Library Materials from Southeast Asia

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For the last seventy years Cornell's teaching assignments and the Library's acquisitions policies have reflected the Institution's growing interest in Southeast Asia. The first language course in Malay was taught in the 1890's; Thai students arrived in increased numbers from 1911 on; and today Thailand has more graduate students from Cornell than from any other American university. Cornell's President Schurman was head of the first Philippine Commission in 1900 and donated many books on that area to the Library. He was the first to arrange an exchange of publications, and, thanks to his initiative, the Library acquired in the course of the years a comprehensive set of official Philippine documents. President Schurman's personal papers are deposited in the Cornell University Archives and form a very important source of information for the turbulent history of the Philippines after the end of the Spanish-American war. In 1934 the Library received an endowment from Charles William Wason to buy books on China and the Chinese, and an increasing number of books on Southeast Asia were acquired from that time on.

The first foundation grant was received in 1947 to start an anthropological survey of Thailand. As a result of frequent and very large foundation grants, the University was able to establish a Southeast Asia center and to engage in an extensive teaching and research program in this area. The Library, which participated in all of these grants and also became beneficiary in its own right of one large allotment, changed its acquisitions policy accordingly, and accepted a Farmington Plan assignment for Indonesia, Malaya, Singapore, Burma, Thailand, Viet Nam, Laos, and Cambodia. We therefore cover all of Southeast Asia apart from the Philippines. The Library continues its extensive purchases of Philippine material but has no Farmington assignment for that area.

The Library personnel responsible for fulfilling our obligation faced a most difficult situation. My own knowledge of that part of the world was extremely elementary, and even this is an overstatement. I had read a few Dutch novels on Indonesia and greatly enjoyed The King and I. But this obviously did not tell me how to buy books in Bangkok.
I attended a few seminars and read a great many books which had been recommended to me by area specialists; but this, too, did not show me how to plan the purchase of books. The knowledgeable and enthusiastic help of the teaching faculty was therefore essential from the very beginning and has remained of significant importance up to the present day. Professors John Echols and George Kahin, to mention two, deserve much of the credit for the fact that Cornell University Library today has a very remarkable collection on Southeast Asia. There remained my obligation to translate the suggestions of the area specialists into library operations, and here I had to fall back on two principal requirements of every acquisitions procedure, regardless of the place and of the subject: flexibility and perseverance.

Although my readings did not assist me directly in planning the library work, I had profited from them. I realized that I had made a basic mistake in explaining my early failures with the most convenient phraseology of “Oriental mentality.” My fumbling had been caused by the fact that I did not understand a socio-political organization and a book-trade structure other than the ones with which I was accustomed to dealing. Most of Cornell’s long-established business connections are with dealers who have a large stock of domestic books which are sold not only for export but also to the local clientele. In Southeast Asia, book dealers sell foreign books to local customers—books in which I was obviously not interested. I had dealt mostly with countries in which the publisher merchandises his books through book stores and gives dealers a satisfactory discount. The situation is quite different if publications do not reach book stores automatically because many of them are privately published, difficult to obtain, and released to the retail dealer with a negligible discount and occasionally scarcely any profit whatsoever. Southeast Asian countries, as many other countries in the world, have stringent currency controls, and export shipments have to follow cumbersome regulations. It is understandable that under these circumstances, dealers are not too eager to engage in export. The structure of their own businesses is not geared to a smooth operation with foreign customers, and therefore the economic incentive to do business with a foreign library is very small indeed.

I also began to understand that it is somewhat parochial to speak of Southeast Asia as if this vast and most diversified part of the world were a cultural unit. How would we react if a librarian in Bangkok maintained a Western European area program which included all Western Europe from Spain to Scandinavia and possibly with England and Ireland thrown in for good measure?

The over 200 million people who live in Southeast Asia belong to many different races, have a variety of cultural backgrounds and religious beliefs, and speak over twenty major languages. Indonesia, the center of the spice trade, was the target of the Arabian commercial empire in the Middle Ages and has remained Mohammedan up to the present time. Burma and Thailand accepted the yellow robe of the Buddhist monk following the Southern conservative trend in Buddhism, the Hinayana.
China, the great neighbor to the north, has exercised comparatively small cultural influence; however, the political pressure has been at times, very strong. Viet Nam, for instance, has been within the Chinese sphere of influence for more than 700 years. There is a large Chinese population in practically all of the Southeast Asian countries. The Chinese form a most influential minority pressure group with important newspapers and book publications. Procuring these publications is essential for a full understanding of the countries; yet they have to be acquired independently of the book publications of the host countries.

Geographically, all these countries are part of Monsoon Asia. They have little change in temperature during the year, day and night are of equal length, and they are accustomed to violent rainfalls. For six months of the year, the winds blow from the north, for the other half of the year, from the south. Between 75 and 90 per cent of the population is rural. The population increase is slightly below that of the world total; in spite of a very high birth rate, the death rate held the population increase to 17 per cent between 1932 and 1950, in comparison with a 20 per cent world increase during this period.

All of these countries are theoretically very rich. Burma and Thailand are the rice bowls of Asia, and Indonesia's treasures have been an almost proverbial attraction for European explorers. The people who live in these countries, however, are generally very poor. Whereas we have a daily caloric intake of 3,200 per capita, most people in Southeast Asia fall below the subsistence level of 2,000. The illiteracy rate is very high: in the Philippines 35 per cent, Indonesia 45 per cent, Malaya 62 per cent, and Laos 90 per cent, compared with the American rate of 2.2 per cent (women 1.8 per cent, men 2.5). Whereas we have one doctor for 710 people, the rate in Indonesia is one for 60,000.

With the exception of Thailand, which had always maintained its independence, all of these countries were former colonies which gained freedom after the Second World War. They are dissatisfied with the results of this victory. Their economic advances are much smaller than they had expected, and they are by no means enthusiastic about their domestic political institutions which go all the way to the left and to the right of Mr. Sukarno's "guided Democracy." They all have accepted eagerly the curse of European history: rampant nationalism. They all have championed education and distribution of printed materials.

Popular opinion seems to favor newspapers and serials, and the number has increased rapidly; the countries follow in this respect the example of Japan, which, for many years, had the largest newspaper circulation in the world. A great many Southeast Asian newspapers and their serials have a small circulation and consist of only a few pages; their publishers love to change format, vary the title, publish irregularly, and are allergic to keeping a mailing list. They are just what a doctor would recommend to make the blood pressure of a serials librarian rise. There are times when I have the feeling that the blood pressure of the Cornell serials librarians is over 500. In addition to this comes the language
difficulty. A comparatively small country like Malaya publishes newspapers in four languages—Malay (Jawi or Arabic Script and Rumi or Roman Script), English, Chinese, and Tamil.

Cornell has over a thousand continuations, or at least tries to maintain continuations to that many periodicals and newspapers. It is difficult to ascertain how many serials publications are issued annually in these countries; my guess is that we receive about 50 per cent. Equally difficult is an exact calculation of book publication. National bibliographies, if they exist at all, are faulty and late; the UNESCO calculations suffer from the same deficiencies. From all available sources, I would estimate that the annual book production in these countries is between 6,000 and 8,000. Cornell acquisition is about 60 per cent of the total; and I cannot say whether or not we cover all of the books published which are of possible research value to American libraries. Undoubtedly a large part of the 40 per cent which we do not buy would be of no interest to research, but some important books we miss in spite of the efforts of faculty and library staff.

How do we buy these books? The first step, with the help of the area specialists, was to get in touch with dealers in the different countries and to sign contracts with them, by which they accepted the obligation to furnish us regularly with all the books we wanted according to the Farmington Plan regulations. This procedure, however, does not bring us books. It is like shuffling cards in a bridge tournament; you have not won any games yet, as a matter of fact, you do not even have cards in your hand. The next step is to write regularly, at least three times a year, to all the dealers, reminding them that you want the books, exhorting, cajoling, and doing whatever else frustrated love can inspire. This, however, does not bring the books closer to us either; it is again shuffling cards, but this time with more vigor. It is at this point that the help of the faculty becomes indispensable to our work. Members of the faculty, especially in the field of anthropology and related subjects, are world travelers nowadays. They rarely stay at home, and there has been a malicious rumor that all deans will be replaced by travel agents. In our case, wide travel of the faculty was of the greatest importance. They visited our dealers, discussed and explained our wishes, bought books, made contacts, and started the flow of material towards Ithaca. Fortunately for us, practically every one of our dealers is visited annually by one of Cornell's faculty members. Graduate students who have grants also have accepted the obligation of visiting our dealers and have been most helpful in selecting books and making contacts. Cornell has many foreign students, and receives visits from many foreign scholars. I make a point of speaking with as many visitors from that part of the world as I possibly can. I discuss their publications and the possibilities of acquiring them and ask for their suggestions and assistance. I receive many leads, and like a detective I have to follow up every one of them. Some are helpful, some are blind alleys. To my astonishment, I find that the more promising a lead seems to be, the less successful it turns out to be in the long run. We receive
books from our established Farmington dealers, but we buy from every source we hear of: from institutions, from private sources, from any dealer. Does this not result in many duplicates? The answer is yes, it obviously does. Fortunately this is not financially damaging, since most book prices are very low. Moreover, a great number of our faculty are pleased to buy these duplicates from us for their private collections.

We have exchange relations with every large library in Southeast Asian countries. From some we receive much, from others hardly anything. Among the agencies and persons I have been bombarding with letters requesting help are our American consular services, the different cultural affairs attachés, and, of course, all of the U. S. libraries of information. Some were very helpful, some not at all. But I still continue to write. I acknowledge with gratitude the cooperation of the Library of Congress. Cecil Hobbs, the chief buyer for the Library of Congress for Southeast Asia, has helped us in making contacts, has visited our dealers, and, with the permission of the Librarian of Congress, has bought books for us.

A most important secondary source for purchase is the book trade in Europe and in America. We have several uncommonly energetic and active American dealers who specialize in books from Asia, and we have good relations with every one of them. England is still an excellent source for books on Burma, and the Netherlands is a storehouse of publications on Indonesia. Because of the very tense political relations between the Netherlands and Indonesia, our Dutch business associates do not provide us with current material, but they have large stocks of older publications and have access to important privat libraries which come on the market from time to time. We pay much attention to the Dutch book market, and during a buying trip in Europe about eight years ago I had the intoxicating feeling that I had cornered the Dutch book market for Indonesian books. For about a week, there was not a single book on Indonesia in any Dutch bookstore which Cornell did not have. I felt like Rockefeller or Carnegie! We are also paying attention to the Paris dealers because of their former good relationship with Viet Nam, or Indo-China as it used to be called.

It is essential not to neglect the large research libraries. For instance, the Library of the India Office in London has one of the best collections of Burmese books of the 19th century. Dutch university libraries are very strong in Indonesian material, and the State Archives in The Hague house the complete archives of the Dutch East India Company; the Bibliothèque Nationale in Paris has important collections on Viet Nam. We try to buy duplicates or to exchange, and we discuss possible co-operative microfilm projects.

Procurement of these books from Southeast Asia is only one part of the acquisition process. We should include full processing too, because no book is really acquired until it is cataloged and cards are filed. The cataloging of this type of material is at times extremely difficult. We try to overcome the language difficulty by “professional connubium” between a student from that part of the world and an American cataloger. This procedure is of course time-consuming and very expensive. Another diffi-
faculty is romanization; moreover, for some of these languages no official romanization has been accepted.

As a closing remark, I would like to offer a generalization which we can draw from our experiences in buying books in Southeast Asia. This generalization will not bring you any new information—you all know it as well as I do; but from time to time it may be valuable to reiterate an accepted truth. A university library must establish intimate family relations with its teaching faculty, so that both parties have mutual respect for their procedures and understand that they have one goal in common but different approaches toward it. Only then can a library fulfill its obligation.

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Some six years ago the Committee on the Near and Middle East of the Social Science Research Council noted "that one of the major problems calling for solution in the rapid and effective development of Near and Middle Eastern Studies in the United States is that of bibliographical services to various individuals and institutions concerned with the area." Whether one uses a narrow or broad definition of the area covered, the multiplicity of languages and the general lack of central or efficient book trade organizations in most of the countries present great difficulties. Publications in this field include materials in Arabic, Persian, Turkish, Hebrew, Armenian, and cognate languages.

The expansion of area programs and the increase in Near East publications, commercial, governmental, and institutional—have complicated both the current and retrospective acquisitions of American libraries. A report on the "Bibliographical Resources and Needs in the Social Sciences Relating to the Near and Middle East," a working paper based on a report prepared by Harry W. Hazard for the S.S.R.C., reviewed the existing collections and bibliographical practices in American universities and outlined the existing and anticipated needs of these institutions.

This survey indicated that Arabic holdings tended to reflect a period when research interest concentrated on the philological, historical, theological, and literary. Modern Arab scholarship and especially social science materials were poorly represented in our collections. Persian holdings were found to be far weaker and even more heavily weighted toward the classics. While there were a few libraries with fairly good Ottoman collections, there remain problems of retrospective collecting to fill in gaps. Modern Turkish materials in the Latin alphabet have been collected by a number of libraries. The same situation obtains in the case of modern Hebrew. It was found, as might have been expected, that coverage of Slavic and western language works dealing with the Middle East varied with the collecting policy of each institution.

The Hazard study further noted that the greatest gap exists in 20th century materials and, in summarizing coverage by country, it was reported that:
“Israel is undoubtedly the most fully covered country, followed apparently by Lebanon, Egypt, and Turkey. In the moderately covered category would fall Iran, Iraq, Syria, and Arab Palestine, with Jordan and the Arabian Peninsula lagging far behind. Of the adjacent related areas, Cyprus and North Africa are fairly well covered; the Sudan, Afghanistan, and western Pakistan probably fall in the middle category; Transcaucasia, Turkestan, and the Ottoman Balkans are at the bottom. Islam as a religion receives generally adequate coverage in its theological and intellectual aspects, far less so in its folk practices or its educational and psychological effects.”

As a follow-up to the Report and in the light of suggestions and recommendations of librarians concerned with the development of Middle Eastern Resources, the Social Science Research Council had David Wilder study again, from the professional librarian's viewpoint, the organization of a comprehensive system for the identification, acquisition and distribution of materials published in this area. This joint effort of scholars and librarians in the fashioning of the Hazard and Wilder reports has been followed up by the establishment of a Joint Subcommittee on Middle East Library Resources which met first in New York on April 11, 1960.

The Subcommittee was formed by parallel action of the American Council of Learned Societies and the Social Science Research Council on the recommendation of their Joint Committee on the Near and Middle East and the Association of Research Libraries through its Farmington Subcommittee on the Middle Eastern Library materials. The first Newsletter of the Subcommittee noted that “Its raison d'être is a conviction on the part of some of us concerned with the problem, that almost every aspect of library work on collections to support Middle East studies is more difficult and complicated than on other materials. Some sort of coordinated action, even if only the sharing of work already done, would be serviceable.”

The problems which have been noted for consideration by the Subcommittee range from procurement through processing, from technical questions such as the provision of author numbers for Arabic names to very general ones such as the need to develop library science to the point where it might adequately handle materials from other civilizations without distortion.

The selection of materials from the countries of the Middle East has been hampered by the limited nature of bibliographic information. The existence of national bibliographies in Turkey and Persia have lent scope to programs in these regions. The same cannot be said for the Arabic-speaking world. The words of Helen Conover (in Current National Bibliographies, 1955) have held true until quite recently:

“There are no current national bibliographies in the accepted sense issued in the Arabic-speaking countries of the Near and Middle East. . . . the bibliographical bulletins of the Egyptian National Library in Cairo, which is more properly the Library accessions list, is the most comprehensive source available for identification of current writings in Arabic

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published in Egypt, Arabia, Syria, the Lebanon, Jordan, Iraq and North Africa. It is not restricted to new publications, but takes in everything in the Arabic language acquired by the library in the preceding year."

The recent arrival of *The Arab Book Annual*, the first current national bibliography of books published in the United Arab Republic with author and translator indexes and directory of Arab publishers for 1960, marks a significant step forward in bibliographic control. Our Egyptian colleagues are to be congratulated on this publication which appeared as a Special Issue (July-August 1961, Volume 3, no. 4) of *Library World*, the first Arabic periodical for library service. This work lists some 1267 titles exclusive of textbooks and government publications, and the compilation claims to represent 95 per cent of the entire book production.

In addition to national bibliographies, libraries generally rely on the following sources for information on books published in the Middle East:

1. catalogs of book dealers, both western European and Middle Eastern;
2. western and oriental language journals which contain notices, reviews, and advertisements of Middle Eastern materials;
3. accessions lists;
   - McGill University, Institute of Islamic Studies—current acquisitions
   - American University of Beirut—Arabic list and western acquisitions
   - Chicago University, Oriental Institute—books acquired by the Oriental Institute Library
   - UCLA—books acquired for the Near Eastern collection;
4. UNESCO publications and exchange information from national libraries and government agencies—useful for government publications;
5. current and retrospective bibliographies such as:
   - *The Library World* (Alain al-maktabat). Cairo (current)
   - Iraj Afshar's *Bibliography of Persia*. (current)
   - **Rahnamay-e Kêtab** (monthly). Teheran (current)
   - Sarkis: *Muj'am al-Matbu'at al-Arabiyya*. (retrospective)
   - *al-Sijil al-Thaqafi*. Cairo, 1948-1954. (retrospective)
   - *Fihiṣrīst Maktubat al-Azhar*, 1945- (Catalog of the Azhar Library)
   - *al-Nashia al-Misriyya lilmatbu'at*, (Egyptian Publications Bulletin) which succeeded *Nashrat Dar al-Kutah* (Bulletin of the National Library) (Current and retrospective);
   - *al-Maktaba* (The Library) Baghdad (current);
   - for current materials: literary journals such as *al-Adah*, *al-Adib*, Shi'r al-Majallah, as well as dealers catalogs and lists of new publications.

*Library Resources & Technical Services*
(6) publication of catalogs of individual library collections:
(b) Dictionary Catalog, Oriental Collection, NYPL, 16 vols. G. K. Hall
(c) Catalog of the Library, School of Oriental and African Studies, University of London
(d) Dictionary Catalog of the Library, Hebrew Union College, Jewish Institute of Religion (400,000 cards)
(e) Catalogue of Syriac Printed Books and Related Literature in the British Museum, compiled by the late Cyril Moss, Assistant Keeper in the Department of Oriental Printed Books and Manuscripts, British Museum, 1962. The preface states: "Not only is it the first record ever published of the British Museum's collection of Syriac books, but it may well stand as the first systematic catalogue of Syriac printed literature to be published by any library. The usefulness to scholars will be enhanced by the numerous analytical entries for periodical articles having any bearing on Syriac studies, in whatever language, both from Mr. Moss's own department and the Department of Printed Books in the British Museum. It serves therefore not only as a record of the Museum's Syriac Collection, but as a comprehensive bibliography of the subject."

(7) Faculty and/or library staff book purchasing in the field. Columbia, Harvard, McGill, and Princeton are among the institutions which have found this method extremely useful. A member of the Columbia faculty was instrumental in acquiring for his institution an important Persian collection. Stanford Shaw of the Harvard faculty has made two successful buying trips to Turkey within the past three years. For his first trip he prepared a desiderata list of some thousand titles, mainly of Ottoman Turkish, to serve as a guide. Copies of this list were made available to other institutions interested in this field. A limited number of copies remain; anyone interested can obtain a copy as long as the supply lasts. Rudolf Mach, who is in charge of Princeton's Middle East program completed one successful tour of the Middle East and has returned to the area in order to increase the Princeton Library's resources. William Watson of McGill's Institute of Islamic Studies toured the area on behalf of his Library; and Labib Zuwiyya-Yamak, who heads the Middle Eastern Section of the Harvard College Library, has done a similar job for Harvard during the past year.

The Joint Committee has sponsored or supported other acquisitions activities. A survey of holdings was undertaken to discover to what extent needed Arabic books were actually getting into American collections. For the sampling, eight university libraries checked the May-August, 1958, issue of the Egyptian Publication Bulletin. The following fields were
omitted from any consideration—Christianity, the sciences, fine arts, music, amusement, non-Arabic literature, textbooks, and juveniles. Of the remaining 316 entries, 118 or 37.3% were held by one or more libraries; 17 additional titles or 5.4% were on order. It seems obvious that a better job needs to be done to ensure adequate coverage. The inadequacy of individual collections is highlighted by the fact that the number of titles held by the top three libraries reporting were 74, 60, and 53, respectively, with the holdings of the remaining libraries ranging from 17 to 7 titles.

Fortunately, library holdings in this field have increased drastically with the inauguration of the U. S. Public Law 480 program which had the wholehearted support of the Subcommittee. The first fruits of this program were reported in the Library of Congress Information Bulletin for May 28, 1962. While it is too early to make a complete assessment of the initial program, informal reports have indicated satisfaction with the results—especially with the monographs received. One library reported that a preliminary check showed that only 52 of the 282 monographs were duplicates, and a high percentage of the remaining titles would be of research value. A continuance of the present program in the UAR, India, and Pakistan, and expansion into other areas of the world would be of real assistance to the acquisitions programs of American libraries.

A program for the acquisition of materials from Iraq is being developed by Father Brendan Connolly, Director of Libraries at Boston College. Arrangements have been made with the Librarian of the affiliated al-Hikma University in Bagdad to select and acquire three sets of current materials of research value for use in this country. The first shipment of twenty-two titles arrived in September, 1962, and additional volumes are en route.

Statements concerning the holdings of Middle East library materials have been prepared by several libraries. These reports contain information useful for institutions beginning or expanding their resources in this area. A statement on the retrospective holdings of McGill University's Institute of Islamic Studies Library was appended to the first issue of the Middle East Library Resources Newsletter. Columbia University has a report as of February, 1961, assessing the strength of each part of its Middle East collection including a selective list of vernacular serials received plus a list of newspapers currently received. The Library of Congress statement, which has been duplicated for distribution by McGill University's Institute of Islamic Studies, indicates policies followed and progress made in building up its Near East holdings.

Work is continuing on the National Union Catalog of Oriental Serials, and exploratory work is going on toward the coordination of Middle East newspaper holdings in American libraries. Robert Ogden, Chief of the Near East Section of the Library of Congress, is preparing a union list of newspapers of the Near and Middle East which will include North African and European language, as well as vernacular papers from the area.
Of some interest to acquisitions librarians is the news that the Persian transliteration system put forth by the Joint Committee on the Near and Middle East will serve as the basis for the system to be adopted by the Library of Congress.

The Newsletter of the Joint Committee will be issued from time to time. It will continue to report on developments in the Middle Eastern field. Anyone interested in being placed on the mailing list for the Middle East Library Resources Newsletter should address his request to:

The Librarian
Institute of Islamic Studies
1345 Redpath Crescent
Montreal 25, Canada

In conclusion, I might add that the Editor is seeking ideas, information, and comments on library activities in this rapidly-expanding field. Developments are taking place here and in the Middle East, and there are prospects of further significant results. The exchange of information is very important, and the Newsletter can serve as an efficient means of communication.

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Los Alamos Scientific Laboratory Library

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SPECIAL LIBRARIES ASSOCIATION, 31 East 10th St. New York 3

Volume 7, Number 1, Winter 1963
Acquisition of Library Materials from China, Japan and Korea

NEWLY DEVELOPING” is scarcely the term to apply to China, Japan, and Korea; “full blown” would be much more descriptive of actual bibliographic conditions in this part of the world. We are dealing here with civilizations of great antiquity, and in the case of China especially, with a culture characterized by a vast literary output. By 213 B.C., for example, when literate man was still unknown in large parts of what we are pleased to call the civilized west today, the Chinese had accumulated a sufficient supply of books—archival and private collections had begun centuries earlier—to indulge in the luxury of book-burning, an event remembered largely in remorse by succeeding generations of Chinese scholars. The earliest extant samples of block printing and the oldest surviving printed book in the world are the products of 8th and 9th century Japan and China, respectively. Moreover, it has been estimated that by the end of the 15th century—that is, about the time the New World was being discovered—Chinese scholars had written more books than the literary men of all other nations combined.

Today China and Japan rank with the world’s leaders in the book publishing field. While current book trade statistics for mainland China are not available, a recent study shows that in 1958, some 26,414 titles were published. In Japan, during 1961, some 21,847 titles (12,268 new) were published as compared to a U. S. total during the same year of 18,060 titles, of which 14,258 were new. The Republic of China (Taiwan) and the Republic of Korea together published in 1960 some 3,200 titles. From this area of the world, therefore, we may expect a total trade-book production of close to 50,000 titles per year, exclusive of periodicals, ephemera, and government and other non-trade publications.

I mention these matters not particularly to enlighten the reader concerning the antiquity of Asian civilizations nor to impress upon him the high volume of publishing in these countries, but to point out the sheer magnitude of the task confronting the librarian attempting to form a collection representing the best of these civilizations. On the one hand, he is confronted with the accumulated output of long, varied, and rich
literary traditions which have endured for one and a half to three millenia. On the other hand, working typically with an inadequate staff and book budget, he must select from the great mass of available material a collection which, he hopes, will serve his clientele. His readers, moreover, may still be largely potential.

Certain obvious conclusions, which flow from these preliminary observations, may be summarized as follows:

It is, of course, our interest in the non-Western world that is "newly developing" (although this is relative since the major libraries of East Asian material in the United States are now twenty to fifty years of age). It is this new, or in some cases revived, interest, long neglected by the academic community, that is providing the pressure on libraries to acquire research materials on these areas.

