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CONTENTS

EDITORIAL

Collection Building

The process of building library collections is as old and as significant an issue as libraries themselves. Much time is spent in graduate library school programs discussing selection policies, censorship, new media, and collection maintenance. Practitioners in the field daily grapple with the problems of public demands and of inflationary trends in the fields of information dissemination. In 1979 John T. Corrigan, editor of *Catholic Library World*, confronted the moral issues of collection building and maintenance; he wrote,

> "Today, as probably never before, there is a need to revitalize our positions as guardians, organizers and facilitators of the free flow of the world's depository of knowledge. The reasons for our personal renewal are to be seen in light of the new technologies, the cultural changes that are taking place around us, and in the continuing effort. . .to preserve those values so necessary for. . .people who are responsible and responsive to their fellows." (*Catholic Library World*, December 1979, 196).

Indiana's library community has continually addressed the problems of collection building. Involved in librarianship in a state which prides itself on being fiscally responsible, professionals have often intertwined the issues of staffing, facilities, and collection use.

Thus, their standing policies for collection building, as well as their proposals for change, often have a direct relationship with the realities of the existing funds available and their public's support of the library's overall program.

The fact that Indiana librarians build collections which reflect their community needs, be they educational or avocational, is substantiated by perusing policy statements, building plans, and budget summaries of the libraries themselves. It is further exemplified in the articles found in this issue of *Indiana Libraries*.

Interlibrary loan services have greatly expanded the possibilities of all libraries. Sharing materials at a relatively low cost to all involved can allow all libraries the opportunity to build their collections in specific directions suited for local patron needs and still have the ability to temporarily secure specialized materials needed by one individual within their public. The history of interlibrary loan services and of their applications in Indiana are summarized by Karen Chittick Stabler in her lucid article. Further, some problems and future needs are discussed by Stabler, setting the stage for future innovations within interlibrary loan practices.

Les R. Galbraith deals with a major modern concern for Indiana librarians: collection building *and* maintenance of religious materials. Galbraith is succinct in his appraisal of the field; he gives his readers some practical guidelines which can easily be applied.

The final two articles deal with traditional topics which have long concerned librarians: intellectual freedom and community support of library services. Terence F. Sebright approaches the need to establish a well defined selection policy from the perspective of Indiana laws concerning the public library's funding and structure. His arguments reflect the Indiana tie between fiscal responsibility and ethics. Nick Schenkel approaches the topic of collection development from the viewpoint that head librarians must develop their overall services, and thus their collection growth, in correlation with their staffing potential. Schenkel's viewpoint is that of a forceful young administrator who daily faces the current trend of budgetary moderation and entrenchment. His outlook reflects the realist who recognizes that Indiana communities are tightening their budgets in response to recent federal funding cutbacks.

Robert N. Broadus addressed the problems of collection building a decade ago, and commented that building a library collection was much like planning and building a real building. On the other hand, he pointed out that in collection building there was always a degree of uncertainty because, "The librarian is never sure what bricks are going to be available, or what new ones will come on the market. . . ." (*Selecting Materials for Librarians*, H. W. Wilson, 1973, 26.) This issue of *Indiana Libraries* points to a professionalism of thought that takes into account those uncertainties as reflected by past Indiana experiences. It reveals that whenever new bricks do become available, Indiana librarians will analyze their quality as well as their short-term possibilities in the building process. Thus, maintenance and collection building are integral components in Indiana library services.

Jill P. May

A Brief History of Interlibrary Loan with Special Reference to Indiana

Karen Chittick Stabler

Resource sharing which is a salient feature in 20th century American libraries, has a relatively short history. In fact, the idea of an Interlibrary Loan (ILL) system did not begin until a little over a hundred years ago. It was Samuel S. Green, Librarian at the Worcester (Massachusetts) Free Public Library, who first called for such cooperation in 1876. "It would add greatly to the usefulness of our reference libraries," he wrote, "if an agreement should be made to lend books to each other for short periods of time."[1] Although a beginning had been made since then, it was not until 42 years later in 1917 that a national system came into existence with an approved code by the American Library Association (ALA). Over the years the service grew from lending an occasional book for research to sending most library materials, including microfilms, cassettes, records, and other materials, to nearly all who request the service.

Karen Chittick Stabler is currently Interlibrary Loan Librarian and Coordinator for Data Base Searches at Indiana State University, Terre Haute. She has received an MLS from the University of Wisconsin and an MS in Latin American history from Indiana State University.

The Surgeon General's Library in Washington was the first library to have an ILL system. To borrow from that library, one had to sign an agreement that the item would be returned within two weeks after its receipt and that the borrowing library would pay for the charges both ways. The borrowing library would also be responsible for its safe return by private express, which meant that materials were shipped in steel safes and delivered and signed for by borrower and lender. It did not pay to borrow a single book, but rather to borrow ten to twelve volumes at a time.[2] Among the lending libraries at the time were Boston Athenaeum, Boston Public Library, Columbia College, Harvard College, University of California, and Yale University. In 1893, Bunford Samuel, from the Ridgway Library in Philadelphia, suggested that some libraries should informally form a union for interlibrary loans, thus indicating that borrowing material was an individual process and had not developed into a national system.[3]

In 1899 at the ALA's College and Reference Section Dr. George Flavel Danforth, the sixth librarian at Indiana University, reported on his survey of Indiana librarians' attitudes toward borrowing. Of all the responses he received, two were particularly interesting and worth quoting. Thus, one said, "We have a very fine library for our own use, and we permit others to look at it, that's all." Still another observed, "We have ample funds with which to furnish our own library and do not need to adopt the borrowing method." By far the most popular reaction among librarians was that if they loaned materials, they ought to borrow in return, and that the borrowing of library materials was an admission of their own inadequacies.[4] However, during Danforth's administration, books did not freely circulate even among their own faculty and students. Popular books circulated for two weeks, and other material could be checked out only overnight and during holidays.[5] Indiana University did not begin to participate in interlibrary loans until 1907 under the leadership of William Evans Jenkins.[6] At Purdue University interlibrary loans were first mentioned in the annual report of 1911. It stated: "The practice of borrowing books from other libraries has largely increased during the last ten years and this year a total of 12 volumes have been borrowed from other libraries. . .Yale, Illinois, Indiana 2, Chicago 8. . . A number of other books requested could not be obtained. . . The library was also able to make the loan of one volume to the library of Rose Polytechnic Institute, Terre Haute, Indiana."[7] In 1912 Purdue University attempted to borrow 37 seven times. The schools included: University of Chicago (18), United States Department of Agriculture (6), Indiana State Library (4), University of Illinois (3), Carnegie Library, Pittsburg (3), Lloyd Library, Cincinnati, University of Missouri, and the Library of Congress.[8]

