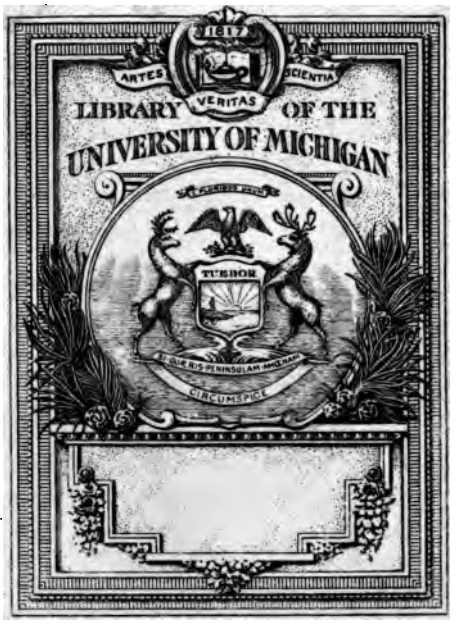
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National Educational Association

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE

ON

Instruction in Library Administration in Normal Schools

May, 1906

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NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION of the United States. Committee on instruct in library administration in normal sch

REPORT

ON (i.e. instruction)

INTRODUCTION IN LIBRARY ADMINISTRATION

IN

NORMAL SCHOOLS

PREPARED BY

ELIZABETH G. BALDWIN

SUBMITTED TO THE NATIONAL COUNCIL OF EDUCATION BY A COMMITTEE ON CO-OPERATION BETWEEN PUBLIC SCHOOLS AND PUBLIC LIBRARIES IN ACCORDANCE WITH THE RECOMMENDATION OF THE NATIONAL COUNCIL AND THE AUTHORIZATION OF THE BOARD OF DIRECTORS AT ITS MEETING IN ASBURY PARK, N. J., JULY 6, 1905

"The Public Library is an integral part of our system of public and free education"

MAY, 1906
Published by the Association
Secretary's Office, Winona, Minn.

PRINTED AT THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO PRESS, CHICAGO

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REPORT OF THE SPECIAL COMMITTEE ON INSTRUCTION IN LIBRARY ADMINISTRATION IN NORMAL SCHOOLS

LETTER OF TRANSMISSION

To the President and Members of the National Council of Education:

This report is made in accordance with the following resolution of the Library Department of the National Educational Association, passed at St. Louis, June 30, 1904:

> It is the sense of this department that greater uniformity in library methods would be effective in bringing the benefit of library work to all classes of schools, and it is therefore recommended that the Library Department be authorized to prepare a manual of library methods, to be printed and distributed in the same manner as was, in 1897, the "Report on the Relations of the Public Libraries to Public Schools."

The National Educational Association has never felt it desirable to undertake the publication of manuals or text-books. Accepting this policy as settled and wise, this committee named by the Library Department (and confirmed by your Council), and charged with the duty expressed in the above resolution, entered into extended correspondence with the leading normal schools of the country, and prepared a preliminary report, presented at the Asbury Park meeting, July, 1905. It was there ordered that the Committee proceed to elaborate the report, and that when completed it should be printed for distribution to members of the Council and others; and the sum of three hundred dollars was appropriated for the necessary expenses.

The committee expresses its great obligation to Miss Elizabeth G. Baldwin, librarian of Teachers College, one of the several colleges of Columbia University, by whom the body of the report has been compiled. She is daily in contact with the very best forms of normal instruction and the very best types of normal students, and therefore is doubly prepared for a satisfactory completion of this generous undertaking.

The work has been done under the general supervision of the chairman of the committee, aided by constant suggestions of other members. It has been difficult, because of different conditions to be considered. Neither in quantity nor in quality is the instruction for students in high schools identical with that possible for those in normal schools. Many normal graduates will have charge of very small school libraries, and for these the simplest forms and methods are quite sufficient. Others will become responsible for the larger and more highly specialized libraries of well-equipped high schools. Many are to work in towns

which are fortunate enough to possess good public libraries, and therefore ought to be well informed as to the administrative possibilities of these. All ought to be sufficiently versed in library economy to be able to take an intelligent and effective interest in the public library from the standpoint of good citizenship. To suggest instruction covering the entire ground, without impossible details or mere generalizations, is no easy task. That the result will be entirely satisfactory cannot be expected. Librarians themselves are not entirely agreed upon the details of their profession. The report is not to be taken as a text-book—rather as a book of texts; as suggestive, to be abridged or enlarged as conditions and the experience of the instructor may determine.

The committee suggests that not less than ten lectures or class periods be given to this work, with two hours' practice-work for each period—thirty hours (minimum) in all. Double this time would be better.

It is presumed that a teacher, whether librarian or other, using this report as a basis of instruction, will find helpful in preparation for the work of each day the authors and texts referred to in the body of each section, as well as in the bibliography given at the close of each. Students also will find these references helpful in their study of the subjects presented.

The committee hopes that this report may serve as a daily guide for those interested in this work, after their more personal and independent work as teachers has begun; and that it may stimulate and render more efficient the interest of school officers and of the general public in the administration and work of public libraries.

Respectfully submitted

JAMES H. CANFIELD, *Chairman*
MELVIL DEWEY
MARY E. AHERN
ELECTRA C. DOREN
MARTIN HENSEL

JANUARY, 1905.

REPORT

Public library growth.—Step by step, slowly perhaps but certainly, the public library is following the path already trodden by the public school. The experience of the one is almost identical with that of the other. The success of the one has been determined, and evidently will be determined, by the same factors which solved the problems of the other. There has been the same indifference on the part of the favored few, the few who seem entirely able to create libraries of their own—whether they are able to enjoy them and appreciate them or not; the same early and crude endeavor to meet a demand which was itself immature and more or less unintelligent—the free schools and the free library arise under similar educational and social conditions; the same spirit of condescension and the same patronizing air, assumed by the so-called better class, as though the free schools and the free libraries were philanthropies and not necessities; the same blundering and short-sightednesss of some friends of the public-library movement, the failure to ground the library on that sure foundation, public service; the same complaint on the part of the taxpayers about "useless expenditure" and "fads and frills;" the same meager pay and inadequate recognition given to library workers; the same slow growth of a true professional spirit; and now there is coming, practically has come, the same hearty recognition of a worthy place and of true value. This recognition of the free public library was scarely discernible even ten years ago.

Public library place.—The place now assigned the public library, by very general consent, is that of an integral part of our system of public and free education. On no other theory has it sure and lasting foundation; on no other theory may it be supported by general taxation; on no other theory can it be wisely and consistently administered. A public tax can be levied for the maintenance of a public library only upon the principle which underlies all righteous public taxation; not that the taxpayer wants something and will receive it in proportion to the amount of his contribution, but that the public wants something of such general interest and value that all property-owners may be asked and required to contribute toward its cost.

Public library purpose.—In the particular case under consideration, that something is the general rise in the average line of life, of intelligent and therefore effective citizenry, an advance beyond that which the public schools are able to accomplish. The demand for this intelligent and effective citizenship is increasing daily, for two reasons. First, the problems of public life and of public service, of communal existence (local, state, and national), are daily becoming more complex, more difficult of satisfactory solution. Second, we are recognizing more clearly than ever before that our present success and prestige

are due (more than to any other cause) to the fact that more than any other people in the world's history have we succeeded in securing the active participation and practical co-operation of the whole people in all public affairs. In the whole people are we finding and are we to find wholesomeness and strength.

Public schools not enough.—But coincident with this discovery, this keen realization of the place and value of all in advancing the common interests of all, has come the feeling, first, that the common public schools must be made good enough for all; and, second, that even at their best they are insufficient. The five school years (average) of the American child constitutes a very narrow portal thru which to enter upon the privileges and duties of life, as we desire life to be to every child born under the flag. There is need of far more information, instruction, inspiration, and uplift than can possibly be secured in that limited time.

Libraries supplement schools.—Casting about for a satisfactory supplement and complement for the public schools, we find the public library ready to render exactly this service; to make it possible for the adult to continue thru life the growth begun in childhood in the public school. Only in this way and by this means can we hope to continue the common American people as the most uncommon common people which the world has yet known.

Henceforth then, these two must go hand in hand, neither trenching upon the field of the other, neither burdening or hampering the other, each helping the other. The public school must take the initiative, determining lines of thought and work, developing in each child the power to act and the tendency to act, making full use of the public library as an effective ally in all its current work, and making such use of it as to create in each pupil the library habit, to last thru life. The public library must respond by every possible supplementary effort, by most intelligent co-operation, by most sympathetic and effective assistance, and by giving the pupils a welcome which they will feel holds good till waning physical powers make further use of the library impossible.

Teachers and libraries.—Those who are to enter upon the profession of teaching will find themselves necessarily and gladly in this contact with the public library. Often they themselves must add the duties of librarian to other daily tasks. In some communities the school library is the only collection of books available to pupils, or which find their way into homes. It is exceedingly desirable, therefore, that teachers learn the elements at least of library administration, and that there shall be more uniformity in school-library methods.

Method of instruction. The ideal method of presenting this subject is by a thoroly trained and experienced librarian and teacher. In larger normal schools this demand ought to be met by their own librarians, who should invariably be as well trained and as efficient as any member of the teaching force. Wherever this is not feasible, the normals of a state, and even of adjoining states, may o-operate and secure a "traveling instructor." When this *seems impracticable* the school should do the best it can, with whatever assist-

ance or instruction is possible. Under either method, and in any event, this report proposes to be helpful to both instructors and teacher-students.

The proposed instruction covers scarcely more or other than anyone ought to know if he is to gather wisely even a private library; surely not more than an active citizen should know if he is to serve effectively as a trustee of a public library, and certainly not more than ought to be perfectly familiar to every teacher from the standpoint of either her professional work or of general influence in the community in which her lot is cast. Indeed, there is little which outruns what nowadays may be called common information. There would be something rather pitiful in the position of one who hoped to be much of a force in any segment of human society, yet was without at least this much knowledge of these everyday matters. In a word, there seems every reason for offering this instruction in normal schools, and possibly even in high schools which are preparing their graduates to teach; and no possible excuse for ignoring this.

Limits of instruction.—The kind and extent of instruction in library economy given in a normal school will be determined by the time secured for lectures and practice-work. The following will be found suggestive:

The Indiana Public Library Commission has published a normal-school course. The director of the library school of the Western Reserve University has planned a course on reference and bibliographic work as subjects to be taught in high schools and normal schools, based upon materials of instruction found in school curricula.

The Illinois State Normal University (at Normal) gives a course of six weeks in formation and care of school libraries; including selection and purchase of books, classification, cataloguing, care of school libraries, and treatment of pictures, pamphlets, clippings, etc.

The State Normal School at Whitewater, Wis., has published a very helpful outline of quite similar work.

A brief statement of the course given in the Cleveland Normal School, furnished by Miss E. L. Power, is a type of this class of library instruction:

> The course ranks with other subjects in the curriculum. Three hours a week for two terms of thirteen weeks each are assigned. The public library is used as a laboratory for student practice-work. The first part of the course is the practical use of reference books, and of the library facilities of Cleveland.
>
> The work correlates with the school work in nature-study, history, geography, etc., so that real problems are solved by practice-work in the library. Visits are made by groups of students to the public library, and a general idea is obtained of the location and purpose of different departments and of the rules and regulations and special privileges.
>
> This is followed by elementary instruction in the principles of dictionary cataloguing and of the decimal classification. Practical problems in the use of the catalog are given, and students are required to arrange books on the shelves of the normal school library.
>
> After eighteen lectures, the detailed study of reference-books is commenced, with practical work in the public and school library. After two weeks, students work without supervision.
>
> Methods of presentation of the subject to children in the elementary schools are then discussed.

Selection and use of schoolroom libraries lead to the second part of the course, viz., juvenile literature. The aim is (1) to gain a wider knowledge of children's literature; (2) to study the best methods of presenting good literature to children (story-telling, reading aloud, etc.).

Public Libraries:

McNeil, A. H. What the normal school may do to provide for library work in schools. 1901, 6:80–81.

Milner, A. V. Instruction in use of catalogues and reference books in normal schools. 1899, 4:324–326.

Salisbury, G. E. Library work in a state normal school (Whitewater). 1903, 8:93–94.

Warren, Irene. Instruction in the use of books in a normal school. 1898, 3:151–153.

Library Journal:

Adams, E. L. Instruction in the use of reference books and libraries in normal and preparatory schools. 1898, 23:c 84–86.

Clatworthy, L. M. A library course given to city normal school students. 1906, 31: 160–163.

Cooper, T. B. Is there a need for instruction in library methods by the normal schools and universities? 1906, 31: 157–160.

Mead, H. R. Training students in the use of books. 1905, 30:c 82–84. (Intended for college students.)

Vitalizing the relation between the library and the school. (1) The school, by M. L. Prentice. 1901, 26:78–80. (An account of the instruction given in the Cleveland Normal School.)

N. E. A. Proceedings:

Brett, W. H., and Ahern, M. E. Library instruction in the normal school. 1903: 971–981.

Noss, T. B. Library work in normal schools. 1904:912–917.

Salisbury, G. E. Discussion. 1904:917–918.

Schreiber, M. E. Training of teachers so that they may co-operate with librarians. 1897:1008–1014.

Warren, Irene. What the normal schools can do for teachers on the library side, 1901:841.