Because of the nature of the languages involved, use of these materials will continue to be confined largely to research at the graduate level and beyond.

Language competence and library training do not necessarily qualify an individual to select and build a collection wisely. We would not expect a French literature student to be competent in English history simply because he happens to specialize in an area close to England, but on American campuses across the land a Chinese or Japanese librarian is expected to have universal knowledge of the "Far East." Faculty cooperation in this situation is essential.

Finally, because of the wealth of material actually or potentially available, and because adequate staffing must be provided to acquire and service this material, East Asian collections cannot be put together on a shoestring. Book and staff budgets of top East Asian libraries in the U. S. are now running at the $100,000 per year level, and even at the second rank annual expenditures of $60-$80,000 are not uncommon.

Any library newly embarking on a developmental program involving East Asia might very well profitably contact one of the thirteen major Asian libraries in the United States.7 Arranged geographically from East to West, they are as follows:

East Coast:
- Chinese-Japanese Library, Harvard University
- East Asian Library, Columbia University
- Far Eastern Collections, Yale University
- Gest Collection, Princeton University
- Orientalia Division, Library of Congress
- Wason Collection, Cornell University

Middle West:
- Asia Library, University of Michigan
- Far Eastern Library, University of Chicago

West Coast:
- East Asian Collection, Hoover Institution, Stanford University
- East Asiatic Library, University of California, Berkeley
- Far Eastern Library, University of Washington
Oriental Library, University of California at Los Angeles  
Research Collections, Institute of Advanced Projects, East-West  
Center, University of Hawaii

There are collections also at Northwestern University, Claremont  
Colleges, California, and the University of Southern California. In  
addition, a number of universities have begun quite recently to acquire  
books in the vernaculars of Asia. These are the university libraries of  
Texas, Kansas, Indiana, Arizona, Michigan State (Oakland), and Wis-  
consin, to name a few.

It should be noted also that there are four permanent committees in-  
terested in various aspects of East Asian libraries in the U. S. First, there  
is the Committee on American Library Resources on the Far East of the  
Association for Asian Studies (Chairman: Dr. G. Raymond Nunn,  
Director, Research Collections, Institute of Advanced Projects, East-West  
Center, University of Hawaii, Honolulu). This group concerns itself  
primarily with various problems relating to the acquisition of material  
from East Asia. The Association itself issues the Journal of Asian Studies,  
the winter issue of which is devoted to a Bibliography of Asian Studies,  
a primary source for the procurement of western books on Asia.

Second, the Joint Committee on Contemporary China of the American  
Council of Learned Societies and the Social Science Research Council is  
concerned with the procurement of material on modern China.

Third, there is the Far Eastern Materials Committee of the Cataloging  
and Classification Section of the American Library Association (Chair-  
man: Charles E. Hamilton, East Asiatic Library, University of California,  
Berkeley). The chief interest of this Committee is in cataloging and  
classification. Similarly, the Orientalia Processing Committee of the  
Library of Congress is concerned primarily with policy questions relating  
to processing.

Turning now to concrete problems involved in obtaining library ma-  
terials from East Asia, we may observe first of all that while there may  
be, politically, two Chinas, bibliographically there are at least three  
Chinas. They are the People's Republic of China on the mainland, the  
Nationalist Republic of China on Taiwan (Formosa), and the British  
Crown Colony of Hong Kong serving as Chinese book jobbers to the  
world.

Consider first the case of Red China. Book packages emanating  
directly or indirectly from mainland China are liable to delay or seizure  
in customs except when they are destined for licensed institutions. Appli-  
cation should be made, therefore, to the Foreign Assets Control Division  
of the U. S. Treasury Department to obtain an import license. The  
license number should appear on the address label of all Chinese mate-  
rials posted in Hong Kong or Japan.

Western language publications issued, let us say, by the Foreign  
Languages Press in Peking are available from a number of dealers in  
Hong Kong, the United States, and Great Britain. Many of these are
substantial publications: collections of laws and the reports of the conventions of the Chinese Communist Party, for example. Others may be of a propagandistic nature, although these items cannot thereby be ignored since they have scholarly uses of their own. One source of supply for such works is China Books and Periodicals, 334 West Schiller St., Chicago 10, Illinois.

The best sources of supply for Chinese-language publications are found in Hong Kong and Japan (Tokyo and Kyoto). Many current mainland imprints are available from any one of several reputable dealers, among them the Chiao Lin Publication Service, P. O. Box 5734, Kowloon, Hong Kong, and the Universal Book Company, 17 Gilman's Bazaar, Hong Kong. Until fairly recently, Japan was a more fruitful (though quite expensive) source of antiquarian books than either Hong Kong or Taiwan, but during the past year a number of quite reasonably priced older works have appeared on the Hong Kong market (from mainland China!), while the offerings from Japan remain at inflated levels.

The most significant development during the past year was the reactivation of direct exchange relationships with the National Library of Peking. In the fall of 1959, an unofficial ban had been placed on the export of scores of scholarly journals. In the fall of 1961, this ban was apparently relaxed, since a number of journals were made available on exchange beginning with issues for January 1962. Arrangements are being made through ordinary mail by the International Exchange Section, National Library of Peking, Peking 7, People's Republic of China. In the past few months, this direct exchange has become the best source of mainland journals for U. S. libraries. Recently received letters have included lists offering many monographic works on exchange, although most of the latter are also available by purchase from Hong Kong.

Correspondence may be in English, and as a matter of fact this is true in writing to most dealers and libraries in East Asia. Aside from the English, which may be very good or very bad (but imagine yourself writing in Chinese or Japanese!), the most discouraging thing about correspondence is the frequency with which queries are simply ignored. This is true whether one writes in the vernacular or in English, and is apparently a common failing among dealers beyond the Pacific.

In the case of Nationalist Chinese publications, the initial contact of the American librarian should be with the National Central Library, Taipei, Taiwan, Republic of China. This library issues a bilingual (Chinese and English) Monthly List of Chinese Books giving short descriptions, prices, and dealers' names. An unusually high percentage of these books appear to be reprints of standard works from the classical and traditional literature of China.

Generally speaking, bibliographical controls for Chinese and Korean works are poor, and one must therefore rely chiefly on dealers' catalogs and desiderata lists. Such controls are much better for Japanese publications. The National Diet Library in Tokyo issues a weekly accessions

The bulk of current Japanese trade issues, both monographic and serial, will be supplied efficiently and quickly if orders are placed soon after publication with a reputable dealer. Two such dealers are Tokyo Shuppun Hambai K.K., 7, 1-chome, Kudan, Chiyoda-ku, Tokyo, one of the biggest wholesalers, and Japan Publications Trading Company, Central P. O. Box 722, Tokyo, one of the leading exporters. Trade books are issued in relatively small numbers and tend to go out of print or out of stock rather quickly, and thereafter must be picked up through the expensive process of catalog searching or desiderata listing.

Scholarly journals from Japan constitute a problem, first of identification, secondly of evaluation, and thirdly of acquisition (many are not available from dealers). Exchanges are not difficult to arrange for those libraries fortunate enough to have exchangeable journals, but not all requests can or will be honored. These same disabilities apply to government serials, some of which may be available as gift continuations, and some, for no apparent reason, not available at all. One of the difficulties hindering wider circulation of both government and scholarly journals appears to be high postage costs. Perhaps what is needed is a permanent center in Tokyo, jointly operated by American libraries, to select, acquire, and distribute hard-to-obtain Japanese publications.

For Korean works the American librarian can profitably begin by contacting the National Assembly Library (or the Library of the Supreme Council for National Reconstruction as it has also been known since the revolution of 1961), Seoul, Republic of Korea. This library has issued in the past Korean-English lists of exchange items. One source for trade books is the Korean Book Company, Central P. O. Box 424, Seoul.

I should like to add one word about book prices and payments. For current trade books from both China and Japan, the average price is quite low, standing at about U. S. $1.00 per volume. All classes of books are included in this average, however, and if, as is likely, a library concentrates on scholarly works and monographs, the average price will rise to the neighborhood of $2.00 per volume. Moreover, out-of-print, antiquarian, and rare books, when available, are apt to be very expensive, even by western standards.

Normally, a library cannot obtain a discount, although two or three dealers in Japan and Hong Kong regularly give a ten percent discount. As a matter of fact, one must guard against mark-ups of 40-100 percent over domestic prices, particularly in the case of bilingual or art books from Japan. The economics and ethics of this dual pricing system are not at all clear, although there is some indication that this may be due in part to the small margins with which Japanese dealers must operate.
Payment is often requested upon receipt of invoices (normally sent via airmail and arriving three to four days after posting). Books are sent via ordinary seameil and require four to six weeks for arrival. Non-arrival of books is a minimal problem, but it is still the better part of wisdom to delay payment until shipments are actually received in the library.

As evident, these remarks are addressed to general acquisitions librarians, and hence contain very little, if any, information new to specialists now acquiring library material from East Asia—but it is hoped the suggestions will be helpful.

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8. The Association for Asian Studies (formerly the Far Eastern Association) is the principal scholarly organization of Asian experts in the United States. Traditionally, librarians working with Asian materials have always had closer ties with this organization than with the American Library Association. Parenthetically, it might be noted here that the terms "Far East" and "Asiatic" are more or less non-U among Asians and those interested in Asia, South Asia, Southeast Asia, and East Asia, because of the ethnocentric, western-oriented connotations of "Far East" and the faintly derogatory overtones of "Asiatic."
11. The average for current Chinese books is a rough approximation; the average for current Japanese books is based on figures in Shuppan nenkan, 1962.

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Acquisition of Library Materials from East Europe

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THE NEWLY-DEVELOPING INTEREST in the acquisition of material from the less familiar areas of the world reflects one of the most frustrating problems in library circles as well as one of the most frequently discussed aspects of the development of research collections; and the need to solve such problems as pertain to the Slavic and East European area is understandably important at present. Considered as a whole, the East European area is a newly-developing interest for many libraries, although for at least a dozen or so large libraries the acquisition of material from the U.S.S.R., in particular, has been a matter of keen interest for years. While some few institutions have excellent collections, a rather larger group have only adequate ones; and the holdings in the majority of colleges and even in some universities cannot support their existing teaching programs in the field. Trade channels some fifteen to twenty years ago were completely inadequate, not only because export was limited to one official outlet in each of the East European countries and the type of material exported severely curtailed, but also because import was controlled in the United States by a Department of Commerce ruling resulting in much material being "detained", sometimes permanently. For an extended period, exchanges were equally difficult; in the U.S.S.R. these were limited to three specified institutions by a ruling of the Soviet government; in other East European countries almost no contact could be made. Secondhand dealers, both in western Europe and in America, had some material at high prices, and the possibility of locating a specific out-of-print title was slight. In view of these difficulties, it was no wonder that little was done in the way of maintaining Slavic and East European collections at an adequate level, and even less action taken toward building these collections to the level required for advanced research.

Many and varied efforts were made by individual libraries over the years to meet the difficulties, and in 1946 the Library of Congress was able to negotiate a blanket arrangement for certain libraries for automatic delivery of material in selected subject fields. This project was only mod-
erately productive, since its success was dependent on the cooperation
given by Mezhdunarodnaya Kniga, the official outlet for the U.S.S.R.,
and such cooperation was noticeably lacking as the project developed.
The need for Slavic materials, however, and the relative failure of this
initial project, led to further action by a Joint Committee on Slavic
Studies, organized by the American Council of Learned Societies and
the Social Science Research Council. Formed in 1948, this joint committee
was organized to study problems in connection with an area approach to
Slavic studies, and toward this end it established, in 1950, a Subcommittee
on Procurement which made arrangements with the Library of Congress
and the U.S. State Department for assistance in obtaining Slavic publica-
tions not available through normal trade channels, distributing such
materials to six university libraries and one public library: the Uni-
versity of California at Berkeley, Columbia, Harvard, the New York
Public Library, Hoover Memorial Library, the University of Washington,
and Yale. Hoover dropped out of the program after a few years and was
replaced by Indiana University Library. A great deal of valuable
material was received through this project, but there was also much
duplication and, for some libraries, much out of field material. The
project was closed in 1956 by mutual consent of the participating librar-
ies, since the increased flow of material from authorized agencies of the
official outlets of the various Slavic countries in London, Paris, and New
York, made it seem more desirable to handle acquisitions individually.

Trade channels have continued to improve as far as ordering the
materials from the country of publication is concerned, but only if prepub-
lication orders are placed one to two years in advance with the officially-
designated outlet of the country. The publishing system in eastern
European countries allows for only a small margin of copies in printing;
and if material is to be obtained at all, it must be selected promptly
from prepublication listings, and orders placed immediately. There is
no dealer problem for such orders since there is only one official outlet for
each country; Mezhdunarodnaya Kniga for the U.S.S.R.; Ars Polona for
Poland, with Ruch acting as general distributors for foreign periodicals;
Artia for Czechoslovakia; Jugoslovenska Knjiga for Yugoslavia; Kultura
for Hungary; Cartimex for Rumania; and Raznoiznos for Bulgaria. A
listing of these, and many commercial dealers used for the acquisition of
Slavic materials, was published in the American Association for the
Advancement of Slavic Studies' Newsletter, vol. 2, no. 1, pages 21-22
(Fall 1961).

The exchange situation has improved even more than the trade.
Freedom to handle exchanges individually has been granted to literally
hundreds of institutions in the U.S.S.R., and not only the major learned
academies and public and university libraries of Moscow and Leningrad,
but also the provincial societies and academies are eager to obtain
American publications. The larger libraries have a seemingly inexhaus-
tible supply of books, both current and out of print, to support an ex-
tended exchange program. Exchange, or "barter", therefore seems to be

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an excellent method of acquisition, even though it may involve the purchase of trade books to balance the exchange.

Selection of current material for the U.S.S.R. is made from a publication titled Novye Knigi. For the past few years this publication has listed currently-published as well as projected titles; but it has now returned to its earlier policy of entering only publications to be issued within the following year, listing such publications by the quarter of the year in which they are to be published, and giving pagination and an estimated price. Since Mezhdunarodnaya Kniga has branches in western Europe and the U.S.A., Kubon und Sagner in Munich, Les Livres Etrangers in Paris, Collett’s in London, Four Continent in New York, and Kamkin in Washington, books listed in Novye Knigi can be ordered from these outlets as well as from Moscow. Les Livres Etrangers is particularly good and does, in fact, often include listings of older material, priced more reasonably than that offered in the current catalogs of many secondhand dealers. Mezhdunarodnaya Kniga also issues regularly Soviet Books, for books in Ukrainian, Belorussian, Armenian, and the Baltic languages; and Musical Literature. They also issue specialized catalogs from time to time, but titles in these appear later in Novye Knigi, and using the lists as selection tools would lead to duplication of effort and even to duplication of material due to title changes, if care were not exercised.

In Poland, the official outlet, Ars Polona, is amenable to trade in older books, and sends lists of such material on behalf of Polish secondhand book stores as well as lists of current and announced titles. Secondhand material is more difficult to obtain from Artia in Czechoslovakia. Yugoslavia’s official outlet, Juguslovenska Knjiga, handles only current material but it has an alternate, Cankarjava Založba, useful principally for out-of-print material.

Hungary is a problem of somewhat different nature. Having established the New York agency, Brownfield, Kultura returns to Brownfield, to be relayed to Hungary, any orders sent directly to Hungary. Results are understandably slow, and better service can probably be obtained by dealing directly with Brownfield. Little comment is necessary for Rumania and Bulgaria other than noting their official outlets as was done previously. Albania now has Enterprise d’Editions de l’Etat, Tirana.

To return to the U.S.S.R., since a majority of libraries are probably dealing more with this country than with its satellites or with Yugoslavia and Albania, the following comments are pertinent. General or blanket orders based on specified subject listings in Novye Knigi are acceptable, and the general order obviously gives some guarantee that essential material will be obtained in spite of the great demand for material in the inland market. Since the receiving library is notified of material being sent, it does have an opportunity to revise selections and straight-order titles not reported as being sent on the general order. If funds for Slavic materials are unlimited and current material is being given preference, this may well be a solution, especially for such publications as Trudy, Zapiski, Materialy, Issledovania, etc., for which Mezhdunarodnaya Kniga
prefers not to accept standing orders. It will accept such orders for other publications written as complete works either by a single author or a group of authors, but unless such a general order as described above, is placed, standing orders (as the term is generally used) would be more profitably directed to Kubon und Sagner, Collett's, Les Livres Etrangers, Four Continent, or Kamkin. The prices charged by Mezhdunarodnaya Kniga usually are those printed on the books themselves; but they may run as much as 50 percent higher than the printed price for publications of the Akademiiia Nauk and Medgiz, and for other scientific and technical books.

The efforts of librarians and of the faculties of colleges and universities interested in Slavic area programs have not been discontinued, in spite of the bettering trade relations which have a tendency to shift with the political wind. The Joint Committee on Slavic Studies mentioned earlier, together with the Association of Research Libraries, created the Coordinating Committee for Slavic and East European Library Resources, commonly known as COCOSEERS, in 1959, and its first meeting was held in May of that year. The committee consists of three librarians and three professors, to which was later added a Slavic programs consultant; and it is currently carrying on or has brought to fruition projects sponsored by the original Joint Committee and by an intervening committee of the Association of Research Libraries. It has also completed, or is carrying on, numerous new projects such as the revision and reprinting of the Yakobson list of Five Hundred Russian Books for College Libraries, a re-survey of Slavic exchange relations and dealer contacts, reprinting programs for out-of-print material, newspaper microfilming projects, and others.

There is much still to be done, but the current situation of acquiring library materials from the Slavic and East European areas is far better than it was ten or fifteen years ago, or even five years ago, and we can hope for continuing improvement.
Acquisition of Library Materials from Africa

HANS E. PANOFSKY, Curator of Africana Collection
Northwestern University Library, Evanston, Ill.

The following comments will be limited to discussing the acquisition of currently-published material in the newly-sovereign countries of Africa. Specifically, the Republic of South Africa which bibliographically is much more highly organized, will be excluded.

In Africa there is a growing volume of publishing by agencies of the government which may or may not include institutions of higher learning. Missions continue to publish, as well as social and economic organizations which are increasingly political. Literary and artistic groups also place at least certain of their thoughts into writing that may become published. Some African publications, as those from other localities, enjoy intrinsic merit; others are mere curiosities of place and time, although invaluable to scholarship.

Libraries, irrespective of whether they are in Africa, in Europe, or in America have similar difficulties in obtaining Africana; and the cost of such materials, even though considered to be reasonable, varies between institutions.

The existence of copyright legislation with depository clauses and the compilation of national bibliographies is an ideal which is only partially realized in Nigeria and nowhere else at all. For the last ten years Ibadan University Library has compiled, and Ibadan University Press has published, Nigerian Publications which for 1961 carries the subtitle “Current National Bibliography.” Without national bibliographies, one must rely on the acquisition lists of universities and other libraries for guidance, particularly those stressing African studies. In countries with government printers, more or less complete listings of official documents are frequently found, issued by the printer as separate publications or incorporated into government gazettes. Until the beginning of 1962, government publications for English-speaking Africa could be purchased on standing order from the Crown Agents in London. Now this is no longer possible, and each government printer has to be approached separately or, where there is no government printer, distribution takes place through individual government agencies.

Several journals merit special mention for their lists of current publications and book reviews: Africa1 (London), the quarterly journal of the International African Institute, and Bibliographie Courante2 (Bruxelles)
the Bibliotheque des Affaires Africaines. More selective lists are found in *African Affairs*³ (London), *African Reports*⁴ published in Washington, D. C., and *Le Livre Africain*⁵ (Bruxelles) issued by the friends of Presence Africaine.

Increased interest in African studies in the United States has resulted in the formation of the African Studies Association (A.S.A.) which since 1958 has issued quarterly a *Bulletin* with frequent references of interest to librarians. The A.S.A. Libraries Committee also plans to publish, irregularly, an informal newsletter to supplement the *Bulletin*. The A.S.A. solicited funds, granted by the Carnegie Corporation of New York, to set up in 1960 what is now the African Section within the Reference Department of the Library of Congress. The Library of Congress had, of course, issued bibliographies on Africa prior to the setting up of this special Section. Those issued by the African Section have been mainly confined to national lists of official publications. A broader, and perhaps the most noteworthy publication to date, is *Serials for African Studies, 1961*, available from the U. S. Government Printing Office.

The Joint Committee on African Resources, a subcommittee of the Association of Research Libraries' Farmington Plan Committee and the African Studies Association, has sought to increase the flow of material from Africa. To insure at least one copy of each significant publication reaching the United States, the number of institutions with African assignments under the Farmington Plan will soon be increased. Some librarians have advocated the use of roving acquisition agents along the lines of the Latin American Acquisitions Project (LACAP). Stechert-Hafner sent one of its officers to Ghana and Nigeria in 1960,⁶ and this company has to date produced two lists of items for sale, in English and African languages. Naturally, prices that have to reflect the cost of a travelling executive and of a sales organization in New York, not to mention African intermediaries, are high; yet it may be the only feasible way for a single library to secure these publications, many of which are small pamphlets.

The hope of receiving a greater quantity of publications issued in Africa has largely rested on strengthening bookshops there. African bookdealers are similar in many ways to American ones. The African dealer is frequently as little interested in handling “ephemera” as is his American colleague. Occasionally both of them misunderstand multiple order forms with their concise instructions about billing. An explanatory sheet in basic English and one in French may be helpful as well as the aid of prepayment.

Bookshops that are close to universities and to university presses are frequently helpful sources. A bookshop and publisher in the city of Dakar, some distance from the university however, also gives good service.⁷

A great deal of Africana will not in the near future be available through commercial channels, but many of these publications will be available on exchange with, or as gifts from, African institutions. The African Studies Association sent a questionnaire to its members soliciting
information on unique material they may have gathered in Africa and on whether they would be willing to have this material microfilmed. The number of responses was rather small, although enough significant replies were received to encourage the pursuit of such a project.

While direct contact between American and African libraries and dealers is necessary, European experience should not be neglected as, bibliographically, Europe has been long accepted in Africa. Most antiquarian dealers handle Africana to a growing degree. In London there are such bookshops near the British Museum, as Kegan, Paul, Trench, Trubner & Company; Probsthain, and Quaritch; and in a different part of town, Eric M. Bonner. Also recommended is James Thin in Edinburgh and, in Paris, Hachette, Jean Touzot and Librairie Orientale. In Brussels, Librarie Africaine Hubaut and Office International de Librairie often carry useful items. Finally, in Portugal there are three effective dealers; Livraria Portugal, O Mundo Do Livro, and R. B. Rosenthal.

Current acquisitions of major American libraries strongly interested in Africana have, since the beginning of 1963, been recorded in a bi-monthly publication *Joint Acquisitions List of Africana* issued by the African Department of Northwestern University Library. This union list has been joined by the United Nations, and the University of Cambridge Group for Afro-Asian Social Studies. It is hoped that African libraries themselves will contribute to this publication and that the items will eventually be included in the *National Union Catalog*.

The outlook for receiving more Africana in American libraries is good considering that interest is widespread. More trained African librarians, however, are needed, when they become available, they will be able to handle material issued in their own countries, including those published in African languages. They will also be able to support teaching and research in their own institutions, and to serve governments and the public.

As a by-product of their activities, these librarians should be able to provide gift and exchange copies of publications wherever needed. Since African librarians must be of the highest caliber and their work must be as productive as possible, they need to be supported with the best possible methods such as the projected use of microform for inter-library loans in East Africa.

The Centre d'Analyse pour la documentation pour l'Afrique noire (C.A.D.A.N.) in Paris is doing significant work in the attempt to increase bibliographical control over Africana. This Centre prepares analytical abstracts from some 2,000 journals; abstracts that strive to retain the full meaning of the original words, thus making meaningful retrieval possible. A recent trial run with the aid of an I.B.M. 7090 machine was successful.

Dealers and their addresses both inside and outside Africa, which Northwestern University Library has found to be helpful in the acquisition of African materials are appended in the following lists compiled in 1961; also a 1961 Northwestern University compilation of bibliographic aids for Africana; and a 1962 list of publications on Africa issued by the Library of Congress.
REFERENCES

8. See appended list of dealers.

BIBLIOGRAPHIC AIDS IN THE ACQUISITION OF AFRICANA

NATIONAL BIBLIOGRAPHIES

Most national bibliographies contain references to Africa. Note those pertaining to British, Dutch, French, German, Italian, Portuguese and Spanish publications. The only African national bibliographies appearing to date are those for Nigeria and the Union of South Africa. Particularly useful are:

*Africana Nova*, 1958—
Quarterly.
A bibliography of books currently published dealing with the Union of South Africa, based on the accessions of the Africana Department of the South African Public Library, Capetown.

*Bibliographie Courante*, 1950—
Issued six times a year. The separately published bibliographic section of Zaire, the Belgian African Review, which contains a classified bibliography.

*Bibliographie de la France*, 1811—
Weekly.
Especially Supplément F, Publications Officielles, published irregularly.

*Books for Africa*, 1931—
Quarterly.
Published by the Christian Literature Council on behalf of the Missionary Councils of North America and Europe, 2 Eaton Square, London S.W. 1.

*British National Bibliography*, 1950—
Weekly.

*Nigerian Publications*, 1950—
Annual.
Lists all books and pamphlets published within Nigeria during the year, including government publications that have been duly received by the Library of the University College, Ibadan. Issued by the Ibadan University Press.