With the growth of ILL came the recognition of the need to collect information on library holdings in other institutions. In 1899 William Coolidge Lane and Charles Knowles Bolten published *Special Collections in American Libraries* (Harvard University Bibliographic Contributions, No. 45). During a dedication address at the new Oberlin College Library William Lane, Harvard Librarian, further proposed the creation of a College Library Lending and Reference Bureau. The major purpose of this bureau should be to collect catalog cards, printed catalogs, and other listings of library holdings to aid in identifying the whereabouts of a particular volume.[9] However, the general attitude towards interlibrary loans continued to be mixed, ranging from the restrictive to the liberal. In 1912 the ALA Committee on Coordination held a symposium on interlibrary loans at the ALA Conference in Ottawa, Canada. Three prominent librarians presented their views on the appropriate use of an ILL. These views seemed to represent the thinking of the time. Herbert Putnam, Librarian of Congress, reluctantly supported borrowing materials, which should be made only for the "unusual need of a serious investigator."[10] There was a great deal of materials he wanted to keep out of circulation, including an ordinary book, a book borrowed for a trivial reason, or a book that could be obtained from a closer library. William Lane maintained a similar but slightly more liberal approach. For him, "The primary purpose of interlibrary loans is the promotion of scholarship by placing books not commonly accessible and not in use in one library temporarily at the service of a scholar who has access at some other library."[11]

The most enthusiastic supporter of ILL was J.L. Gillis, Librarian at the University of California, who held a generous view on resource sharing. He maintained that books could be obtained more quickly through interlibrary loan than through the acquisition department, and that loans were more cost effective for both the borrowing and lending library. Since most library books were seldom used, borrowing a book would relieve the library from purchasing a little used item, while the lending library could justify its purchase by its additional use.[12] In that same year, Frederick Hicks, speaking to the Eastern College Librarians, attempted to encourage the borrowing method. He found that the libraries providing the most materials to other libraries were the Forbes Library in Northampton, Massachusetts (5,000 loans in one year), the Surgeon General's Office (2,000), and the Library of Congress, (1,617).[13]

ILL In Indiana

An article in *Library Occurrent* briefly described the picture of ILL in Indiana in 1912. There were four major resource libraries:

The Indiana State Library, a government depository; Indiana University, strong in scientific periodical literature; Indiana State Normal School Library, strong in pedagogical literature; and Purdue University, strong in scientific and technical works. Already beginning to feel the need for out-of-state materials, the article further suggested applying to the John Crerar Library in Chicago, which held that, "the reason for the loan must be something beside the convenience of the applicant," and the Library of Congress, whose lending policy insisted that their books must be for serious research and investigation calculated to advance the boundaries of knowledge. They were not lent for the purpose of private study and self cultivation. "The need must be a matter of public concern."[14] Later that year, a three-member committee was selected at the Indiana Roundtable of College Reference Problems to develop a holdings list for Indiana libraries. The members of the committee were W.M. Hepburn of Purdue University, Anne Keating of the State Normal Library, and Florence Venn of the State Library.[15] It was not until the mid twenties that such a list was published, which provided a subject approach to the holdings of colleges, universities, businesses, public libraries, and the Indiana State Library.[16]

As more ILL requests were being generated all over the country, the need for a national code became evident. The very first one was passed by the ALA in 1917 with the manifest purpose "to aid research calculated to advance the boundaries of knowledge," and "to augment the supply of the average book to the average reader."[17] Lending materials for a scholarly purpose was always prevalent, but the second idea was revolutionary and opened the door for all kinds of loans. This 1917 document may, therefore, be characterized as liberal.

The 1930s saw a number of significant developments in the field of ILL. First, there was the requirement of a charge for ILL service in the libraries of the University of California, Stanford University, and the University of Nebraska. The cost could be quite high; for example, the University of Nebraska charged $1 to their faculty to cover postage, transportation, and service. Materials sent to other locations would be charged 50 cents for the first volume and 25 cents for each additional volume.[18]

In March 1936, the Union Catalog of the Library of Congress began to provide location information to the 34libraries of the Association of Research Libraries. Later that year the service was made available to all libraries. Eventually the catalog was printed in book form, giving complete bibliographic information with selected holdings information. Many libraries have copies. Besides the *National Union Catalog*, other union lists were later developed. They included

the *Union Lists of Serials* (1965), *New Serials Titles* (1973—) and regional lists and special bibliographies.

In the late 1930s, the volume of interlibrary loan requests increased only gradually at Indiana University. In 1937-1938, a total of 219 volumes were borrowed for faculty and students.[19] Three years later in 1940-1941, 257 volumes were borrowed.[20] [Maps of Indiana which show the diffusion of loans in the state and in the entire country are available from the author.]

Nationwide ILL was growing fast, and was thus increasing pressure on the large research university libraries. Impetus was, therefore, given to the American College and University Libraries (ACRL) to formulate a stricter policy. An ACRL Interlibrary Loan Code Committee was set up for the task in 1940. According to the new code adopted by ALA in the same year, "The primary purpose [of ILL]. . .is to aid research calculated to advance the boundaries of knowledge by the loan of unusual books. . ." Some libraries find it desirable to lend material for other than research purposes to institutions within their own territory or toward which they may have some particular obligation. Such transactions should be considered as part of an extension service rather than as interlibrary loans.[21]

Perhaps somewhat dogmatically, the code further suggested that graduate students should choose topics of research for which their own college or university library could supply most of the materials, thus using only "an occasional interlibrary loan."[22] This was a typical philosophy of the college and university librarians at the time, who wanted to reduce the volume of loans. This new code was ineffective, however. A study conducted in the 1950s found that only 20 percent of the libraries followed it to the letter, 62 percent followed the code with their own modifications, and 16 percent set their own rules.[23] With such an offhand attitude towards ILL among librarians, it was common to find that incorrect citations abounded in the requests the lending libraries received. In a study of the ILL requests received by the University of Illinois Library in 1946, Robert W. Kidder reported the average number of errors per citation as 2.65.[24] The problems of ILL were further compounded with the rising costs of the service in the forties. The University of Pennsylvania estimated their average cost at $3.50 per request.[25] Columbia University came up with $2.70 per volume.[26] Costs were a major concern because the number of interlibrary loans was constantly increasing. For example, in 1946-1947 Indiana University alone borrowed 886 volumes and loaned 985 volumes.[27] The cause of these rising costs was due partly to a lack of standard clerical procedures which created an overload in most ILL offices.

ILL In The Fifties

But the 1950s began to see marked improvements in the ILL process. The first major change was the requesting of materials by teletype (TWX). On July 25, 1950, TWX machines were installed in the Milwaukee Public Library and the Racine Public Library. Sending messages by TWX greatly reduced the time for completing transactions. Furthermore, the two Wisconsin libraries began a daily delivery system in order to provide one day service. The number of ILL transactions greatly increased as a result, and this revolutionary development received national publicity from newspapers and from periodicals such as *The American City* and *Popular Mechanics*. In 1951 The New Midwest Inter-library Center in Chicago (Center for Research Libraries) decided to use the TWX machine for requesting interlibrary loans. All member libraries installed TWX machines except three Indiana members, Indiana, Notre Dame, and Purdue universities; Indiana Bell did not approve installation for fear of low return.[28]

As previously mentioned, prior to 1952 the clerical work in an ILL office was extremely cumbersome. Libraries requested interlibrary loans on postcards and form letters of different sizes and formats. There were no standard procedures or forms. Typically, the borrowing library would need to write or type each request several times. The library kept its own record for each request as well as a typed copy of the request letter, received notice, notice of arrival to patrons, renewal request, and returning notice. A similar process was repeated in the lending library which also needed to type each request several times, e.g., a record card for their own office, sending notice, labels, overdue notices, renewing notices, and acknowledge of return notices. The recommendation in July 1951 of the American College and Research Libraries ACRL-ILL Committee to accept the four part carbon standard ILL form at the ALA and ACRL Chicago meeting was a very important development for interlibrary loan. Originally developed and used by the University of California, the newly adopted form required that the information be typed only once, and provided the borrowing library with enough copies to complete each transaction. All pertinent information such as author, title, imprint, sending date, return date, as well as reimbursement for stamps could be sent at the same time. It was estimated that there was an 80 percent saving in clerical costs for the lending library and up to 50 percent for the borrowing library.[29]