Wilkinson, J. N. Duty of the normal school in relation to district school libraries. 1904:919–923.

Your committee suggests that the instruction offered ought to cover the following subjects:

School libraries: place and value both as general collections and for special instruction, types, how to organize.

The public library and the public school: the field of each and general relations, loans, bulletins, class-room libraries, museums.

How to use a library: books as tools, care of books, book-making, reference-books.

The school library room: location, light, heat and ventilation, equipment.

Selection and ordering of books: authority of librarian, sources of material, aid in selection, sales catalogs, methods of ordering and accounting.

Children's reading: finding lists—for teachers, for children.

Incoming books: invoices, accessioning, marks of ownership.

Cataloguing and classification: systems of each, forms, preparation of cards.

Library routine: loan and charging system, call-numbers, shelf-list.

Binding: material, pamphlets, general care, repairs.

Library associations: national, state, local; library schools.

State laws relating to school libraries.

I. SCHOOL LIBRARIES

Place and value.—Primarily, the function of a school library is to furnish an additional incentive for intelligent and independent work in the schoolroom; to arouse interest in the unexplored field of knowledge outside the text-book; to bring students into personal touch with the best writers on any given subject; and to insure some appreciation of high forms of literary production.

If used in the right way, a well-selected school library will prevent both teacher and pupil from lapsing into those cut-and-dried methods which invariably result in limiting all effort to the mere routine of recitation.

In addition to this function, which may be designated "first aid to the schoolroom," it is desirable (but not necessary) that the school library shall furnish, by means of suitable books, recreation for the pupil in school and at home; and, by means of papers and magazines, shall stimulate a desire to know what is going on in the world, an interest in everyday events both at home and abroad. Like the school, the library is no respecter of persons, but offers all pupils equal opportunities to derive either information or pleasure.

Reference libraries.—School libraries may be divided into two distinct types. The first is a purely reference library, which in addition to the ordinary collection of dictionaries, cyclopedias, etc., does not attempt to provide more than the literature relating directly to the subject-matter of the curriculum. In a strict and technical sense, it "supplements" the more formal instruction of the class-room, and must be regarded as an essential part of the school equipment.

This type reaches its highest development in a closely organized school, whose teachers have been trained in the more modern theories of pedagogy, and who are ever on the alert for ways and means of awakening and holding the pupils' interest in class-room work.

In a school of this type the teachers are all specialists, and usually take entire charge of the children's reading; directing them not only to a particular book or books, but to definite chapters and pages where the indicated references may be found. Collateral reading is recommended and encouraged, but each pupil is held responsible for the assigned reading only.

There is danger that this method of using a library, if rigidly followed, will become mechanical, and will fail to develop either interest or independence of thought in the pupil. But the saving of time, possible because of the training and knowledge of the teacher, is perhaps justifiable where a crowded curriculum necessitates the strictest economy of the pupil's effort both in and out of school.

For a library of this type perhaps three thousand volumes (maximum) of the best and most modern writers will meet all reasonable demands. An occasional weeding out of obsolete literature is necessary to maintain the limits of a purely working collection. There should be a generous duplication of more important books, the extent depending upon the number of pupils using the library.

Crunden, F. M. Books and textbooks: The library as a factor in education. (Second International Library Conference, London, 1897, Transactions, 46–54.)

N. E. A. Proceedings:
Dewey, Melvil. Place of the library in education. 1901:858–864.
Millis, W. A. The library as an educator. 1902:799–805.

Atlantic Monthly:
Scudder, H. E. School libraries. 1893, 72:678–681.

Library Journal:
Sharp, K. L. Libraries in secondary schools. 1895, 20:c 5–11.
Warren, Charles. Place of libraries in a system of education. 1881, 6:90–93.

General libraries.—The second type of school library is found in rural districts, or in villages and towns which have no public library. They serve the school, and generally the public as well, by combining the features of both school and public library.

The function of this type is not only to supplement instruction in the classroom, to offer recreation to the children in and out of school, and to afford pleasure to the family in the home, but also to promote general culture in the community, and to guide and direct thc public in the use of books; so that not only the reading habit may be acquired, but the habit of reading good literature. To those who read good books this library will offer a wider range of subjects and more extended choice of authors than is possible in the average home.

This type, more than the first, needs a trained librarian who can give her entire time to supervision and administration.

American Monthly Review of Reviews:
Poe, C. A. Rural school libraries in North Carolina. 1903, 28:338–339.

N. E. A. Proceedings:
Roberston, Agnes. School libraries in rural districts. 1902:818–824.
Southern Education, 1903, 1, No. 18, Rural libraries. (Published by the Southern Education Board, Knoxville, Tenn.)

How to start a school library.—If a school has no funds for buying books and depends entirely upon its own efforts for starting and maintaining a library, the following suggestions may indicate ways and means of organizing this important department of public education:

Exhibit a number of popular magazines. After looking these over, the children will probably decide to contribute a few pennies each month and subscribe for several, especially if they are told that the magazines can be taken home. Encourage the circulation of these periodicals in the family circle, in order to arouse the interest of parents. Collect pictures and photographs to illustrate history, literature, and science. Perry and Cosmos pictures can be obtained for one cent each. Pleasing and really artistic illustrations may be cut from publishers' circulars, railway advertisements, magazines, worn-out books, etc. The need of a good dictionary, gazetteer, and atlas will be apparent to the most conservative and utilitarian trusteee. This material is the nucleus of the library. Attractive supplementary readers may be secured from publishers, either as a gift or at a nominal price. Borrow or beg from other libraries. Publish in the local paper a list of books needed for school use, and

ask parents and public-spirited citizens to furnish them. Avoid indiscrimi nate gifts of books, if possible. Raise money by entertainments given by the children, garden parties, costume parties, barn dances, song festivals, cake and candy sales, Mrs. Jarley's wax-works, and private theatricals. The women's clubs, the village or town literary and debating societies, if any, should be interested. In several states the Women's Federation of Clubs has organized a system of traveling libraries which circulate among the rural schools. Normal schools, following the example of Hampton Institute, might send out traveling libraries to public schools in which its graduates are teaching. The state library commission, if any, will give valuable aid.

Give a library exhibit in the school, make the room attractive with picture bulletins, serve tea, and invite trustees and parents. Keep the subject before the public thru the local paper.

Relations with trustees.—Friendly relations between teachers and trustees are indispensable. In an informal talk before the board the better methods of presenting a subject to a class with the aid of reference-books may be demonstrated. A teacher who has patience, tact, and enthusiasm can influence the school board even to the point of levying a local tax for the school library.

The size of this combined school-public-library may vary from one thousand to ten thousand volumes, depending upon local conditions. Parents and the community at large should understand that the library is for their use, and will be accessible during vacations, and on specific days after school hours. Traveling libraries, if any exist in the state, may be called upon to furnish more popular reading. An independent public library should be started as soon as possible, and the greater part of the school library transferred to this. More than one public library has had its origin in a small school library.

First arouse interest in the children, then in the parents, then in school officials, then in the general public.

Public library a distinct organization.—The public library ought to be an entirely distinct organization, under a separate board of trustees. The reasons for this are thus summarized by W. R. Eastman, state inspector of libraries for New York:

1. To command public attention. As a part of the school system, the library is sure to take a subordinate place in the public mind, and to lose something of its individual appeal.

2. To secure the best management. The best body for any public service is one especially selected because of fitness for that particular service. People whose interests are divided between the library and school will fail to give the best service to either.

3. To secure endowment and gifts. Experience shows that the library is almost never the recipient of gifts and bequests so long as it is regarded as a part of the school system.

4. For the sake of the work of the school itself. Children will be likely to get much more out of the library to supplement their school work, if it is dissociated in their minds from the atmosphere of restriction and compulsion that obtains in the school. The school represents the compulsory side of education; the library should represent its voluntary, free, and attractive side.

In spite of the added cost of separate management, there are few librarians today who dissent from these principles.

Bayliss, Alfred. Function of school superintendents in procuring libraries for public schools. (N. E. A. Proceedings, 1899:1136–1142.)
Dana, J. C. Advertising a library. (Denver Public Library, Handbook, 1895:12–15; out of print.)
Hutchins, F. A. Securing libraries for rural schools. (In Dana, etc., as below, 1899: 503–505.)
Dana, J. C., ed. Report of committee on the relations of public libraries to public schools. (N. E. A. Proceedings, 1899:452–528.)
Mountjoy, J. C. Schools and libraries. (Public Libraries, 1897, 2:368.)
Southern Education, 1903, 1, No. 18, Rural libraries. (Published by Southern Education Board, Knoxville, Tenn.)
Wire, G. E. How to start a public library, 1902. (A. L. A. Library Tracts, No. 2.) Boston: A. L. A. Publishing Board. 5 cents.

II. THE PUBLIC LIBRARY AND THE PUBLIC SCHOOL

If the village or town has a public library, an independent school library is of secondary importance, and usually an unnecessary feature of school organization.

Functions of public library.—If the public library is modern, and its administration liberal and up to date, the teacher will find her work simplified. It will be simply a matter of co-operation with the librarian. If, however, the opposite conditions exist, a radical change must be brought about; and this will probably demand persistent effort and untiring vigilance on the part of the teacher.

The public library should take charge of all but reference and other books needed for use in the school building. These bear the same relation to the schoolroom that scientific apparatus bears to the laboratory. These are the books which must be always at hand, ready for immediate use.

The public library should undertake the general supervision of the children's reading. Because of daily contact with her pupils, the teacher is better qualified to know and to understand their individual needs and inclinations, but she is rarely as well acquainted as is the librarian with the entire field of juvenile literature, nor has she time to acquire this knowledge. With the books, the tools of her trade, at hand, because of her special training, the librarian ought to be better prepared to advise and direct the children in their general reading.

For their exclusive use, the library should provide a room with suitable equipment, containing the best juvenile literature. A special room or alcove should be assigned to teachers, where they may find at any time the best and most recent literature relating to their profession, periodicals as well as as books. In one large city the public librarian places a set of books, known as the teachers' reference collection, in each branch library. These books are not circulated unless duplicates are available.

Librarian's efforts repaid.—The librarian should understand that whatever she does to help the schools will be repaid with compound interest. In most

communities the public have at heart, more than anything else, the welfare of the public school and all that it implies. When it is once understood that the public library is an indispensable agent in advancing educational progress and is far-reaching in its influence, the librarian may ask, and probably will obtain, anything in reason, even from hitherto reluctant taxpayers.

Library loans.—Books, pictures, and photographs should be lent by the library for class-room use, with necessary duplication. These may be circulated in the various schools, remaining in each as long as wished.

Green, S. S. Use of pictures in libraries. (Free Public Library Commission of Massachusetts, Eighth Report, 1898, 17–28.)

Visits to schools.—The librarian should be supplied with courses of study and outlines of work, and should be invited to visit the school and speak quite informally to the children and teachers about the library.

Library Journal:
Moore, A. C. Library visits to public schools. 1902, 27:181–186.

Library bulletins in schools.—A special library bulletin-board should be in each school building, and the librarian should be asked to furnish news items about the library, its privileges, its rules, lists of new books, lists of books on special subjects, notices of special exhibits, material for the observance of special days—such as Lincoln's birthday, Decoration Day, Flag Day, etc.

Library Journal:
Gaillard, E. W. An experiment in school library work (New York Public Library). 1904, 30:201–204.

Notices of class work.—Lists of subjects to be studied in the various classes should be sent to the library several days before the topics are to be taken up, and the librarian should be asked to prepare for the children's use books, pictures, and any other illustrative material relating to the specified themes. In some libraries, illustrated talks are given to the children to induce them to use certain classes of books.

Teachers should be businesslike in their dealings with the library, and considerate and reasonable under all circumstances and in all their demands. Indeed, as in most personal relations, suggestions and requests are generally more effective than demands.

References.—The following articles give information as to how the public school is using the public library in some cities:

Library Journal:
Bowerman, G. T. School work of the District of Columbia Public Library. 1906, 31:165–166.
Brett, W. H. Use of the public library in the Cleveland schools. 1891, 16:c 30–31.
Burdick, E. E. Educational work of the Jersey City Free Public Library. 1896, 21:359–361.
Chicago Public Library. Public library and public schools. 1883, 8: 281.
Cragin, E. F. Work with the schools at the New York Free Circulating Library. 1898, 23:194–195.
Eastman, L. A. The library and the children (Cleveland Public Library). 1898, 23:142–144.
Elmendorf, H. L. School department of the Buffalo Public Library. 1903, 28: 157–160.
Gilson, M. L. Library and school work in Newark, N. J. 1906, 31:167–168.

Library Journal, continued:

Green, S. S. Public library and the schools in Worcester. 1887, 12:119–121.

Hassler, H. E. Work with children and schools in the Portland (Oregon) Public Library. 1905, 30:214–217.

Hewins, C. M. Relation of the Hartford Public Library to the public schools. 1894, 19:292–295.

Leland, C. G. Work with the schools in the Buffalo Public Library. 1899, 24: 150–151.

Milwaukee Public Library. Library and the schools in Milwaukee. 1890, 15: 21; also 1895, 20:123–124.

Public Libraries:

Crowell, Mary. The school library in the school room (Dayton Public Library) 1899, 4:51–53.

Denver School Library. 1896, 1:54.

Foster, W. E. Co-operation between the schools and libraries in Providence. 1898, 3:244.