U. S. Library of Congress. *Subject Catalog*, 1950—
Quarterly.

RECENT LIBRARY OF CONGRESS PUBLICATIONS ON AFRICA


Out of print. Positive microfilm available from Photoduplication Service, Library of Congress, for $2.50. A revision now in process will cover essential works from this list and the 1952 Introduction to Africa.

*Volume 7, Number 1, Winter 1963*
Short list for beginning collections. Available on request from the African Section, Library of Congress.

African Libraries, Book Production, and Archives: A List of References. 1962. 64 p. 60 cents.
Available from Card Division, Library of Congress.

Available from Card Division, Library of Congress.

A List of American Dissertations on Africa.

A limited number of copies are available free of charge from the Office of the Secretary, Library of Congress.

North and Northeast Africa: A Selected, Annotated List of Writings, 1951-1957. 1957. 182 p. $1.35
Available from Card Division, Library of Congress.

Official Publications of British East Africa:
Both available from Card Division, Library of Congress.

Available from Card Division, Library of Congress.


BIBLIOGRAPHY OF BIBLIOGRAPHIES

Bibliographic Index, 1937–Quarterly.

SUBJECT BIBLIOGRAPHIES
African Bibliography Series.
Ethnography, Sociology, Linguistics and related subjects. Based on the bibliographic card index of the International African Institute, London. Volumes issued to date:
West Africa. 1958.
North-East Africa. 1959.
East Africa. 1960.
This series is brought up to date in the “Bibliography of Current Publications” contained in the quarterly, Africa.
Joint Secretariat C.C.T.A./C.S.A.
Inventory of Economic Studies Concerning Africa South of the Sahara, an Annotated Reading List of Books, Articles and Official Publications. 1960. (Its Publication no. 30)

ACCESSION LISTS

Africa

Liste des Acquisitions de la Bibliothèque du Congo.
Monthly.
B. P. 3090, Leopoldville-Kalina, Congo.
Monthly.
University College, Ibadan, Nigeria. Library Record.
Monthly.

France

Societe des Africanistes.
"Bibliographie Africanistes" contained in the Journal de la Société des Africanistes.
Issued twice a year.

Great Britain

Quarterly.
Institute of Commonwealth Studies, University of London. Library. Select List of Accessions.
Quarterly.
Monthly.

United States

Quarterly.
Northwestern University Library. African Department Collection. Joint Acquisition List of Africana
Bi-monthly.
University of California Library, Los Angeles. Additions to the African Collection.
Quarterly.

AFRICAN BOOKSELLERS

NORTH AFRICA

Algeria
Clerre, (M.) Librairie
37 Rue Michelet
Algiers

Morocco
Libreria Hispano-Francesca
3 Rue de Foz
Tangier

Volume 7, Number 1, Winter 1963
Cerc, Rene
Rue r8 Juin 1940
Rabat

WEST AFRICA

Angola
Livrairia Lello
Caixa Postal 1300
Luanda

Ghana
University Bookshop
University College of Ghana
Legon, Accra
Simpson Book Shop
Box 1216
Accra

Gabon
S.A.L.P.
B.P. 20
Libreville

Niger
Librairie Chrétienne
B.P. 64
Niamey
Mauchert, E.
Librairie
B.P. 337
Niamey

Nigeria
Church Missionary Society
Bookshop
Lagos
Northern Regional Literature
Agency
Zaria
University Bookshop
Nigeria, Ltd.
University College
Ibadan

Senegal
Clairafrique
B.P. 2005
Dakar
Librairie Universitaire
B.P. 996
Dakar

CENTRAL AND EAST AFRICA

Burundi
Presses Lavigerie
Usumbura

Ethiopia
Minerva Bookshop
P.O. Box 120
Addis Ababa

Kenya
Bookshop, Ltd.
Cherrett Land & Westlands
Arcade
Nairobi
The E.S.A. Bookshop
P.O. Box 90167
Nairobi
East African Literature
Bureau
P.O. Box 30022
Nairobi

Mozambique
Minerva Bookshop
Lourenço Marques

Tanganyika
The Dar-es-Salaam Bookshop
P.O. Box 9033
Dar-es-Salaam

Uganda
Uganda Bookshop
Private Bag
Kampala

SOUTHERN AFRICA

Basutoland
Morija Sesuto Book Depot
P.O. Box 4
Morija

Southern Rhodesia
Kingston, Ltd.
Herald Building, Stanley Avenue
P.O. Box 591
Salisbury
“Nickleby’s”, (Pvt.) Ltd.
P.O. Box 1589
Salisbury

Library Resources & Technical Services
BOOKSELLERS OUTSIDE AFRICA DEALING IN AFRICANA

EUROPE

Belgium
  Librairie Africaine Hubaut
  10 Rue Stévin
  Brussels

  Moorthamers, Louis
  172 Avenue Louise
  Brussels

  Office International de Librairie
  30 Avenue Marnix
  Brussels

France
  Hachette
  79 Boulevard Saint-Germain
  Paris 6

  Librairie Orientale
  15 Rue Monsieur-le-Prince
  Paris 6

  Librairie Orientale et Americaine
  198 Boulevard Saint-Germain
  Paris 7

  Touzot, Jean
  11 Rue de Varenne
  Paris 7

Germany
  Bücherkabinett
  Poststrasse
  Hamburg 36

Great Britain
  Blackwell, (B.M.), Ltd.
  50/51 Broda Street
  Oxford

  Bonner, (Eric M.)
  74 Belsize Park Gardens
  London N.W. 3

  Crown Agents for Overseas
  Governments and Administrations
  4 Millbank
  London S. W. 1

  Edwards, (Francis), Ltd.
  89 Marylebone High Street
  London W. 1

  Heffer, (W.) & Sons, Ltd.
  3-4 Petty Cury
  Cambridge

  Kegan, Paul, Trench, Trubner & Co., Ltd.
  43 Great Russell Street
  London W. C. 1

  Krutina
  22 Hereson Road
  Ramsgate, Kent

  Maggs Bros., Ltd.
  50 Berkeley Square
  London W. 1

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Probsthain, Arthur
41 Great Russell Street
London W. C. 1

Quaritch, (Bernard), Ltd.
11 Grafton Street
London W. C. 1

Rosenthal, (A.), Ltd.
5 Turl Street
Oxford

Sawyer, (Charles J.), Ltd.
12/13 Grafton Street
London W. 1

Thin, James
54-56 South Bridge
Edinburgh

Thornton, (J), & Son
11 Broad Street
Oxford

Netherlands
Mouton & Co.
74 Kerklaan
Rijswijk (Z. H.)

Nényhoff, Martinus
9 Lange Voorhout
The Hague

Peet, Jan
Nieuwe Spiegelstraat 33/35
Amsterdam

Portugal
Livraria Portugalia
Rua Do Carmo 70
Lisbon

O Mundo Do Livro
Largo da Trindade 11/13
Lisbon

Rosenthal, R. B.
Rua do Alecrim 47
Lisbon

Spain
G. Porter
Avenida Puerta del Angel, 9
Barcelona

ASIA AND AUSTRALIA
Australia
Berkelouw
38 King Street
Sydney, N. S. W.

India
Bibliotheca Orientalia
35 Chittaranjan Avenue
Calcutta 12

UNITED STATES
Michigan
Cellars Book Shop
Box 6—College Park Station
Detroit, Michigan

New York
Scheuer, E.
316 East 34th Street
New York 16

Stechert-Hafner, Inc.
31 East 10th Street
New York 3

University Place Bookshop
69 University Place
New York 3

Vermont
Tuttle Co., Charles E.
28/30 South Main Street
Rutland
Trends in Book Prices and Related Fields in West Germany, 1954-1960

Marietta Ghiglieri
Assistant Chief, Acquisitions Division
University of Washington Library
Seattle, Washington

With the publication in October 1961 of the findings of the Cost of Library Materials Index Committee, a valuable tool in budget preparation has become available to librarians. Any librarian who must present a budget and who buys books and periodicals can feel on safer ground now that official ALA statistics back up his claims for rising prices and growth in population and circulation.

Since the index covers "currently printed domestic materials which are obtained directly from the publishers or through jobbers" it was suggested by Helen Welch and Avis Zebker that some exploration be made into materials usually purchased from domestic importers or foreign exporters serving as jobbers. In order to determine the feasibility of such a study on a similar basis to the first one, it was decided to limit the report to German publications. Figures cited are for book production and prices in West Germany only. Because the Saar area did not become one economic unit with West Germany until the middle of 1959 it is not included in these figures until 1960.

For the equivalent of Publishers' Weekly, which was used for the American publications cost study, Buch und Buchhandel in Zahlen was used. This is the annual publication of the Börsenverein des Deutschen Buchhandels (German Booksellers Association) in Frankfurt. It is based on Wöchentliches Verzeichnis der Deutschen Bibliographie. This weekly lists Austrian and Swiss titles also, but these are omitted in the annual. The annual was first published in 1952 and was so well received, that it was decided to continue it.

The conversion rate for currency is based on the annual statistics cited in the Federal Reserve Bulletin. Since this is the source used by William Kurth in his study of Mexican book prices, it was preferred to other sources. Slight deviations from this rate are found in each source, due to the fact that the method of payment influences par value.

Source for the cost of living index is the German government publication Monatsberichte der Deutschen Bundesbank, the most authoritative and reliable source. Before 1950 the German economy was chaotic,

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and any figures available for the period 1947-1949 would be meaningless because the goods on which to base them were lacking. By 1950 the Black Market had ended, people were back at work, and the economy had been stabilized. Since the cost of living index listed in the Monatsberichte der Deutschen Bundesbank used 1958 for the base year, it was necessary to convert the whole table to the first year listed, 1950 = 84. To make 84 equal 100 it was multiplied by 100/84, for 84 × 100/84 = 100. 100/84 = 1.190. Then all index figures for 1950, 1951 etc., were multiplied by 1.190. Professor Hans Brems of the University of Illinois, an authority on German economics, was consulted to verify interpretation of data. Because of Germany's unstable economy after the war, book prices can best be judged at a later point. By 1950 the new currency had been introduced, but the figures from 1954 on can be considered comparable to our own.

Another German government publication, Wirtschaft und Statistik, published by Statistisches Bundesamt in Wiesbaden, supplied other statistical comparative data. For an overall picture of the rise in prices, wages, and productivity the new Twentieth Century Fund publication, Europe's Needs and Resources, was consulted.

Data available in Buch und Buchhandel in Zahlen were compiled into one table (Table I) and prices converted to facilitate comparison. Table I shows that the over all rise in book prices from 1954 to 1960 in eleven subject fields is roughly 60%. These figures are derived from a compilation of average title prices in the fields indicated in Table I. Book production of new publications and new editions also rose in West Germany. The choice open to the book buyer rose from 14,094 titles in 1951 to 22,524 titles in 1961. This is a factor to be considered by the order librarian, since increased choice leads to an increase in demand. Table II was reproduced as found in Buch und Buchhandel in Zahlen. It omits fluctuations in growth which are not statistically relevant because they are often due to the mechanics of book productions or to bibliographic lags.

Comparative figures for international book production are published annually by UNESCO. It is pointed out in Buch that in considering these figures, publication in multilingual countries must be taken into account. In such countries the number of registered titles may be especially high because the same title is registered separately in each language. There are twenty-nine countries which published more than 2,000 titles in 1959. Of these, eight countries published over 10,000 titles. The U.S.S.R. leads with 40,054 titles, then Japan with 24,152 and Great Britain with 20,690. West Germany (16,500), the U. S. (14,500), France (12,000), India (12,000), and Italy (12,000) follow in that order.

The ratio of book production to population is highest in Norway, Switzerland, the Netherlands, Sweden, Denmark, Portugal, Hungary, and Finland. The U. S. produces 3/4 title per 100,000 inhabitants (as does the United Arab Republic and Mexico), the U.S.S.R. produces 2 titles, Japan 3, Great Britain 4 3/4, West Germany 3 1/2, France 9, India

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Library Resources & Technical Services
The recent research report which was published by the Twentieth Century Fund, *Europe's Needs and Resources; Trends and Prospects in Eighteen Countries* contains tables and charts on gross national product, forecasts and projections to 1970, as well as price changes in selected countries. A table indicating percentage increases in wages, consumer prices, and productivity (i.e. efficiency) during the periods 1948-1952, 1952-1958 shows a c. 6% increase in prices in the first period as against c. 32% rise in wages, and c. 27% gain in productivity. The period 1952-1958 shows an 8% increase in prices, a c. 46% increase in wages, and a gain of c. 36% in productivity. Since this chart shows the relative increase of these three variables, no absolute figures can be derived from it.

The German economy had been stabilized in 1948 since the conversion of the monetary system to new units. Following 1948, "since productivity rose as much as money wages (at least in industry, but probably also elsewhere), there was no increase in the effective cost of labor." After 1952 it became more difficult to achieve greater productivity since most of the bottlenecks of the post-war period had been overcome. However, "the end of demand inflation and the continuing wage pressure worked miracles. Gains in efficiency were nearly everywhere greater after 1952 than they had been before." As long as wage increases are accompanied by gains in productivity, the cost of living tends to remain fairly stable. "Since the most progressive sectors of the economy normally produce the bulk of exports . . . cost inflation . . . did not prevent stability in export prices." This is more true of Germany than elsewhere. In Germany agriculture is the most backward sector of the economy, which determines food prices, not industrial products.

In the 1953 issue of *Buch* editor Sigfred Taubert compares book prices with other commodities, and with the cost of living index. He is able to show that book prices have remained more stable than any others, even more so when compared with pre-war prices. Herr Taubert explains that although more recent compilations have been made, none has been published. In order to compare book price developments with the cost of living, both in the U.S.A. and West Germany, and to be able to compare them with each other, an index was made based on the year 1954. The cost of living index for West Germany shows almost the same curve as that for the U.S. (Table III and Graph I.). However, the price of books is rising more rapidly in West Germany than in the United States. Correcting for increases in both the standard of living index and in the book price index, the real rise of West German book prices is 48.4 during the period 1954-60. In the U.S. the same period shows a real increase of 15.9 (Table IV and Graph II.). It should also be considered that the U.S. dollar has approximately four times the buying power of the German Deutschmark in the German market today.
<table>
<thead>
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<td>Total</td>
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<td>7,765</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% of total book production</td>
<td>Total number of books</td>
<td>Average price DM</td>
<td>Average price $</td>
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<tr>
<td>Art</td>
<td>2.3%</td>
<td>765</td>
<td>11.80</td>
<td>2.81</td>
</tr>
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<td>Juveniles</td>
<td>7.4%</td>
<td>864</td>
<td>3.09</td>
<td>.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economics</td>
<td>4.8%</td>
<td>555</td>
<td>8.27</td>
<td>1.97</td>
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<td>History³</td>
<td>5.8%</td>
<td>673</td>
<td>10.56</td>
<td>2.52</td>
</tr>
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<td>Law</td>
<td>7.9%</td>
<td>912</td>
<td>10.68</td>
<td>2.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Literature²</td>
<td>20.6%</td>
<td>2392</td>
<td>5.69</td>
<td>1.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medicine</td>
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<td>333</td>
<td>22.68</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Religion</td>
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<td>6.02</td>
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<td>16.62</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technology³</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. Excluding geography and travel
2. Including fiction, poetry and drama
3. Technik, Industrie, Gewerbe is included. (Technology, industry, trade e.g. business).
4. Index numbers for each subject area are computed on the Deutschemark value, since the dollar equivalents are derived from them. Source: Buch und Buchhändel in Zahlen, 1961, p. 87. For percentages of total book production, previous pertinent issues were used. See also Buch, 1961, p. 64 for compilation.

*Federal Reserve Bulletin* for conversion values.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>1956</th>
<th>1958</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% of total book production</td>
<td>Total number of books</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>2.8%</td>
<td>353</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Art</td>
<td>6.3%</td>
<td>798</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Juveniles</td>
<td>5.4%</td>
<td>682</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>History</td>
<td>5.8%</td>
<td>737</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Law</td>
<td>7.2%</td>
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<tr>
<td>Literature</td>
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<tr>
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<td>556</td>
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<tr>
<td>Technology</td>
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<td>Mathematics</td>
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Table I (cont'd.) German Book Prices by Selected Categories, Selected Years 1954-1960

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>% of total book production</th>
<th>Total number of books</th>
<th>Average price (DM)</th>
<th>Average price ($)</th>
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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>15,495</td>
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TABLE II

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
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<td>History</td>
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<td>Law</td>
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<td>Fine Literature</td>
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<td>Medicine</td>
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<td>Religion</td>
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<td>Science</td>
<td>5.5%</td>
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<tr>
<td>Technology</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mathematics</td>
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### TABLE III. COST OF LIVING INDEX FOR WEST GERMANY

1950 = 100

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Index</th>
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<tbody>
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<td>1951</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>1959</td>
<td>120.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1960</td>
<td>121.9</td>
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</table>

Source: Monatsberichte der Deutschen Bundesbank, April 1961, p. 120.

### COST OF LIVING INDEX FOR WEST GERMANY

1954 = 100

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Index</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
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<td>1955</td>
<td>101.1</td>
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<tr>
<td>1959</td>
<td>111.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1960</td>
<td>112.3</td>
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</table>

### BOOK PRICE INDEX

1954 = 100

<table>
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<th>Index</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
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<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1955</td>
<td>118.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1956</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>1958</td>
<td>140.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1960</td>
<td>160.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### TABLE IV. COST OF LIVING INDEX AND INDEX OF BOOK PRICES FOR THE U.S.A.

1954 = 100

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Cost of living index</th>
<th>Book Prices</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1954</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1955</td>
<td>101.9</td>
<td>111.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1956</td>
<td>103.2</td>
<td>125.8</td>
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<td>1957</td>
<td>106.9</td>
<td></td>
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<td>1958</td>
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<td>1959</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1960</td>
<td>112.6</td>
<td>128.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Indicators, March 1961.


Note: Index numbers are computed from those appearing in the above publications on a 1947/49 base year.
GRAPH I
BOOK PRICES 1954–1960, WEST GERMANY

German average book price index (1954=100)

Cost of living index for West Germany (1954=100)

1954 55 56 57 58 59 60


GRAPH II

A=U. S. Average book price index (1954=100)

B=Cost of living index for U. S. (1954=100)

1954 55 56 57 58 59 60
REFERENCES

4. Ibid., p. 13.
5. Ibid., p. 17.
7. Ibid., p. 689.
8. Ibid., p. 688.
9. Ibid., p. 689.
If I were planning what I should do tonight, I might not pick after-dinner speaking. For on occasions such as this, a speaker need be only lively, pointed, and brief, and prepared to accept his sudden change in status quietly as sympathetic dinner companions turn into after-dinner critics. A captive audience need not be a captivated one, and if a speaker proves to be only ordinarily bright, he will leave no impression as vivid as the apple pie.

In a recent issue of Library Resources and Technical Services, we already have a speech delivered to tonight’s specifications—a newcomer to the east coast, having been asked to talk to a group of librarians in technical services, agreed to do so in order to meet his new colleagues and to discover (this is my guess) what easterners are like when they are in the majority. He spoke about the importance of being understood, and emphasized clear, pungent language and a high degree of empathy among librarians as essential to communication.

It reminded me of an article about “communication” I started a dozen years ago. Part I was called “Readers are being cheated every day” and held that writing among librarians is so drab that it defeats any opportunity it might have of speaking to us, obscures even the more readable bits, and makes us easy marks for anything offered up with a show of imagination. Part II had the title, “Writers are being cheated every day” and noted that reading for understanding requires alertness and imagination at least equal to that of the author’s, since his words store up meaning which dull or hasty reading fails to bring down again. (I failed to document or finish this little tirade.)

But librarians, as readers and writers, do have communication problems with which to contend, and they are not much relieved by natural ties of sympathy which might be expected to exist. For our intellectual and emotional identity is too often squandered in querulous arguments about book lovers and administrators, academics and public librarians, school-library “types,” documentalists, the PR boys, catalogers, and all the other

segregational tendencies which a profession of close classifiers is prone to conjure up. The primary responsibility of any library association is to promote understanding among librarians of all kinds and places, and it is more important than ever before, now that we begin to have influential external allies on our side.

Back in 1933, Pierce Butler wrote, "The library has been created by actual necessities in modern civilization." His reminder of the imperative origins of the American library somehow went over our heads. A few weeks ago I talked to a Congressman who hesitantly told me, when he found I was a librarian, that he had been an enthusiastic backer of the "Library Bill." He clearly appreciated the importance of using federal funds under the Library Services Act for national library development, but during the ALA's long campaign for federal support he had learned that some librarians were opposed to it, and he thought I might be one.

The intellect is a more important commodity in the world today than we are likely to suspect. It is obvious, for instance, that the boundaries which separate modern nations are as much intellectual in nature as they are economic, political, and geographic. A great show is made of topographic lines, but this is symbolic to a high degree of the intellectual, economic, and political frontiers which enlarge and contract according to their inherent vitality. We may be asked to believe that the state of our "gross national product" is the index to our national welfare and power, but America's leadership in scientific development, her success in understanding alien cultures, and her ability to demonstrate the viability of democracy under a variety of stresses will more nearly determine her influence in the world—and these are primarily intellectual enterprises.

On a Chicago subway a few nights ago I heard a report of an intellectual exchange between the two Mr. Ks. which will serve as an illustration. Moscow's Mr. K. asked the one from Washington when he expected to place a man on the moon. To which our Mr. K. replied that he wasn't doing so well thus far: he hadn't yet put a colored man on a bus in Alabama. Such is the range of our intellectual involvement.

With all the mounting evidence, it should be recognized that the country's intellectual potential can be developed only in a preliminary way by the nation's schools, because education in a changing world must continue far beyond the period of formal training. These sentiments have often been recited before, but we shall now see whether in the new generation self-education can produce the margin of difference required for national intellectual sufficiency. If the stage in man's evolution has now been reached at which the cultivation of his intellect is of prime concern, libraries must accept a whole new set of specifications for themselves which they are not as yet prepared to fill.

Daily we read about schools, highways, urban renewal, research, defense, all corresponding to actual necessities in our society, and accepted as worthy of ample public support. Libraries have never been seriously considered for inclusion in this preferred list, not even by librarians.

A hundred million dollars may be small change in some circles, and it
is approximately the sum spent annually on comic books; but it is more than the annual cost of books for all the elementary and secondary schools in the country, and four times the amount spent on books by American public libraries. After two decades of urging, the Congress has been persuaded to appropriate seven and a half million dollars a year for library support through the states; but a long time ago the federal government began to subsidize American magazine publishers, through the Post Office Department’s 2nd class mailing privilege (favorable to advertising), by an amount now equal to twice the annual outlay for all the public libraries in the United States.

We spend an average of $5,000 to send a child through twelve grades of school—which at best could teach him to read books and use other intellectual material throughout his life. After that, we spare less than what it costs to put him through the 2nd or 3rd grade to provide reading for the rest of his life. Bibliomonephobia—an irrational fear of spending money on books and libraries—is a plague in our society of truly epidemic proportions, and I suspect that librarians are among the active carriers of the infection.

Why has the library, as a necessary social institution, failed to evolve like other more successful species? Evolution is not wholly a permissive process, discouraging poor adaptations (such as involuted Carnegie buildings) and encouraging favorable ones (like competitive salaries); it is more like a football game, in which adaptation to the rules, the opposition, and the “breaks” determine the winner. Libraries have scored some points in recent years, fielded a few outstanding players, and made some grandstand plays, but they stay pretty well at the bottom of the league.

The coach usually gets the blame for team failures, and a couple of poor seasons mean his demise. Library schools face a similar criticism, and there are suggestions among librarians that training be turned back to the teams themselves, since who better than they know what all the plays are? Indeed, the schools cannot be held blameless in this situation, if their degrees provide entrance visas into librarianship rather than vistas of what libraries can be.

Nor can the libraries be let off scot-free, because they are prodigal consumers of librarians—as if professional staff will ever be in over-supply. Competent people are scarce everywhere, and attempts to give inadequate training to unsuitable staff, as a crash program to fill existing positions, may prove a crash landing instead. Greater conservation of intellectual labor in libraries is essential if library service is to expand.

Librarians themselves are more nearly at the heart of the problem. A college Dean wrote to me a few days ago about a student seeking admission to the School, and I quote her for what she implies. “She seems,” the Dean said, “to be a little inward as a person,” but “I think her temperament would be an asset (especially as a librarian). If she finally chooses to be a teacher, I trust that she would make more of an effort to develop such qualities as initiative and aggressiveness.” My correspondent contrasted inwardness with initiative and aggressiveness. A person without initiative...

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may not be "inward" nor "outward," but backward instead. Convictions bring some aggressiveness, knowledge breeds intellectual security, and experience develops only the latent capabilities an individual brings into the profession.

If libraries are to become fundamental educational institutions, they await the initiative of librarians. A university professor once justified the introduction of a new discipline at his institution by referring to the "fortuitous accident of a good library." A happy coincidence indeed, like that of a great bridge or a fine violin. Accidents do occasionally prove beneficial, but Lady Luck is not a librarian.

If the library world were a playing field, and all the librarians in it professional players, I could say that we have a good team out to the training table tonight. And barring accidents, we shall all be back in the line on Monday. But how well are we informed about the game, who has the ball, and toward what set of goals are we moving? When plays are being doped out in committees of the NYLA, ALA, or SLA, are we in there sweating, or out with the spectators, acting like members of the public? If library associations waste our time, repeating the same moves without making any yardage, it is our duty as intelligent players to try to change the signals and alter the plan of attack. We are not all quarterbacks maybe? Then, catch the ball when it is passed to us and run until we are dropped in our tracks.