Because many libraries were neglecting the 1940 code, it became necessary to revise it just 12 years later. Its problems were reflected by the changes in the new and more generous document prepared by the ACRL-ILL Committee and approved by the ALA on

July 4, 1952. Thus, the purpose of ILL was no longer considered "to aid research calculated to advance the boundaries of knowledge by the loan of unusual books," but "to make available for research and serious study library materials not in a given library." Besides, interlibrary loan service was considered a courtesy and a privilege and not a right. Its appendices explained and encouraged libraries to standardize their procedures. Included were the new request forms, the new shipping labels, a standard list of abbreviations, sources of verification, a list of selected union holdings, and bibliographic centers.[30]

In Indiana, lending activities between small public libraries became a regular feature by 1954. Two such examples were described in the 1956 issue of *Public Libraries*. The Thorntown Indiana Area Book Exchange allowed four small libraries in adjoining counties to exchange fiction, mysteries, and romances. In September 1955 the Evansville Willard Library began book service with the New Harmony Library.[31]

In 1957-1958, interlibrary loan statistics first appeared in the Indiana State University Library Annual Report. There was a total of 105 requests in this period.[32]

LSCA and ILL

In May 1965, the Interlibrary Communications Project or (TWX network) was funded under Title I of the Library Services and Construction Act (LSCA), a federal program. In order to foster interlibrary loans within the state of Indiana, the Indiana State Library would furnish equipment, supplies, and additional monetary and advisory help. In return, 22 public libraries, the four state university libraries, and the Bureau of Public Discussion in Bloomington received TWX machines and were encouraged to be as liberal as possible in lending library materials. All libraries not designated as TWX centers were encouraged to become satellite libraries. These libraries could obtain access to other Indiana libraries by telephoning the nearest center. Whenever possible requests were to be filled locally; otherwise, they would be channeled to the State Library to be filled. If that also failed, they would be sent to the four state university libraries or other large public libraries in the state.

On June 27, 1968, the fourth ILL code was adopted by the Reference Services Division of ALA. It was specifically designed to give guidelines at the national level. "The purpose of Interlibrary Loan," it is stated, "is to make available, for *research*, materials not owned by a given library, in the belief that furtherance of knowledge is in the general interest."[33] Although research was underlined, in practice many libraries were requesting materials without questioning the purpose. Accompanying this national document was a model

code for special agreements among regional, state, local or special libraries. The provision of such a sample was necessary because there were a series of agreements being signed among special groups of libraries. A case in point is the four state universities inter-institutional program initiated in the fall of 1969. In the preceding year Indiana State University had proposed that Ball State University employ a person at Purdue University while it would do the same at Indiana University.[3 4] In the final agreement, however, both Indiana State and Ball State paid a set amount to Indiana University and Purdue University. In return, the two larger institutions were to expedite interlibrary loan requests from Ball State and Indiana State. Also, for each photocopy request, the first 15 pages were free. This procedure was established to save billing process time. Soon the entire state benefited from the system in that the four state universities gave the first 15 pages free to any library within the state.

Several new approaches to an ILL were initiated in the 1970s. The Indiana State Library planned to divide the state into no more than 14 Area Library Services Authorities (ALSAs) or multicounty areas; with the new arrangement there were only nine ALSAs by 1981. The programs are funded primarily through LSCA funds to foster cooperation among local libraries. The primary service is the reference referral service which includes interlibrary loans. The Stone Hills Area Library Services Authority (SHALSA), which presently includes a ten-county area in west central Indiana, initiated a van for document delivery. This van has improved service for the participating libraries. The publication of the *Indiana Union List of Serials* in July 1973, and of its supplement in 1974 became a landmark in interlibrary cooperation in Indiana.

Sweeping changes are taking place everywhere in the field of ILL. Internationally, beginning in 1975 it became possible for members of the Center for Research Libraries which paid a special fee to obtain free of charge articles in the fields of technology, social science, and science through the British Lending Library. Photocopy requests are sent electronically to Boston Spa, England and returned by first class mail.

Meanwhile ILL began to feel the impact of on-line services. In 1976, some of the libraries began verifying and obtaining locations via the OCLC (Online Computer Library Center). By April 1979 the OCLC-ILL Subsystem was initiated through the Indiana Cooperative Library Services Authority (INCOLSA). This organization offered members payment for telecommunication costs, terminal maintenance, documentation pertaining to the system, and training. Many Indiana libraries participated immediately including Indiana University. Since it was a major lending library in the state, other libraries

were quickly forced into the new system, which made it easy for librarians to verify and to order on the computer terminal. But there are other advantages; for example, the system provides more locations than ever before, and these additional locations supply the borrowing library holdings from different types and different sized libraries, thus distributing the requests more evenly around the state and country. The computer terminal automatically prints the bibliographic information on the ILL workform, a process which greatly helps to eliminate typing errors. Participating members are allowed to order directly on the terminal from as many as five locations at a time. If the preceding library is unable to fill a request the subsystem will automatically transmit it to the next library. This option saves processing time. In the month of May 1981, 70,601 requests were made nationwide on the OCLC-ILL Subsystem. The number does not include requests sent by ALA, TWX, and other methods. Indiana alone had 2,825 transactions.[35] Coupled with this urge of statistics, however, are the rising costs of this service. The comparision between 1979 and 1981 is instructive. Whereas in 1979, the cost per transaction averaged 92 cents; in 1981, it had risen to $1.20. There was then an increase of 28 cents or 30 percent in less than three years.

In the 1970s computer literature searching became a new method for obtaining citations of primarily periodical articles. It has been estimated that when computer searching is fully operational, ILL can expect an increase of 50 percent of its present volume.[36] By the late 1970s a new method of requesting materials became available through the vendors who offer computer literature searching. Although rarely used in Indiana libraries, Dialog offers a system DIALORDER where articles and reports can be ordered, through the various data base producers. The vendor, System Development Corporation (SDC), also offers the same service called Electronic Mail Drop. The advantages of the private sector are twofold. First, since many data base producers already have paid royalties to the publishers, a library can order as many articles as it needs without violating the copyright laws. Secondly, requests for articles and reports can be ordered more quickly. All that is usually needed is the accession number and a deposit account with the particular data base producer. Requests are made on a terminal to the particular producer, and according to advertisements, the requested materials will be sent within 24 hours.

Present ILL Practices

Little change, however, has occurred in the new ILL national code approved by the Adult Services Division of ALA on June 30,

1980 except to provide more details concerning the procedures used for verification. At that time, model code for regional, state, and local libraries was again included. However, two negative elements which emerged in the 1970s costs and copyright restrictions, have continued to plague the system. Although there were charges for loans during the 1930s, the practice became more widespread in the 1970s. Major research libraries across the country began charging for loans and increasing photocopy requests. At the state level, Indianapolis Public Library began charging $5 per loan to libraries which were not members of the Central Indiana Area Library Services Authority (CIALSA). Notre Dame charged a minimum of $2 for photocopies. Indiana University began charging $2 for photocopies within the state except for the four state universities. Purdue University charges Indiana businesses $3. Indiana University Medical School began charging $4 per loan or per photocopy beginning July 1, 1981. Many public libraries charge postage.