N. E. A. Proceedings:

Elmendorf, H. L. The greater school (Buffalo Public Library). 1900: 643–647.

Jones, M. L. School reading thru the public library (Los Angeles Public Library). 1899:1143–1148.

Educational Review:

Peckham, G. W. Public library and public schools (Milwaukee Public Library). 1894, 8:358–362.

The following articles treat of the relations between public libraries and public schools in general:

Green, S. S., ed. Libraries and schools. 1883, o. p. (Chaps. 2, 3, and 6 are reprinted from the *Library Journal*, V, 5, 7, and 8.)

N. E. A. Proceedings:

Bayliss, Alfred. Some co-operative suggestions. 1903:938–943.

Canfield, J. H. Public libraries and the public schools. 1901:836–841.

Crunden, F. M. The school and the library. 1901:108–118.

Dana, J. C., ed. Report of the N. E. A. committee on the relations of libraries and schools. 1899:452–529 (special report).

Doren, E. C. Public library work for schools. 1903:943–948.

Greenwood, J. M. What the school may properly demand of the library. 1902: 811–817.

Meleney, C. E. Place of the library in school instruction. 1904:924–930.

Wright, R. H. How to make the library useful to high-school pupils. 1905: 864–867.

Library Journal:

Adams, C. F., Jr. The public library and the public schools. 1876, 1:437–441. (Also in Green, S. S., libraries and schools.)

Clark, G. I. Methods of school circulation of library books. 1906, 31: 155–157.

Doren, E. C. Library and the school work now done. 1904, 26:c 153–157.

Eastman, L. A. The child, the school and the library. 1896, 21:134–139.

Foster, W. E. The school and the library: their mutual relation. 1879, 4:319–325.

Green, S. S. Relation of the public library to the public school. 1880, 5:235–245. (Also in his libraries and schools:)

———Libraries and schools. 1891, 16:c 22–26.

James, H. P. Libraries in relation to schools. 1893, 18:213–214.

Utley, H. M. Relation of the public library to the public school. 1886, 11:301–305.

Public Libraries:

Brett, W. H. The school and the library. 1905, 10:225–227.

Dewey, Melvil. Relation of school libraries to the public library system. 1905, 10:224–225.

Helpful things done by librarians for teachers and children. 1903, 8:409.

Hutchins, F. A. School work of a librarian. 1905, 10:167–168.

American Monthly Review of Reviews:

Smith, K. L. Provision for children in public libraries. 1900, 22:48–55.

Education:

Carpenter, F. O. The library the center of the school. 1905, 26:110–114.

U. S. Bureau of Education:
Commissioner's Report, 1892–93: 693–697. Correlation of public schools and public libraries.
University Convocation (New York):
Peck, A. L., and Estee, J. E. Correlation of library and school. 1896: 104–116.
Williams, Sherman, and Abrams, A. W. Libraries as a source of inspiration. 1900: 247–254.

Other references on this subject will be found in the appendix.

School museums.—A department closely allied to the library is the museum. If possible, a separate room and a special custodian should be given this, but under the general supervision of the library as an integral part of its work. Costly collections of gems, ivory, pottery, furniture, etc., which may be found, very properly, in a large municipal museum, should not be acquired unless by gift; but all illustrative material relating to school work can be cared for in a library museum.

The collection should include photographs, pictures, casts, models, lantern-slides, charts, stuffed birds, birds' eggs, insects, and other zoölogical objects; as well as geologic, mineralogic, ethnologic, and agricultural specimens, and products of manufacture and industrial art. These should be loaned in the same manner as books, and teachers should furnish lists of all material that the school museum can reasonably be expected to furnish. The children's museum of Brooklyn began in 1900 its pioneer work with children and teachers. It is now a branch of the museum of the Brooklyn institute of Arts and Sciences, and publishes *The Children's Museum News*.

The Webster branch of the New York Public Library has been very successful and helpful in school-museum work, which is steadily growing in importance and in acceptance as a legitimate part of a well-organized and efficient public library.

Public Libraries:
Gaillard, E. W. Beginning of museum work in libraries. 1903, 8: 9–11.
Boggan, E. L. Side light on the museum department of a library. 1903, 8: 11–12.
Library Journal:
Gaillard, E. W. Outcome of the picture bulletin. 1901, 26: 192–193.
——— An extension of the picture bulletin. 1901, 26: 874–875.
Merrill, H. B. Work of the Milwaukee public schools at the public museum. Milwaukee Board of Education. 1904.
St. Nicholas:
Paine, A. B. The children's room at the Smithsonian. 1901, 28¹: 964–973.

Class-room libraries.—The value of class-room libraries can hardly be overestimated. These collections vary in size from twelve to fifty volumes, and should include books both for reference and lending. The public library cannot take the place of the class-room library. The five or ten minutes which a child may have for reading at the close of a study period or during recess on a stormy day would be wasted in a journey to the general school library in another part of the building, while a trip to the public library would be out of the question.

In the schoolroom the children have an opportunity to talk over the books with one another or with the teacher; and as the greater number of books

should be lent over night only, the excuse so often heard, that a particular book "was not in," cannot be offered for a badly prepared lesson.

Children who carefully refrain from reading, apparently on "general principles," in the schoolroom can be led to regard books in the light of a mild entertainment, and will of their own accord apply for membership in the public library.

As a rule, every child will feel responsible for the condition of books in the schoolroom. This is specially true if each child is in turn appointed acting librarian.

But the class-room library cannot take the place of the public library; where the child comes in contact with a larger number of books, has the benefit of the impression which massed books always make, and unconsciously learns certains facts thru picture bulletins, exhibits, etc. Here he meets other children who are interested in some favorite author or some special topic, and he enlarges his own range of knowledge by becoming acquainted with their particular fads and fancies.

Class-room libraries may be provided by the school board or by the public library. If under public-library control, funds should be furnished by the school board to enable the library to care for this work intelligently and economically by means of a traveling library department.

Public Libraries:
Berkey, M. L. Primary schoolroom libraries. 1901, 6:77–79.
Dodd, H. P. Schoolroom libraries in Newark, N. J. 1903, 8:317–318.
N. E. A. Proceedings:
Kaltenbach, Millicent. Room libraries. 1897:1021–1025.
Leland, C. G. Mission of the class library. 1903:953–956.

III. HOW TO USE A LIBRARY

Instruction in use.—Instruction in the most efficient use of a library should form as important a part of the curriculum as instruction in language or in history. It will exert more influence on the pupil's future career as a useful, because an intelligent, citizen, than any two subjects in the course of study. The library rather than the school makes possible and probable a continuation of intellectual activity and progress after school life is finished.

Instruction in the use of libraries will be of service to the student who enters college, and by encouraging individual investigation and research it will develop a habit of reading good literature in the boy who leaves school to engage in business, or in the girl who will be chiefly occupied with social matters.

Care of books.—Children should be taught how to care for books; how to open and close them; how to place books upon a desk, table, or shelf; the objections to pencil marks, to turning down leaves and other injuries, to leaving books out in the rain, or dropping them in the mud, to the unsanitary practice of moistening the fingers before turning leaves; and above all they should *learn the necessity* of clean hands.

The Library League formed among child-readers of the Cleveland public Library has resulted in a marked improvement in their treatment of books.

Library Journal:
Eastman, L. A. The Cleveland Children's Library League. 1897, 22:151–153.
——— The library and the children. 1898, 23:142–144.
Dousman, M. E. Methods of inducing care of books. 1900, 25:60–62.

Public Libraries:
Hammond, Miss. Library league. 1899, 4:32–34.
Dana, J. C. Care of books. (Library Primer, 1903:73–75.)

Making a bibliography.—Each student should be required to make at least one brief subject-bibliography. After assigning the subject, which may relate to school work or to some individual fad of the student, the mechanical method of making a bibliography should be discussed: why cards are preferable, information to be recorded on the card—the author of the book or article, the title, where it may be found if an analytical or magazine article, some note or annotation as to its character or value. Arrangement of the cards should be explained. If the subject is at all prolific, at least one hundred cards ought to be accumulated during the school terms.

Book-making.—Almost at the opening of instruction in details some time should be devoted to the general make-up of a book. A brief history of book-making will serve as introduction.

Putnam, G. H. Books and their makers. 1896–97. New York: Putnam. $2.50.

Public Libraries:
Hoag, J. P. Co-operation of Public Library and Public School. 1904. 9:226.

Then the form and use of the title-page may be described, together with the dedication, preface, introduction, table of contents, chapter headings, running-title, and footnotes. The index, with its often complicated abbreviations, should be carefully explained, with illustrations.

That a library may be used to the best advantage, some elementary instruction should be given as to the scope, character, and value of the different classes of reference-books.

Reference-books.—The following brief enumeration of the more important of these will indicate to both teacher and pupil those general sources of information to be found in nearly all large libraries. Instructors should discuss each of them with the class.

The catalog ought to show what is in the library. Having found out whether the books desired are in the library, the next step is to send for them or go to the shelves for examination. If the catalog or shelves do not furnish the desired information, consult the librarian, who will be ready to interpret the catalog or other library aids.

The best-known of all reference books is the English dictionary; but even with daily handling there are always some pupils who do not know just how much information a plain, unabridged dictionary can offer, with its various appendices and supplements.

The merits and characteristics of the *Century*, *Standard*, *International*, and Murray's English dictionaries should be discussed.

The next most useful book is a general cyclopedia. Explain the difference between a dictionary and a cyclopedia; also why the *Britannica* is most useful in certain investigations, why an American cyclopedia is better for general use, and why mere compilations "made to sell" are dear at any price. Then there are the special subject dictionaries and cyclopedias—those covering antiquities, biography, botany, chemistry, education, fine arts, history, law, literature, medicine, mythology, political science, quotations, religion, etc. Biographies of special countries—American, English, German; of special classes—artists, authors, missionaries, musicians, saints, scientists, women.

Valuable also are gazetteers, atlases, (geographic and historic), guide-books (Bädeker and Murray), street directories; such annual publications as *Statesman's Yearbook*, almanacs (Whittaker, *World*, *Tribune*); such special works as commentaries and concordances; special handbooks of information in literature and history, and other topics, as Brewer's *Dictionary of Phrase and Fable*, *The Reader's Handbooks*, Wheeler's *Familiar Allusions*, Haydn's *Dictionary of Dates*, Harper's *Book of Facts;* and such special bibliographies as Adams' *Manual of Historical Literature.* Teachers should be interested in the special bibliographies of education published annually, as the "Bibliography of Education for the Year," published in the June number of the *Educational Review;* the "Bibliography of Child Study," in the *Pedagogical Seminary,* and the *Psychological Index*, published in April of each year.

The place and value of the following should receive careful consideration:

General indexes: *Poole's Index* to periodical literature, with its supplements, the *Annual Literary Index*, *Reader's Guide to Periodical Literature* (Cumulative Index), *Library Index.*

Catalogs: Important printed catalogs, as that of the British Museum, Astor, Boston Athenæum, Peabody Institute.

Public documents: These include national, state, and municipal publications. Only a superficial knowledge can be obtained of government publications in this brief examination, as they are numerous and complicated. The more important are: publications of Congress, the library of Congress and of the departments; of the more important bureaus and commissions, such as Labor, Education, Census, Consular, and of the National Museum, Smithsonian Institution.

Wyer, J. D. United States government documents (N. Y. State Library Bulletin No. 102). Albany, N. Y., 1906. 15 cents.

A list of public documents useful in a public library is given in the *A. L. A. Catalogue* 1904, Part 1:367–372; also in Minnesota State Library Commission, *Publication No. 2. Public documents in the small public library*, and in the Free Library of Philadelphia, *Bulletin No. 6, selected list of United States public documents specially useful in a small library.* 1905.

The *Catalogue of United States Public Documents*, issued monthly by the superintendent of documents, shows the nature and extent of the current federal publications. The *Index and Review* (monthly), published by Young in Washington, D. C., also gives a list of these publications as they are issued; *American Catalogue*, 1890–95, Appendix *"Government Publications."*

State publications: The state departments which issue reports are usually divided as follows: executive, legislative, judiciary, inspection and regulation, institutions.

American Catalogue, 1890–95, Appendix, state publications. Bowker, R. R. State publications, 1899, Parts 1–2.

Municipal reports: Civic departments follow quite closely the administrative division of the state; as, education, health, finance, etc. The organization of cities may be found in any recent book on city government.

Brief mention should be made of the publications of important national and local societies and associations—as the American Historical Association.

American catalogue, 1890–95, Appendix, Publications of societies.

General national and trade bibliographies: *American Catalogue of Books, United States Catalogue, Cumulative Book Index. Publisher's Weekly, Publishers' Trade List Annual, Bookseller* (English).

Kroeger, A. B. Guide to the study of reference books, 1902. (A. L. A. annotated lists.) Supplement to the same: Recent reference books. Library Journal, 1903, 28:823–828; 1905, 30:5–10; 1906, 31:3–7.

Koopman, H. L. Reference books and catalogues. (In his Mastery of Books, 1896:48–62.)

Many of the preceding reference-books will not be found in a small public or school library. But instruction need not be confined to books within reach. Practical work, however, must be limited to these. Ordinarily the following will be available: catalog of the library, dictionaries, cyclopedias, classical dictionary, general biographical dictionary, gazetteer, almanac, atlases, handbooks of information (such as Brewer's), the A. L. A. catalog, and periodicals, the use of which for purposes other than recreation should be explained.