If the tide of events is indeed turning unexpectedly in our favor, will we be bowled over by it or carried on to new advances? If Necessity is coming over to our side, she will be a hard mistress and, like Lady Luck, make no favorites of libraries. (If we do choose a goddess of librarianship, let it be Juno, whose temple was the mint)

I had a sudden feeling a few nights ago when I ran across Lewis Carroll's sly little stanza,

But I was thinking of a plan
To dye one's whiskers green
And always use so large a fan
That they could not be seen

that he might have been writing about librarians—ingenious, intelligent, inward, indifferent, and ineffective. And the possibility was so striking that I have been impelled to go out and beat other librarians over the head, crying, do you understand? And this is what I am doing now.
Should DC Headings 959 and 991 Be Revised?

Francis J. Corley, S.J.
Assistant Professor of History
Saint Louis University
and
Geraldine Phelps
Chief of Cataloging
Saint Louis University Library

It is a tribute to the historical alertness of the Decimal Classification Editorial Policy Committee that the Dewey Decimal Classification, Ed. 16, recognized the existence of a new Asian region, Southeast Asia (959). Earlier editions, at least 12 to 14, called the heading Further India. This descriptive term long had wide currency, but it did not fit the cultural realities of Southeast Asia and was not applicable to some nations in the area. DC 15 changed the heading to the wholly unsuitable French Indo-China.

By the time DC 16 was being prepared, such historical events as the Inter-Allied South-East Asia Command (of World War II), the South East Asia Treaty Organization (SEATO), and a large number of published works brought the name to public attention. More recently there have come into existence the Association of Southeast Asia (ASA) through the joint action of Malaya, the Philippines, and Thailand.

Southeast Asia, as a reasonably distinct area, except for a long time; but its regional unity was obscured by the colonial ties that bound it to Great Britain, France, Netherlands, Portugal, and the United States. After World War II, however, as seven new sovereign states (Burma, Cambodia, Indonesia, Laos, Malaya, and the Philippines) came into existence, the fact of Southeast Asia was thrust inescapably upon the world’s attention. Today, as preparations are under way for establishment of a Federation of Malaysia, comprising Malaya, Singapore, and Britain’s three Borneo colonies (Brunei, Sarawak, and North Borneo), the bonds of area unity grow.

When the Malaysian federation is completed, probably in 1963, the only remaining colonial enclaves in Southeast Asia will be Portuguese Timor and West New Guinea (which Indonesia claims as Irian Barat).

World War II and subsequent events have also served to warn Americans that they are dangerously ill-informed about the history and culture of this important region of Asia. One result of this was a rapid...
growth of Southeast Asian studies, undergraduate and graduate. To carry on this program there is a growing cadre of specialists in the United States, in Europe, and in Asia’s new nations producing an ever-increasing flood of writing in a number of academic fields, notably anthropology, economics, and history, to serve this heightened demand. Recently (1958) a new journal, published by the University of Malaya, Singapore, was devoted exclusively to the history of the area.2

It is evident, consequently, that if “we can credit university circles for the increased use of the term ‘Southeast Asia,’” as one writer recently stated,9 history has a good deal to do with it. Dr. Pearcy further states that several institutions, including Cornell University, have established area study programs on Southeast Asia since the end of World War II. More recently a unique British and American joint venture to study the societies of China and Southeast Asia was announced by Cornell, the London School of Economics and Political Science, the School of Oriental and African Studies, and the Carnegie Corporation of New York.4

At the same time, it must be said that not all scholars presently agree upon the scope of the term Southeast Asia. Neither Hall nor Harrison include the Philippines in their works, nor, for that matter, does Coedès.5 The omission is less surprising in Coedès since he studies the area only to the fall of Malacca (1511) when Filipino history as it is known today was only beginning. Hall and Harrison represent a tradition that appears to be on the wane in Commonwealth scholarly circles (Hall has recently reviewed in the field of Filipino history) and never existed in the United States. Two scholars in this country now at work on general histories of Southeast Asia, Harry J. Benda (Yale) and John F. Cady (Ohio University), include the Philippines in their surveys.6

In the light of these considerations, we suggest that some revision of 959 and 991, entirely consistent with changes made in DC 16 and carrying these to a logical and more efficient conclusion, be made in Edition 17. The present edition of DC includes under 959 works on six of the eight states comprising the areas: Burma, Cambodia, Laos, Malaya, Thailand, and Viet-Nam—all on mainland Southeast Asia. (It coordinates with these states three subordinate regions: Upper Burma, Tonkin, and Annam.) But it excludes two states generally recognized as integral parts of Southeast Asia (Indonesia and the Philippines) which are listed under 990. (See Appendix I.) The effect of this innovation in DC 16 is to take cognizance of a term widely used in scholarly discourse but to give the term a more restricted extension than it has elsewhere.

This arrangement confronts library patrons with a number of practical difficulties. The physical separation of works on a unified political and academic subject (work on Africa and the entire Western hemisphere come between the two library-divided sectors of Southeast Asia) can be a bewildering problem for a student unfamiliar with DC. Occasionally a student will be under the impression that the library has no works on the history of Indonesia and the Philippines, after he has browsed the shelves to acquaint himself with the library’s holdings and stopped at Africa.
For the faculty member or graduate student who may fully understand the DC system, the problem is the practical difficulty of bringing together works on mainland and archipelago Southeast Asian for ready comparison, when these books are shelved in widely separated sections of a large library. In the Pius XII Memorial Library of Saint Louis University more than twenty per cent of the entire history collection separates Viet-Nam from Indonesia! For example, J. C. van Leur, "the man whose ideas have influenced South-East Asian studies more than any other single person," wrote chiefly about Indonesia. As a consequence, his works are far distant in a large library from general works and most others on a historical realm in which he is a towering figure.

This complex and confusing anomaly, which obscures the teaching of Southeast Asian history and especially an academically-unified vision of the subject, can be eliminated by two simple changes in the present DC classification. These consist in transferring the relatively small number of works now catalogued under 959.8 Annam and 959.9 Tonkin to 959.7 Viet-Nam and reassigning the vacated numbers to the Philippines and Indonesia, respectively.

Recataloging works on the Philippines and Indonesia would involve more work than the initial step of clearing out the titles on Tonkin and Annam. But we are persuaded that the work involved in both changes is warranted by the benefits that will result from making available to library users a unified and logically-ordered collection of works on the history of Southeast Asia.

Every Southeast Asian historian we have consulted about this proposal has endorsed it heartily (the "every" does not represent a large number, but they are unanimous). Dr. Benda said: "I therefore fully appreciate, and support, your current endeavors to have the Dewey Decimal system revised with a view to re-locating the Philippines." The simplicity of the proposed change can be recognized at a glance by consulting Appendix I and comparing the present headings with our proposed revision. All of the present headings listed (except the one we have bracketed) are included in the table of revised headings. The revision also includes three further minor changes to be mentioned at once: (1) that 959.2 be vacated, (2) that works on the British Borneo colonies (Brunei, Sarawak, North Borneo) be transferred from the Indonesia to the Malaya heading, (3) that West New Guinea be considered a part of Indonesia. While these are not essential to our basic proposal, they would be useful. Appendix II consists of a set of tentative sub-headings for 959. Our principal purpose in preparing them was to have them available for discussion and possible revision, if needed.

We recognize the need to respect the principle of "integrity of numbers" in Dewey to avoid the costs of reclassification. However, a seventeenth edition cannot avoid some relocation of subjects when there is "an overwhelming need and demand." We realize that since such relocation "must be made sparingly," the need in each case must be carefully considered by the DC Committee.
The need is real. Paradoxically, the academic unity of the area is and will continue to be a firmer reality than the region itself. “Southeast Asia,” as an integral introductory course in Asian history is here to stay:

We may safely assume that for many decades to come Western colleges and universities, at any rate, are not likely to appoint faculty members to teach the history of only one part, or of one period of one part, of Southeast Asia. For better or worse, we will have to serve, and think, as generalists [interested in the area as a whole], while carrying on at the same time our minute research in depth.¹⁰

Even when more specialized teaching can be the exclusive responsibility of some scholars, the introductory course will still be necessary, and realistic area concepts will always be necessary. These, it is obvious, are impeded by a scattered book collection and would be greatly facilitated by unity.

Changes far more extensive than those we propose have already been made in various parts of the DC schedule. The changes made necessary in physics and chemistry by revolutionary developments in atomic science are a case in point. In the field of history we find that, although a cautious approach to change was reflected, in edition 16 a spirit of “keeping pace with knowledge” was also apparent. Thus, in the area of the 950's, we find that 952.9 Taiwan was reclassified in 951.249; 947.92 (Armenia) in 956.64; 948.95 Finland in 947.1; 951.19 in 951.2. The Andaman and Nicobar Islands in 992.5 are “taken out of” the Pacific Ocean Islands, where they did not belong, and put in the Bay of Bengal region in 954.88, a number adjacent to India.

Our proposal to relate the Filipino and Indonesian archipelagoes with mainland Southeast Asia is also comparable with decisions already made in DC with respect to other islands and island groups. Thus, the Galápagos Islands are included with Ecuador, rather than in the Pacific Ocean Islands. Again, in the Atlantic Ocean Islands (997) only a minimum number of islands has been included. Other islands in the Atlantic are classified in the numbers adjacent to those assigned to the country or region to which they belong when their geographical location permits.

We are aware, also, that any shift in the history section of Dewey involves an adjustment of geographic numbers throughout the entire classification scheme. The numbers which lend themselves to this geographical division more readily have been conveniently gathered together in the index volume of DC 16 (pp. 2421-2424) and total over 300. Of this number less than half appear to be applicable to books about Southeast Asia. The heaviest concentration in geographical changes would fall in the 300's (Social Sciences). However, the anthropological classification, 572, could be the most overworked number, apart from the history numbers. By scanning bibliographies of the areas under discussion, we find such broad categories are stressed as cultural and social anthropology, material culture and applied art, folk lore and folk art, prehistoric anthropology, and physical anthropology.

Among the miscellaneous categories, concentration falls in the 300's
with such topics as economics, land reform, social ethics, population, and
the impact of modern technology. In the 700's, handicrafts, pottery, im-
plements, music, and the dance can be applicable to even the primitives
of New Guinea. In the 500's, geology, botany, and zoology are represented
bibliographically. The 900's suggest geographic changes in 913 (Antiquities
and Archeology) and 915 (Geography of Asia) and possibly in the 920's
(though biography has its own scheme in many libraries). Other changes
in the 900's are the history numbers for Southeast Asia and the Pacific
Ocean Islands, which are the principal subject of this article. Changes in
other divisions of the classification are not likely to be extensive.

Now that many large libraries in universities have changed over to the
LC classification, we might assume that the libraries most affected by
changes in Dewey would be large public libraries and medium-sized li-
braries. Of these, the medium-sized library, which may still have a modest
collection of works on Southeast Asia, would probably find that the pro-
posed change is not too overwhelming.

Moreover, the change we propose can be made more easily now than
at any time later, since Southeast Asia is fast becoming a very dynamic
field of research, teaching, and publication. As a widely recognized aca-
demic field in the United States, Southeast Asian history is not yet twenty
years old. But there is every reason to believe that as both publication and
study increase, libraries will be expanding their collections in this area
very considerably. This will be especially true of college and university li-
braries which must make materials available for a growing number of
courses in this field. It is quite possible that the collections of works on
Southeast Asia in most American libraries will double in the next ten
years or so.

It is obvious, consequently, that the sooner the need for this change is
recognized and acted upon, the lighter will be the job of recataloging. At
Saint Louis University we are presently compiling a working catalog of
our holdings on South and Southeast Asia in the library system. This not-
yet-completed survey has brought to light approximately 2,500 titles, of
which slightly less than half are devoted to Southeast Asia. A rough es-
imate suggests that considerable less than ten per cent of this latter group
would be affected by the change. But this section is expanding rapidly,
and the amount of recataloging will grow also.

For the large public library, a change of number in Dewey is not a
casual or unimportant decision. A recent article clarifies the position of
the Los Angeles County Public Library (bookstock of 1,172,520 volumes
dispersed through 93 branches, six mobile libraries, and fifteen institutions).11
Through a questionnaire on the subject of relocations of books resulting
from changes in the Dewey classification, this same library is able to sum-
marize the thinking of thirteen large public libraries: "We change to the
new classification when the number of titles is small; when the copies are
so few that they can be easily handled; and when the subject is a timely
one that promises to grow rapidly." All three conditions seem to apply
to the Southeast Asia heading.

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We are further heartened by this article which stresses the need for an over-all re-evaluation of Dewey. Among the nine categories listed as needing change, three are applicable to history or social sciences. (We think there is equally urgent need for revision of the headings for South Asia, India, Pakistan, Ceylon, etc., and for Southwest Asia.) "In its efforts to keep pace with political changes, the 16th edition is not always accurate in its 900 classifications." Again: "History is separated from prehistory (900 and 571)" and again: "Social welfare and social anthropology are separated from sociology (360, 572, and 391)."

The clinching statement of a "giant" (Los Angeles County Public Library) encouragingly concludes: "Material should be relocated when there is a definite shift of opinion concerning it, even if only a partial shift of books is practical. Otherwise, Dewey may become as dead as the proverbial Dodo."

REFERENCES

2. Journal of Southeast Asian History, v. 1-1958-. Although English historians tend to exclude the Philippines from Southeast Asian history, the Journal does not.
5. Coedès, Georges. Les États Hindouïsés d’Indochine et d’Indonesie. Paris, Boccard, 1948. The term Indochine clearly includes all of mainland Southeast Asia, since this great work views the whole area.
6. Personal letters from the two authors, quoted with permission.
8. Personal letter, The Hague, January 6, 1962, quoted with permission. Indonesia is not mentioned because it was not involved in the context of the correspondence. Besides, no one except DC has ever excluded Indonesia from the area.

APPENDIX I

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present DC</th>
<th>Proposed Revision</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>959</td>
<td>Southeast Asia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.1</td>
<td>Burma</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.2</td>
<td>Upper Burma</td>
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<tr>
<td>.3</td>
<td>Thailand</td>
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<tr>
<td>.4</td>
<td>Laos</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.5</td>
<td>Malaya</td>
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Library Resources & Technical Services
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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Country</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>.6</td>
<td>Cambodia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.7</td>
<td>Vietnam (Cochin China)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.8</td>
<td>Annam</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.9</td>
<td>Tonkin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.5</td>
<td>Malaya</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.6</td>
<td>Cambodia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.7</td>
<td>Viet-Nam</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.8</td>
<td>Philippines</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.9</td>
<td>Indonesia</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

APPENDIX II

Dewey Decimal Classification

Suggested Revision of 959 Southeast Asia, Incorporating the Philippines and Indonesia from 991.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Southeast Asia</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>.01</td>
<td>Beginnings to 1200 A.D.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.02</td>
<td>1200-1700</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.03</td>
<td>1701-1900</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.04</td>
<td>1901-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| .1   | Burma           |
| .11  | Pyu kingdom, 673?–832?; Mon kingdom, 825–1757 |
| .13  | Shan kingdom, 1287–1531; Federated Shan states; Shan state, 1948– |
| .14  | Arakan and Tenasserim |
| .15  | Myitkina and Bhamo districts, Naga hills, Chin special division, Kachin state, 1948– |
| .16  | Karenni states to 1948, Kayeh (Karenni) state, 1948–; Karen state, 1954– |

[†.2] Upper Burma
   Class in 959.1

| .3   | Thailand        |
| .31  | Central valley  |
| .33  | Continental Highlands |
| .35  | Khorat Plateau |
| .37  | Southeast coast |
| .39  | Peninsular Thailand |

| .4   | Laos            |
| .41  | Kingdom of Muong Swa, ?–1353, Lang Chang, 1353–1700 |
| .42  | Vien Chang, 1700–1828 |
| .43  | Kingdom of Luang Prabang, 1707– |
Southeast Asia (cont.)

- Malaya, Malaysia, 1963-
- Malacca
- Singapore
- Federated Malay States (Perak, Selangor, Negri Sembilan, Pahang)
- Unfederated Malay States (Johore, Kedah, Kelantan, Trengganu, Perlis)
- Penang, Dindings
- British Borneo (Sarawak, Brunei, North Borneo)

Cambodia

Viet-Nam

Champa, 192-1471
Tonkin
Hanoi
Annam
Hué
Cochinchina
Saigon
Islands: Paracel, Spratley, Poulo Condore, Phu Quoc

Philippines

Luzon
Mindoro
Palawan
Visayas: Bohol, Cebu, Masbate, Leyte, Samar, Panay, Negros
Mindanao, Basilan
Other islands. Sulu archipelago

Southeast Asia (cont.)

Indonesia

Indianized (Hindu and Buddhist) kingdoms, 132-1516 A.D.
Muslim kingdoms, 1526-1838
Portuguese colonization, 1511-1641
Dutch colonization, 1595-1799
English interim and Dutch colony, 1799-1945
National period

Library Resources & Technical Services
The authors show, by their criticism, that they appreciate the dilemmas faced by an Editorial Office that must steer between “integrity of numbers” (wanted by most older and larger libraries) and “keeping pace with knowledge” (wanted by most smaller and newer libraries). Unfortunately, they overlook the fact that compromising the integrity of numbers is a double concept, covering not only the relocation of a topic from one number to another but also the re-use of a number with a new meaning. These are vastly different in their effect. According to the editorial criteria established for the 16th and 17th editions of DC, topics may be relocated (a) if there is an overwhelming need and demand, (b) if the existing schedule cannot accommodate the literature for which it is intended, or (c) if the number of titles affected is very limited. None of these is true of the proposed change, not even (c), because a change in the geography schedules affects not only history and travel, not only the three hundred or so numbers listed on p. 2321-2324 of the 16th edition, but the entire classification, since virtually every number in the schedules may be divided by form division 09.

But the greater problem is that of re-use of numbers with new meanings, as is proposed for 959.8 and 959.9. One of the major values of Dewey is as a sort of universal language in which, for example, 677 means textile manufacture and never anything else. Perhaps a figure will illustrate the difference between relocation and re-use. John Bull may call it a “horse,” Marianne La France a “cheval,” and Heinz Deutsch a “Pferd,” but each can learn and understand that the others are referring to the same concept as himself; this is like 776 in Edition 14 and 655.325 in Edition 16 both referring to the concept of photolithography—a relocation. But if the word “horse” is by some people used in reference to an equine animal, by others to a bovine animal, and by still others to a feline animal, no one can be sure, on running across the word, which meaning is intended; this is like 959.8 in Edition 16 meaning Annam and the same notation in Edition 17 meaning Philippines—a re-use of number.
We have, therefore, an editorial rule that no number may be used with a new meaning until after it has been vacated for at least 25 years; the only exceptions are made by express action of the Decimal Classification Editorial Policy Committee to correct intolerable situations (as when it authorized for Edition 16 new developments for inorganic and organic chemistry).

This is not to deny the theoretical desirability of classing Indonesia and the Philippines as part of Asia, but only to explain the practical objections. In any case, Father Corley and Miss Phelps will be glad to know that in Edition 17, 959.2 will be vacated by relocation to 959.1, and 959.8-9 by relocation to 959.7. The reference from 959 to 991 will be retained. Any library may, of course, adapt the DC, modify it, graft on to it as it sees fit to fulfill its own purposes.

A further observation: under Burma, Thailand, Laos, and Cambodia particularly there appears to be in the proposed schedules a confusion between treatment of historic periods and treatment of geographic subdivisions. Except under Ireland and United States the DC always assigns to periods a notation beginning with zero, to geographic divisions a notation without zero, e.g., 971.01 Early history of Canada, 971.1 British Columbia. (Ed. Note: The authors revised their article slightly after seeing Mr. Custer's comments.)

**ALA RULES FOR FILING CATALOG CARDS**

The ALA Editorial Committee has appointed a subcommittee to prepare a new edition of *ALA Rules for Filing Catalog Cards*. Members of the Subcommittee were selected with the cooperation of the Cataloging and Classification Section, RTSD.

Pauline A. Seely, Supervisor, Technical Services, Denver Public Library, is the chairman who will also serve as editor for the revised Rules. The five other members, representing various types and sizes of libraries, are: Mrs. Orcena Mahoney Peterson, Doralyn J. Hickey, Claribel Sommerville, Catharine Whitehorn, and Frances R. Lubovitz.

The Subcommittee is not only to determine revisions needed for a new edition of Filing Rules but to decide on the advisability of preparing simplified rules for small and medium-sized libraries. The Subcommittee plans its first meeting at the 1963 Midwinter Conference.
THE USE OF ADVANCED DATA processing methods and equipment in library operation has been forecast for many years. In the past the major computer efforts have been primarily in information retrieval. There has been little doubt for some time that computers could also be utilized for library records and processing, but doubts have been expressed regarding the efficiency of such use. Recently a study has been made leading toward the utilization of a computer and of data processing techniques for many aspects of library operation. Other institutions are known to be considering computer use, but, as far as is known, no university or large research library has experimented with such use.

This article describes the results of the first year's work at the University of California, San Diego, on a project for using general purpose computers in the maintenance of library records of serial holdings. The project is experimental but is aimed at producing a practical system which will eventually replace a manual serials record. During the past year, a system has been developed which is now operative for a limited number of titles and with certain types of output.

During the second year, records for 2,000 additional serials will be added to the 700 now contained in the computer records; additional outputs will be developed, computer programs will be simplified, and cost analyses and comparisons of the manual and mechanized systems will be made.

The availability of an excellent computer facility with well qualified personnel located near the Library made the project possible. The relatively small initial size of the Library at UCSD simplified problems of carrying out the project and allowed for analyses and improvements which would have been difficult in a larger library. The problems of rapid expansion of the Library during the next few years will be simplified if automatic data processing can be used for any part of the operation. Rapid growth will also provide a real test for the system.

Serials rather than monographs were chosen for this project because

serials processing is laborious and costly, (2) the resulting records, using traditional methods, are difficult to use and are not accessible to library users except through a library staff member (in contrast to monographs which are accessible directly through the card catalog), (3) serials are the most important library materials in the sciences and, with the present emphasis on science at UCSD, were most in need of immediate improvement in records, and (4) the repetitive nature of successive updatings of serial records provides an appropriate application of mechanization.

The project was started in November, 1961. During the first months, (1) the serials record system was defined in the explicit detail required for mechanical operation, (2) scattered records were consolidated into a central serials record suitable for transferral to the computer, and (3) types of output desired, priorities and programs to be developed first, and size and nature of samples to be used in program and systems testing were selected. After these important preliminaries were completed, data was transferred to records on magnetic tape, computer programs were developed, tested, and improved, staff was trained, updating procedures were perfected, and outputs were checked for accuracy. Regular conferences were and are being held between library and computer staff.

Output and Input Elements

Since output requirements and design determine input data and computer programs, these were defined first. The following types of output information were desired, with the highest priority given to items one and two:

1. Complete holdings lists of all serials.
2. Lists of current receipts of periodicals by location.
3. Bindery lists of all serials received unbound.
4. Claims lists for all serials.
5. Non-receipt lists for all serials.
6. Expiration of subscription lists for all purchased serials.

In addition, it was essential to provide a method for handling current receipts which would make “checking in” of serials as simple as possible and which would update the computer record.

A list of extrinsic data elements required for input preparation was developed. These include location, call number, title, complete holdings statement and inclusive year dates, date (month, year) of latest issue received, status (subscription, gift, or exchange), fund, source, and expiration of subscription date.

During development of the computer program, it became necessary to include many intrinsic data elements. They include the following items: currency of serial, serial identification number, class, number of issues per volume, number of issues per year, regularity of appearance, day of the month of last issue received for weekly and biweekly serials, number of last issue of continuous issue numbers, and mnemonic title.
Intermediate Serials Record

During the early stages of the project, while the output requirements and input elements were being discussed and formulated, a great amount of work was done in producing complete and accurate holdings statements for many serials. It soon became apparent that the serials record card could not be used directly for the production of key-punched IBM cards for input to the computer. An intermediate serial record on a specially designed form was produced to provide the “copy” for the key-punch operators. Key-punching, except during the early stages of the project, has been done by library staff members.

The intermediate serials record is divided into five parts: fixed field information, mnemonic title, call number, complete title, and holdings statement. The fixed field information is composed of symbols and abbreviations designating certain characteristics of each journal. The exact number of spaces allotted each symbol is marked on the intermediate serials record card. The card is divided into 480 spaces which may be used for alphabetic, numeric, or special characters; the fixed field information constitutes the first 34 spaces. Information in the fixed field includes whether or not the serial is currently received, a serial identification number, the system of numbering issues used by the publisher, number of issues per volume and year, number of volumes per year, regularity of the serial, location in the Library, month and year of the last issue, fund from which purchased, and status.

Program Test

For the purpose of testing the computer program, a sample of 100 intermediate serial records was prepared, key-punched on IBM cards, and put on magnetic tape for the computer. This set of sample records was then processed by the computer programs. When the computer programs were shown to work, a system was designed for the Serials Department staff to maintain, check in, and update a larger number of serial titles. For this operational phase, it was decided to include all of the titles shelved on the current serial shelves in two reading rooms. Accordingly, 712 intermediate serial records were prepared and transferred to magnetic tape.