The new copyright law (Title 17, U.S. Code) went into effect on January 1, 1978. This law, along with the CONTU (National Commission on New Technological Uses of Copyrighted Works) guidelines, placed restrictions on photocopying; these restrictions became particularly severe on materials published within the last five years. As libraries were required by law to keep records on all photocopy requests within the last five years, clerical work has increased.

Where does it all lead us after one hundred years of ILL despite the techological breakthroughs? A major problem which confronts ILL offices today is the increased workload. Largely because of the new techology, library administrators and library users now have a higher expectation for fast interlibrary loan service. This expectation has increased the pressure on interlibrary loan personnel. Since not all requests can be verified by OCLC, the careful attention of a librarian is still needed to solve some of the bibliographic problems. In most cases there has been no substantial change in the document delivery system. It still takes time to check the card catalog, locate and pull books from the stacks, photocopy requests, and prepare for sending. Also, there are more statistics to count. Since so many libraries charge, more and more time is needed for the billing process. Most interlibrary loan offices have not increased their staffs while others have actually reduced their personnel. Indeed, it is the yeoman efforts of many interlibrary loan staff members that have held the service together.

It seems that ILL and the ever increasing demand of the patrons are on a collision course. The liberalization of the national code, the Indiana State Library promotion of such projects as the publication of the *Indiana Union List of Serials*, the ALSAs, the improvements in

bibliographic access, and the increasing capabilities of technology, have continued to increase the volume of interlibrary loans. It takes only simple arithmetic to see that the bigger the volume of loans, the higher the handling costs will be. Inflation also has had its effect. Many institutions, operating under an immense burden, are passing the costs on to the library users. As the cost of borrowing materials increases, the attractiveness of the service decreases.

If costs become the primary criteria, ILL will be primarily available only to those who can afford it. However, the historical reason for interlibrary loans "to facilitate research" remains valid. There are other ways to continue the ILL system without increasing costs. First, more reciprocal agreements should be made among different types of libraries where sharing various resources can be mutually beneficial. Secondly, a coupon system could be initiated in the state as found in other networks throughout the country. Libraries which charge for loans and photocopies should be willing to supply noncharging libraries an equal number of free requests. For example, since Indianapolis Public Library charges $5 a loan to noncharging libraries, certainly the Indianapolis Public Library should be willing to supply these libraries with one free loan for each free loan received. By using a coupon system, the financial bookeeping between libraries would be eliminated. Thirdly, interlibrary loan positions funded by LSCA could possibly be relocated to maximize the service and minimize the costs. For example, if the large libraries cannot handle the volume of requests which are being promoted and encouraged by librarians in the field, perhaps one or more ALSA librarians could be relocated in the overburdened large library or a few large libraries. Of course, the remaining ALSA librarians would need to enlarge their present service areas. In order to continue the ILL service which has obviously been beneficial to many library users throughout the state as seen by the ever increasing number of loans, the system must be continually examined and readjusted to make the best service available to all.

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Collection Development: New Guidelines for Religion

Les R. Galbraith

With all the "religious" books published each year, how can any conscientious librarian know what to buy and what to leave alone? Religious books are everywhere. You can buy them at general bookstores, from special religious book clubs, from churches, door to door sales persons, or from the mail-in business associated with radio and television religious programming.

In 1980, there were 2,055 new religious titles published in the United States,[1] and when added to the previously published and still in-print titles, there are enough to fill a special volume of *Religious Books in Print*. What other category of books has given birth to its own special brand of bookstores? In a recent check of the *Indianapolis Consumer Yellow Pages* under the heading "Book Dealers—Retail," I counted 69 separate bookstores. Eighteen were religious bookstores, 17 were general stores and the remainder were distributed among adult, law, engineering, metaphysical, etc.[2] The point is, there are a lot of religious books to choose from and someone must decide what goes into each library's collection.

Les R. Galbraith is the Librarian and Associate Professor of Bibliography at the Christian Theological Seminary in Indianapolis. Galbraith earned an undergraduate degree and a Master of Divinity degree from Phillips University in Enid, Oklahoma and a MLS from the University of Texas at Austin. He currently serves as treasurer of ILA/ILTA.

The traditional guidelines for book selection may have some flaws when it comes to religious books. It is my intention to point out some of these flaws and then to offer some new guidelines that may prove helpful in sorting through this sticky problem.

Religion is the only subject area I know of, with the exception of fiction, where the author of a book does not need to be an expert, or at least have some credentials to validate his or her writing. Any person who wants to write a book about religion has a good chance of finding a publisher. Everyone is a religious expert, at least of his or her own religious experiences, and that is what is selling today. In other subject areas, a librarian can usually check biographical reference works, subject indexes, and other lists to decide whether an author has the background to write a book. That is not true in religion, at least not for a large percentage of the annual book production in the religious area. Who would have thought a book called *The Hiding Place* by an unknown, elderly woman named Corrie Ten Boom would have the impact on America that it had?

The number of publishers of religious materials is also growing. There are numerous established publishers we have all come to know and respect, i. e. Abingdon, Westminster, Word, Eerdman's, etc., but the number of small publishers increases, each seeming to find a market for its output. Some are related to churches and some are independent publishers who know what is profitable. If our library materials come only from those major publishers, we may miss some very good titles.

The other traditional guidelines for collection development may be of some help, but reviews are often slow in seeing the light of day, recommendations and referrals from others may tend to develop unbalanced collections, depending upon the personal tastes of those making the recommendations. The needs and wants of the reading public cannot always be accurately determined, and the content or approach of works is difficult to determine from publisher promotions.

Perhaps it is time to take a new look at the area of religious publishing and examine an idea that could bring sense to what we collect and retain. Stephen Peterson, Librarian at Yale Divinity School, in an address to the American Theological Library Association in 1978, proposed that we think of religious materials in three categories; source materials, critical materials, and historical materials.[3] When a book is published it is either source material or critical material, and may remain in that category as long as it is current to the needs of scholars, but when it ceases to be current, it becomes historical material.

Source Materials

Source material is primarily documentary literature: minutes of meetings, annual reports, statistics, and other works which document the life and activity of any religious body.[4] This material tells what happened to a group at a particular time. It is easy to identify this kind of material and to determine its value to a library serving its unique constituency.

A second type of source material grows out of personal faith and religious experiences. Peterson says that it is often intended to nurture and admonish the laity and that it is usually published and read for its current interest and present utility.[5] Books describing personal religious experiences of individuals and their interpretations are good examples of this literature. This is perhaps the largest body of religious publishing each year and also the hardest to select. Every library has this kind of source material, and it may be that in a public library it constitutes the largest portion of the religion collection. However, this material tends to lose its utilitarian and present value and must then be seen as belonging to the historical category, as will be discussed later.

A third type of source material is the sacred writings of a religious group. This material remains source material as long as the religious body exists. If it is no longer used for sacred edification, then it too would become historical material.