Library instruction in schools.—Normal students ought to know that instruction, not too technical, in the use of the library may be given as early as the fourth or fifth grade. The younger children can be taught how to use the catalog, dictionaries, and cyclopedias, as well as the location of different classes of books in the library. With the children in lower grades informal talks are better than formal lectures.

Public Libraries:

McCrory, H. L. Library work for children. 1901, 6:93–95. (Intended for sixth-grade children.)

High-school instruction.—Library instruction in the high school has been systematized in a highly satisfactory manner in the Central High School of Detroit.[1]

Teachers of English co-operating, library reference work is made part of the English courses. One lesson a term is devoted to the study of library aids. Eight library courses are correlated with the eight English courses included in the four years of high-school work.

Course 1 includes the use of indexes, abbreviations, heavy type indicating important pages, index to a work in many volumes, atlas index, use of a concordance, a brief explanation of *Poole's Index*.

Course 2 covers the use of a card catalog and brief talks on classification and general reference-books, such as dictionaries, gazetteers, and cyclopedias.

[1] Compiled from the *N. E. A. Proceedings*, 1905, with permission of Florence M. Hopkins.

Course 3 includes periodical indexes, *Poole's Index* more in detail, *Reader's Guide*, *Library Index*, and the value to young people of the index to *St. Nicholas*. Preface, publisher, and date of publication are explained. Such reference books as Harper's *Book of Facts* and the Brewer series are discussed and compared.

Course 4 considers elementary bibliography, such as the bibliographic references found in modern text-books and at the end of articles in modern cyclopedias. The *A. L. A. Index to General Literature* is explained with particular reference to the method of indexing reports of official institutions, and Baker's *Guide to Best Fiction*, Granger's *Index to Poetry*, and special bibliographies like the Warner's *Library*, Larned's *History for Ready Reference*, and Strong's *Yearbook of Social Progress*.

Course 5 covers annuals, almanacs, *Statesman's Yearbook*, biographic annuals, *Who's Who*, annual literary index (supplement to *Poole's Index* and *A. L. A. Index to General Literature*), reports of city officers, city and state manuals (*Blue Books*).

Course 6 takes up dictionaries, cyclopedias, special indexes, and cyclopedias or dictionaries of special subjects. The *Geneological Index*, the *A. L. A. Catalogue* of 8,000 volumes, and the *A. L. A. Guide to the Study and Use of Reference Books*, are considered special indexes. Use of *Publishers' Weekly*, *Trade List Annual*, *U. S. Catalogue of Books in Print*, and the *Cumulative Book Index*.

Course 7 includes United States reference publications, *Congressional Record*, *Congressional Directory*, *Document Catalogue*, *Statistical Abstract*, *Census Abstract*, *Statistical Atlas*, *Labor Bulletins*, *Consular Reports*, and the more important publications of the departments of state.

Course 8 is a review of the preceding courses, with practice work.

During instruction the books under discussion are used in a room outside of the library. To save time, printed lists of the books are distributed. The course is given in eight hours of the four years of high-school work, two hours for each year. Sets of questions, requiring the use of the books explained, are worked out in the library by each student after each talk. The papers are corrected by the English teachers, with usual credits.

By request, the publishers of *Webster's Dictionary* have prepared for this English and library instruction a pamphlet for class drill in the proper use of a dictionary and its appendix. Sample pages are given, illustrating the important facts and the different kinds of information which may be found in *Webster's International Dictionary*. These pamphlets are distributed gratuitously.

The following illustrate questions given to students:

Nathaniel Hawthorne and His Wife, by Julian Hawthorne, is in two volumes. Consult the index under "Brook Farm," and name the volume and page which give the fullest account.

Who is the author of the following (give play, act, scene)? "Neither a borrower nor a lender be."

Look up the seven wonders of the world in two different books. Name the books.

Name three important reference points covered by the *Century Dictionary* of names.

What is the "*Reader's Guide*" to a selected list of periodials, and what points does it cover?

Name three good books in which you could find an allusion to the "Field of the cloth of Gold."

Find a novel on the subject of chivalry. Give author and title.

Name two sources by means of which you could be guided to material for an essay on Easter.

Name five reference points indexed in the *World Almanac.*

Who is secretary of the Department of Commerce and Labor? Where was he born?

What classified catalog of books has been carefully prepared by the libraries of America recommending good books on leading subjects?

What cyclopedia would you consult for very full articles? What cyclopedia would you consult for very brief articles? What cyclopedia would you consult for medium articles?

What is the *Document Catalogue?* How frequently is it published? Examine the volume for 1899–1901 and give a reference on the subject of insurance.

What is the *Statistical Abstract?* By means of it find the number of pounds of coffee imported in 1890. What is the *Congressional Record?*

Name the books or books in which you think the answers for the following questions will be found:

Kind of government, present officers, etc., of Denmark.

Translation of the phrase "Alla Zappa."

Brief biography of prominent men.

Leading athletic events of the past year.

Present secretary of the navy.

Bibliography of any subject in which you are interested.

Abbreviations.

Index to scattered selections of poetry.

Condensed report of the last census by color.

Speeches in Congress.

For further details of this work see:

N. E. A. Proceedings:

Hopkins, F. M. Methods of instruction in the use of high school libraries. 1905: 858–864.

For library instruction in schools in general see:

Library Journal:

Ames, A. S., and Rathbone, J. A. Instruction in the use of reference books and libraries in high schools. 1898, 23:86–91.

Doren, E. C. Library and the school work now done. 1904, 29:c 153–157. (Statistical account of reference work and library instruction in schools.)

Fletcher, M. J. Instruction to high school students in use of libraries. 1904, 29: 481.

Mead, H. R. Training of students in the use of books. 1905, 30:c 82–84.

Quigley, M. G. Systematic instruction in the use of the library at Grand Rapids. 1906, 31: 166–167.

Sargent, A. L. Reference work among school children. 1895, 20:121–122.

Stanley, H. H. Reference work with children. 1901, 26:c 74–78.

Wait, M. F. Library work in a preparatory school. 1904, 29:182.

Public Libraries:

Ellis, Elizabeth. Instruction of school children in the use of library catalogs and reference books. 1899, 4:311–314.

Finney, B. A. High school instruction in use of reference books. 1899, 4:315–317.

Hanna, B. S. Reference work with children. 1904, 7:149–151.

Hopkins, F. M. Library work in high schools (Central High School of Detroit). 1905, 10:170.

Hopkins, J, A. A lesson on the card catalog. 1903, 8:156–158.

Moore, E. L. Library work with children—prize contest. 1901, 6:418–419.

IV. THE SCHOOL LIBRARY ROOM

Location.—The library of a school should be accessible, and yet remote enough to escape the noise and confusion which prevail near the main stairway or elevator, and should be out of the way of the casual visitor, who often regards it as a convenient and attractive waiting-room.

If no provision has been made in the school building for a library, any large room on the second or third floor will serve this purpose.

For all details of library construction see *New International Encyclopedia* or *Encyclopedia Americana*, article "Libraries."

For a new school building the architect should consult a library expert in regard to location and every detail of interior finish and arrangement of the library room.

Light.—If there are windows on one side of the room only, they should extend from within three feet of the floor to the ceiling. Light is more important than heat, and there is usually danger of too little rather than too much. If there are windows on two sides of the room, they may come down only to the top of the bookcases, in order to give wall room for shelving. Care should be taken, however, to avoid, if possible, what is sometimes called the "dungeon" effect of windows. Artificial light must be provided for short winter afternoons or possible evening use; and whether oil, gas, or electricity is used, the light-point should be properly shaded to prevent unpleasant glare or reflection.

The "Rochester" oil lamp, and other similar burners, give a soft and pleasant light for reading. The best gas light is furnished by acetylene or by the Welsbach burner. Each table should have one or two adjustable lights protected by a deep, cone-shaped, enameled tin or glass shade, green outside, light polished lining inside, so arranged as to shield the eyes and throw the light on the table. Portable lights, with a metal half-shade which throws the light on the backs of the books and protects the eyes, are best for the shelves. Very little general artificial lighting of the room as a whole is desirable.

Some architects advocate brilliant illumination of the room by means of ceiling clusters. They argue that this secures a light more nearly resembling that of the sun, and therefore is the natural method; but this is practically and theoretically wrong.

Nothing relating to the education of the child is more important, and nothing so universally neglected, as the right light for reading or study. Pupils should never face a strong light, or read in insufficient light, whether natural or artificial.

Heat and ventilation.—Heat should be so regulated as to secure a temperature of 68°. The room should be ventilated several times daily by lowering the windows from the top, and should be well aired both before and after use. Systems of indirect ventilation, by forcing fresh air thru registers, tho theoretically perfect, are rarely quite as satisfactory as the air carefully taken directly *thru an open window.*

Much of the restlessness and general perversity of children both in schoolroom and library are due to the demoralizing effects of foul or over-dry air.

Library Journal:

Dewey, Melvil. Heating libraries. 1881, 6:93–96.
Lincoln, D. F. Ventilation of libraries. 1879, 4:254–257.
Patton, N. S. Heating, ventilation and lighting of libraries. (In U. S. Bureau of Education Papers, prepared for the World's Library Congress held at the Columbian Exposition, 1896. 718–724.)

Shelving.—Shelves should extend along the sides of the room as far as the wall space permits. The top shelf should be within reach of a child of fourteen of average height—say 64 inches from the floor. The top of the upright, exclusive of molding, should be 74 inches from the floor, including a base of 4 inches which will protect the books from a too vigorous broom or mop. The shelves should be adjustable, 1 inch thick, 8 inches deep, not more than 3 feet long (30 inches would more surely prevent bending under the weight of books), and placed between uprights at intervals of 9½ or 10 inches. Two large shelves next the floor, 12 inches deep, 14 inches apart, will accommodate large books. A ledge 1 inch thick and 3 or 4 inches wide, separating the upper and the lower shelves, adds to the general appearance of the room and is a convenient place for books ready to be returned to the shelves, but interferes somewhat with the use of the lower shelves. If the lower shelves are not all needed for larger books, they can be fitted with drawers or doors, and utilized for storing pictures, photographs, and library supplies. Backing for shelves is desirable, but not necessary. Moldings should be plain. Fancy beading or ornamentation of any kind collects dust. If finish is desirable for ends of cases where the continuity is interrupted by door or window, inlaid panels look well and prevent warping, especially if the material is oak; but are not necessary, and increase expense.

When the wall shelves are filled, additional shelving may be obtained by forming alcoves with double-faced floor cases placed at right angles to the wall. A thin strip of wood two inches high placed between double shelves will prevent books from slipping back, and is cheaper than full backing.

Quartered oak is the best material for wood-work, but pine or whitewood make fairly satisfactory substitutes. Shelves can be made of pine with a one-inch veneer of oak on the front edges.

If there are no funds for this style of shelving, packing boxes can be fitted with shelves. Discarded wardrobes serve the same purpose.

Soule, C. C. Library rooms and buildings, 1902. (A. L. A. Library Tract, No. 4.)
Dana, J. C. Rooms, building, fixtures, furniture, 1903. (In his Library Primer, 25–29.)

Tables and chairs.—Tables and chairs should be of different heights to accommodate children of different ages. Tables 5 feet long by 3 feet wide will accommodate six persons, two at each side and one at each end. They should be plain and without drawers, slides, or foot rails. Bent-wood chairs, with rubber tips if the floor is bare, are light, durable, and very satisfactory.

If windows are on one side only and come down near the floor (see suggestion above), a bench can be built underneath each. These will prove popular seats on dark days. The objections are that they may tempt to lounging. They should not occupy space available for shelving.

Librarian's desk.—The librarian's desk should be near the entrance, if this position permits general supervision of the room. It should have a flat top, for nothing should obstruct the lines of vision. A small table, or a revolving case, within easy reach is very convenient.

Floor-covering, and cleaning.—Linoleum or corticine is the best floor-covering. These serve to deaden noise and can be washed like a wood floor.

The floor should be cleaned thoroly with soap and water each week; oftener if necessary. The room should be swept and the furniture dusted every morning. Two or three times yearly books should be removed from the shelves and dusted, and the shelves cleaned with a damp cloth. Never use feather dusters.

If possible, there should be a lavatory near the library. Children should be taught that they must have clean hands before touching books or magazines.

A catalog case of six trays will hold nearly 6,000 cards, with guide cards. The base for this case should be open and fitted with three or four shelves, for atlases, portfolios, and all volumes too large for the regular shelves. The catalog case should be of the best make and bought from a reliable maker. It cannot be imitated by the village carpenter. If it is too expensive for a small library, catalog cards can be kept in tin or wood or even pasteboard boxes, covered, each holding about 800 cards with guides.

Racks.—A newspaper rack for daily and weekly papers is recommended, but not necessary. A special rack with shelves at different angles is convenient for periodicals. It is economical in floor and wall space. Periodicals may be stored on bookshelves, divided by partitions into pigeonholes, 10½ inches wide 6 inches high, and labeled with name of publication. An alphabetical arrangement is the best. A shelf deeper than the ordinary will be necessary, or magazines will project and look disorderly.

Trucks.—A book-truck is costly, but very useful for holding books during the various processes of preparation for the shelf and for moving books from one part of the library or building to another.

Book supports.—There should be a good supply of book-supports, for use on shelves which are not quite full; not only for the better appearance of the shelves, but because books wear much longer when standing upright. The old Library Bureau support is the best and cheapest.