Serials Record Procedures and Computer Outputs

The best procedure for recording serials received, producing desired lists of current receipts, and for updating the computer tape for recent issues proved to be that of utilizing computer-produced IBM punched cards for issues of all regular periodicals which might be expected that month and for the next issue of irregular serials. Cards for irregular serials are produced only after the latest issue has been received. This file of IBM cards is known as the arrival file. The regenerative system of using the computer input to produce the expected arrival cards, which become new computer input when the serial is received, is a key feature in

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the utility of this mechanical record-keeping system. The brief mnemonic titles that appear on the IBM cards of the arrival file serve a two-fold purpose. First, they permit the representation of a full title, regardless of length, to appear on a single IBM card, thus facilitating the rapid correlation between received issue and the appropriate card in the arrival file. Secondly, they aid in alphabetizing the input cards prior to updating.

The clerk, who checks in the serial, records receipt by pulling the proper card, prepunched by the computer, from the arrival files. These cards are then utilized to produce daily or tri-weekly current receipt lists and, at the end of the month, to update the master magnetic tape. The latter process takes place at the same time that the cards for the next month's arrival file are produced by the computer.

At present, serials are also recorded manually in the central serials record. Eventually this record will be discarded. By the end of 1962/63, approximately all of the 3,000 titles now in the central serials record should also be included in the computer records system. Titles new to the Library are added when they are cataloged, normally when the first issue arrives. Preparation of an intermediate serials record card is part of the cataloging process.

One of the outputs desired, a non-receipt list, is obtained as a by-product of the receipt and updating procedure. For regular periodicals, cards remaining in the arrival file at the end of the month represent issues which have not been received. These cards are used to start a claims procedure. The separate arrival file for irregular publications is checked as necessary or could be sorted mechanically.

The current receipts list was initially intended for posting for the benefit of library users. It derives from the traditional typed list which is prepared daily in many libraries, especially in branch or special libraries, and which shows all periodicals received during a current day. It is now evident that the current receipts list can be prepared by machine as a by-product of the updating procedure and can also be produced in weekly and monthly cumulations which become supplements to the complete holdings list. A sample of the current receipts list is shown as Fig. 1.

After the current receipts list is prepared, the cards are held for the monthly updating of the magnetic tape containing the complete serials records. IBM cards which have been prepared for titles new to the system, for any back files added during the month, and for volumes added through binding are added and processed by the computer at the same time. The next arrival file is also produced at that time and a complete holdings list is printed if desired. The holdings list may be produced by the high speed printer at 1,000 lines per minute in single copy, with carbons, or on multilith masters; or through punched card output and subsequent printing. An example of one page of this list is shown in Fig. 2. Holdings lists may also be produced by location or by subject. When desired, the lists can be reproduced through multilith for distribution to faculty, various service points, or to other libraries.
Bindery lists have not been included in the computer program thus far but will be added soon. They will be used to advise the Serials Department of all completed unbound volumes which should be ready for bindery preparation. They could also be utilized to produce lists, for internal and public use, of all volumes actually at the bindery, and/or in bindery hold. They should also be used to convert unbound records to bound in the holdings record on the master tape. Like the arrival file, these lists will be produced on IBM cards.

Want lists and claims lists for other than current issues have not been produced, but can be developed easily from the present computer program.

Procedures for listing new subscriptions before receipt of the first issue, for lists of subscription expirations, and other outputs relating to serials acquisition have not been developed thus far. Their value for the present program appears questionable. However, they may be needed later. Part of the information required is now on the computer tape.

**Computer Equipment and Characteristics**

The computer system used for this project is the Control Data Corporation model 1604 computer. This is one of the largest and fastest computers commercially available. The computer has a large magnetic core memory for internal storage of information, with a capacity of 32,768 words of eight characters (each character represented by six binary digits). The average time required to read a word from the internal storage is about five millionths of a second. Each computation step takes about the same length of time. Magnetic tape is used for the storage of intermediate records, which may be read or written by the CDC 1604 at a rate of 30,000 characters per second. The computer system has a 1,000 line per minute printer, IBM card input and output, and a small computer (CDC 160-A) which is used for processing data for input and output to the large computer. The size and speed of the computer strongly affect the economy of data processing. The computer programs which were developed for this project require a large fast computer for efficient operation.

**Computer Programs**

The computer programs utilize the CDC Fortran '60 Programming System. The Fortran programming system, which is used to develop a computer program, is a language employing mathematical symbols and English language computer terms. The programming system allows incorporation of coding in the basic instruction repertoire of the machine. This facility for incorporating the code for basic machine instructions was used in several sections of the computer program. The program is punched on cards. The cards are then read by the computer (via another program) and translated into basic machine instructions which can be executed by the computer. Programs generated in this fashion are not necessarily as efficient as those written entirely in machine coding but they can be de-
Developed in a fraction of the time. Also, since the Fortran programming system has been developed for many computers, this facilitates the use of the program on more than one computer. The Fortran programming system also facilitates the maintenance and documentation for the computer programs.

The existing computer program for processing the serials records will be improved to allow simultaneous input operations and output operations during the processing of the serials records. It is expected that once this parallel processing system is incorporated in the serials records programs, significant computer time savings will be effected.

Numerous conferences between library and computer personnel on this project made it evident that the final system must be versatile and regenerative, thus reducing hand operations to a minimum. Careful analysis of the problem indicated that the computer program should be capable of automatic handling of any possible situation of updating no matter how unlikely its occurrence, since updating of serial records is the prime function of the computer program. This accounts for, in part, the length of the entire LIBRARY program, approximately 2,300 Fortran instructions. Every conceivable holdings statement and every possible modification or combination of modifications had to be taken into consideration.

The basic mode of manipulation of updating holdings information and volume groups is a complex operation and no lengthy explanation of it will be made here. It was decided to use symbolic delineators to separate the variable-length information fields within the holding statement. This has proven to be an extremely useful concept in that the only restriction on the total serial record length is the prescribed 480 characters.

Fig. 3 illustrates the flow of data to and from the computer during operation.

The computer programs for processing the serials record were developed in subprogram units. The main program, which controls the primary sequencing of execution of the subprograms, contains about 125 Fortran instructions. Each of the subprograms performs a special function, such as classification of updating information, updating a holding, regrouping holding information to eliminate redundancies, compressing information for intermediate storage, and expanding information for printed lists.

Cost of Operation

The costs of present procedures and outputs are under study at this time. Clerical costs of handling current receipts and posting other additions have not been determined but would appear to be no higher than for traditional systems. The computer cost of monthly updating of the magnetic tape containing the serial holding records, including the cost of producing the IBM output cards used for checking in the periodicals and for preparation of the revised, up-to-date tape is estimated at $10 to $12 per month for 1000 titles. With some refinements, it is believed that
This computer cost can be reduced to about $7 to $9 per month for 1000 titles.

The machine cost of preparing a new complete holdings list is now about $15 per 1000 titles. Refinements in this program may bring this down to about $12 per 1000 titles.

The cost of producing a holdings list for posting and distribution should be considerably lower than for a manually produced list. Large libraries have found it impossible to continue the production of such lists because of cost and the difficulty of gathering the necessary information. Instead, clerks are used to look up holdings in a serials record and to supply this information to users at considerable cost to the library and inconvenience to users.

The cost of computer preparation of the daily or tri-weekly receipt lists is approximately $3 when produced from a master tape with records for 700 serials. Considerably longer lists could be produced at little additional cost.

Summary

The system which has been developed for processing serial records requires a high speed computer with large memory and magnetic tapes for economical operations. Economical operations could also be achieved with computers with smaller memories and slower magnetic tapes if the exceptional cases for updating holdings statements were processed, in part, manually. The most important phases of the first year of the project for developing the processing system were (1) the definition of the system requirements in explicit detail for mechanical operation, and (2) the adoption of the regenerative processes such as the use of the arrival file containing computer prepared cards. From the experience to date it is apparent that the system which has been developed and is now becoming operational will be efficient and will provide more and more timely information for the library's serial records and for library users.

The system now in operation will be modified as well as expanded. Since this is the first computer program known to the authors to be written for this type of library operation, it is certain that changes and improvements will be incorporated for some time to come. While other libraries will probably not wish to use the system exactly as developed at UCSD, computer programs in use here should be valuable to programmers formulating similar systems. A listing of the Fortran program in its latest form is available at cost from the UCSD Library.

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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Date</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ACUSTICA</td>
<td>U12N2, APR 1962</td>
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<td>U84N13, JUL 1962</td>
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<td>Analytica Chimica Acta</td>
<td>U27N1, JUL 1962</td>
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<td>U1962N7, JUL 1962</td>
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<td>U24N6, JUN 1962</td>
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<td>U36N6, MAR 1962; U36N7, APR 1962; U36N8, APR 1962</td>
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<tr>
<td>Journal of Electroanalytical Chemistry</td>
<td>U3N5, APR 1962</td>
</tr>
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<td>Nuclear Physics</td>
<td>U34N3, JUN 1962</td>
</tr>
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<td>Physical Society of Japan, Journal</td>
<td>U17N6, JUN 1962</td>
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<tr>
<td>Recueil des Travaux Chimiques des Pays-Bas et de la Belgique</td>
<td>U81N4, APR 1962</td>
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<tr>
<td>Spectrochimica Acta</td>
<td>U18N7, JUL 1962</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Figure 2
COMPLETE HOLDINGS LIST

ARKIV FOR KEMI
U1N4-6, U2N1-2, U2N4, B3-4, U5N2-4,
U5N6, B6-15, U16-17, U18N1-3, (1950-1962)

ARKIV FOR KEMI
B13-14, U15N4-6, U16-17, U18N1-3, (1958-
1962)

ARKIV FOR MATEMATIK

AUK
B1-77, U78, U79N1, (1884-1962)

AUSTRALIAN JOURNAL OF BIOLOGICAL
SCIENCES
U1, U2N1, U2N4, B3-12, (1948-1959)

AUSTRALIAN JOURNAL OF CHEMISTRY
B6-12, U13-14, (1953-1961)

BERICHTE ÜBER DIE GESAMTE PHYSIO-
LOGIE UND EXPERIMENTELLE PHARMA-
KOLOGIE

BIOCHEMISCHE ZEITSCHRIFT
U8-16, U17N1-4, B290-301, B308-314, U315-
317, U318N1-3, B326-327, U328N1-3, U328N5-
7, B329-332, U334, U335N1-4, (1907-1962)

BIOMETRICS
B1-15, U16-17, (1945-1961)

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FIGURE 3
COMPUTER PROCESSING OF SERIALS HOLDING RECORDS

Intermediate Serial Records → Punching Cards
From Library

Program Read

Update Tape

Master Magnetic Tape

Program Library

New Titles Inserts

Insert & Correction Tape

Correction

Error Diagnostics

Printed List

Duplicate for Storage

Update Cards

Punch Tape

Expected Arrivals Cards

To be Stored in Library Tub File

As Issues Are Received

CDC 1604 Computer

CDC 160-A Computer

Daily Acquisitions Lists

Printout of All Serials

Library Resources & Technical Services
The Problem

RECENTLY THE UNIVERSITY OF ROCHESTER established several departmental libraries in science and engineering in answer to a need for better library facilities to support its academic expansion. Each of these libraries is an entity, with its own standard card catalog. While these catalogs were being made, the faculty and students had to use a temporary file arranged by author and a serial list posted on a convenient stack.

The lack of a catalog was a severe handicap to the librarians. The faculty and students survived fairly well, probably because neither group really knows how to make effective use of a catalog. In fact, the faculty in each library were so accustomed to getting along without a catalog that when one was finally completed, they did not use it.

This was apparent from a steady stream of orders for books already in the library. In addition, books which the library had never owned were frequently assigned for reserve reading, to the distress of student and librarian alike. Since the faculty did not come to the catalog, it seemed logical to devise some way of taking the catalog to the faculty.

The Remedy

The problems arising from ineffectual use of the card catalog became quite expensive. By the time a duplicate order was caught, for example, a considerable proportion of the acquisition procedure may have taken place. In some cases, duplication was not discovered in time to cancel the order. The waste in expensive personnel time also was taken into account. To choke off duplicate orders at their source, it was decided to make a short-title printed catalog from standard 80 column IBM cards and give a copy to each faculty member to keep in his office. The punched card form was chosen because, in the long run, this could be more readily updated.

As time went on, another practical reason for having some arrangement other than a standard card catalog for listing library holdings

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became apparent. The students and faculty, and particularly the library committee chairmen involved in book selection, wanted to know what was in other departmental libraries without travelling to the Main Library to use the Union Catalog. In particular, faculty, students, and the local industrial research laboratories all wanted to know which library subscribed to what periodicals. Putting short-title printed catalogs in each departmental library and sending copies to the industrial research libraries would not only be convenient on campus, but would cut out the “Do you have—?” step in local interlibrary loans, saving time for the Main Library’s Circulation Department, which handles such calls.

Steps to Create a Printed Catalog

The University of Rochester has both a Computing Center and a Tabulating Center. Consultation with the staffs of these centers determined that a short-title catalog on IBM cards was a tabulating job. This was a financial relief, because the IBM 407 tabulator time could be rented by the Library for $7.50 an hour, whereas the IBM 7070 computer costs at least $100 an hour.

The first catalog to be put on punched cards was that of the Engineering Library. The problems involved in getting desired results were discussed thoroughly with the Assistant Director of the Tabulating Center, who then drew up diagrams for wiring the plug boards and explained general machine procedures. It was very interesting for the Librarian to see how much could be done easily with machines.

Keypunching was begun, using a student assistant for two hours each week. The first catalog took almost ten months to punch, partly because considerable experimentation was done before satisfactory patterns of operation were established. The second catalog, for the Physics Library, took only three months at the same rate. If one has access to a keypunch full time, it should be possible to punch the cards for a 6,000 title library in about two weeks.

The final running of the Engineering catalog was quite exciting. It took some experimentation and rewiring before the desired results were obtained. It should be emphasized that short-title catalogs via IBM equipment cannot be made without the help of those experienced in working with the machines.

The copy from the tabulator was sent to the Print Shop to be reduced, reproduced, and bound. The cost of printing made it necessary to eliminate the subject listing as originally planned, but several copies were made on the tabulator, and put in pamphlet binders to serve anyone who needed them. As it turned out, the demand has not been great enough to justify the cost of printing. On the other hand, a separate periodical listing, which was also omitted as an economy, is in great demand and will be included in the next edition. The first catalog covered the contents of the Engineering Library to January 1, 1962. It was run off, printed, bound, and distributed within a month of the cut-off date. Figure 1 shows a sample page.
Procedure

The physical arrangement of the form of entry used in the short title catalog is a modification of that devised by Dr. Charles Vertanes for the printed catalog of the Long Island Lighting Company Library.* Eleven spaces are allowed for the classification number, twenty-one for the name of the author, forty-six for the title, and two for the date. In the case of current periodical subscriptions, the holdings are indicated in the title section, i.e., v.i- 1945-, and columns 79 and 80 are purposely left blank so that a periodical listing can be compiled at any time by sorting for cards with blank columns 79 and 80.

The master cards were keypunched directly from the shelf list, which at the University of Rochester Library is composed of Library of Congress catalog cards or equivalent, with call numbers and accession numbers added in the left margin. The master punched cards were then run off on the IBM 407 tabulator for proof reading against the shelf list. After corrections were made, three permanent decks of color-coded punched cards for author, title, and classification were reproduced, and one special deck for periodicals. These were printed in the interpreter in such a way that the author's name came first in the deck arranged by author, title first in arrangement by title, and call number first for both arrangement by subject and the periodical listing. Each of these decks was sorted and filed. When it was time to make the catalog, the decks were taken from the drawers, headings and blank spacer cards inserted, and the packs fed into the hopper of the tabulator. Since there were about 4,000 titles, running off took an hour for each deck except the periodical listing, which was much shorter. The decks were then returned to their drawers and are ready to run again after updating with new accessions added since the last printing.

The one-line, 80-column entry affords great economy in listing and is easy to read. The call number consists solely of the classification number; the book number is omitted because the classification number will get the reader to the correct shelf and he can find his book there in alphabetical order. The system is very successful with Library of Congress classification numbers since almost all such numbers can be expressed within ten columns, always reserving column 7 for the decimal dividing classification from subdivision. In the rare cases of a decimal number with a subdivision, i.e., TK7872.5.A23, the subdivision was omitted. In actual practice, all classification numbers were completed in ten columns, and the programmer used column 11 for control in the final running.

The names of most authors fitted into the twenty-one column allotment without difficulty. Corporate entries, however, had to be abbreviated, and a special list of abbreviations (Fig. 2) was included as some of the abbreviations, especially conferences and symposia, were not

* Vertanes, Charles A. “Automation raps at the door of the library catalog,” Special Libraries, v. 52, pp. 337-42 (1961). Dr. Vertanes' LILCO catalog may be borrowed from the SLA Loan Collection, School of Library Science, Western Reserve University, Cleveland 6, Ohio.

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immediately self-evident. A general list of abbreviations was also included and these are being kept uniform in all of the science library catalogs. All subheadings of corporate bodies were omitted unless the title was utterly non-distinctive. Thus, all publications of the U. S. government have been entered under U. S. Surprisingly, only one title has been ambiguous so far. This was something of a shock to the Librarian, but the small size of the libraries probably accounts for it.

Most titles fitted easily into the forty-six column allotment. Longer ones were easily shortened into something recognizable. Dissertations were not always satisfactory in this respect, but fortunately there were not many of them.

The date of publication is an aid to identifying the book. In some rare cases, this was the only difference between identical titles. Few 19th century books are found in scientific libraries, therefore only 20th century book dates are distinguished. Books published prior to 1900 (code date 00) were given the code number HS; books with no date received ND, and monographic continuations still in the process of being published, MC. Monographic continuations which have been completed were given the earliest publication date. Where different editions of a monograph were in process of publication, the number of the edition was given in the title section, as with any single volume monograph.

In the process of keypunching, several cataloging decisions had to be made. The imprint date was chosen in preference to the copyright date when there were two. The publication date of the proceedings of a conference, symposium, or other meeting was used in preference to the date of the meeting. In cases where the date was given as “1961 i.e., 1960”, the corrected date was chosen. Initial articles were omitted in titles, both to save space and to avoid filing difficulties.

Abbreviations had to be standardized. The first word in a title was never abbreviated. The first word in an abbreviated form of a corporate entry always had to be identical with the first word in the Library of Congress entry so that the item would be retrievable in a standard card catalog, even though in some instances a different abbreviation would have made it easier to recognize the organization. Great care was taken to ensure that the printed catalog mirrored the form of entry in and organization of the card catalog, since there was no intention of divorcing the two.

Special Conditions: Filing

Machine filing and library filing are sufficiently different to create special problems in sorting the punched cards. Standard library practice is to file first by primary entry, which is the author or the title if there is no author, or the subject heading, or the added entry. After that one files by secondary entry, which is title in the case of an author entry, and author in a title or added entry. In teaching new personnel to file, one points out the physical position of the various entries on a unit card and indicates filing order among them. Then there
are a whole collection of special conditions: certain words are ignored, numbers are treated as if spelled out in the vernacular, initialisms are filed before words in a letter class, etc., etc. One thinks filing is largely letter-by-letter until one uses a sorting machine, which actually sorts letter-by-letter.

Machine filing is strictly letter-by-letter. The sorter sorts from right to left to produce the final result in reading order, left to right. Blank columns file before columns which are punched, because one picks the cards from the pockets from right to left. This means that title entries come before author entries. Numbers file before letters, because they require only one pass through the machine, whereas letters take two. Initialisms file exactly as they are spelled: the Mac’s are separated from the Mc’s, and IRE comes between Iraz and Irea. Abbreviations are filed exactly as spelled and not necessarily interfiled with the words they represent.

The sorter will normally get words into good alphabetical listing by sorting only 4 or 5 columns of the author or title fields. It is not necessary or desirable to sort all the columns. In order to file any IBM card with two fields, such as author and title, one must sort for the secondary field first. One could file by hand, as with ordinary catalog cards, but IBM cards are delicate and if nicked or dented will jam the machines. Therefore they should not be handled any more than is necessary. When one has made a machine sort by secondary and then by primary field, the whole must be printed out, examined and handsorted in those areas where library and machine filing do not agree. One bonus reaped from the printed copy at this stage is that it also shows up lack of uniformity in entry, a factor which does not appear until the cards are sorted.

Figures 3 and 4 show samples of unrevised machine sorting. The author listing (Fig. 3) was sorted for columns 12-16. A double sort in the column order 23-37, 12-16 would still require handsorting under the letters E, G, R, and T to make a perfect library style file. The title listing (Fig. 4) was sorted for columns 33-37. This then has to be handsorted to produce library-style filing. The cards in both cases were originally in shelf list order, since they were keypunched directly from the shelf list.

Results

The immediate results of the short title printed catalog are now apparent. The ordering of books already in the library has practically ceased. Books not in the library are rarely assigned for reserve reading. The faculty in the libraries which do not yet have printed catalogs are asking when they will have them. Interlibrary loans to the industrial research libraries have increased. There is a widespread demand for a list of scientific periodicals in the whole library system, which can be satisfied, complete with holdings for each library, when the project of making short title catalogs is finished. A temporary, indicative list is being made in the interim.
### Equipment and Costs

The machines used to make the short title printed catalog were:

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<th>Machine</th>
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<td>Reproducer</td>
<td>IBM 519</td>
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<td>Interpreter</td>
<td>IBM 557</td>
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<td>Sorter</td>
<td>IBM 082</td>
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<td>Tabulator</td>
<td>IBM 407</td>
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The cost of the Engineering Library catalog was:

#### Tabulating Center charges

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<th>Charge</th>
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<td>Rental:</td>
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<td>Keypunch</td>
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<td>Reproducer</td>
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<td>Sorter</td>
<td>23.25</td>
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<tr>
<td>Tabulator</td>
<td>27.75</td>
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<tr>
<td>Card stock</td>
<td>8.40</td>
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<tr>
<td>Paper</td>
<td>2.00</td>
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<tr>
<td>Advice and assistance</td>
<td>50.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>$ 206.65</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Library

| Labor costs, student and staff | 252.10 |

#### Print Shop

| Printing and publishing 100 copies | 279.00 |

<p>| <strong>Total</strong> | <strong>$ 737.75</strong> |</p>
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<th>Author/Editor</th>
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<td>Tk0002</td>
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<tr>
<td>Inst. OF METALS</td>
<td>Journal V. 78-1967-</td>
<td>Tk002</td>
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<td>Inst. OF Petroleum</td>
<td>Post-War Expansion of U.K. Petroleum Industry</td>
<td>Tk0002</td>
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<td>Inst. Radio Engrs</td>
<td>IRE Dictionary of Electronic Terms &amp; Symbols</td>
<td>Tk7804</td>
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<td>60 QC0173</td>
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<td>Digest of 1961 Int Conf Medical Electronics</td>
<td>61 R0855</td>
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<td>INT CONF AIR POLL</td>
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<td>55 TD0083</td>
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<td>Proceedings 2-1953-</td>
<td>QC0189</td>
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<tr>
<td>INT UNION P&amp;A CHEM</td>
<td>International DICT of Applied Math</td>
<td>60 QA0005</td>
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<tr>
<td>Ioffe Abram F</td>
<td>International DICT Physics &amp; Electronics</td>
<td>57 Q0005</td>
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<td>55 J0001</td>
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<td>Forming of Austenitic Chromium-Nickel Steel Ed. 2</td>
<td>54 TD0757.C5</td>
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<td>Nickel</td>
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<td>INT NICKEL CO</td>
<td>Nickel Alloy Steels Ed. 2</td>
<td>MC TA0479</td>
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<tr>
<td>INT NICKEL CO</td>
<td>RAPID IDENTIFICATION OF SOME METALS &amp; ALLOYS</td>
<td>60 QQ0078</td>
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<tr>
<td>INT PWDR METALL CONF</td>
<td>Powder Metallurgy</td>
<td>61 T0695</td>
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<tr>
<td>INT SYM HIGH TEMP</td>
<td>PROCEEDINGS</td>
<td>59 QC0276</td>
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<td>INT SYM NUCLEAR FUEL</td>
<td>NUCLEAR FUEL ELEMENTS</td>
<td>59 TK0940</td>
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<td>ELEMENTS OF HEAT TRANSFER ED. 3</td>
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<td>JAMES THOMAS HOWARD</td>
<td>Fundamentals of Photographic Theory</td>
<td>48 TR0200</td>
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<tr>
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<td>ARC Welding in Design</td>
<td>39 TK4660</td>
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<td>JAMES F. LINCOLN FDN</td>
<td>WELDED HIGHWAY BRIDGE DESIGN</td>
<td>52 TG0425</td>
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<td>ESTIMATION THERMO PROPERTIES ORGANIC COMPOUNDS</td>
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<td>JASTERZER SKZ</td>
<td>Nature &amp; Properties of Engr Materials</td>
<td>59 TA0403</td>
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<td>JAYNES EDWIN T</td>
<td>Ferroelectricity</td>
<td>53 DD0931</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

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FIGURE 2

SPECIAL ABBREVIATIONS

ARS ELECTROSTATIC PROPULSION CONFERENCE
ARS PROPELLANTS, COMBUSTION & LIQUID ROCKETS CONFERENCE
ARS SPACE POWER SYSTEMS CONFERENCE
AMERICAN INSTITUTE OF MINING, METALLURGICAL & PETROLEUM ENGINEERS
AMERICAN SOCIETY OF TOOL AND MANUFACTURING ENGINEERS
BRITISH INTERNAL COMBUSTION ENGINE RESEARCH ASSOCIATION
BRUSSELS EXPOSITION UNIVERSELLE ET INTERNATIONALE
COATED ABRASIVES MANUFACTURERS ASSOCIATION
CONFERENCE ON COMPUTING METHODS & THE PHASE PROBLEM IN X-RAY CRYSTAL ANALYSIS
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Editing the Union List of Serials*

Edna Brown Titus, Editor
Union List of Serials, 3d edition
Library of Congress

Prior to the period covered by the following account of the preparation of the third edition of the Union List of Serials, action was taken to establish a long range program for the Joint Committee on the Union List of Serials. To carry out this program, the Committee was incorporated in the District of Columbia on December 16, 1957, with the following stated purposes:

"The particular business and objects of said corporation shall be (a) to establish and maintain bibliographical tools describing and locating the serials resources of North American libraries and (b) to that end to plan and recommend cooperative action on the part of libraries and library associations which will assure the maintenance and strengthening of these serial resources."