Critical Materials

The function of critical material is to "assess, evaluate and understand source documents, historical problems and/or intellectual questions of current or past importance."[6] Critical literature is usually written either by a scholar to other scholars or for interpreting events in light of their impact on society. Commentaries on the sacred writings would obviously fit this category. A less obvious type might be a book on the significant issues of the Council of Trent. This would seem to be historical material, but it would become historical in this scheme of things only when it is no longer studied for its scholarly value. According to Peterson:

> One of the important aspects of critical literature is that it is a contemporary literature. That is, while important works of critical scholarship may maintain importance for decades, some of yesterday's critical literature is rendered obsolete by new discoveries, new insights, new data, as well as the ongoing process of scholarly analysis.[7]

Historical Materials

This leads us to the third category of religous materials, the historical. Whenever source documents and critical documents no longer have their current impact, they move over to the historical area.[8] That does not mean, though, that they are no longer important. Materials in this category become, themselves, the primary documents for the study of some historical event or for a survey of the study of a particular discipline. Biblical commentaries written in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries were written before significant archaeological discoveries helped clarify some of the errant passages of scripture. Therefore, these commentaries do not reflect the current state of biblical scholarship. However, anyone writing on the religious situation in eighteenth and nineteenth century America must examine these commentaries to understand the frame of reference of the religious leaders who were relying upon them for their study of scripture.

As librarians, concerned with the quality of our collections, it is important to pay special attention to the religious materials we keep. The turnover rate for source materials may be quite rapid, allowing our patrons to have access to the popular, devotional, life experience materials while they are fresh and in demand. Regular weeding is needed so that materials retained are the ones which are representative of the period and therefore of historical value. The collection of critical material is easier to deal with because most of the critical literature is published by major publishers who are concerned with scholarship and can afford to have a small press run of particular titles. These works will be mentioned in *Library Journal* and other review media, and the traditional guidelines for book selection will be helpful. Historical material is quite difficult to collect in retrospect. If it was not purchased when it was current, it may no longer be available. However, there are always those persons in the community who want to give their book collection to the library. This may be the only way to acquire material for the historical portion of your religion collection if they were not added when they were current. The process of selection and elimination becomes one of careful consideration of the balance, scope, direction, and constituency of each library.

Notes

[1] Grannis, Chandler B. "Domestic Statistical Update Final 1980 Figures," *Publisher's Weekly*, September 25, 1981, 32.

[2] "Book Dealers—Retail," *Indianapolis Consumer Yellow Pages*. Indianapolis Indiana Bell Telephone Company Incorporated, 1981, 154-5.

[3] Peterson, Stephen L. "Documenting Christianity: Towards a Cooperative Library Collection Development program," *Summary of Proceedings, Thirty-second Annual Conference, American Theological Library Association*. Philadelphia: American Theological Library Association, Inc., 1980, 83.

[4] *Ibid.*

[5] *Ibid.*, 85.

[6] *Ibid.*

[7] *Ibid.*

[8] *Ibid.*

Nominations Sought

The Awards & Honors Committee request nominations for the following for 1982: special service award, outstanding trustee award, outstanding librarian award, outstanding library assistant award, outstanding library award, and citizen's award. All nominations and supporting materials must be submitted no later than August 31 to Jean Jose, Indiana State Library, 140 N. Senate Avenue, Indianapolis, IN 46204. Information may be obtained from Jean Jose or from the ILA headquarters at 1100 W. 42nd Street, Indianapolis, IN 46208.

Indiana Public Libraries' Selection Policies: The "Why" and The "How"

Terence F. Sebright

True selection of library materials takes place in a positive intellectual environment. Selections are made to supply the library's clientele with materials. A comprehensive analysis of the community identifies subjects of interest to segments of the community. Ongoing analysis monitors the community, noting change so that selection can change in appropriate ways.

The conclusions drawn from a community analysis form the foundation on which to build a selection policy. The policy serves to record the general principles guiding selection. Details of this document relate the logic governing selection. It is the framework within which the selection process takes place.[1]

When formulated in a positive atmosphere like this, the rationale for the selection policy loses its threatening aspect. Make no mistake about it, some see a threat in this subject, for it involves opening the library to evaluation. Libraries should welcome interest from the public and prepare for it by having selection policies and other written policies available for public inspection. Many people become

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concerned to the point of involving themselves in the library and evaluating it. They want evidence that the budget is being spent according to a predetermined plan, that the responsibility for selection is being carried out in a legal way, and that the community as a whole has participated in developing the plan and is aware of why the library selects the books it selects. The process of drawing up the selection policy and the policy itself, taken together, fufill these needs.

Legally, a public library (in Indiana) is a municipally incorporated corporation with many of the rights of an individual. Though the state exercises control over how it is done, public libraries in Indiana have a large degree of latitude in how they obtain and spend their funds. Taxes supply the bulk of funds. In essence, the state allows the library to exist for the purposes specified in its articles of incorporation. Those articles provide for the formation of a board of library trustees to whom all the legal rights of the library are entrusted. The board then hires librarians and other staff to perform the functions stated and implied in the articles of incorporation.

One part of the selection policy should describe at length the source of authority for selection, how it is delegated, and who is ultimately responsible for selection. In effect, it shows the chain along which the authority for selection is passed in that particular library.

The budget of any tax supported organization is public knowledge. Libraries traditionally spend a significant percentage of their budget on books. Sometimes we forget this under the press of large increases in personnel, fuel, and other costs. The selection policy should explain the positive criteria that the library uses to select its books.

In short, because public libraries and those who work in them have legal responsibility for selecting books, and because no library budget is infinite, choices have to be made. The basis for those choices must be the criteria outlined in the selection policy.

A written policy is a great public relations tool. Every librarian must continually work to make the public aware of the library and the services available through it, and what better way than to explain the criteria used in performing this basic service?

Communication must take place between the library and the community it serves. Numerous opportunities to aid this communication arise during the adoption process. The community analysis process, the discussion formulating the policy contents, and the repartee among and between all parties to the policy all provide such occasions. Good public relations are built from energetic communi-

cation of logical thinking. Logical thinking should be evident from the wording of the criteria the library decides upon to use in this area.

Accountability

A catchword we hear a lot today is "accountability." One positive connotation of accountability is understanding, and that is the fundamental rationale for drawing up a selection policy. The library staff and the public the library serves must understand the criteria used to select materials for incorporation into the collection. Community analysis will show the library staff whom they have to communicate with to foster this understanding. The community's reactions during the analysis will show the staff how to reach the various segments of the library clientele. As communication continues, understanding grows and real accountability is served. The primary responsibility for adoption of a selection policy must reside with one person or department of the library from start to finish. Dividing the task among too many persons or departments can bog it down and seriously jeopardize its future. This individual or department must energetically oversee the process.

The selection procedure must be described. The document that does this will outline the steps followed and tell who performs the tasks. The smaller the staff, the simpler the procedure description, so that smaller libraries might prefer to append it directly to the policy. Most likely, in a large library the procedure description would be a separate document. The rationale for the procedure (legal, budgetary, etc.) should be apparent. References from the procedure section to the policy sections involved should further clarify the rationale.

Having a clearly understandable and widely publicized selection policy will prove invaluable when questions are raised about materials in the library collection. Once raised, questions must be answered positively. The good public relations developed during the process of formulating and adopting the policy provides the strength needed to respond to these questions. The practice the library staff has had in thinking through and analyzing the selection criteria in order to set them down on paper will have strengthened their convictions and shown ways to answer possible criticism.