Shelf labels.—Plain cardboard, buff or light gray, neatly labeled, can be fastened on the shelf with thumb-tacks; but as these are easily soiled and displaced, tin shelf label-holders five inches long should be used.

Bulletin-boards.—If sufficient wall space is not available for bulletins, the ends of bookcases may be used. Remnants of cork carpet are very satisfactory. Cut to the desired size and frame with oak a half-inch wide. Old picture-frames, to be found in many a garret, can be substituted.

Ink.—Black, blue, and red inks are used in the library. Avoid pale, thin, watery fluids, light green, or blue warranted to dry black. Ink should be of standard make. Many library records are written for all time, and ink must be permanent. The following makes have been tried and found satisfactory: Carter's Black Letter Ink, City of Boston School Ink, Carter's Blue Writing Ink, Carter's Crimson Fluid, Carter's Fast Red Copying Fluid, Stafford's Blue Writing Ink, Massachusetts Record Ink (made by Carter).

Pens.—Pens are a question of individual preference. For printing library cards, King's Nonpareil No. 5 and Library Bureau No. 3 are much used.

Paste.—Binder's or flour paste is best for library use. As it spoils in a short time, it is suitable for large libraries only, where large quantities are used. A small library should use some kind of photographer's paste.

Blotters.—For the desk, use blotters of dark gray or green. They are more serviceable than the white, pink, or buff blotter.

Paper-cutter.—A plain, flat paper-cutter of celluloid or bone, with a slightly sharp edge, is best. As a rule, any fancy "souvenir" variety is useless.

Chairs, tables, desks, cases, shelves, and other equipment should match, if possible, in material and color. Quartered oak is the most satisfactory in general effect, but is expensive.

Economy.—Economy may be practiced, without detriment, in part of the library equipment. Cheap wood can be used in place of oak. Trucks, racks, and special cases for photographs or folio volumes can be dispensed with as luxuries.

The local carpenter, if furnished with the right dimensions, can make cases to hold charging cards and other records; but the catalog case must be of standard make.

Library Supplies.—For all library supplies with prices, see *Library Bureau Catalogue*, Boston; also their "*Suggestive List of Supplies for a Library of 5,000 Volumes.*" Clark & Baker, of New York, and the Globe-Wernicke Co., of Chicago, also make a specialty of catalog cases and cards.

Stearns, L. E. Furniture and fittings. (In her Essentials in library administration, 1905:80–91..)

Decoration.—The library should be made as attractive as possible without carrying the decorative idea to an extreme. Order and neatness are essential, but highly colored pictures and tawdry ornamentations of any kind are inappropriate and undesirable.

The ceiling and walls should be tinted with a warm shade of terra cotta or olive green, the lighter tints being desirable.

A fern or palm on top of the catalog case gives a touch of color to the room. A few carefully selected pictures for the wall above the bookshelves, and one or two casts or bronzes, will suffice for permanent decoration. Pictures need not have an educational tendency; that is, the educational features should not be visible. The children "get enough of that in school."

Braun's or other best photographic reproductions, while expensive, are beautiful and always appropriate. A few of the many that are peculiarly suitable for a library are: Cuyp's "Head of a Dutch Boy," Ruydael's "The Mill," J. T. Millet's "Feeding Her Birds" or "The Gleaner," Corot's "Sunset," any of Troyon or Breton, one of Rosa Bonheur's pictures, Sir George and the dragon, a mediæval knight in armor, the Sistine Madonna. A beautiful bronze, and a great favorite with children, is the "Flying Mercury." A cast of Della Robbia's "Singing Boys" is always acceptable. Pictures of favorite authors may be hung on ends of book-stacks or between windows.

Picture bulletins.—Picture exhibits by means of bulletins are made to serve some special purpose, to illustrate a topic under discussion in the schoolroom or an event of general outside interest. Pictures can be fastened on bulletin boards, together with a list of books relating to the topics illustrated, or they can be mounted separately on gray cardboard, and hung by clips on wire or cord stretched along the shelves. The picture bulletin is of temporary interest only and should not be too elaborate, or it will tend to make the library look like a museum.

A private school in New York City recently gave an exhibition of photographs taken during the summer vacation, developed and printed by the children; and altho of amateur workmanship, they formed an interesting and really artistic collection.

Milner, A. V. Pictures for reference use. (In her formation and care of school libraries, 1903:9–10.)

Stearns, L. E. Illustrated bulletins. (In her Essentials in library administration, 1905: 22-24.)

Library Journal:
Gaillard, E. W. An extension of the picture bulletin. 1901, 26:874–875.
Moore, A. C. Picture work in children's libraries. 1900, 25:126–129.
———Outcome of the picture bulletin. 1901, 26: 192-193.
———Place of pictures in library work for children. 1900, 25:159–162.
Root, M. E., and Maltby, A. B. Picture bulletins in the children's library. 1902, 27:191–194.

Public Libraries: Dousman, M. E. Pictures and how to use them. 1899, 4:399–400.
Freeman, M. W. Use of pictures in library work. 1900, 5:446–449.
Morton, Josephine. Exhibits and special days. 1903, 8:464–465.

Librarian.—A collection of five hundred or more volumes needs a custodian. The school law of several states specifies that the secretary of the school board or a teacher shall act as librarian, make reports to the state superintendent, and be responsible for the condition of the books. In such cases the office is generally nominal. The teacher, or the secretary, who is probably a business or professional man, cannot be expected to give the necessary time for the proper care of even a small library.

If a trained librarian is too great a luxury, a graduate of the school will probably serve for reasonable pay. She should have good judgment and common-sense, be accurate, and must have some instruction and experience in library methods. Under these conditions, the teachers will be obliged to attend to the reference side of the library work.

As the library increases in size, in order to increase also in efficiency a trained librarian becomes necessary. She should give her entire time to the library, in and out of school hours, in order that she may apply the technical knowledge gained thru her special training to the work of making the library useful in the highest degree.

She must explain the card catalog to both teachers and pupils, and give some instruction in the use of books. She will decide for both teachers and pupils how and what to read, as well as the kind and quality of books needed in the class-room.

The library atmosphere should be different from that of the schoolroom. The librarian can meet the children in a more familiar, informal manner than the teacher.

N. E. A. Proceedings:

Dana, J. C. The librarian and her equipment; the librarian and the teachers; the librarian and the children. 1899:517–525.

Rules.—Rules relating to the privileges of the library and circulation of books should be displayed in some conspicuous place in the library, and near the main entrance. In formulating rules the librarian should omit everything superfluous. She should say what she means and mean what she says. Rules that are not enforced are worse than no rules.

School boards and superintendents of public instruction are sometimes authorized by the school law to make rules and regulations governing the use of school libraries. California and Wisconsin publish very specific directions of this nature.

Discipline.—The question of discipline is governed entirely by local conditions, and no hard and fast rules can be laid down. Schoolroom discipline is undesirable in a library, but in some localities it must be enforced. Children should feel that the use of a library is a privilege, and not that they are conferring a favor on the librarian by their mere presence—a spirit that is sometimes manifested in the children's department of a public library.

Report.—The librarian should make a formal report each year to the board of education, giving statistics of the circulation and other uses of the library, an account of all money passing thru her hands, result of the annual inventory, record of gifts, list of new books received, account of technical and routine work, and other items of interest regarding any special work with the children and teachers. The local paper will gladly print such a report.

V. SELECTING AND ORDERING BOOKS

Librarian final authority.—The librarian, constantly advising with teachers and with school authorities, should be the final authority in selecting books for the school library. By keeping in touch with both teachers and pupils, she is in a position to know what books will be most useful in the library; and she alone knows the funds available, and how these may be distributed most wisely and equi-

tably. From time to time teachers should send to the librarian lists of books needed for their work, indicating those which are wanted for immediate use, that these may receive prompt attention. But teachers are not always infallible in their judgment regarding books. They may be highly efficient as teachers, and yet know little about juvenile or even adult literature; and it is quite probable also that they know comparatively little of the cost of books, and may ask for expensive editions when something less costly would serve their purpose quite as well. If the library is in a rural district, serving the neighborhood as well as the school, the needs of the school must be met first, as the library is first and last an educational institution, and the children have the first claim.

Judging from the results of an investigation made by W. H. Cheever in Wisconsin, published in *Public Libraries*, 1897, 2:349, teachers are not always given opportunity to say what kind of literature they wish placed in the school library. The county superintendents to whom inquiries were directed seemed to think that this was because teachers are not considered competent to decide what books should be bought for school use. In one district books were selected and bought during the summer vacation when the teachers were away!

The town clerk or some other public official may be authorized by law to make contracts and pay bills, but final word in selecting books ought to lie with the librarian. A county superintendent describes in a recent number of *Public Libraries* the kind of school library which may result if the choice of books is delegated to the wrong, incompetent official. The town clerk of a certain district thought it desirable to make the school library popular. He therefore bought books which the people would read; with the result that the girls quarreled over Bertha M. Clay's novels, and the boys fought over biographies of Frank and Jesse James.

Pupils should be encouraged to express opinions in regard to books read, and, as far as may be reasonable and possible, their likes and dislikes should be respected by the librarian.

If due allowance is made for personal or professional bias, the advice of specialists is sometimes desirable, especially as to scientific books.

If the selection must be made from lists prepared by the state superintendent the librarian should still make the final choice, and should be held responsible for this. Such lists are usually revised from time to time and if they do not at first include just what the librarian thinks necessary for her library, by presenting her case to the proper authorities she may obtain the literature from some future official list.

Principles of selection, and aids.—Certain fundamental principles should be followed in selecting for purchase. It is useless to fill shelves with classics never read, merely because they come under the head of good literature.

Publications containing notices of new books are usually issued weekly and monthly. As a rule, reviews are written for the general reader rather than for the student, more space being given to fiction and other literature which appeals to the public.

The librarian of the school library is more limited in her field than is the public librarian, and a conscientious examination of these reviews will seem at times to be without adequate results.

For general text-books or works on education it is advisable to rely upon notices published in such educational periodicals as the *Pedagogical Seminary, Educational Review, Journal of Pedagogy*, etc. Unfortunately these periodicals do not give many reviews, and frequently a book is on the market several months before they refer to it.

For scientific books, read reviews in *Science, Nature, School Science*, etc.

Books on kindergarten, manual training, and other special topics are reviewed in *Kindergarten, Manual Training*, and other special periodicals.

The *Dial* (semi-monthly, Chicago, $2), *Nation* (weekly, New York, $3),*Outlook* (weekly, New York, $3), are most reliable of the critical reviews. The *Bookman* (monthly, New York, $2) and *Critic* (monthly, New York, $2) are more popular and entertaining in style, giving chatty items about authors as well as books, and do not treat of literary topics exclusively. The *New York Times Saturday Review* has a wide circulation because it is inexpensive and up to date, reviewing books almost as soon as they leave the press.

For a selected list of books consult the A. L. A. *Book-List*, published monthly except during the summer. Publisher, price, and imprint are given, with annotations made by librarians; also the bulletins of A. L. A. Committee on Book-Buying, and suggestions and rules for the Library of Congress cards. The later numbers give the classification of each book according to the decimal and expansive system, with suggested subject headings. It is intended to aid those who are buying small libraries.

For a complete list of current publications consult *Publishers' Weekly* (New York, $3) and *Cumulative Book Index* (monthly, Minneapolis, $5). Publisher, price, and imprint are given, with annotations for more important works. The *Publisher's Weekly* issues a special spring announcement number in March, a summer number in May, an educational number in July, a fall announcement in September, a Christmas number in December. The *Cumulative Book Review Digest* (monthly, Minneapolis, $5) gives descriptive notes and a digest of reviews which have appeared in forty of the leading periodicals in English. All large publishing-houses issue annotated lists monthly or at longer intervals. A number of these make a specialty of schoolbooks and children's literature.

American Catalogue (not necessary in a small library), 1875–1900, five volumes gives lists of books printed in the United States during these years, and includes some importations; the information is very full, gives publisher and price of book, with date of publication. Volumes 2, 3, and 4 give lists of United States government publications, classified by departments; also publications of literary and scientific societies; also a list of state publications. These lists were omitted in the last volume, as the same information appears in another publication. One of the most useful features of this catalog is the subject-index which follows the author-index and forms Part 2 of each volume. One is enabled to find out from this catalog what books on any subject have been published in the United States during the period covered. This is too costly however, for most small libraries. The earlier volumes are out of print, and 1890–95 and 1895–1900 are $15 each.

The *Bookseller* (monthly) and the *English Catalogue* (annual), each 5*s*., represent current English publications, but would not be used to any great extent in a small library.

For standard books still in print the most useful guide is the *A. L. A. Catalogue of 8,000 Volumes* (1904, Washington, Superintendent of Documents, 50 cents). This list was compiled by experts, and is an invaluable guide to libraries and teachers. It is fully classified and indexed, gives publisher and price, and comprehensive annotations.

Winser, Beatrice. Some of the recent and current aids to book selection. 1905, Public Library Newark, N. J.

For prices and information concerning reference-books consult A. B. Kroeger, *Guide to the Study and Use of Reference Books* with supplements published in the *Library Journal*. Lists of books suitable for school libraries are mentioned under the topic of "Books for Children and Teachers."