During the following year plans were completed, and in February 1959 the Committee announced in the professional press that the third edition of the Union List of Serials would be published. Plans were to incorporate into it the titles and holdings in the second edition and its two supplements, all in one alphabet. To this more useful arrangement would be added a substantial amount of new material, perhaps 10-15,000 new pre-1950 titles, new locations, and bibliographical changes in old entries. New Serial Titles covering post-1949 titles would be the continuing supplement to the Union List of Serials. The third edition would therefore be the last Union List of Serials.

On May 29, 1959, the Council on Library Resources approved a grant of $244,651 to the Joint Committee for the editing of a third edition. At a meeting of the Committee on June 25, 1959, the selection and appointment of an operating staff for the project was delegated to the Library of Congress. The Project Office became operational on August 24, 1959, with the appointment of the Editor.

The Office is attached directly to the Processing Department, whose director, John Cronin, is the Library of Congress representative to the Joint Committee. Quarters were assigned in the stacks in the center of the second floor annex, with no outside light and almost no ventilation. The office was adjacent to the Serial Record, however, and on the same


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floor as the official catalog and the reference collection of the Descriptive Cataloging Division. On December 31, 1961, the office was moved from the stacks to an outside corner of the annex with windows, north and west, and ventilators. These quarters, which seemed so ample at first, became crowded with the arrival of 23 cases of 35 drawers each for the storage of the mounted boards.

During September and October 1959 a staff was recruited, robbing the Library of Congress in some instances, and, with some exceptions, there was gathered together a group with serials experience of some sort. Because the appointments were “indefinite,” newcomers to the Library of Congress began trying almost as soon as appointed to secure jobs with permanent status; and there was considerable turnover. Those from the Processing Department staff were safeguarded with liens on their permanent positions. During the Summer and Fall of 1960 foreign language experts from the Descriptive Cataloging Division assisted in the editing of Hebrew, Yiddish, Greek, Hungarian, Finnish, and Roumanian titles on an over-time basis.

In November 1959 a Prospectus, Union List of Serials, Third Edition, with an accompanying letter was mailed to all those libraries which had participated in the second edition and the two supplements and those which contribute to, or subscribe to, New Serial Titles: a total of 1,133. The letter invited participation in the project, and the Prospectus outlined the scope of the third edition (the same as that of the second edition) and stated the ways in which all libraries could cooperate. By June 30, 835 American and Canadian libraries had announced their willingness to record holdings in a checking edition. Of the large libraries, only the New York Public Library and the Harvard University Library did not do this checking.

To locate pre-1950 titles which had not been included in the second edition and the two supplements, the Joint Committee directed that all cards for serial entries (except those entered under official heading) be removed from the National Union Catalog. This phase of the work was completed between September 1959 and January 1960 with the removal of some 352,000 cards.

Meanwhile some 95,000 reports from cooperating libraries submitted directly for the Union List had been selected as being within the scope of, and appropriate for, the third edition. Before November 1, 1960, the cut-off date for the acceptance of reports for processing, an additional 100,000 entries were received for examination as to their appropriateness. When these titles, together with those from the Union Catalog, had been selected as within the scope of the ULS, they were searched by searchers and cataloging-editors to locate titles new to the second edition and the two supplements, additional locations, and bibliographical changes.

With the completion of the searching process and the final selection of titles, and with review by Wyllis Wright of the Joint Committee, the editing process got under way. This process included examination of all reports on each title and searching against the official catalog of the Library Resources & Technical Services.
Library of Congress and any other appropriate bibliographical tools in an effort to arrive at latest title, latest form of corporate name, and relationship with earlier or later publications, so that an up-to-date, complete entry with necessary cross references for the checking edition could be prepared.

The checking edition made up from these edited titles was distributed in four sections, one each in August and September 1960, February and April 1961. A final count of all new titles to be added to the third edition, made in January 1962 after all locations and holdings were recorded, showed a total of 11,855.

It was announced in the Prospectus that bibliographical changes would be made in the printed volumes when necessary; additional locations would be added when ten or less were currently shown; symbols and holdings would be deleted in the event titles had been withdrawn. Some 6,500 bibliographical changes and 20,000 deletions were completed by January 1962. “Snopake” provided a satisfactory method for making deletions. New locations would be added during the final editing, many of them in manuscript.

No new titles in Oriental languages were being added to the third edition; but additional locations and bibliographical changes (except conversion to Romanized titles and corporate name) were incorporated in the new edition.

Holdings as reported in the second edition and the two supplements were incorporated in the third edition without revision due to the fact that neither time nor funds were available to reissue the old titles in a checking edition.

It was planned from the beginning that the third edition would be reproduced photographically. It was supposed that the new entries, changed entries, and new or revised cross references would be inter-filed with the entries in the printed columns by actually cutting those columns and spreading the entries so that the new entries on cards could be inserted, mounted, and photographed in continuous alphabetical sequence. It was anticipated that this would be a tedious job with many possibilities for misplacing, even losing the little slips of paper.

As the time approached to start the mounting, Mr. Cronin began to wonder if the abstracting method used by the London firm of Balding and Mansell for the reproduction of the British Museum Catalog could not be used for the ULS. Howard Haycraft in an article, The New B. M. Catalogue, in the April 15, 1961, issue of Library Journal described this process as that of a “newly invented optical machine called an ‘abstractor’—apparently a kind of compensating or variable aperture camera—which has the ability to pick up entries of varying size wherever they occur and to rearrange them uniformly spaced and in order on continuous film.” The first twelve columns of the second edition, with titles in this alphabetical span from the two supplements, the new titles file, the bibliographical changes file, and cross-references were mounted and each entry numbered so that, when photographed in numerical
order, they would be reproduced in alphabetical sequence. Mr. Cronin took these boards to England in May 1961. His trip was successful. The camera of Balding and Mansell could do the job, and the firm wanted the job. Copies of a sample signature prepared by the abstracting method of Balding and Mansell arrived in time to show the Joint Committee at a meeting during the Cleveland Conference of the ALA, who found the sample wholly satisfactory. Because from the beginning the Committee had hoped the H. W. Wilson Company would take over the publication and distribution of the new edition, Wilson officers were invited to attend the Cleveland meeting where the proposition was formally presented to them. They were interested, and following study of the matter and conferences with Balding and Mansell and the Committee, contracts have been signed which will result in the Wilson imprint traditional with American union lists appearing on this, the final edition of the Union List of Serials.

At the beginning of the project two clean unworn copies each of the second edition and the two supplements were located, and these were put aside as "mint" copies. Only the young man who painted out locations and holdings handled these volumes. In October 1961 these volumes were cut by columns, after numbering page one, columns 1, 2, 3, and the verso of those columns on page 2 in the second copy, 4, 5, 6, then back to page 3 in the first copy for columns 7, 8, 9, back to page 4 in the second copy for columns 10, 11, 12, and so on through the 9,156 columns of the second edition. The two supplements were similarly numbered and cut.

All new entries for insertion were typed on cards, alphabetically arranged in three files:

(1) new titles demounted after photographing for the checking edition and with locations and holdings added;
(2) bibliographical changes;
(3) cross references. (The best commercially-available match to the type in the printed volumes was found to be the "Charter" face of IBM typewriters.)

When all of these records were ready, the mounting process was started. This was done by two men who were specially skilled in this operation and who were detailed to the Union List of Serials Project from their regular positions in the Library of Congress Catalog Maintenance Division.

The mounting was done on boards, a fine grade of card stock which was bought from the Library of Congress Branch Government Printing Office. The entries were arranged in eight columns, headed 2d Edition, 1st Supplement, 2d Supplement, New Titles, Bibliographical Changes, X-References, Holdings, and Added Holdings. Mounted first on parallel strips of gummed tape was a column from the 2d edition. All other entries in the alphabetical span of this column had to be interfiled in it. Hence there was mounted in column 2 those entries form the 1st
supplement which fell within the alphabetical span of the first column. Entries through to column 6 similarly fell within the alphabetical span of column 1. Data in the last two columns (generally added locations and relocated holdings) were to be added by the Editor in the final editing process.

The following are some of the steps involved in the final editing:

1. It is known, by actual count, that there are 265,000 entries to adjust. Entries from the 1st and 2nd Supplements, checking edition, the bibliographical changes and new cross references must be filed into the 9,156 columns of the 2d edition.

2. In the case of the few changes in titles reported in the first supplement and the numerous changes in titles reported in the second supplement, bibliographical detail was not repeated from one volume to another. To assemble this bibliographical description under a single heading usually requires typing a new entry.

3. In the case of bibliographical changes, all reported locations and holdings, regardless of their previous alphabetical location, must be moved to the board where the new title is mounted in its proper alphabetical position. These holdings, now mounted, are cut out and re-mounted. This means handling and re-handling of mounted boards.

4. These old entries must be crossed out, of course, as well as all cross references referring to the old title. These cross references will be replaced by new cross references typed at the time the bibliographical change is or was made.

5. Any discrepancies arising from interfileing new titles and their cross references with the old titles and references will have to be resolved. “See” references may have to be changed to “See also,” etc., etc.

6. Because the 1st Supplement is made up to a large extent of 2d edition entries with added locations, it is planned to transfer these locations in manuscript to the holdings listed in the 2d edition. The whole entry in the 1st Supplement can then be crossed out and one camera exposure eliminated.

7. When entries are finally alphabetized, they are numbered so that the camera man can proceed from numbered entry to numbered entry on the board and the titles picked up in their proper alphabetical sequence. These numbers must be in ink and close to the entry itself. If at any time a title or group of titles in alphabetical sequence is more than 31/4 inches in length, two or more numbers must be assigned to the span. If there is more than a single entry in an exposure, these entries must be bracketed together.

Spring of 1965 is fixed as publication date, providing final editing in Washington and photography and printing in England proceed according to the presently-proposed schedule.
Centralized vs. Decentralized Serials Handling: A Review

JOHN B. CORBIN, Acquisitions Librarian
Arlington State College, Arlington, Texas

At least once in the life of every such library, the college or university librarian must decide how he wants his periodicals handled. This decision often comes under subsequent scrutiny as new factors come to bear upon it, such as the arrival of a new librarian, the conducting of a library survey, or the voicing of criticism of the library’s services by patrons. The first question the librarian must answer when making such a decision is, “Will serials be handled centrally or distributed among the several departments?”

One obvious starting point in answering such a question is to learn what other librarians have thought of the problem and how they have attempted to solve it. A literature search will show that, while few in number, several good articles and books have been published during the past thirty years on the administration and role of serials handling in a library.

It was not until 1935, in an article written specifically for the purpose, that J. Harris Gable clearly and strongly advocated the reorganization under one head of all serials functions in a library." Two years later, in his classic Manual of Serials Work, he reiterated his plea, noting that “several important librarians now advocate the division of book and serials functions entirely.” In addition, Gable recognized in this manual several arguments against his plan. In 1937, Fred B. Rothman restated Gable’s arguments and added several new reasons of his own for a centralized serials department.

In 1940, Rothman and Sidney Ditzion wrote that they had found, as the result of a survey, that twelve of twenty-two large college and university libraries had serials divisions and that seven of the twelve were independent departments coordinated in various ways with other departments of the library. Similarly, seven out of fifteen medium-sized college libraries had serials divisions.

George N. Hartje, in 1951, recognized the lack of agreement among writers on the role of serial publications in the university library and found no clear trend towards centralization of serials activities. He further stated, however, that “practically all agree with Gable on the desirability and feasibility of setting up a separate serials department and upon the general principles involved.”

Perhaps the most thorough and useful discussion of the role of a serials department in the library’s organizational structure is in Andrew
D. Osborn’s *Serial Publications*, published in 1955. In this volume, Osborn listed arguments for and against centralized serials departments, and he documented his statements with references to libraries utilizing such organizational structures. He did not advocate a single method of organization but rather stated that “it is difficult to lay down hard and fast rules for the location of serials functions.”

In 1961, Gloria Whetstone found, as the result of a survey, that of sixteen large college and university libraries, six had separate serials departments, nine had separately-administered serials units as divisions of larger departments, and one had the responsibility for serials divided between its cataloging and acquisitions departments. None were completely decentralized.

Guy R. Lyle, in his standard text on the administration of a college library, has also stated some pros and cons of centralized serials departments. Furthermore, he proposed a compromise organization based on a combination of methods. His plan provides for a maximum integration of technical processes while retaining many of the advantages claimed for complete serial decentralization.

Several other articles and texts mention the problem of centralized vs. decentralized serials, but all of them pass on quickly to other phases of serials work without adding anything of value to the arguments.

Following is a summary of the findings “for” and “against” a centralized serials department. The writer or writers advocating each argument are indicated in parentheses.

**“For” Centralized Serials Department**

1. A centralized serials department is a measure of economy because:
   a. Work may be more efficiently and easily done where records are kept (Gable)
   b. Work may be done by trained serials workers (Gable; Rothman and Ditzion)
   c. Fewer assistants can do the work in a centralized department than would otherwise be required since assignments can be adjusted as needs vary (Rothman; Rothman and Ditzion)
   d. Possibility of error or duplication of material can be eliminated because the same persons handle all necessary records (Gable; Rothman)
   e. Service to the public is greatly improved (Gable; Lyle; Wilson and Tauber; Ulrich)

2. Serial routines are centralized and simplified (Rothman; Ulrich; Wilson and Tauber)

3. Serials records are not duplicated (Gable; Rothman and Ditzion; Ulrich; Lyle)

4. Over-departmentalization can not appear (Gable)

5. Departmental bias is eliminated (Rothman and Ditzion)
6. Acquisition and processing of serials is speeded up when activities are centralized (Gable; Rothman and Ditson)

7. No time is wasted on cross-consultation between departments (Osborn)

8. Snags, which perforce must be delayed on their way to the shelves, can still be made readily available to those who require their use (Rothman)

"AGAINST" CENTRALIZED SERIALS DEPARTMENT

1. A centralized serials department is expensive (Lyle; Wilson and Tauber)

2. Physical conditions have to be right before division can be made (Lyle)

3. Use of serials and non-serials overlap in significant respects (Lyle)
   a. Reference librarians do not make distinctions between material on the basis of form (Wilson and Tauber)
   b. All reference service should be under the reference department (Lyle)

4. Cataloging of serials and non-serials overlap:
   a. Essential tools cannot all be transferred from the catalog to the serials department (Gable; Osborn)
   b. Official shelf list and union catalog might not be convenient to serials department, while they are to the catalog department (Gable; Osborn)

5. The transferral of the serials cataloger and serials order clerk from one department to another does not necessarily make them more proficient (Gable)

6. Routines of centralized serials department and acquisitions department overlap:
   a. Shipments often are combined serials and books (Osborn)
   b. Concentration of financial accounts in one department is more efficient and desirable (Lyle)

7. Receiving and checking in current periodicals in a periodicals room weakens over-all serials acquisitions program: current periodicals may receive special attention but other serials may be relatively neglected (Osborn)

From the arguments enumerated above, several general conclusions can be made:

1. Library literature contains little on the subject of the administration and role of serials in college and university libraries; what has been written is divided more or less evenly between centralized and decentralized departments
a. During the 1930's, what was written on the subject advocated a strong centralized serials department.

b. By the middle 1940's, strong advocacy either way had disappeared and good arguments for both types of organization were presented, with little or no favoritism for one type over the other.

2. Many of the arguments listed above can be changed from one side to the other and still can seem to be valid.

3. It is unclear whether some writers are referring to the geographical centralization of serials functions in a library system of several branches or departments, to the centralization of serials functions into one "self-contained" unit within the organizational structure in a library with no branches or subject departments, or to the centralization of the technical services connected with serial publications only. These distinctions, while difficult to grasp, are important when considering an opinion of a writer.

4. Whether a library centralizes or decentralizes its serials functions apparently depends to a large degree on the background and personal opinions of the librarian and on the particular library and its objectives, staff, physical layout, etc.

REFERENCES

Regional Groups

BARBARA WESTBY, Chairman
Council of Regional Groups

SINCE THIS IS BEING WRITTEN in October just as the activities of the Regional Groups are beginning, there are few meetings to report.

Catalog Code Revision: Recent Developments was the subject of the meeting of the Chicago Regional Group of Librarians in Technical Services held last March. Ruth Strout, University of Chicago, discussed the proposed code and its differences from the present rules; Elizabeth Rodell, RTSD Executive Secretary, reported discussions on the code at midwinter ALA; Kathryn Henderson, McCormick Theological Seminary, described the Paris Conference; and Kenneth Soderland explained the work of the ALA Code Revision Committee. In June, the group heard Herman Henkle describe problems encountered in Crerar’s reorganization and move to a new building.

The Michigan Regional Group of Technical Services Librarians held its spring meeting jointly with the College and Reference Section of the Michigan Library Association. At the joint session in the morning Agnes Tysse, University of Michigan, spoke on Book Catalogs vs. Card Catalogs, emphasizing book catalogs for notable collections and as tools for other libraries. At its own meeting in the afternoon the Technical Services Section heard a discussion on Education for Technical Services by a panel representing various types of Libraries: Robert Burton, Divisional Libraries, University of Michigan; Dorothy Markle, Ferndale High School; James Hunt, Michigan State Library; Barbara Westby, Detroit Public Library; Andre Nitecki, Flint College, University of Michigan; and Margaret Ayrault, University of Michigan. Each directed his remarks to two points: general personal characteristics, and knowledge and skills needed on the job.

A panel discussion on centralized cataloging was the topic of the joint meeting of the Ontario Regional Group of Cataloguers and the Cataloguing Section of the Canadian Library Association. The moderator was David Foley, University of Manitoba, and participants were Kathe Albu, Provincial Library, Regina; Ruth Kraulis, North York Public Library; and Albert Bowron, Toronto Public Library. Miss Albu described the centralized cataloging done at her library; they seldom see the books and do no book processing. Mr. Bowron described European processing centers and outlined a proposal for a regional centre. Mrs.
Kraulis cautioned that cost studies be made before assuming that centralized cataloging is the answer in a metropolitan area.

The Resources and Technical Services Section of the Connecticut Library Association at its meeting in May heard John Peckham, Meriden Gravure Company, outline briefly the history of printing in the western world, illustrate three types of printing, and talk on the work of his firm.

The Southern California Technical Processes Group met in June. Martha Boaz, University of Southern California, explained the public library development program and urged support for state aid. Melvin Voigt, University of California, La Jolla, described the development of and cooperation between the libraries of the various campuses of the University of California and specifically some of the ideas being used at his library.

**IN THE MAIL**

**DURABILITY OF CATALOG CARDS**

The review of *The Permanence and Durability of Library Catalog Cards* (LRTS, Summer 1962) has raised a number of issues which require clarification. Professor Shoemaker lists two conclusions of this study which, according to his view, are self-evident. One of these was the statement that: "100 per cent cotton rag stock may be less durable than strong chemical wood fibers, if the rag stock has a low pH." While it is true that this might have been predicted on the basis of previous knowledge, it is also true that prior to August 1960, no such strong chemical wood fiber stock as that tested in this program had ever been manufactured. Inasmuch as high rag content stock has long been considered the most durable type of paper for archival record purposes as well as for catalog card use, Mr. Barrow and the Library Technology Project would have been remiss indeed if the report had only stated that no comparative evaluation of strong chemical wood fiber stock and 100 per cent cotton rag stocks had been made because the results were self-evident.

Professor Shoemaker also believes it is self-evident that "cards of less strength may be used in a catalog having moderate, not heavy use." Standing alone this does indeed appear to be a weak conclusion, but the reviewer fails to point out that it is merely an introductory sentence to a specific recommendation which reads "It is tentatively recommended that such a stock should have a folding endurance of 500 folds in the diagonal direction and a tear resistance of 200 grams or more in the weakest direction."

In response to the reviewer's objection that the study did not discuss the soiling of catalog cards, which seems to him to be "the major cause of the necessity for replacement," it need only be pointed out here that the study was not addressed to the causes for which catalog cards were replaced, but rather to the task of evaluating those factors which can be used to determine the durability and permanence of catalog cards. Soiling per se is not one of those factors. It is certainly a problem for the librarian, but the statement that soiling is the major problem is open to serious question.

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The further objection of the reviewer to the testing of "many, many" samples is, to say the least, unusual, since the reason for this is obvious and was clearly stated on page 3 of the report: "The primary purpose of this testing program was to evaluate the durability and potential permanence of card stocks currently available and used in libraries." Had Mr. Barrow been satisfied with testing only one or two samples of currently available card stocks the results would certainly have been suspect. The wide range of variation in the initial strengths of 100% rag-stock cards, as shown by Table 6 of the report, is justification enough, if more justification were needed, of the need for a comprehensive testing of all the card stocks available. If I interpret Professor Shoemaker correctly, he objects primarily to the fact that Mr. Barrow made a pH determination on each sample. Since it is standard testing practice to treat all samples precisely alike, it is difficult to understand why this was so objectionable.

One criticism, the failure of this study to identify the manufacturer of the samples, does perhaps require some explanation. Current specifications for catalog card stock are not directly related to performance, and tests based on these specifications would have provided no indication of either the initial strength or the degree of permanence which might be expected from a given stock. This evaluation, which was based on Mr. Barrow's work in connection with permanent/durable paper, established a totally new procedure for testing the actual performance of card stocks. Inasmuch, however, as no paper mill or card stock supplier had previously had his product tested in this manner it was decided, in order to be as fair as possible to all concerned, not to reveal the identity of the samples tested in this first program. (Recently LTP has had all commonly available card stocks re-evaluated. The results are available upon request.)

Professor Shoemaker's final statement—that the conclusions of this study were quite well known before it was made, is contrary to the facts. The truth is that almost nothing was known about the actual initial strengths and comparative durabilities of the various card stocks in use today. Few librarians would have suspected for example, that the performance of some 100% rag stocks is well below that of some 50% rag stocks. Strong chemical wood fiber stocks are completely new and, prior to 1960, were untried and untested. There was certainly no basis on which a valid statement of the performance of such stocks could have been made before this testing program was conducted.

Some of the later benefits of this program are also worth noting here. First, there has been an increasing acceptance of strong chemical wood fiber stocks for those purposes in which the initial strength and greater durability of the best 100% rag stock are not required. The result has been a substantial saving to librarians in actual dollars spent for catalog cards. Second, there has been an apparent improvement in all catalog card stocks as revealed by a second series of tests conducted a year after the first program was completed. These tests show substantial increases in the initial strength of many card stocks. Third, as a result of this testing program, the subcommittee on library supplies of ASA Sectional Committee Z85 has made good progress in developing performance standards for catalog card stocks.—Frazer G. Poole, Director, Library Technology Project, American Library Association.

REVIEWER'S RESPONSE

The Editor has kindly let me have a copy of Mr. Poole's objections to my review and allowed me some space for a reply.

As to the first objection, it seems to me that rag stock with a low pH...
could not be other than weaker than wood fibers with a high pH, given the knowledge we have of the effect of acidity on the durability of papers. But Mr. Poole is right that this should have been tested, as it was. The tests confirmed the belief that rag stock is best, but it must be rag stock with a high pH.

I'm afraid I must still insist that soiling is a part of durability and permanence. The review was written from the point of view of the consumer of catalog card stock, which is perhaps too practical a viewpoint. If a card must be replaced, it is neither permanent nor durable, so far as usefulness in the catalog is concerned, even though engraved on stainless steel.

I had no objection in the review to the testing of many samples of cards currently available and in use in libraries. What I objected to was that these samples were not identified by brand name, and I'm afraid Mr. Poole's explanation of why the names were not published simply reinforces my objection. Why publish all this if the identities are unknown to the reader? There is also the somewhat questionable practice of identifying one brand, on page seven of the report, leaving the impression that all others are in the "Brand X" category. Even now it appears that the Library Technology Project will make the information available only on request. Why the secrecy, now that the card stocks have been re-tested?

Finally, Mr. Poole has said nothing about my major objection to this publication, which is its form. The usual method of publishing research so that the library world will have it readily accessible at low cost is to put it in a journal, not in a pamphlet of 48 pages, of which 23 are blank or contain only a word or two.—Richard H. Shoemaker, Professor of Library Service, Rutgers—The State University, New Brunswick, N. J.

RESOURCES AND TECHNICAL SERVICES DIVISION NOMINEES
1962-63

Resources and Technical Services Division

For Vice-President (President-elect):
Paul S. Dunkin, Graduate School of Library Science, Rutgers University, New Brunswick, N. J.
Carlyle J. Frarey, School of Library Science, University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill, N. C.

For Chairman, Council of Regional Groups:
Doris Ransom, University of Cincinnati Library, Cincinnati, Ohio
Claribel Sommerville, Des Moines Public Library, Des Moines, Iowa

Acquisitions Section

For Vice-Chairman (Chairman-elect):
Alice D. Ball, U. S. Book Exchange, Washington, D. C.
Hazel De Meyer, Western Michigan University, Kalamazoo, Mich.