Positive thinking must be the rule in writing the policy. At no time is this more important than at the time a selection decision or policy is questioned. Many times questioning of policy will be expressed negatively. "Why don't you have . . .?" or "Why can't you . . .?" are common. The best way of answering this sort of criticism is to refrain from becoming negative in response. Thus, "We don't have that book because . . ." becomes "We have this (these) books

you might use." "You don't know . . ." becomes "Our information indicates . . ." Of course, this may prove an insufficient response to some people. The situation may call for an individual conference with the person.

One key element of the selection policy must be a detailed procedures for handling complaints. This should include a final stage at which the complainant is required to commit the complaint to writing, and thus focus the complaint.

The absence of a written complaint opens the whole incident to a wider range of misinterpretations. The whole affair can become a matter of hearsay. Using a written complaint form shows that the library is a businesslike operation which takes the complainant and his complaint seriously.

Direction in executing the policy loosens gradually over time as trust is built up. A very specific and restrictive selection policy and procedure may be necessary at first, because the basis for trust among all parties in the process must be built. Over time, as the library staff and the board's relationship develops, mutual respect and trust build, and a more general statement will probably be sufficient. As this happens, both the board and the library staff become more at ease; monitoring of the selection process and adherence to the policy may slip.

At this point, an assault on a selection or the selection policy can be devastating. A formal protest may be lodged, and the library staff may not be mindful of applicable policy or procedure. When this happens, the library faces a huge task in rebuilding credibility, public relations, and the trust and confidence of the board.

Once policies and procedures are in place, a constant program of re-examination and re-evaluation must continue.[2] Nothing can be allowed to interfere with this, for the library risks losing direction if this happens. Here again, it is important to designate one individual or department responsible. The public image of the library must be one of direction toward well stated and well understood goals and objectives. Periodic reviews are absolutely essential to that effort.

Intellectual Freedom

One of the most difficult parts of any selection policy is that of outlining the library's stance toward intellectual freedom issues. The American tradition of freedom, best exemplified by the Constitution and the Bill of Rights, guarantees freedom. We all know, however, that those guarantees are only as good as the effort we invest in protecting and defending them.

History provides a long narrative of repression, and the American experience of freedom of thought, word and deed is the exception rather than the rule. Censorship has exhibited an "evolution from heresy to treason to obscenity" from the Middle Ages to today.[3]

The "modern" focus on obscenity caps a long history which began in the Middle Ages. One early censorship effort was the publication by the Vatican of the *Index Liborum Prohibitorum* in 1559. Coming at a time when only a limited number of books were available to the very small group of persons who were literate, this vehicle was designed to defend the church from heretical attacks.

As nations stabilized, with more powerful governments, they became concerned about anti-government attacks. Printing had developed substantially, and more people could read, greatly increasing the influence of the printed word. Whereas blacklisting by the church had been sufficient to control the flow of ideas, more powerful means became necessary. The rise of the printers' guilds gave governments what they sought. The king exerted prior restraint by revoking monopolies of guilds which published "unacceptable" political pamphlets. Under this system, printing could only be done by licensed printers, and the king was the only person who could issue a license. Political censorship was in full swing.

The French and American Revolutions of the late 1700s mark a great turning point. Political and religious repression had existed side by side. The revolutionaries in France and America were intent upon minimizing the influence of the church. Their more restrictive ideas about erotic material sharply differed from those of the church. Conditions were right for developing censorship of erotic materials.

America has seen censorship of books on the basis of sex, national security, political content, religion, and other topics. Periodically certain public figures have tried, by sponsoring legislation or by conducting vigorous personal campaigns, to impose their views on the whole of American society. Beginning with the Alien and Sedition Acts and continuing through today's Moral Majority, we can trace a long line of persons and organizations whose conception of our constitutional guarantees is/was limited. From the Civil War on, the evolution of the communications media made it possible to coordinate national campaigns. One of the first of these was that by Anthony Comstock and the New York Society for the Suppression of Vice. In 1865 their efforts succeeded in gaining the passage of a federal law banning the sending of obscene matter through the mails.[4]

One repressive influence we see today comes from the Moral Majority. They resolve to protect children and the sanctity of life. The post World War II baby boom generation is now in the process

of developing family groups and having children. Their former concerns, as expressed during the Vietnam War, for a more radical approach to government and to the conduct of life in general, have changed as they have aged and taken on family responsibilities. The fact that they make up such a large segment of the population guarantees that their concerns will be brought before the public forum more often. Whether one is a politician looking for votes, a deodorant manufacturer who wants to sell a product, or a television show host who wants high Nielsen ratings, the concerns expressed as those of the largest segment of the public play an important role.

The Moral Majority's expressed concern for protecting children and its position on right-to-life issues has brought it support from young family people. Many who might disagree with the organization on other issues support these areas. Thus, the censorship strength of the Moral Majority is greater than its outright membership suggests. The Moral Majority focuses concern on a narrow spectrum of issues to build its strength.[5]

Battles concerning intellectual freedom issues generally are fought over one issue or over the inclusion or exclusion of a particular book. The emotionalism which generally arises in these battles can obscure all real issues during the battles. Restoring reason to these situations requires balance. At this point, a well formulated and well followed selection policy is essential. It constitutes clear evidence that thought has been put into developing the collection, and that the community's expressed wishes have been taken into account during the formulation and with the execution of the policy.[6]

Librarianship has been characterized as being peopled by "passive communicators."[7] Librarians need to assume an active stance in controlling the development of the library collection. All other intellectual freedom issues must receive active consideration and energetic commitment.

The public library staff, in consultation with its community and its board, must be in control of collection development. The formulation and adoption of a selection policy is one way to do this. It is important to stay committed to the task of developing a policy statement until it is done, since the process can raise many questions. The temptation to solve all selection problems at once must be avoided. In drawing up and adopting a selection policy, the library comes to grips with many of the basic issues governing the operation of the library. Each success in dealing with an issue helps build a foundation for dealing with other issues.

In the end, then, the formulation and adoption of a selection policy can be the beginning of an all out effort directed toward better library services for the patron. Within librarianship, service must remain most important, and collections must be built which best fulfill service goals.

Notes

[1] Merritt, LeRoy Charles. *Book Selection and Intellectual Freedom.* New York: H. W. Wilson Company, 1970, 24-32. Much of the first part of this discussion is adapted from Chapter 2 of this book.

[2] *Ibid.*, 55.

[3] Ernst, M. L., and William Sengle. *To the Pure: a Study of Obscenity and the Censor.* New York: The Viking Press, 1928, 140.

[4] *Ibid.*, 105.

[5] Davis, L. J. "Conservatism in America." *Harper's*, Oct. 1980, 21.

[6] Merritt. *Ibid.*, 31.

[7] Kister, Kenneth. "A Unique Course on Intellectual Freedom and Censorship." *Book Selection and Censorship in the Sixties*, ed. Eric Moon, New York: R. R. Bowker Company, 1969, 397.

Further Readings

Asheim, Lester. "Not Censorhip but Selection." *Wilson Library* Bulletin, September, 1953.

This article makes the best, most coherent, and eloquent statement for a positive philosophy of selection. A classic.

Bonk, Wallace John and Rose Mary Magrill. *Building Library Collections.* Fifth Edition. Metuchen, New Jersey: The Scarecrow Press, 1979.