Ordering books.—After selections have been made, and contracts if any have been closed, the librarian should be authorized to order books according to the contracts and regulations made by the state or by the local school authorities. If, however, the power to buy rests with the town clerk or some school official, the librarian should have the privilege, approved by the school board, of ordering books needed for immediate use. A book wanted for class-room work at the beginning of the term may be quite useless a month or six weeks later.

Records of orders.—A record of all orders sent out should be kept in the library on orderslips, to be had of the Library Bureau, or made by the local printer. Any blank cards of standard size will serve. Author's name, title, edition (if known), publisher, date, and list-price of the book are recorded on the order-slip, with name of agent and date when ordered. Before the order is sent, each entry should be compared with the library catalog and with the list of outstanding orders, so that unnecessary duplicates will not be bought. When the books are received, corresponding slips should be dated and cost-price recorded. Slips for filled orders are then filed in a separate alphabet (see details under topic "Checking Invoices"). The order sent to the agent should contain the same information given on the order slips and may be copied from these slips on a sheet of paper, and stamped with name of library and date. Each order should expressly state, that, if not found within (say) thirty days, it will be considered canceled. A small rubber stamp may be used to print this condition.

Not all of these details are necessary in a small library, but records should be accurate and complete.

Purchasing agents.—It is advisable to buy from one agent. By this method accounts are simplified, mistakes are more easily rectified, more interest is shown, and better discount is granted by the dealer. In choosing an agent, it will prevent criticism if lists of the books to be bought are sent to several agents, including the local dealer, with a request for lowest terms, keeping in mind that the man who is the cheapest is not always most reliable. It is better to pay a local or other agent a little more, and secure convenience and good service. When possible, an agreement or contract for the year should be made with the agent.

Large publishing houses act as jobbers, selling publications of other firms as well as their own. Because of greater facilities, they can give, perhaps, better discounts than the home dealer, and can more readily obtain books out of print. However, the question of express charges and possible delay, as well as of friendly relations, must be considered.

In case of large orders, a reduction of 30 or 33⅓ per cent. may be expected, unless books are "net," when 5 or 10 per cent. or no discount is allowed. Magazines also should be bought thru one agent.

Public Libraries:

Underhill, C. M. Book ordering and buying. 1903, 8:142–144.

Generally, avoid all dealings with itinerant book agents, buying neither subscription books, nor on the installment plan, These methods are more expensive than buying thru regular channels, and are undesirable in every way. Most subscription books can be bought in open market for about half price six months after the last part or volume is issued.

Foreign books intended for educational institutions may be imported free of duty.

Editions.—Expensive editions, *editions de luxe*, have no place in a school library, unless as gifts. If the print is good—that is, not fine or blurred—a cheap edition is desirable, as it can be thrown away when soiled or worn out and replaced by a new copy. Standard literature is issued in an attractive form, at reasonable prices, by many publishers under some such title as "School and Home Classics," "Classics for Children," "English Classics," "Riverside Literature Series," "Temple Classics." These should be ordered in cloth bindings, never in paper.

A really poor edition should not be placed on the shelf or accepted even as a gift. If dealing with a reliable firm, the agent may be trusted to supply a good working edition of any book.

Auction and second-hand catalogs.—Auction catalogs contain little to interest school librarians. Bargains in standard literature or books out of print are sometimes found at auction sales; but unless books are examined personally or thru an agent, poor editions and cheap bindings are frequently obtained in this way. Catalogs of second-hand dealers offer the same class of material as auction catalogs, but are perhaps a little more satisfactory, as a fixed price is quoted and books may be returned if found undesirable.

Regular book agents will advertise for any book out of print, or the librarian may do so thru the *Publishers' Weekly*.

Regular trade-lists, catalogs, and special advertisements of leading publishing houses are the most important and reliable channels for a knowledge of the current literature issued.

Dana, J. C. Buying books. (In his Library primer, 1903:63–68.)
Denver Public Library, Handbook. 1895:29–33.
Milner, A. V. Formation and care of school libraries. 1902:2–4.

Library Journal:

How we choose and buy new books. 1889, 14:336, 372.
Nelson, C. A. Choosing and buying books. 1887, 12:155–156.

VI. CHILDREN'S READING

So much has been said and written on children's reading that it seems superfluous to add anything to the abundant material already accessible to those interested in this topic, so important to the school and public library. It will be sufficient, perhaps, to call attention to articles written and lists compiled by library and school experts.

It has been stated by authorities in literature and education that no list of children's books having a literary and educational value in the highest sense has yet been prepared. It is to be hoped that at some time in the near future these critics will issue an ideal list, and thus for the first time meet all reasonable requirements.

Lists.—Lists of juvenile literature are of three classes: those intended for use in the children's department of a public library, such as special lists of the best books for boys and girls; or lists of fairy-tales, legends, travel, biography, etc.; or lists of books, articles, poems, etc., relating to special days, as Christmas, Lincoln's birthday, or Flag Day.

For use of both teachers and pupils lists of books suitable for a school library have been compiled, or approved, and recommended by librarians, teachers, and school superintendents.

Lists combining the features of both classes have also been compiled for use of those in charge of rural libraries which supply reading for school use and for recreation.

All lists available should be consulted in selecting or recommending books for a school library, and no one list should be followed too closely. All conditions of school work and library work differ in different communities. Besides, in a certain sense any list is out of date as soon as issued, because of the flood of new books.

OFFICIAL LISTS

Wisconsin Department of Public Instruction. List of books for township libraries compiled under the direction of the state superintendent. 1901, 1902, 1903, 1904, 4 vols.
——— List of books for high school libraries. 1902. (Free to schools in Wisconsin; outside of the state a charge of 25 cents is made.)

These lists are among the most useful issued by state departments of public instruction. The first is intended for use in selecting books for school district libraries, and is divided into primary and intermediate grades. Both lists are classified by subjects, as biography, science, etc., and include reference-books and periodicals. Full information is given in regard to author, title, date, binding, pagination, illustrations, publisher, and list-price and discount-price, with author, title, and subject indexes. The descriptive notes accompanying each book cited are comprehensive and helpful, and are written from the teacher's standpoint.

In 1904 the Connecticut State Board of Education issued a list of books for school *libraries, classified by subjects;* and in the same year the Connecticut Public Library

Committee issued a list of books in the traveling school libraries loaned by the Connecticut Society of Colonial Dames of America.

Departments of public instruction sometimes print book-lists as part of their annual reports or of some other official publication. In his annual report for 1902 the state superintendent of New York published a book list under the title *School Libraries and Reading*.

In 1905 the Illinois and Missouri Departments of Public Instruction issued courses of study for rural, graded, and high schools; followed by a graded list of books for school libraries, including reference-books. Illinois and Nebraska publish lists of books recommended for teachers' reading-circles, with reviews of some more recent publications.

The Board of Education for New York City published in 1904 a *Catalogue of Books for Public School Libraries*, a list graded from the kindergarten to the eighth grade. This gives publisher, price, illustrations (if any), descriptive note, and author index, followed by a classified list of books for reference libraries and for teachers' libraries.

In the annual report of the Columbus (Ohio) Public School library, for 1904–5, the librarian publishes a list of books in that library for supplementary reading, arranged by grades and subjects.

A list of books for supplementary reading for the Milwaukee public schools was issued in 1904, graded and classified by subjects, and followed by a list of general reference-books.

The committee appointed by the National Educational Association on Lists of Books for Reading and Reference in the Lower Grades of the Public Schools published in the *Journal of Proceedings* for 1898, pp. 1016–22, graded lists of books suitable for a school library.

The committee appointed by the National Education Association on Relations of Public Libraries to Public Schools, in a special report for 1899, published under the title *The Relation of the School to Libraries*, a "List of Books for the Grades," prepared by Charles A. McMurry, and a "List of One Hundred Books for High Schools," prepared by J. C. Hanna.

The same report contains a "List of Books to be Read in Grades I to XII Inclusive, with Special Reference to the Average Country School and the Average Grade Teacher," compiled by Sherman Williams.

The Southern Education Board in *Southern Education*, 1903, Vol. I, No. 18 ("Rural Libraries,") publishes "A List of Books for a Rural School Library," classified by grades, with unsually full descriptive notes. It is intended to be used as a guide in starting a rural school library.

LISTS FOR SCHOOL LIBRARIES

M. H. Prentice and E. L. Power have published a *Children's Library*, selected in behalf of the Cleveland Normal School, and approved by the Cleveland Public Library (second edition, 1904). The books on this list are recommended for "the children's own voluntary reading" as well as for schoolroom use. They are graded with helpful annotations as to the character of the books and the object to be gained by their use.

Under the title "School Holiday Series" the Cleveland public library issues special reading-lists for Thanksgiving Day, Christmas, Abraham Lincoln, George Washington, Memorial Day, New Year's Day, Arbor Day.

The Buffalo Public Library, 1902: *Classroom Libraries for Public Schools*. This list is graded from the first to the ninth grades, with a supplementary list of picture-books for first and second grades. A separate classified list is given of reference-books, including books for teachers, on teaching, psychology, child-study, religion, ethics, etc.

The Springfield (Mass.) City Library, January, 1899: *List of Books in the City Library recommended for Outside Reading to the Pupils of the Springfield High School by the Teachers*. A classified list but without annotations.

The Evanston (Ill.) Public Library, 1902: *A Graded and Annotated List of Five Hundred Books in the School Library Department*, with author and title index, and a list of good stories for boys and girls.

New York State Library (Albany), 1901: *Bulletin No. 65*," A $500 Library Recommended for Schools" (15 cents). An annotated classified list, with the abridged decimal classification number for each book, and author index.

The New York State Library has issued a number of library bibliographies at prices varying from 5 cents to 35 cents; such as *Fairy-Tales, Froebel. Domestic Economy*, etc. It also issues annually a selection from the best books of that year, for children and adults, classified by subject (10 cents). Altho the list is prepared for the use of public libraries, it includes many books useful in schools, and therefore is of interest to teachers. The decimal classification number is given for each book.

The Department of Psychology and Education of the University of Colorado published in 1903 a *Bibliography of High School Reference Books* (50 cents). This is an excellent list, classified by subjects, with full descriptive notes, and is useful for teachers as well as students.

READING-LISTS FOR CHILDREN

Hardy, G. E. Five hundred books for the young: a graded and annotated list for schools. 1892. New York: Scribner. (A good list, but somewhat out of date.)

Sargent, J. F. Reading for the young: a classified and annotated catalog. 1890. Boston: Library Bureau. $1.

———Supplement. 1896. $1.

These are most valuable guides to juvenile literature. The age of the children for which the books are most suitable is indicated by letters, *a*, *b*, *c*. An author and subject index follows.

Hewins, C. M. Books for boys and girls. 1904. (A. L. A. annotated lists.) 15 cents' (Lists compiled by Miss Hewins are always safe and helpful guides.)

Carnegie Library of Pittsburg. Annotated catalog of books used in the home libraries and reading clubs conducted by the children's department. 1905. 25 cents. (This is a carefully prepared list, divided into "Books for younger children," "Books for boys" "Books for girls," and an author and title index. The character of the book is told in a brief statement, and the classification would at once attract the attention of any child. Stories are grouped under such headings as "Detective stories,'. "Sea stories," "Popular stories," "School stories," "American army," "Indians," etc.)

Iowa Library Commission. List of books recommended for a children's library, compiled by A. C. Moore. (Classified by subjects, with a list of reference-books, preceded by suggestions for the selection and purchase of children's books.)

Brooklyn Public Library: Books for boys and girls, compiled by C. W. Hunt. (A classified list. Books that should be given first choice or duplicated are indicated by a star. "Easy books" for first three school years are indicated by "c." Includes a reference collection for a children's library.)

Leypoldt, A. H., and Iles, George. List of books for girls and women. 1895. Boston: Library Bureau. $1. (An excellent guide for standard works. Twenty-one hundred books on various subjects are recommended, accompanied by biographical and critical notices of authors, and a brief description of works cited.)

Forbush, W. B., compiler. Books for boys. (How to help boys, April, 1903.) 14 Beacon St., Boston. 25 cents. (There are five divisions of this little manual and guide: "Helpful lists from which to select books for boys," by W. B. Forbush; "Lists of books for boys' reading," by C. M. Hewins; "List for a boy's own library," by F. J, Olcott; "Natural science, electricity and useful arts," by E. S. Smith; "Periodicals suitable for boys," by M. D. Crackel.)

Welsh, Charles. Right reading for children. 1902. Boston: Heath & Co. (A compilation of what has been said on the subject by experts, followed by a graded and annotated list of books for children.)

READING-LISTS FOR TEACHERS

Nearly all official lists of books recommended for school libraries contain lists of *books for teachers*. The following also are suggestive:

Monroe, W. S. Bibliography of education. 1897. New York: Appleton. $1.50. (Contains 3,200 titles, classified, with an author index and a few annotations.)

Columbia University. Books on education in the libraries of Columbia University. 1901. $1. (A classified list of about 14,000 titles, with author index. Value and character of the books not indicated.)

Lord, I. E., and Wyer, J. I. Bibliography of education. (Published annually, since 1900, in the June number of the *Educational Review*. Includes the most important books, articles, periodicals, and special chapters in books published during the year in England and America, with critical annotations.)

Wilson, L. N. Bibliography of child study. (Published annually, since 1898, in the *Pedagogical Seminary;* since 1905 published by Clark University library. Includes books, periodicals, and articles in all languages.)