For Member-at-large:—three-year term:
Alfred H. Lane, Columbia University, New York, N. Y.
Gerard D. McCabe, University of Southern Florida, Tampa, Fla.
Cataloging and Classification Section

For Vice-Chairman (Chairman-elect):
- Jennette E. Hitchcock, Stanford University Libraries, Stanford, Calif.
- Edith Scott, University of Oklahoma Library, Norman, Oklahoma

For Members-at-large (three-year term) (One to be elected from each bracket)
- Pauline A. Atherton, American Institute of Physics, Documentation Research Project, New York, N. Y.
- Katherine C. Cook, Cleveland Public Library, Cleveland, Ohio
- Carl R. Cox, University of Maryland Library, College Park, Maryland
- Richard O. Pautzsch, Brooklyn Public Library, Brooklyn, N. Y.

Copying Methods Section

For Chairman (1963-64)
- Joseph S. Komidar, Tufts University, Medford, Mass.

For Vice-Chairman (Chairman-elect)
- Peter Scott, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Cambridge, Mass.

Serials Section

Vice-Chairman (Chairman-elect):
- Carol Raney, Yale University Library, New Haven, Conn.
- Donald Hammer, Purdue University Library, Lafayette, Ind.

Member-at-large (three-year term)
- Robert Cayton, University of Cincinnati Library, Cincinnati, Ohio
- Edward Graham Roberts, Gilbert Library, Georgia Institute of Technology, Atlanta, Ga.

Member-at-large (two-year term):
- La Nelle Vandiver, University of Tennessee Library, Knoxville, Tenn.
- Robert Lorenson, Indiana State College, Terre Haute, Ind.
Margaret Mann has defined the unit card as one "which, when duplicated without change of form, can serve not only as an author card, but also as a subject, title, or added entry card."  

Is it a mere quibble to claim that she has described a nonexistent fact? Surely, the unit changes form if we must superimpose a new top line for every card in the set except one—and sometimes for that one also if, for example, authorship is discovered or revised.

To this there are quick answers: By "form" we mean the main body of the card. Merely adding a top line does not alter this constant. In fact, the "additional" lines are derived from the body of the card only. Under present rules we are even spared finding birth or death dates unless we have an embarrassing conflict.

True, there is inconvenience and expense in retyping a set even partially, but this is infinitely easier than preparing a different form of card for each kind of entry, as was done in the manuscript card era. Furthermore, we well know we should be looking for some method to eliminate the retyping of unit cards. The CLR has concerned itself with a photographic solution and, of course, the H. W. Wilson Company can supply public and school libraries with a completely pre-printed set of unit cards for many books. Perhaps L.C. should follow Wilson on a grander scale. Anyhow, how can a main entry card at the same time be an added entry card?

Admitting all this, let us agree for argument's sake that here is at least a matter of principle, academically sterile as it may appear, and see where our discussion may lead.

Is it not, to start with, a strange practice to redo manually a basic unit already containing all the information required for its multiple application? If only as an intellectual challenge, are we not professionally obliged to seek a truly unitary card?

What feasible solutions, then, can be advanced to this problem of one card to provide all the cataloger's rubrics: author, title, subject, series, editor, etc.? It is, surprisingly, not difficult to imagine many kinds of true unit cards although they may, unfortunately, be more ingenious than practical. We can, as an example, put on one card, sense-marked or perforated or edge-notched, all the descriptive, classification, and subject data.
for a work and by mechanical or electric sorting recover that card, or any group of related cards, according to author or title or subject heading or date or color of binding or combination of these factors. (This simple prototype can be seen elaborated in complex electronic storage and retrieval systems such as the automated bibliographic service of ASTIA.\textsuperscript{2} Here all our cards have been transmogrified into tape.)

Regrettably such a true unit card is unsuitable for our present card catalogs. Perhaps one card per book would suffice, but the cards themselves are not disposed for eye-thumb search. Such a system, with push button controls for the patron, might replace our existing catalogs, but it fails to answer our more modest need for a true unit card in today’s card files.

There are, though, other possibilities.

Unit cards could be printed in perforated sections (author on one strip, title on another, etc.) so that by repositioning and repasting, we could have the desired portion on top. Or we might be sent a photographic negative of the card to be reproduced by a special photo-printer after we apply a masking frame to expose the sections in any desired order. Estimable gimmicks, perhaps, but in the present state of library technology they, and many similar, would be exceedingly more costly and time-consuming than a clerk depressing the keys of a primitive electric typewriter.

But there is a startlingly simple, uncomplicated other possibility. Why not underline that section of the text which is to be the filing medium? Nothing would be easier for the cataloger and we would have a card agreeing with Miss Mann’s description and without our redoing L.C. cards as now mailed to our libraries. (Admittedly, even underlining changes the form of the original in some way, but how much less of a change it is! All copies of a card would be \textit{typographically identical}.)

This must sound very familiar, since the logic of underlining has been long recognized, as in the old-time rules for converting L.C. cards into analytics: “The heading for the analytic must be typed on the card. The corresponding item in the body of the card is then underscored and a diagonal is drawn between it and the heading.”\textsuperscript{3} Since the heading is still to be used, logic evidently had to yield to patron convenience.

Underscoring without typed headings is now in use for some of the books at the University of Kansas libraries where there is a system of “rubrication . . . the underlining with a red ball-point pen of filing entries on the tracing position on standard printed catalog cards, together with a red diagonal line from the upper left corner to catch and lead the eye downward.”\textsuperscript{4} The diagonal connects the tracing and the call number.

Earl Farley has qualified “rubrication” as primarily an emergency measure to process without additional personnel a backlog of printed cards. Admitted inconvenience to the user is outweighed by the speeding of cards to the catalog. Mr. Farley has commented further that this policy was feasible because “. . . unlike the public library with numerous branches, we usually had one or two branches at most for a particular
title, and those frequently at different times. Because of the latter condition, we could not print each subject heading with a different offset plate. These “rubricated” cards work best in a catalog which already has cards with subject headings or which is supplied with new raised guide cards.

A somewhat similar practice was in effect at our State Department Library in Washington for about five years until 1954. The tracings were not underlined but checked, and guide cards were extensively used, a new guide card prepared for every new subject. Arthur B. Berthold reports that the system was abandoned because it was infeasible for a dictionary card catalog with its mixture of subject headings and added entries. “It works very well in a catalog... by subject. In a general dictionary catalog... it tends to require more concentration on the part of the public than it is accustomed to give a card catalog.” The State Department scheme thus seems best suited to the divided catalog of a fairly large special library. Having to type guide cards, even once for a subject, adds a degree of duplication, though much less than in overtyping all cards with subject headings. (An Australian librarian has suggested a plan not basically different from our State Department’s and apparently open to the same objections: typed subject guide cards in front of which would be filed the subject cards with their blank top sections guillotined off.)

Unhappily, the simple solution of underlining or checking is vitiated for most medium-to-large collections with dictionary catalogs by a simple objection: impracticality. When a patron thumbs through dozens, perhaps hundreds of cards in the tray, his eye lights instantaneously on the top line. He could, of course, lacking guide cards for the headings, scan the entire card to detect the telltale underlining (perhaps even finding it on the bottom of an extension card) but the speed of visual, i.e., thumb and eye, search would be aggravatingly slowed. Nor is the eyestrain a secondary factor. Such a solution does not accord with good graphic design.

It appears, therefore, that our unit card top line is an essential guide, an organizing and finding medium which may not create new information but does something equally important: makes the old usable.

The ALA definition of the unit card stresses the mechanical consequences of this function: “A basic catalog card... which when duplicated may be used... for all entries... by the addition of the appropriate heading.” But does this not, rather than end our search for the ideal, give an invaluable clue to its form? Should we not now be devising a method by which all the findings—or filing—media could be placed simultaneously on the top line?

An interesting local instance of this idea has been recently reported by Loretta J. Kiersky and F. E. McKenna in whose special library the catalog cards are prepared at one typing by listing all headings at the top of the master and, when the card is reproduced, stamping a small red arrow to the left of the file headings on the copies. As with the University of Kansas “rubrication,” which Mr. Farley credits to Miss Kiersky’s inspiration, the prime motive of this innovation was economy: “... only
one typing and one proof-reading are required to obtain any number of
catalog cards..."11

Surely it is unfair to criticize something for not achieving what was
not intended. The card illustrated in Miss Kiersky's article has at its top
two columns of two and three short headings respectively. Of these five
headings, four duplicate data in the body of the card. Moreover, the
terseness and simplicity of these headings and that of the card text are
admirably suited to the codified language of the technician. Their ap-
pliability to the humanities and social sciences is perhaps limited. Nor
does the sample card show clearly or quickly the nature of the heading:
author, title, subject. Nevertheless, here is unmistakably a step forward
and one not to be ignored.

Perhaps different short-cut unit cards are lurking in the professional
literature or not recorded at all.

But it would be misleading to imply that a new unit card is here be-
ing advocated at worst out of whimsey and at best to save processing
time and clerical expense. Whimsey can be irresponsible and drift
illusory. The true unit card cannot be designed as long as economy—no
matter how desirable—rather than semantic method remains the govern-
ing principle. If one rash and sweeping criticism is to be made of present-
day catalogs, it is that the patron does not understand how to read them
and most often through no fault of his own. The tracings must be as in-
comprehensible to him as the fine print on insurance policies, perhaps even
more so because tracings are not related directly to any other part includ-
ing the headings. (The old-time underlined analytic at least showed a
relationship.) Or is the patron to ignore the tracings as private doodlings
on a public record? If so, a valuable instructional opportunity is wasted
and confusion substituted. Title, author, and subject headings for a single
work can pile up bewilderment if each happens to be a personal name.
When analytics are involved, the mystery can turn insoluble.

As in so many other branches of public and group service, a funda-
mental methodological error is constantly perpetrated: signs, explanations,
directions, and systems are not designed for the first-time, sometimes the
only-time, user. Even a veteran patron will be a first-time or only-time
user of some part of the whole. And what can our bibliographic abbrevi-
atations, contractions, and conventions signify to the non-librarian patron,
professorial as he may be: augm.—n.p.—ports.—cover title.—fold. front.? Why
are titles written like sentences? (How many bibliographies have li-
brarians seen in which the capitalization of titles is that of the catalog
card?) Why don't all headings have periods? Why are some added entries
not subjects? Why are some headings in red or in upper-case letters? What
can our patrons make of those midget brackets without which we cata-
logers' guilt feelings would become insupportable? If catalog cards are
confidential documents, why expose them to the public?

A true unit card has to make its most important contribution educa-
tionally, revealing at a glance a clear network of relationships; a family
tree of knowledge. This schematic role is its theoretic raison d'être. The
true unit card must be a logical product if at all possible, but first and last it must be an effective means of communication.

How can we approach this goal? We can begin by agreeing that we never want on the top line any portion of the text which will not be used as a filing medium or entry heading. This portion of the description can, therefore, be immobilized below the top line. None of it will ever appear elsewhere on the card.

This fixed data concept is simple but essential. It differs from "basic" data. A European librarian has, for example, argued that international cataloging will become possible only when printed cards are limited to the book's basic description and each librarian left to choose his own rubrication system. However useful, this would not be a true unit card. A basic printed card would retain much to be duplicated in rubrication: title, author, series, etc. Nor is it likely that a true unit card is to be attained within the old format.\footnote{12}

The data other than fixed, which we call the main and added entries and which are means of bibliographical access as well as filing media, must be placed in the most accessible position on our card, i.e., the top line preferably. Could not these headings—note the literal denotation—such as author, title, subject(s), even series if necessary, be identified and arrayed in a set order on a horizontal plane yet in sufficiently detached blocks to be distinguished easily?

As can be seen, even the sides might be utilized for non-fixed data.

The block identifying our individual unit card could be checked or circled or underlined or in any way marked for the eye. It would be made clear (perhaps by a printed note on the unit card or by information guide cards in the catalog) that there are for this work additional unit cards in

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the catalog under the unmarked headings—unless the heading is cancelled or crossed out. (Preferably not effaced since even an unused entry may be informative to the reader.) To complete the prescription, nothing on the card would appear more than once, all copies of a card would be textually identical, and all language and symbols would be rigorously screened for intelligibility to the first-time layman user.

All kinds of practical difficulties immediately arise: type size versus the limited 3x5 space; the relative visual importance of the central top block versus the left and right blocks, and of all these top rank blocks versus the side blocks if they are to be used. Not least of the difficulties would be opposition to any such novelty in a long-established tradition even though the changed format is intrinsically compatible with that of existing catalog cards. It would be an immensely less compatible physical change only to place the hole at the top instead of at the bottom of our 3x5 cards. And as for squeezing all the data on a 3x5 card and still leaving margins, we know that a famous library expert has deliberated a return to the old half-sized cards.¹³ Not repeating items would help; so would eliminating some. If our basic concept were acceptable, most difficulties would become technical details to be worked out.

Once agreed that redesign may bring us a true unit card, there is no reason to confine ourselves in advance to any specific layout. Any number of text block configurations can be created in the hope that one may in practice prove ideal. (Much might be learned from multi-purpose business forms.) Perhaps more than one format might be used depending on the type of book. We may be able to make other areas of the card as prominent as the top.

We could end up, after all our redesigning, with only a 99-and-44/100%-pure unit card since we might still be making changes, though merely a set of check marks or our call number, after the cards arrive in the library. Though we would not achieve our abstract goal of one card per book, we would indubitably be closer to Miss Mann's "card duplicated without change of form." The important point, in any case, is not the mechanics of duplication but the adequacy with which our unit card fulfills its semantic function.

Librarians may rightly protest that so unorthodox a standard format could completely prevent making one's own cards though large college and research libraries could continue their format for all works or for
those unavailable on the new cards. But is it not true that inevitably we are moving towards cooperative-centralized cataloging for even the most special items, and it is preeminently a centralized-cooperative agency which is suited to plan, print, and distribute a new unit card? At a time when American library science is grappling conscientiously with the problem of fantastically proliferating information, we should not hesitate to search for practical methods of control, no matter how strange they may at first appear, as long as they rest on sound and consistent principles. The unit card as a means of bibliographic organization and control becomes more significant as suspicion grows that classified arrangement of books on shelves is losing its usefulness.\textsuperscript{14} Certainly an approach to a true unit card, not necessarily in any of the forms suggested here, is as worthy of institutional support as other desirable efforts to find a speedy and economic way of reproducing what is not an authentic unit card, efforts which may only perpetuate a misdirection.

Twenty years ago Margaret Mann was quoting a statement of Charles Martel made almost twenty years before that: “The most wanted labor-saving device in the business of making catalogs has not yet been found... a relatively cheap process of reproduction... When we have that process, one of the most serious problems will have been solved.”\textsuperscript{15} If we are even now concerned with that problem, should we not, like the experimental scientist, begin to wonder if our answer may not be satisfactory because we are not asking the right question? After a true unit card were developed and eventually accepted—no mean prospect!—we would no doubt realize many savings in processing time and expense but, more significant, we would be reaffirming our professional duty to create and maintain an effective means of access for the reader to the corpus of accumulated knowledge of which we librarians are the custodians and sometimes perforce the only interpreters. The unit card may in the future disappear, but for the present it is our responsibility. The patron reading a true unit card would at once see and understand clearly the significance of the individual work or group of works in all the coordinate aspects of its nature as presented for him in precise graphic form. Nothing less than a radical redesign based on a thoroughly reappraisal of the unit card’s role can bring us closer to this ideal.

\textbf{REFERENCES}

5. Letter from Mr. Farley to writer.
6. Farley, op. cit.
7. Letter from Mr. Berthold to writer.
   Rider, op. cit. ("Alternatives . . ."), p. 150-52.

**EDITOR RECOMMENDS:**


Reports on close work between these two universities, just 9 miles apart but in different states.

**EDITOR RECOMMENDS:**


An important statement on the role of the Library of Congress in relation to other government agencies and to librarianship.

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*Library Resources & Technical Services*
I must admit to a considerable degree of diffidence in dealing with the subject of classification systems. I am not sure whether this diffidence stems from wisdom about classification systems or ignorance about them or, simply, just plain prejudice. In my travels around the world, I have evolved a law of librarianship that says that the degree of interest in classification systems is inversely proportional to the state of development of librarianship and bibliography in the area. It is not surprising, under this "law," that in the newly-evolving field of documentation, where ontogeny is recapitulating phylogeny, there is great interest in this field.

Having provided this caveat, I should now suggest that there are several ways of looking at classification systems. They can be divided first into universal as against specialized schemes. It is obviously much more difficult to provide a classification system that will cover all subjects for all times and places and will provide hospitality for all time for inclusion of new subdivisions of subjects as well as for deletion of entries we thought were subjects but turn out not to be. It is not very difficult to provide a good classification or coding scheme for the parts in a particular storeroom as is done by Mr. Brisch, or for the research projects currently in hand in a particular location as is commonly done by Calvin Mooers. In this latter case, the universe is finite and we need only satisfy the need for handling the recognized parts of a system of knowledge that is our concern for a given time. It is understood that if conditions change, a new classification scheme may be necessary. It is understood that if the field broadens, it may be necessary to recast the classification scheme. This discreet and useful job can be done and can satisfy requirements with a relatively low level of sophistication on the part of the classifier. It is, therefore, rarely treated in the "scholarly" disquisitions in the documentation literature. Nevertheless it serves a useful purpose.

A second approach to the recognition of types of classification systems is to divide them into hierarchical as against synthetic schemes. The hierarchical scheme as represented by the Dewey Decimal Classification or the Library of Congress Classification catalogs knowledge in advance and arranges it in some sort of alleged order which is frequently alleged
to be logical by its proponents and has problems of hospitality in provision for new classes and subclasses. The synthetic scheme attempts to avoid this problem by providing some simples which can be combined in various forms to create concepts of varying degrees of complexity. This latter is exemplified by the Ranganathan Colon Classification and by Mortimer Taube's original version of coordinate indexing.

Unfortunately, this is an oversimplification because it is almost impossible to find a system that is either completely hierarchical or completely synthetic and almost any of the hierarchical schemes, including even the simple Dewey Decimal Classification, have synthetic numbers such as form numbers which can be applied to any point in the hierarchical structure. Similarly, systems of simples which can be added, subtracted, multiplied and divided, in theory, to create ideas of any degree of complexity do have structured orders and must have structured orders of arrangement of these simple concepts and therefore do become hierarchical in a sense at least. So, for example, we find the Universal Decimal Classification System which is an offshoot of Dewey can by means of colons, dashes, quotation marks, etc., combine any number of the collections of symbols that normally represent hierarchical arrangement into patterns of more and more complex and detailed description of a document. And similarly, we have systems such as Perry's Abstraction Ladders which, while intended to permit machine searching on any one of the levels of complexity, really turn into just as rigid a hierarchical scheme as does Dewey, Universal Decimal Classification, or the Library of Congress Classification.

It would appear therefore that instead of just slicing this in two pairs of ways as indicated above, each of these may be resliced in a number of additional ways so that inevitably there are many pieces of this slippery banana peel lying around to trip up the unwary.

This is all complicated still further by the common confusion that exists between what is called classification and what might more properly be called notation schemes. The literature on the "newer" classification approaches is full of castigation of the alphabetic index as something that is good for small popular libraries but is not good for scientists and just "ain't" scholarly. There are many people who are convinced that because we express a concept in decimal notation it becomes logical and scholarly, whereas if we express it in words that any laymen can understand, it is popular and unscholarly. It is doubtful that there is anything that can be written in any one notation scheme that cannot equally effectively be written in another notation scheme. One of the exercises to which I subject my students, is that of writing the letters "A, B, C, D, E," on the board and asking them what the arrangement of the letters is on the board. We get, invariably, quick and easy agreement that this is alphabetic arrangement. I then put next to each letter an equal sign and next to "A" I write "1.1," and next to "B" I write "1.2," and next to "C" I write "1.3," and next to "D" I write "1.4," and next to "E" I write "1.5." I then ask the class what the arrangement of these decimal notation units
is and invariably we get into an argument about whether this is alphabetical arrangement or whether it is classified arrangement with a good many in the class believing that this is classified arrangement because it has a decimal notation instead of the letters for which they stand. Certainly, if this arranges material in alphabetical order, it is alphabetical arrangement whether we use the letter “A” or the notation “1.1” for the letter “A”. This confusion is not confined to beginners in library schools.

Another exercise is asking the class to find a purely alphabetically-arranged bibliography other than a brief popular library list. To date, except for the short one or two page library reading lists which are not properly termed bibliographies in this sense, no one has yet found for me a subject bibliography which does not have some form of hierarchical subdivision among its entries.

This, as I have suggested above, might be a slightly jaundiced view of our exercises in classification.

If synthetic classifications have any basis, it rests in the fact that different people need to have the same materials, or some of the same materials plus some other materials, regrouped for their own purposes in a different manner than they find it grouped in its original state, whether that be the state of lying in a heap or in the state of classified arrangement in an abstracting journal, a bibliography, or other source. This is the most common of needs in utilization of materials. Everyone of us who has ever used literature to write a book or an article or even to get a comprehensive understanding of the literature has had to make notes and then recast the notes into the order in which he needs them for the purposes for which he is going to use them. This is a classifying or grouping process. Our needs differ from situation to situation and from task to task as well as from person to person and from place to place. We thus need to be able to recast classifications or arrangements of materials into new forms for our particular needs. A good example of this is the Bibliography of Agriculture. Because of the size of the Bibliography it has not been feasible to list each entry under each of the topics to which it may properly apply. In this case, taking the subject of silviculture for example, we have to decide whether to put it under Plant Science or under Forestry. Whichever we choose, the people in the other discipline who need silviculture as a part of their normal day-to-day information requirement must remember to look in a second or third or fourth or fifth place. They would like it better if they didn’t have to. Each one of us needs knowledge grouped into a particular pattern for a particular purpose at a particular time and may need the same information regrouped into a different pattern for a different purpose at another time. Our point of view determines the level in the hierarchy at which each one of these things should be placed for our particular purpose. Thus it is reasonable, from the point of view of the Forest Service to consider Autogyros as a topic that forms a subdivision of the topic Forest Fire Fighting which in turn is a subdivision of Forest Maintenance, which in turn is a sub-

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division of a broader field of Forestry. It would not be reasonable to expect the autogyro manufacturer to be happy with that classification scheme. To him, the apex of the pyramid is the autogyro and the use of the autogyro for forest fire fighting, logically and naturally, becomes a subdivision of the heading Uses, under the main heading Autogyros. Now it would be very nice and really quite useful, if we could automatically recast each of these hierarchical pyramids to bring it into conformity with the needs of the person who is using the material, from the point of view from which he needs to use it. To do that by a normal hierarchical classification scheme would require that the classification scheme be made bulkier and that all these interrelationships be shown. I do not believe that anybody has actually done careful flow process charting and costing of this operation to determine whether or not it is feasible. We have a good many statements in the literature that say that it would not be feasible, but they do not say under what conditions it would not be feasible or under what conditions it might possibly be feasible. We are thus encouraged to substitute manual or machine manipulation of simple concepts, recasting them or casting them up into the hierarchical pyramid needed for each individual situation as an alternative to what, by allegation, has been proven to be impossible or uneconomical if done in the usual pre-printed fixed arrays of the same materials in all the same relationships. Whichever of these points of view is right, it is certainly right that in order for information to be of maximum use to any individual person for his particular need of the moment, he must be able to get it recast into the form that appears most suitable at that instant, whether he does it by repetitious printing in a book or by manipulation to create the arrangements anew.

This subject brings to mind my old chemistry professor, Dr. Tower. One of the most interesting things he ever said to us, in our elementary chemistry class, was that since time began people have been looking for a universal solvent but no one ever stops to think of what he would keep it in if he found it. I think there is a little of this in the desire to find quick and easy and automatic approaches to recasting of materials into new forms so that you would have it easily and conveniently without having to do any work. I’m not sure how much would be lost in this process since we don’t know how serendipity works or to what extent feedback from what would appear to someone else to be unrelated material may help in creating not only the arrangement of knowledge but the arrangement of ideas that results in the creation of new knowledge in the mind of the creative researcher.

On the other hand, it must be pointed out that any hierarchical system that attempts to anticipate all the possible rearrangements and subordinations and relationships of subjects really is attempting to determine the answers to all questions of science before we can ask the questions. After all, the creative part of research appears to be, in large measure, the ability of a research man to take a miscellaneous group of data and to recast it, i.e. reclassify it in his own mind so as

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to give it new meaning. This is something that only a small percentage of the people who dabble in science or in research in the field of literature ever succeed in doing, and it is really pretty close to the essence of creative work and research. If we can assume that it is possible to prepare a hierarchical scheme that has all the possible relationships of all the possible things that have not yet been thought of built into it, then it would seem that this would be a very cheap and simple substitute for research and, of course, we would not only not need research but we wouldn't need literature and we certainly wouldn't need classification schemes for it because we wouldn't need libraries because we would know everything.