This is a basic text which provides a very good comprehensive introduction to the issues involved in collection building. The extensive bibliographies at the end of each chapter provide ample resources for further reading.

Carter, Mary Duncan, *et. al. Building Library Collections.* Fourth Edition. Metuchen, New Jersey: The Scarecrow Press, 1974.

This earlier edition of the Bonk work cited above was the last for which Carter was directly responsible. She died in 1978. Especially good is inclusion of the Lester Asheim article "Not Censorship but Selection," cited above.

Ernst, M. L. and William Sengle. *To the Pure: a Study of Obscenity and the Censor.* New York: The Viking Press, 1928.

This book summarizes and surveys the development of official censorship from early times through the 19th century.

Ernst, M. L. and Alexander Lindey. *The Censor Marches On: Recent Milestones in the Administration of the Obscenity Law in the United States.* New York: Doubleday, 1940.

This continues the work cited above, providing an indepth look at the litigation considered by the Supreme Court and others between 1910 and the date of publication.

Gaver, Mary Virginia. *Background Readings in Building Library Collections.* Metuchen, New Jersey: The Scarecrow Press, Incorporated, 1969. (2 volumes)

Especially good in these volumes is one essay, "The Library in Our Town," by Dorothy Canfield Fisher, which appeared in *The Atlantic Monthly* of October, 1946, pp. 127-30. It describes how books were selected in the Vermont town Fisher lived in. A very entertaining piece which repays careful reading. Community analysis, intellectual freedom, and public relations are all there.

Haines, Helen Elizabeth. *Living with Books: the Art of Book Selection.* New York: Columbia University Press, 1950.

This book was characterized by one sixties author as expousing the "I-love-books" line. Be that as it may, this is an essential book to read as part of a core of titles to learn the skill of positive book selection. Each section provides positive criteria one can use based on the genre and/or subject matter of the works being selected.

Katz, William A. *Collection Development: the Selection of Materials for Libraries.* New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, 1980.

This volume is a very comprehensive, up-to-date treatment of collection development. A final section is devoted to censorship. The text and the references provide access to a great deal of the best of the present and past literature.

_____. *Magazine Selection: How to Build a Community-oriented Collection.* New York: R. R. Bowker, 1971.

"One man's view of magazines," this volume is valuable for its Chapter 3,

entitled "Art of Selection." Several key questions to be answered in selecting public library periodicals are listed. Written in 1971, the technical portions of the book provide good treatment of the aids included. Katz also discusses then current practice in collection-building in relation to intellectual freedom issues.

Lane, Alfred H. *Gifts and Exchange Manual.* Westport, Connecticut: Greenwood Press, 1980.

"A handbook of procedures" which provides guidance in carrying out a gifts and exchange program. Lane concentrates on academic libraries, but much of his ideas could be applied to the public library situation as well.

Merritt, LeRoy Charles. *Book Selection and Intellectual Freedom.* New York: H. W. Wilson Company, 1970.

This shorter work provides the basics of the impact of intellectual freedom and book selection. Chapter Two: "Writing a Selection Policy" is a very good treatment of how to proceed.

Moon, Eric, ed. *Book Selection and Censorship in the Sixties.* New York: R. R. Bowker, 1969.

Most articles here appeared in *Library Journal* during the 1960s. Remarkably relevant to intellectual freedom concerns are two particular articles: "A Unique Course in Intellectual Freedom and Censorship," by Kenneth Kister, pp. 395-415; and "The Falacy of 'Balance' in Public Library Book Selection," by Ronald A. Landor, pp. 37-40.

Van Orden, Phyllis and Edith B. Phillips. *Background Readings in Building Library Collections.* Second Edition.

This work is one which presents a carefully balanced view of library collection building. The authors avoid taking a position; rather they expose the reader to all possible aspects of the subjects discussed. Sections of the work cover collection development, selection policies, the selection process, evaluation, publishers' and producers' roles, and recent trends. Each section lists further reading under "Recommended Readings."

Staffing vs. Collection Development

Nick Schenkel

The decade of the 1980s can be one of great promise for libraries. An explosion of knowledge is upon us as an ever more educated public, greatly expanded audio visual resources, a national trend toward self help and an increase in the number of vocational and college level courses which emphasize library services all point to increasingly favorable library conditions in the near future.

Yet at the same time, the struggle between the the library budgets for staff and those for materials grows more, not less, crucial as time passes. After the rather flush times of the 1960s and early 1970s when federal and state funds poured into the library world in amounts previously unheard of, a mixture of tax revolts by citizens, government economy moves on the local, state and national levels, and ever increasing prices for materials and staff have forced many libraries to wonder just how they are to apportion their budgets for best results.

In response, many libraries seem to take the stoic route of cutting back on staff and materials in amounts which nearly parallel each other, claiming all the while that unless aid is given soon even

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more drastic cuts will need to be made. Yet, others appeal to a vaudvillian mixture of crass pessimism and public threats.

A few libraries have experimented with new versions of old ideas and some have gone even further and introduced new features and funding sources. Thus, the appearance of the library volunteer staffer, increased automation of the library and a growth in renewed public spirited campaigns to "buy a book for the library" have evolved.

Viewed separately, each of the methods of coping with the funding problem has its supporters (and detractors), and each method can claim a fair amount of success for its adherents, which shows that most any action taken with sufficient zeal and a dose of good luck will succeed to some degree.

Even when adequate funding is achieved however, the question still remains, how are the costs of staffing and materials for the collection to be brought into some kind of balance with each other? Let us examine the importance of each in turn.

Staff vs. Materials

As an item in the library's budget, a good case can be made for taking the library's collection as the single most important part of any library. Contained within it in print, audio visual or computer format are the guts and sinews of any library's services, the information and the recreation which the library's patrons seek. Here are the thrilling fictional stories, the Dow Jones stock averages, the how to's of flower arranging and car repair, the terse arguments of scholars, the precise observations of scientists. Here reside the comedic genius of Chaplin, the beauties of the Rocky Mountains, the voices of FDR and Walter Cronkite, the melodies of Tschaikowsky and Bach, the fantasies of Sendak and Seuss.

It is the library's media which the patrons can check out, peruse or copy. It is the collection which must be cataloged, shelved, accessed, repaired, recalled, reserved and ordered regularly.

But it is equally true that it is the library staff who carry out the tasks which need to be performed to keep the collection in order, up-to-date and in good repair. It is the reference and children's librarians who answer questions from patrons, compile book lists, put together film and record bibliographies, contact and work with community groups in the library's programming area. Without a library staff no material can be circulated and the buildings cannot be opened for public use.

The library administrator is on the horns of a dilemma. Cutting the collection budget will sacrifice the library's reason for existence. Cutting staff hinders the library's ability to serve the public.

Short term solutions such as temporarily freezing staff levels and purchasing fewer materials lead to long range headaches. Those books not purchased in 1982 may never be purchased in the future. And with lower materials budgets, the importance of books often supercedes the need for the library to meet patron demand for audio visuals, programming and the new and growing field of computers. Stagnation in services and gradual degradation of library services becomes apparent as old habits of behavior become ingrained, new training patterns and ideas are not sought, staff is not replaced, conferences are not attended, and the expansion of library services is stopped.

A sudden increase in federal, state or even local funding is very unlikely. It is also unlikely that costs for staffing or materials will go down. Built-in escalators will see to it that staff contracts and media publisher's prices will continue to rise.