Bishop, W. W. Books for teachers in secondary schools. *Educational Review*, 1900, 19:177–186. (A helpful and suggestive list.)

Brooklyn Public Library. Books useful to teachers. (A compilation of books "from which information can be obtained quickly," to be used in the class-room, with reference to the course of study.)

REFERENCE-BOOKS

Kroeger, A. B. Guide to reference books (A. L. A. annotated lists). 1902. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25. (A very useful book in any library.)

A. L. A. Catalogue: Eight thousand volumes for a popular library, with notes. 1904. Washington: Superintendent of Documents. 50 cents. (A guide to standard literature now in print.)

Abbott, E. L. Bibliography in a small library. *Public Libraries*, 1902, 7:8–13.

Baker, C. A. Reference books for a small library. (Dana, J. C., Library Primer, 1903:46–52.)

BOOKS ON CHILDREN'S READING

For teachers and librarians who wish to study the subject of children's reading—how to read and what to read, the following books will be found to treat the matter exhaustively from the standpoint of the teacher:

Chubb, Percival. Teaching of English in the elementary and secondary schools. 1903. New York: Macmillan. $1.

Carpenter, G. R.; Baker, F. T.; Scott, F. N. Teaching of English in the elementary and secondary schools. 1903. New York: Longmans. $1.50.

McMurry, C. A. Special method in primary reading. 1903. New York: Macmillan, 60 cents. (Includes lists of books for children in the first, second, and third grades, and books of material for teachers.)

———Special method in the reading of complete English classics in the grades of the common school. New York: Macmillan. 75 cents. (Appended are lists of books with brief notes, graded from fourth to eighth grade. Under each grade lists are divided as follows: (1) books for regular reading lessons, (2) supplementary and reference-books, (3) Teachers'-books.)

Burt, M. E. Literary landmarks: a guide to good reading for young people. 1893. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 75 cents. (Aims to show a profitable use of books in the class-room, and is followed by a list of books mentioned in the text.)

Scudder, H. E. Literature in school. 1888. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 15 cents. (Place of literature in common schools, nursery classics in school, American classics in school.)

ARTICLES ON CHILDREN'S READING

N. E. A. Proceedings:

Hardy, G. E. Literature for children. 1892:154–156.

Lawrence, Isabel. How shall children be led to love good books? 1901:850–858.

Metcalf, R. C. Supplementary reading. (Report of the committee on the relations of public libraries to public schools, 1899:18–24.)

Schreiber, M. E. How to direct children in their reading. 1900:636–643.

Williams, Sherman. Reading lists for public schools, how prepared, how used effectively. 1898:1022–1028.

Public Libraries:

Conover, Mary. What can the library best do for children? 1899, 4:317–320.

Crafts, L. M. Reading of our youth. 1902, 7:117–119.

Public Libraries—continued:
Galbreath. L. H. Books for various grades. 1897 2:304–310.
Klink, J. S. Use of libraries by school children. 1897, 2:16–19.
Nichols, F. W. How to induce school reading. 1897, 2:9–10.
Temple, Mabel. A selected library for children. 1901, 6:406–408.
Upton, G. E. Best reading for the young. 1901, 6:88–91.
Library Journal:
Bean, M. A. Report on the reading for the young. 1883, 8:217–227.
Books for children: (1) Fiction, (2) Fairy tales, (3) Science. 1901, 26: c63–70.
Dana, J. C. Children's reading: what some of the teachers say. 1897, 22:187–190.
Foster, W. E. Developing a taste for good literature. 1897, 22:245–251.
Hewins, C. M. Book reviews, book lists and articles on children's reading. 1901, 26: c57–62.
Olcott, F. J. Rational library work with children. 1905, 30:71–75.
Sickley, J. C. Plan for course of reading for pupils of the Poughkeepsie public schools. 1887, 12:372–377.
Stearns, L. E. Report on reading for the young. 1894, 19: c81–87.
U. S. Bureau of Education:
Fletcher, W. I. Public libraries and the young. (In public libraries in the U. S., 1876 : 412–418.)
Hewins, C. M. Reading of the young. (In papers prepared for the World's Library Congress, 1896:944–949.)
Atlantic Monthly:
Repplier, Agnes. What children read. 1887, 59:23.

VII. INCOMING BOOKS

Checking invoices.—Check bills as books are unpacked. Take order-slip for each book from file of unfilled orders. Compare author, title, and editor with title-page of the book, and price with price on the bill. If mistakes have been made in filling the order, or if any item charged on the bill is missing from the package, notify dealer at once. Stamp order-slip with date of receipt, record cost-price, and then file order-slip with orders filled. Source, date, and cost-price are usually penciled on the left margin of the leaf next after title page—a convenient but not necessary memorandum. The book is now ready for accessioning.

It is again true that not all these details are necessary in a small library.

The accession-book.—The necessity of the accession-book is much disputed among librarians. Some libraries, large and small, have either discarded the accession-book or have never kept one.

It is for the use of the librarian mainly, and is a chronologic record of all books added. If accurately kept, it gives the history of every volume in the library. It tells how many volumes were in the library at any given time, when each volume was added, accession number of last volume added, from whom bought or by whom given, cost, call number, author, title, place of publication, publisher, date, pages, size, binding, and any fact relating to its loss, withdrawal, or rebinding.

It is a most useful record to consult in compiling an annual report, because it gives statistics and information difficult to obtain from any other source. It is also a means of identifying lost books.

It is the business record of the library, and, if kept in a safe place, may be used as an inventory for insurance.

One record is more easily kept and used than several records.

Many substitutes have been tried by librarians who do not approve of the accession-book. The growth of the library is sometimes recorded on the book invoices, which are filed alphabetically by dealer's name, and then arranged chronologically, with a separate record for gifts. The Wisconsin Library Commission recommends a printed form on separate sheets for keeping the record of additions and withdrawals.

Price and source, with date of purchase, are sometimes noted on the shelf-list. The order-slip and accession items are combined in some libraries.

The standard accession-book, however, has the great advantage of being a plain record easily understood. Its use, and the method of keeping it, are self-evident even to an untrained librarian.

For large libraries the standard accession-book, with printed headings at the top of each column, consecutive numbering, and printed rules for entering books, is furnished by the Library Bureau in different sizes, from 2,000 to 5,000 lines (entries), at a cost of from $4.35 to $8. For ordinary public, school, or private libraries the condensed accession-book is more convenient and less expensive, costing from $3.60 to $5. A book containing 1,000 lines (entries) in press-board covers is furnished at $1.25.

Certain information for which space is provided in the accession-book is not essential, and if the saving of time and effort is important the following items may be omitted: class and book number, pages, size unless a quarto or folio, and binding unless other than cloth.

The date should be written at the top of the left-hand page, if the entry begins on a new page. If a new accession entry is made anywhere except on the top line, the date should be written in the margin before the accession number. Numbers run consecutively, and each entry has a separate line. The same accession number should not be assigned to a second volume, or to works or sets as a whole. The author's surname, with initials, and brief title of the book, should be used. For volumes of pamphlets give author and title of first pamphlet only. For bound periodicals leave author column blank. Do not accession material such as periodicals or pamphlets until bound. If a volume is withdrawn, lost, sold, rebound, etc., note the fact in the "Remarks" column.

After the accession entry is made, the accession number assigned to a book is written or stamped on the lower margin of the page following the title-page.

Because they are concise and save time and space, Arabic figures and library abbreviations should be used on all library records.

Accession rules are printed in the accession-book, with a list of library abbreviations, and directions for use of capitals.

The following publications will be found helpful:

Salisbury, G. E. Library methods for school teachers. 1903:8–11.
Dewey, Melvil. Simplified library school rules. 1898.
Library Journal:
Bliss, H. E. Economy in accession records. 1903, 28:711–713. (Describes a substitute for the accession-book.)
Dewey, Melvil. A model accession catalog. 1876, 1:315–320.
——— Accession catalog. 1878, 3:336–338.
Fellows, J. D. Cataloguing, accessioning and shelf listing for small libraries. 1899, 24:c 68–70.
Hall, D. B. Classified and condensed accession record. 1903, 28:830–832. (A substitute for the accession-book.)
Poole, W. F. Shelf lists vs. accession catalogues. 1878, 3:324–326.
Weitenkampf, Frank. The accession book—why? 1903, 28:295.
Public Libraries:
Fiske, A. J. Accessioning books. 1903, 8:146–147.
Tyler, Miss. Accessioning. 1899, 4:383–384.
Underhill, C. M. Accessioning. 1903, 8:147–148.
Jones, G. M. Accession department. (In U. S. Bureau of Education, Papers prepared for the World's Library Congress, 1896:809–826.) (A selected bibliography given on selection of books, duplicates (buying and disposal), specializing, buying, gifts, collation, and accession-book.)

Opening a new book.—The following excellent directions have been given by William Matthews, for opening a new book, to avoid injury to the binding: "Place the book with its back on the table, let the front cover down, then the other, holding the leaves in one hand while you open a few leaves at the back, then a few at the front, and so on; alternately opening back and front, gently pressing open the sections till you reach the middle of the volume."

Cutting leaves.—Care should be taken, in cutting the leaves, to avoid tearing the paper. Never use a knife or other tool with a sharp edge, or a hairpin. A flat bone or ivory cutter is the best, used evenly along the edges and clear into the joint at the top.

Marks of ownership.—Several kinds of stamps are used in libraries as marks of ownership. The perforating stamp is costly and mutilates title-pages and plates, but it is most permanent. A book-thief can remove it only by cutting it out. Rubber ink stamps are used more than any other because inexpensive. They are ugly, and can be erased or removed with an ink eradicator. An embossed stamp is least objectionable, and can be removed only by an adept. The lettering should be as plain as possible, and include the name of the library, place, and state, without the oval lines usually inclosing this kind of stamp, because such lines tend to cut thru the paper. Private marks of ownership are sometimes used, such as a pinhole in the last figure of the main pagination, but these are rarely worth their cost in time and trouble.

Book-plates.—A book-plate lends a certain air of dignity to a book. Besides denoting ownership, it is a convenient place for recording the class, book number, and name of giver if the book is a gift. A plain label of cream tinted paper, 2×3 inches, bearing name and address of the library, is recommended. A pictorial or armorial design should be engraved or etched in order to look well, and this process and the entire cost of printing it are too costly for the average library. The book-plate should be pasted inside the front cover. If

a plate, autograph, or any valuable printed matter is on this cover, the library plate should be pasted above or below this, or be "tipped in" on edge of cover.

Library Journal:

Kent, H. W. Library book plates. 1902, 27:932–934.

Pockets.—The book is now ready for the pocket which serves to hold the book-card. Pockets can be made of ordinary writing-paper, $4\frac{1}{2} \times 4\frac{1}{2}$ inches. Fold over the lower edge and sides of the book-card, crease down with a paper-cutter, paste the inner edges, and then attach to the inside of the back cover. The card, when in the pocket, should not project above the top of the book. Another form for the pocket opens on the side toward the inner edge of the book. It can be made from a manila envelope with the open side cut in a curve, so that the card may be taken out more easily.

The pocket, like the Acme pocket, used in many libraries, may be used as a book-plate if pasted on the inside of the front cover. Besides name and address of the library, rules and regulations are often printed on the face of the pocket.

In pasting plates, labels, and pockets, use paste sparingly, and with care and neatness. After they are in place, rub over with a clean cloth to smooth out wrinkles. The book should be left open until the paste is dry.

VIII. CATALOGUING AND CLASSIFICATION

The catalog.—The catalog is a record used by the librarian and by the public. It is a list of the books in the library, giving author and title of each. In addition, it ought to show the contents or subject of each (where the subject does not clearly appear by the title), and the location of each in the library.

From the catalog the reader should be able to learn whether the works of a certain author are in the library, by what books he is represented, whether a book with a certain title is in the library, and how much and what material on a certain subject the library contains. In other words, the catalog should show the resources of the library.

Different catalogs.—This is accomplished in a variety of ways. The public usually prefer a printed catalog, because it seems less formidable and is more easily handled than a card catalog. It has, however, two serious disadvantages for either large or small libraries: it costs too much, and it is out of date the day after it leaves the press—because of incoming new books.

Any local newspaper will probably print, on request, special lists of books: as, on nature study or on biography; or books relating to some special country, as Russia or Japan; or new books just received at the library; and clipped copies of these can be used in the library as bulletins. But to attempt to print a catalog of the entire library is not advisable.

The method of cataloguing books on sheets bound in book form is too obsolete to need discussion. It will not be used in a library which is growing or shows any other signs of life.

A card catalog is by far the most satisfactory form, when the prejudices of the public are once overcome. It can be kept up to date without rewriting. When a new book comes in, the cards are made for it, and then filed in the card catalog without delay. The disadvantages of the card system are possible loss or displacement of the cards, and they cannot be turned and examined quite as quickly as the eye and the finger can run down a printed page. But there is much less chance of missing a title—by oversight.

Having decided upon a card catalog, the technical preparation for it should be considered. The style of writing most suitable for a card catalog has been much discussed. It is really a matter of convenience to the users, not of personal preference.