The only way that I have felt that I, for one, have been able to get out of this never-never world with enough sanity to attempt creative work is by putting all this into perspective. In the first place, there is no evidence that the best single classification system, whatever that may mean, is any better than the worst single classification system, whatever that may mean, for all sizes of Universe and all types of materials. The only reasonably good studies that we have had on comparison of classification schemes, including the so-called alphabetical arrangement of subjects (with classificatory subarrangement within the alphabet) as well as Colon Classification, Universal Decimal Classification, etc., have not indicated any great difference in the amount of material retrievable or the speed or ease or cost or time of retrieval between one system and another. There is also considerable evidence that can be obtained from any one of us who have actually supervised classification programs that a much greater difference may be caused by the quality of supervision and the training of the group doing the classification than there is in the classification system itself. By this I mean, it may be more important to provide training and supervision so that we get reasonably uniform application of the system and that a high degree of uniformity of application of the scheme may be more important in ability to retrieve material than is the nature of the scheme itself. Certainly the most ideal scheme we could postulate that was applied by whim would be the same as the most intricate scheme applied by whim because each application would duplicate the theoretical work that went into designing the scheme.

Also, when we are thinking in terms of machining, the machine is not concerned with the meaning of the symbols that it handles. The primary requirement for machineability of a scheme is compatibility of the scheme with the machine's system and its suitability for machining. By this definition any scheme that achieves the same purpose with brief notations is much better for computer or punched card application than is one that uses longer symbols or words. This is simply a function of the limited capacity of punched cards or the limited internal storage capacity of the computer. Since any allegedly lovely logic of arrangement of the symbols means nothing to the computer or to the punched card machine or to the notches on a notched card—for obviously all that the machine does is match notches or no notches, holes or no holes, bits or
no bits, regardless of which scheme or machine we use—the important thing in talking to the machine is to make our words short enough so that the machine can cope with them without unnecessary overloading of the mechanism.

To bring this into perspective I should like to recite two experiences in the application of classification or coding schemes. One cannot be documented in detail because of the nature of the organization but the other will soon be published. In the former case I took more than 100 documents that had been classified by analysts of subject competence and experience and returned the same documents in clean copy to the analysts who had classified them before for classification. In not a single case did we get identical classification for the same document. The same type of experiment was repeated by Dr. Isaac Welt in the preparation of his cardiovascular bibliography, and with the same results. It does seem a little absurd to worry about carrying out a theoretical classification scheme to the ultimate subdivision when we cannot be sure that well-trained people who are competent in the subject field and who know the classification scheme and who have been applying it for some time will apply even the major subdivisions uniformly.

On the retrieval side a similar experiment submitted a large number of questions to the reference librarians who had encoded the questions for machine search, and again we found that they did not come up with identical coding for search each time they prepared a search for the same question using the same classification scheme.

This indicates to me that a more pragmatic approach to classification is required than that proposed by its enthusiasts and by the sophisticated developers of schemes that are supposed to do our thinking for us.

In this respect I would point out that while library book classification is supposed to be the application of a number to locate a physical object rather than ideas, and bibliographic classification is supposed to be a system for bringing out the ideas in publications, in both cases they simply locate a specific bit of text in a specific location and that their major function is primarily that of letting us return to something we have recorded as allegedly saying something about the subject we are looking for. When we blow them up beyond this level I don't think we are fooling the machines and I don't think we are fooling the systems, I think we are fooling ourselves.

For many reasons people want fancy classification schemes. If these are defined carefully and applied uniformly they don't do much harm. I have yet to see any case in which per se they do much good. However, since the enthusiasm of users of systems in this field demands "super-classification" schemes, I suspect that we may as well learn to live with them without letting them interfere too much with our basic function which is the storage, processing, retrieval, and delivery, of information in recorded form.
REVIEWS

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


“What, another Classification. Why?” Mr. Rider himself asks his reader's groaning question in the very first paragraph of his book. The answer is an “Introduction”, simple, vigorous, readable, which is itself a notable contribution to the literature of classification.

First of all, he insists that his scheme is not to be used for reclassifying: “very seldom indeed . . . is the reclassification of a library worth what it costs”. Rather, he hopes to interest “brand new libraries” or old libraries with “no classification at all” or old libraries which may wish to keep their “classificational status quo; but, as of a certain date, to classify their new acquisitions ‘Internationally’” (p. xi). Forcefully he sets forth the (sometimes forgotten) difference between library classification and bibliographical classification, and he insists that his is a library classification “intended to place in a practicable retrievable order the hundreds of thousands of books standing on the shelves of a general library” (p. xi). Such a classification must have a “short, simple, and ‘pure’ symbolization” (p. xii). Confusion between the two kinds of classification, he suggests, brought on the “Mediaeval Period of Dewey” and “a veritable rash of expansions in many of its schedules”, an expansionism from which Dewey 16 has retreated (p. xiv).

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“Melvil Dewey did not invent book classification” (p. xvi); and Mr. Rider calls attention again to some of the flaws in the Master's work—such things as inevitable obsolescence, emphasis on the United States, and the Protestant Anglo-Saxon bias to which “Mr. Benjamin Custer, in his excellent Introduction” to Dewey 16, calls attention (p. xix). Chief, perhaps, is “the problem of ‘Divide-Likes’” and the resulting “inordinately lengthy numbers . . . due to nothing but a grave lack of discrimination on the part of librarians” who (in spite of Dewey 16's “sound directive” not to do so) “make their ‘divide-likes’ just as long as their edition of Dewey . . . provides them the data for” (p. xxi).

Mr. Rider insists these faults are true no only of Dewey. Cutter also is obsolete; LC is “far more slanted than Dewey”; and in “divide-like” devices “Bliss offers a complexity beside which Dewey is simplicity personified” (p. xxiii).

Mr. Rider, like Dewey, insists on “purity” of notation. He urges that “purity” is necessary for ease of inter-shelving books. “One cannot help but feel a little sympathy for the library assistant who has to file a book with a [Ranganathan] backbone label L: 4: 7m73: M88 between” books with other similar labels (p. xxiv).

In the International Classification each call number is exactly three letters long. This gives a much larger permutable base ($26 \times 26 \times 26 = $
than would a four figure number (10 \times 10 \times 10 = 10,000) and will, he estimates, take care of a library of a million volumes as opposed to three-quarters of a million for four-figure numbers (p. xxviii). Although no more than three letters are provided for any one call number, an individual library may, of course, expand any heading it wishes simply by adding another letter.

Mr. Rider’s scheme meets the “divide-like” problem head on by providing in its tables no “divide-likes” whatever” (p. xxii). Geographical subdivision, when necessary, is an integral part of the tables. This, he feels, lightens the load of the classifier and shortens the call numbers.

On the whole, the sequence of broad subjects (and often, indeed, the initial letters) in the Rider system is close to that of Cutter and/or LC. In detail, individual subject areas now and then come close to Dewey. Relative importance is assigned to various countries, not on the basis of power or size but, simply on the basis of printed matter published or apt to be published by, or about, them. The same principle holds for religions. Local history and geography are combined. A few specific areas are noted below.

Although A, as in LC is a “Generalia” class, it begins with Book Arts, Bibliography, Libraries, and Rare Books, and only then gets to General Cyclopedia and the rest—that is, it looks in general like an LC-A preceded by an LC-Z; or like a Dewey 000 with the parts somewhat switched around. Subject Bibliography is scattered throughout the classification scheme.

Individual languages (X) are close to literature (Y. Literature. Europe. and Z. Literature. Rest of the World.) This, of course, differs from the separation of Dewey 400 and Dewey 800; on the other hand, as with LC, it separates individual languages from the corresponding literature—e.g., XB, English

Language and YB-YC, English Literature. Individual literatures, unlike LC and somewhat like Dewey, are subdivided by form: Drama, Poetry, Fiction, and Miscellany [this last, unlike Dewey, includes “any sort of literature whatever other than poetry, drama, and fiction”].

Mr. Rider shortens “book numbers” and changes their significance. The first item is a letter from the Bisceo date table indicating (roughly) the date of publication; the second is a letter indicating the author’s name. Thus TS would be the book number for a book published in 1934 [T indicates the decade 1930 to 1939] and written by a person named Spencer. Mr. Rider admits this system will be only “around 90% adequate”, but he feels that the cataloger can devise something more elaborate when necessary—e.g., when the same author writes two books on a subject in the same decade—and he would even fall back on regular Cutter numbers for such problems as Biography.

What in the International Classification is better than Dewey and LC? What is worse? Every reader will, of course, have his own answer. The new schedule A, for instance, might be generally somewhat better than Dewey or LC; the treatment of literature seems inferior to LC because of the form divisions. The relative importance assigned to various countries seems to be an improvement; and the merging of geography and local history would at least meet the approval of some library school students. And, of course, short call numbers, like home and love of one’s country, generally win approval. The introduction of chronology into book numbers would seem to provide for subjects which change in meaning; all books on the subject in its more recent development would be together.

Perhaps it is too late for any new schemes of book classification to expect to be widely adopted. The wide use of printed card services, the growing em-
phasis on centralized technical processes, the many collections already classified, our own ingrained conservatism—all are against such a change. In a world moving irresistibly toward conformity Mr. Rider reaffirms the individualism which has often meant progress in the library world.

But is the function of a new classification scheme really much different from the function of a new edition of an old scheme? When Dewey 17, for instance, appears, will people at once widely reclassify? Or will they simply use Dewey 17 as a reference book to be consulted for suggestions about areas which have given trouble in the use of Dewey 16—or Dewey 13 or whatever may be the basic scheme with which their library began? Will classifiers use the International Classification differently? It is possible that the value of any scheme is suggestive rather than imperative.

"Melvil Dewey did not invent book classification" (p. xvi). Nor did he say the last word about it.—Paul S. Dunkin, Graduate School of Library Service, Rutgers University.


Three information retrieval systems for the literature on explosives were studied to determine comparative operating efficiencies. These systems were a punched card file, a handbook reproduced from that file, and the collection and catalogs of a special library.

Input costs were computed to be 69 cents per report added to the library, in contrast to $73 per reference or $250 per report for the mechanized data-extraction system. Furthermore, library cataloging was many months faster than the indexing and punching for the mechanized system.

A study of use of the handbook and punched card file elicited some interesting problems and opinions concerning them. The user survey also produced a list of 58 questions that had actually been asked of the systems. These questions were then re-asked of all systems, with records kept of the time required and the answers obtained.

The output tests indicated that (1) manual searching of the handbook prepared from the punched card file was usually more efficient than machine searching of the punched card file itself; (2) for ascertaining simple matters of fact, traditional types of reference tools were twice as quick as the data-extracting handbook, which in turn was twice as quick as the conventional catalogs and indexes, though the literature survey did provide more complete information; and (3) for finding data, the data-extracting system not only was quicker but also gave fuller answers.

The author concludes that the greater output efficiency of data-extracting systems for certain types of questions is not sufficient to offset the greater input and use costs, and therefore he does not recommend such a system, in general, as an efficient approach to the problems of information retrieval. He does list eight conditions under which mechanization may be feasible, however, and five objectives a mechanized system should seek. Attention is called to the need for strengthening our conventional library tools to provide a more efficient level of indexing and better access to data concealed within reports.

The methodology of the study contains several commendable features: (1) it examines existing systems and actual reference questions rather than artificially-created ones; (2) it analyzes its results in terms of different types of questions; (3) it utilizes interviews to obtain user reactions; and (4) above all it has a character of thoroughness and objectivity. It is a useful addition to the meager but growing body of ex-
experiments seeking to test and compare information systems with one another. A well-written summary of this study appeared as an article in *American Documentation*, Vol. 12, No. 4, October, 1961, pp. 243-246.—Robert S. Meyer, Head Librarian, Univ. of California, Lawrence Radiation Laboratory, Berkeley, California


This book, both literally and figuratively, is the answer to a working cataloger's prayer. It was undertaken at the request of working catalogers, recommended by several committees of the American Library Association, and brought to fruition through the efforts of the Forest Press, the Decimal Classification Editorial Policy Committee, and the Library of Congress. The work was done by the able staff of the Decimal Classification Office at the Library of Congress, notably Alice M. Kenton and Julia C. Pressey.

The manual covers general principles and procedures for applying the Dewey Decimal Classification. These are explained very clearly and, since they are in general basic to all enumerative classification systems, they can be read with profit by all engaged in library classification. A section on form divisions follows the fundamental principles. These are also clearly delineated.

The major part of the book consists of a class-by-class enumeration of difficult parts in the Dewey Decimal Classification, beginning at 000 and ending with 991-996. It answers just the type of question the working cataloger asks. The explanations provide sufficient information to make a decision easier in doubtful cases. History notes are included to aid those using different editions of the Dewey Classification.

The typography of the book is excellent. Other cataloging tools, such as the *Rules for Descriptive Cataloging*, would be easier to use, as well as more attractive, if they employed the same judicious spacing between paragraphs. The format is good and the binding such that the book should hold up under the heavy use it is certainly going to get.

This is a book that MUST be on the desk of anyone using the Dewey Decimal Classification. Now it is hoped that the Library of Congress can be persuaded to provide similar manuals for each letter-class of its own classification, even if it takes the rest of the century.—Phyllis A. Richmond, University of Rochester Library, Rochester, New York


Kronick's book is his doctoral dissertation published by the Scarecrow Press with little change except for the elimination of some appended tables and other material. As a dissertation the book has its limitations, imposed for practical purposes in order to define a problem of manageable proportions. It is essentially an examination of the forms which serial publication took in the period covered. Furthermore, except for statistical analysis, it concentrates on the general science journal, excluding a closer scrutiny of the specialized scientific journal. Kronick categorized the magazines published between the years 1664 and 1790 by subject, duration, place of issue, frequency of issue, language, type of publication, sponsoring agency, trans-
These journals, Kronick finds, can be divided into two major groups reflecting the two roles of the medium as a repository for information and as a vehicle of communication. Of the 1,052 journals on Kronick's list, 48 percent are substantive, that is, they include original contributions. Society proceedings, many of which may also be considered substantive, account for another 25 percent. The remaining 27 percent are derivative titles in which one would expect to find no original material, collections of disputations, dissertations and other academic writings, and almanacs and annuals.

Substantive journals came and went. They were largely devoted to the spread of scientific ideas among the educated laity. The society journals, on the other hand, early showed themselves to be relatively longer-lived than the substantive journals, albeit frequently with longer gaps between issues. The longevity, of course, is a direct result of the continuance of the publishing agencies. The society journals also were truer repositories of original thought and observation than the substantive journals. While many of Kronick's observations are not startling, some of them have been merely "impressions" long borne by those who have dealt extensively with science periodicals. At last the impressions and some new ones about the forms of the scientific journal have been documented.

The exclusion of analysis of the specialized journal is an unfortunate, if necessary, limitation in view of the present predominance of these journals. It is a limitation which must be kept in mind during the reading. Kronick finds that "the largest part of this literature represented not original research or contributions but a derivative form of journalism which served the purpose of dissemination of information." Sherman Barnes, in another study pointed out exactly the opposite, but Barnes was referring to the specialized science journals (Kronick's society publication?). The contrasting roles of these types of journals remain to be documented and chronicled.

Kronick himself recognizes all the things that his study is not. It is not a critical appraisal of the complex of scientific communication media or an analysis of the various functions the system of media serves. The study has no setting—social, economic, or historical. It very briefly discusses some of the statistics (how many, from what countries, etc.) and gives examples of the general titles found in the various categories with liberal and lengthy quotes from their prefaces, introductions, and statements of editorial intents. He also chronicles many of the titles, citing their beginning dates, issue numbers, change of editors and titles, and deaths. In a large measure the study smacks of the index card. Fortunately, the citations are tied together with quite perceptive statements.

The real problem with Kronick's work is that he failed to put forth some hypotheses. This affected the organization of his data, hence buries some very interesting generalizations in a long, frequently tiresome, narrative. The lack of hypotheses also affects Kronick's presentation of his statistical data. Most of his chapters contain tables; few of the tables are discussed or even mentioned. The one table which shows the proportions of journals of all types in his sample appears in the chapter on substantive journals. The information in most of the tables is sparse. One can invariably find in them how many journals of several subject categories of each kind were published in which decade in the era covered, and how many were published in Germany as compared to other countries. This latter bit of information is of interest: it allows Kronick to give a more realistic picture of German scientific periodicals than we
have had before. They were strong in number, but lacked perseverance. In short, since he had only the barest thesis, Kronick's study lacks the synthesis that would really have extracted the juice from his work.

This examination of the entire list of scientific journals had to be done. No one up to now in the entire three-hundred year history of scientific periodicals has ever tried to categorize them as a group according to their form, activity, subject coverage, or purpose. Not the least of Kronick's contributions is his bibliographic effort. Although the list of over 1,000 journals on which the study is based could not be reproduced in either the dissertation or the book, we can assume from Kronick's description and analysis of the various attempts to define the "periodical" and from his use of four classical basic lists that he knew what he was doing. The dissertation, by the way, contains a list of those periodicals he used which were not included in the four basic lists. This is no small bibliographic contribution itself.—Russell Shank, Assistant Librarian, University of California, Berkeley


The scanning of an issue or two of the new British Technology Index raises several questions. The announced purpose of the publication—to provide a monthly guide to the contents of about 400 technical journals published in Britain, arranged in subject order, with full bibliographical references—does not aid in answering them. Will the cumulative bound volume—the 12th issue each year—have an author index? What will be the normal time lag between publication of an article and its indexing in BTI? How quickly will new journals be added to the list of those indexed? None of these questions can be answered now.

The 400 Journals to be indexed were checked against those presently being indexed in Applied Science and Technology Index and in Engineering Index. Only about 5% are duplicated by ASTI and about one-third by EI. Granted that many of the 250 titles not indexed in ASTI or EI may be of little interest outside of England, BTI can be a useful guide to the contents of British technical journals.

Finding the references one wants in BTI, however, may be a bit difficult. The arrangement is alphabetical by subject, and extraordinarily numerous cross-references have been provided. With a little study, the subject headings are easy to understand. They are very detailed, on occasion, too much so. A typical heading is "COAL, Mining, Electrical Equipment". Cross-references are to be found under "MINING, Coal" and "ELECTRICAL EQUIPMENT, Mining, Coal." Surprisingly enough, however, no cross-reference is to be found under "MINING, Electrical Equipment."

Some headings seem unnecessarily elaborate and may tend to obscure information. "MOTOR CARS, Bumpers, Rolling Machines, Hydraulic" is little more than a permutation of the title indexed. Surely "MOTOR CARS, Bumpers" would have been sufficient. Still, it is pleasant to find a new bibliographical tool that supplies too much rather than too little information.

A close check of a number of the index entries reveals some inconsistencies in the indexing system. This can be seen in the following example: an article entitled "Continuous Chemical-Polishing and Anodizing Line Installed for London Aluminium" was apparently indexed only under "MOTOR CARS, Parts, Aluminium, Anodizing." No entries for it, or meaningful cross-references, were found under either "ALUMINIUM, Chemical Polishing"

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or “ALUMINIUM, Anodizing,” although both these latter headings were used for other articles of the same nature.

Similarly disturbing is a peculiarity of the cross-reference system. “BROKEN HILL” is cross-referenced to “METALLURGY, Broken Hill” and “MINING, Broken Hill” although only a single article, “Mining and Metallurgical Operations at Rhodesia Broken Hill,” is involved. There is no entry or cross-reference under “RHODESIA,” but there is a cross-reference under “AFRICA.”

Other examples could be cited, but it seems obvious that the cross-reference system used, elaborate as it is, may not be sufficient to cope with multiple-subject articles and that more index entries would be useful.

From the viewpoint of the use of BTI in the United States, two minor problems are present. First, there is, for example, no cross-reference to tell the user that, in addition to “MOTOR CARS,” other entries concerning automobiles will be found under “MOTOR VEHICLES.” This distinction between “cars” and “vehicles” may mean more in England than here. The only entry under “AUTOMOBILE” is a cross-reference from “AUTOMOBILE ENGINEERING” to “MOTOR VEHICLES.” (Differences in English and American usage will have to be remembered.) Second, the user of BTI must be careful to recall variant English of such words as “colour,” “tyres,” “fibre,” and “aluminium.”

On the balance, {\textit{British Technology Index}} will be of utility in the library needing full access to British technical journals. Its usefulness will be greatly increased, however, if the cumulative volume contains an author index and if the inconsistencies in indexing and cross-referencing are eliminated.—{\textit{Robert E. Burton, Supervisor, Science and Engineering Libraries, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan}}

Wulfekoetter, Gertrude. {\textit{Acquisition Work: Processes Involved in Building Library Collections}}, Seattle, University of Washington Press, 1961 (i.e., 1962). 268 p. $6.00

The publication on February 6, 1962 of Miss Wulfekoetter’s book on acquisition work was a library event of note. It is amazing that so basic and large a segment of the total library job should have so little solo monographic treatment. Its only predecessor is Francis K. W. Drury’s {\textit{Order Work for Libraries}}, published thirty-two years ago. The only comparable neglect which comes to mind is the lack of library science courses devoted solely to the fascinating topic of acquisitions. The eighty-six pages devoted to acquisition matters in Maurice Tauber’s {\textit{Technical Services in Libraries}}, published in 1954, give a more up-to-date view of the topic, but the treatment is necessarily much less detailed than the novice might wish to find.

{\textit{Acquisition Work}} is first of all a text for the student and the beginner. This fact is made apparent by its sedate and didactic tone, its detailed treatment of the basic acquisition routines, a short glossary at the beginning of the text, and its bibliography of works in English. (The only non-English titles are a Spanish directory of publishers and dealers and a German encyclopedic dictionary). It is secondly a reference tool for the practitioner, its classified bibliography adequate to lead into more controversial discussions.

{\textit{Acquisition Work}} includes all the principal facets of the acquiring responsibility in library work but gives little space to such apocryphal topics as binding, acquiring supplies and equipment, interlibrary loan, photographic work, and mail sorting and delivery. Miss Wulfekoetter discusses the organization of acquisition work, the role of the acquisition department
in library finance and book selection, and the background desirable for the acquisition librarian, as well as the basic elements of the work, such as preparing and receiving orders, gifts and exchanges, cooperative and centralized acquisitions, and acquisition records and forms.

One senses the march of history when one compares Wulfekoetter with Drury. Wulfekoetter includes book selection and a statement of the duty of the acquisition department to coordinate purchasing within the boundaries of the library's budget and policies, while Drury omitted book selection altogether. Drury devoted a chapter to "Accession Methods," while Wulfekoetter reduces such discussion to little more than a page.

For the old hand, Acquisition Work has a certain nostalgia. The categorical statement of the basic and homely truths of acquisition operations has a familiar and old-fashioned ring, as solidly factual as when we were all young. "Do not erase anything from the requests as brought to the acquisition department," says Miss W., and we are back in all the green eagerness and apprehension of our first acquisition job.

The orderly progress of topics from Organization to Records and Forms seems logical and reasonable. The bibliography is generous, and the index sparse but adequate. I would quibble only with the bunching of the footnotes at the end of the volume, a continual annoyance as one shuffles back to see what additional comment the author has to make.

Acquisition Work is remarkably inclusive, full of good commonsense, and commendably practical. Even without the blurb on the jacket we would have known it was based on longtime experience. The acquisition librarian can have the pleasure of disagreeing with some categorical statements. (Page 111: "Checking in all books in university and research libraries" is a professional responsibility. Page 114: Recording documents "is a professional task requiring cataloging and reference background.") I would like to see more discussion and more emphasis on the integration of acquisition procedures with the other technical processes, one of the weaknesses in many libraries today. Also useful would be more hints on the fine art of coordinating library purchases and the long range building of library resources.

If Miss Wulfekoetter's book does not match Drury's thirty-year reign as the acquisition text, it will be because the library profession itself is moving much faster to meet its complex responsibilities. For today's generation of students and beginners, here is a thoroughly practical discussion of the elements of acquisition work presented in a sturdy format, the design unusually attractive for an offset production. Thank you, Miss Wulfekoetter.—Helen M. Welch, Acquisition Librarian, University of Illinois


Librarians have by this time become dependent on the Guide to Microforms in Print, the annual index to more than 10,000 titles available in microform from commercial publishers in the United States. The same publishers now offer this subject guide to microforms. Apparently, although this is not stated specifically, it is to be revised annually. Like the Guide, it includes all microfilms and micro-opaques available in the various formats from commercial publishers in the United States, but not theses and dissertations. Items are alphabetically arranged under 135 subject classifications derived from the Library of Congress classification scheme. In addition to author, title, and date of publication, each entry gives price (when available), publisher, and type of microform. Publication
projects in microform are included, e.g., works listed in Henry R. Wagner's The Plains and the Rockies. In some, but not all cases, the individual titles in a project are also listed. The largest section is that listing newspapers. Over 4,000 newspapers are listed under state, followed by city and title, and giving inclusive dates of publication. Over 2,000 titles are listed under American history, but fewer than 1,000 titles under language and literature of all countries, and most of these are in American and English literature.

Interesting as it is to see the total microform output of U. S. publishers arranged by subject, to notice what subject fields have been exploited for microform publishing relative to the others, and to speculate on the reasons for these selections, it is difficult to think of the ways in which this subject guide will be used or to think of the needs it will fulfill. Neither the librarian nor the user asks: "What titles in my field of interest are available in microform?" It is the subject matter of a publication in which the user is primarily interested, not its format. I would expect that normally the Guide is used by the librarian to learn of the possible publication in microform of an out-of-print publication not available in original format, or to learn of the availability in microform of a newspaper or journal file, which would be bulky and expensive even if available in original form. But in these quests, the librarian has a specific title under which to look. In such cases, the subject guide would be valuable only where the title in question has a difficult or uncertain entry and can be searched more readily in a subject grouping of limited size than in the Guide. Therefore, while I commend the thought and compilation of the subject guide, I do not think that it has either the importance or the usefulness of the Guide.—Rolland E. Stevens, Associate Director, The Ohio State University Libraries.

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