Librarians must, therefore, realize that low budgets will not soon be remedied, that staff and collection cutbacks at times are unavoidable, and must meet these times of cutbacks and slow growth with a reasoned approach to library service, which looks to the future of libraries and their services and not back to the past when times were richer.

The attempts by many to draw a line between staffing and collection building and argue that one must be cut more than the other is useless in solving the problems which result from budget cutbacks. Each has its undeniable uses in the library; friction between the two only serves to lessen library service to the public.

Instead of friction, then, libraries should be exploring ways to develop both staffing and collection development with an eye towards economy and efficiency. Conflict between the two should be lessened, not increased, as means are found to shore up needed services in both areas without sacrificing either for the sake of the other. Some personal ideas on how to begin follow.

In collection development, it is time to realize that libraries are not meant to be set up as social service centers, museums, community recreation centers or grandiose monuments to an architect's dreams. A library is meant to provide the community it serves (be it public, school, academic, business, or whatever) with as complete a collection of recreational and informational media as can be offered.

In this spirit, increased use of less expensive book and audio visual formats are an obvious alternative to cut backs of library offerings. Though many librarians are loath to see the introduction of paperbacks into their collections, use of these for subjects which

will soon become dated (science) or which are likely to be lost in circulation (the occult) make sense from a budgetary view. The use of less expensive book club editions for second and third copies of best sellers in public libraries and rental collections are other means of keeping budgets in the black while still providing the public with the books they want.

In the area of audio visuals, the collection of expensive 16mm films by individual libraries might be on the way out. In Indiana the costs for maintaining and building such collections has caused the possible suspension of even the statewide film service. Less expensive video and even filmstrip and slide formats can often be introduced. In the case of video, the service will be welcomed by the growing number of video enthusiasts.

Computer Networks

The increasing ability of computer networks to supply reference citations and even hard data should be encouraged by all libraries concerned with lowering collection costs. It is not inconceivable that in the next ten years, a large amount of reference service will be performed through computer use. Not only will this save space by eliminating numerous paper copies of reference materials, it will eventually save the library money as well since the information will not be housed in the collection, but will be rented from a supplier.

Appeals to the public for donations to the library are a source of funding all too often overlooked. The West Lafayette Public Library is a good example of what can be done in this area. The library selects those periodicals, books and media which it feels should form the basis of a good public library collection and then announces to the public at large that it is accepting donations of any and all books, magazines, records and other usable library type material. The results have been gratifying in the sheer quantity of materials donated on a regular basis; this has been worth the effort since quality materials are donated. As many as 20 different magazine subscriptions have been picked up by members of the community; magazines of quality such as *Life*, *Architectural Digest and Poetry* and even the *Christian Science Monitor*, have been donated, saving the library valuable funds to be used elsewhere. Back copies of nearly any magazine which the library wants to keep are found from the donations of patrons. Phonograph records are also a commonly donated item ranging from classical to rock and pop. Such donations

allow the library to concentrate its budget on purchasing new releases which keep its collection current. The library has yet to purchase a copy of a paperback for its popular browsing collection; often donated copies of best sellers or lost classics act as quick replacements.

The judicious use of interlibrary loans and cooperative collection development between libraries can be of much help also. In a three or four county area, every library need not collect large collections in every area. Through discussion, one library can be appointed to collect in one little used area, and the other libraries in other such areas. Academic libraries have done this for years. A health library for example, will collect few works on fiction and the general humanities and social sciences library will collect few books on surgery, thus, allowing each library to serve its specialized clientele while still providing a wealth of library materials to its patrons through library cooperation.

Library Staffing

Staffing is usually the largest item in any library's budget.[1] And it is also the item which causes the most panic among librarians when the budget is cut back. Less money budgeted for staff means lower salary increases (or no increases at all) or even the reduction of staff, through retirement or at worst, firing. And certainly, staffing the library is a major need for the library to be open at all. Someone must circulate the books, clean the records, answer reference questions and open the doors in the morning.

But with contracting budgets, the need for different types of staff must come under close scrutiny. When all is said and done, a library can operate with a small staff. It cannot operate without books and other media, the very basis for services.

This is not a clarion call for the elimination or cut back in clerical staff and/or professional staff. It is a reminder that with limited funds available, much thought should be given to hiring new staff while the materials budgets remain strapped.

The old image of the librarian as a dynamo of energy who manages an entire organization with minimun staff is due for a comeback. While most library jobs, taken on a per person or per activity basis alone, are clerical, the heart of library service today - reader's advisory, materials selection, and cataloging - are professional

occupations. A professional cadre of trained and experienced professionals are needed to handle these. Nevertheless, library directors would be remiss if they did not consider the possibility of using their professional staff at least part of the time for clerical work. Although years have been spent extricating the profession from a myriad of clerical jobs, when budgets contract, job descriptions expand. While it is less expensive to hire clerical than professional staff, clerical staff can rarely perform professional duties. The reverse is quite possible and practical.

Another option available, and one that should not be dismissed lightly, is the use of volunteers in the library. Many public service organizations such as schools and hospitals, already use the donated services of people from the community. Use of volunteers in libraries in the past has met with opposition from the professional staff, who fear that volunteers didn't know how to do the job, were unreliable and/or were after professional jobs and were therefore seen as a threat to job security.

Properly handled, none of these worries need arise. A volunteer needs to be trained for the job just as any other employee needs to be, and the volunteer needs to be selected just as carefully as the professional or clerical staff. The volunteer will be just as reliable as the professional and clerical staff (and sometimes more so) if the volunteer is to feel that his/her activities are vital to the operation of the library and the amount of hours assigned are not out of line.

Though many volunteers do express an interest in library service, few are ready to commit themselves to the profession full time. If they are, such a commitment should be welcomed, provided that the person is a valuable addition to the library world. It is the responsibility of the library administration to assure the paid staff that volunteers are not being hired to replace paid staff.

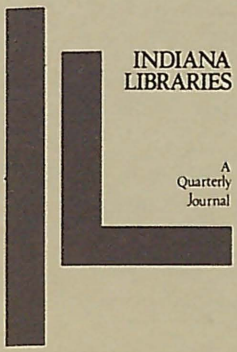
The advantages of volunteer staffing are important. Volunteer activity increases public awareness of the library in the community. It emphasizes the need for adequate library funding and, because of the diversity of personalities, educational backgrounds and talents, an enriching atmosphere is provided. Professional and clerical staff can learn from the volunteers just as the volunteer can learn from the professional. And best of all, the use of volunteers helps to keep staffing costs down, once more moving the budget tension between staffing and collection development towards conciliation.

Also to be considered is job sharing. While those employees who work part time usually do not receive the benefits that full time staff do, they do have schedule flexibility. Thus, those skilled in various jobs, be they clerical or professional, but who do not desire to work full time, can assist in a more meaningful way.

Certainly both staff and collection are essential parts of any library. Within the 1980s a spirit of enthusiasm and hope can help all involved work towards the solution of good library services as well as supplies.

Note

[1] Indiana State Library. *Statistics of Indiana Libraries, 1980.* Indianapolis: Indiana State Library, 1981.



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Themes and Deadlines

Theme	Issue	Manuscript Deadline
Children's and Young Adult Services	Fall 1982	June 1, 1982
Potpourri	Winter 1982	September 1, 1982
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