Typewritten cards are uniform in appearance, and can be written much faster than by hand; therefore they are better and cheaper. The disadvantages are that, unless the right kind of machine is used, and unless the operator has had considerable experience, the ink on cards will be either thick and blurred or so faint as to be almost illegible. Alignment also sometimes becomes faulty. A good typewriting machine is a luxury for a small library. The visible writers, which are the best for library use, cost libraries about sixty-five dollars. An expert operator is also expensive, but almost any librarian can soon learn to run the machine faster and easier than she can write by hand. The noise of a machine is a serious objection in a small library, where the librarian usually constitutes the library staff and catalogs during the leisure moments of library hours. If a machine is used, a separate room and an extra assistant should be provided, or the cataloguing must be done out of library hours.

Hand-printed cards.—Next to the typewritten, the disjoined printed hand is most legible, uniform, and pleasing. It is easily acquired, being merely a question of practice. The one disadvantage of this hand is that most people write it slowly.

The library hand is more rapid than the disjoined, and has always been popular. Its disadvantage is that it is difficult, and for some persons almost impossible, to acquire. Copies of the standard library hand-writing, joined and disjoined, may be had from the Library Bureau at a cost of five cents each.

Arrangement of cards.—The card catalog may be arranged by either of several systems. Author- and title-cards may be arranged alphabetically in one file, and the subject-cards arranged in a separate file, numerically according to the Decimal classification, or on some other logical or systematic plan; authors, titles, and subjects may be arranged in a single file, alphabetically from *A* to *Z*, as a dictionary catalog. This is usually recommended for a school library, as it is very easily understood, and can be used by anyone who "knows his alphabet."

Catalog cards.—The small card, approximately 2×5 inches (5×12.5 cm.), is less expensive than the large size, and is more economically stored. The large size, approximately 3×5 inches (7.5×12.5 cm.), is more generally used because carrying more matter, and because the Library of Congress uses that size. Nearly all catalog trays are made for this size. Heavy bristol board is used in many libraries. A medium weight, however, costs less, occupies less space, and unless subjected to rough usage ought to be practically permanent. Use white cards, absolutely uniform in size, weight, and ruling. If the tops are red, these will not present the dirty appearance following constant handling.

Elementary catalog rules.—Every book is represented in the catalog by an author or main entry. The author is responsible for the publication, and may be an individual, society, institution, or an official department of city, state, or national government.

Make the author card first. Write the author's surname on top line, at the right of the first red vertical line (standard ruled catalog card), followed by the Christian name or initials. In case of two authors, follow the name of first author, written as above, by the surname of second author, with initials, and connect the two names by "&." Then write a separate card with name of the second author first, followed by the name of the first author, reversing the order of the first card, viz.:

1. Horton, Charles & Shaw, J. C.
2. Shaw, J. C. & Horton, Charles.

In case of three or more authors, write name of first only and add "& others;" viz.:

Bronson, William, and others.

If an author is better known by a pseudonym than by his real name, or if his real name is not known, use the pseudonym followed by the abbreviation "pseud;" viz.:

Twain, Mark, pseud.

In case of an anonymous book, for which no author can be found, leave the top line blank and enter the book under the title on the second line.

A government department, a society or an institution which issues publications, is regarded as the author, and the entry corresponds to that made for a personal name, viz.:

U. S.—Geological Survey.
U. S.—Education, Bureau of.
Boston—School committee.
New York Historical Society.
Smithsonian Institution.
Harvard University.

In case of a collection of poetry or essays by different authors, the compiler or editor is regarded as the author, and his name is followed by the abbreviation "ed." or "comp."

Sacred or classic works of unknown or composite authorship are entered under the name of the work, viz.:

Bible, Koran, Nibelungenlied, Arabian Nights.

Enter periodicals and cyclopedias under the title on the top line, usually at the right of the second red vertical line.

Write the title of the book on line below author's name, beginning at the second red vertical line and at the left margin of the card on the following lines.

Omit the initial article, if English. Other omissions may be made to shorten the title, provided they do not change the meaning; but no additions, transpositions, or other alterations in the title should be made.

The imprint, if given, is divided into three groups: (1) edition, if more than one has been published; (2) pages if a single volume, or number of volumes if more than one, illustrations, maps if any, size of book; (3) place and date of publication. Leave a space of 1 cm. after the title and between each group of the imprint.

For the catalog of a small library, the author's name, brief title including the editor's or translator's name, if any, with the date of publication, will be sufficient.

In addition to the author-card, all novels, plays, poems, or books bearing striking or unusual titles should be represented by a title-card. In a library for children more title-cards are needed than in a library for adults only, as children remember titles rather than authors. Books published anonymously need title-cards.

The title-card consists of a brief title (omitting initial article if English and not necessary to the sense) written on the top line at the right of second red vertical line, with the word "see" written at the end of the line. The author's name is on line below, beginning at the first red vertical line, as on the author-card.

The subject-card ranks next to the author-card in importance. Fiction, poetry, plays (unless historic or biographic in character), and books treating of no subject definitely, do not need subject-cards. Other books require one or more subject-cards each, according to the character of the book.

Subject entries are more conspicuous and more easily distinguished from title- and author-cards if they are made in red ink. Write the heading on the top line, beginning at the second red vertical line, the rest of the card being a copy of the author-card, except that contents, given for a collection on the author-card, may be omitted.

Cross-references written like a title-card, in black ink, are made from one or more forms of an author's name to the form selected for the main entry, viz.:

Thompson, Ernest Seton, see Seton, Ernest Thompson.

Write subject cross-references in red ink, viz.:

Hymenoptera, see Bees.

Cataloguing.—Cataloguing is a science somewhat difficult for an untrained librarian to master. One who understands the theory of the subject becomes an expert only after much practice.

A catalog should be well made or it is worse than none, because it misleads. The form adopted should be closely and consistently followed. In choosing a form of entry for author or subject, the standpoint of the public rather than of the librarian should be considered, and the simpler or better-known form selected. George Eliot and Mark Twain are better known than Marian Lewes Cross and Samuel Langhorne Clemens. "Birds" is a better subject-heading than "Ornithology." But in all such cases there should be at least one "cross-reference" card, bearing the less familiar name or title. Entries should be uniform. Bulwer's works should not be entered under both Bulwer and Lytton. If "Insects" is chosen as a subject entry for one book, the next one on the same subject should not be represented under the heading "Entomology." Reference-cards should always be made from all probable or possible entries to the one chosen.

The catalog should give information which cannot be obtained from any other library record, but to what extent this information is carried depends upon the size and kind of library. In the large library, author's full name is desirable if it can be obtained without too much effort. The form of the name as it appears on the title-page cannot be accepted without question, as the same author sometimes prints his name differently on different title-pages. A woman may write under her maiden name, and perhaps later under her married name.

Choose specific rather than generic terms for subject headings. Enter a book on trees under "Trees" and not under "Botany." Remember that the title of a book does not always indicate its subject.

Mark all cards for a book, except a cross-reference which may stand for any number of books, with the call-number of that work. It is usually written in the upper left corner of the card, in blue or black.

Certain information for the use of the librarian is recorded on the back of the main entry or author-card; viz.: accession numbers, subject headings, and the number of cards made for the book.

Analyze books containing essays or chapters on specific topics, and represent the result by subject-cards in the catalog. Analytic work is peculiarly important in a small library, where every scrap of information ought to be made available.

A useful reference-book for subject analytics, especially if the school is near a large public library, is W. I. Fletcher's *A. L. A. Index to General Literature* (second edition, Boston, 1900; $10). This contains subject-references to papers, monographs, and essays of value, with a list of the works indexed. Its continuation, the *Annual Literary Index*, is published yearly by the *Publishers' Weekly* ($3.50). These publications are costly, and refer to material probably not found in the average school library. The same objec-

tion holds good as to *Poole's Index* to periodical literature. A rural library, then, dependent entirely upon its own resources, should make its own analytics for books and periodicals.

Settle rules for punctuation, capitals, abbreviations, indentation, and spacing in the beginning. Altho not of vital importance, the neatness of the catalog depends upon uniformity in these matters. Capitals and punctuation are used sparingly by the cataloguer.

Further discussion and amplification of these details, and lists of library abbreviations illustrated by sample cards, will be found in the publications referred to later.

Printed catalog cards.—The printed catalog cards issued by the Library of Congress may be used, if preferred, for current publications. Order as many cards as are needed for each book. The cost is two cents for the first card and one-half cent for each additional card, for the same book. An objection to these cards is that sometimes they give too much information. It is apt to be confusing, especially to inexperienced readers, who do not understand what it all means.

Periodicals.—Unbound periodicals need not be catalogued if an alphabetic record of current numbers is kept in a book or on cards, with the name of the giver if a gift, of the agent and price if bought. Check each number under the date, as it is received.

Library Journal:
James, H. P. Current magazine checklist. 1889, 14:377–378.

Pamphlets.—Catalog pamphlets separately, even when bound together, as if they were individual books, noting on each card: "No. — of a vol. of pamphlets." If unbound, pamphlets may be catalogued as above, without the note. Place several pamphlets relating to the same subject in a box, label like a bound volume, and put on the proper shelf.

Alphabetizing.—After necessary cards are made for a book comes their arrangement in the catalog. Alphabetizing is not as easy as it sounds. Just how author (individual or official names), subject, title, series, periodical, editor, and translator cards should be placed, and still retain an alphabetic relation as a whole, requires judgment and experience.

If an author is represented by many cards, place the subject-cards, biographies, and criticisms first, arranged alphabetically by the author's name; then the complete works, then partial collections, then single works arranged alphabetically by titles. If an author has written a book with another author, place the joint-author card after the single-author cards. Additional cards, like editor, translator, or annotator, are placed last.

Alphabetize authors by the surname first, then by the Christian name or initials. If the same word represents the name of a person, place, and title, place the name of the person first, then the name of the place followed by the title, viz.:

1. London, Jack
2. London, W. J.
3. London (Eng.) Customs (subject)
4. London (Eng.) Education Society (author)
5. London Pride (title)

File Christian names used alone in order of rank, monarchs of the same name alphabetically by countries. These precede similar names representing surnames, viz.:

1. John, St.
2. John V. Pope
3. John II. King of France
4. John II. King of Portugal
5. John of Gaunt
6. John, J. D.
7. John River (N. H.)
8. John Bull
9. John Inglesant

Alphabetize abbreviations like Mc, St., as if spelled Mac, Saint, etc.

Arrangement of names beginning with a prefix:

De Coverley Papers
Deering, John
Defence of ignorance
Defoe, Daniel
De Garmo, Charles
Dekker, Thomas
De Mille, James
Democracy
Denmark
DeQuincey, Thomas
Derby, E. G.
De Vere, M. S.
Dewey, John

Disregard the initial article of titles of books in alphabetizing.

The following arrangement of entries will illustrate some of the principles of filing in an alphabetical order:

The book buyer
Book of commerce
Book of golden deeds
The Book-lover
Book plates
A day at Laguerres
Day dreams of a schoolmaster
A day in ancient Rome
Day of my life
The day's work
Days and hours in a garden
New, Walter
New American Series
New Jersey
New London
New Manual
New Mexico
New party
New South Wales
New York (city)
New York (state)
New Zealand
Newark
Newburgh
Newcastle
Newspapers
Newton, J. K.

Guides.—Guides of heavy cardboard, cut in thirds, properly labeled, are needed to complete the catalog (*Library Bureau Catalog*).

Specific rules for different kinds of entries cited and for many others not mentioned, such as series, secondary entries, editor, translator, compiler, and the treatment of analytics, continuations, contents, notes, etc., have been carefully compiled by specialists and are in the following publications (given in the order of their usefulness to the untrained librarian)—one or more of which should be in every library, and within easy reach of every student of library administration:

Salisbury, G. E. Library methods for school teachers. 1903: pp. 13–22. (See list of works in Appendix.) (Simple cataloguing rules for the use of the inexperienced librarian. Entries for societies, institutions, public documents, etc., are discussed, and illustrated by fac-simile cards.)

Hitchler, Therese. Cataloging for small libraries. 1905. (A. L. A Library Tract, No. 7.) Boston: A. L. A. Publishing Board. 15 cents. (A useful guide for the cataloguer, with fac-simile cards to illustrate different cases mentioned. Arrangement of cards and alphabetizing are discussed, with examples of different methods. The book contains a list of most essential reference-books for cataloguers, and a list of definitions of bibliographic and typographic terms.)

Dewey, Melvil, ed. Simplified library school rules. 1898. Boston: Library Bureau. $1.25. (Intended for use in a small library, applicable to both a dictionary and classed catalog, illustrated with sample cards. Covers more ground than the preceding, going farther into details. Indentation, spacing, call-numbers, arrangement, capitals, punctuation, abbreviations are discussed, and library terms defined.)

Cutter, C. A. Rules for a dictionary catalog. 4th ed., 1904. U. S. Bureau of Education. Free. (The standard work, but rather abstruse for the uninitiated.)

Crawford, Esther. Cataloging. 1906. Chicago: Library Bureau. 25 cents. (A clear and sensible exposition.)

A. L. A. List of subject headings. 1898. Boston: A. L. A. Publishing Board. $2.

Ames, Sadie. List of subject headings for use in dictionary catalogues of children's books. 1903. Carnegie Library of Pittsburg.

New York State Library. A selection of cataloguer's reference books. 1903. Albany. 25 cents.

The *A. L. A. Catalog* will serve as a guide for form of entry of authors names, full names, and subject headings.

The following are useful in identifying authors, and will answer many questions asked by the public:

Thomas, Joseph. Universal pronouncing dictionary of biography and mythology. 3d ed., 1901. Philadelphia: Lippincott. $15.

Phillips, L. B. Dictionary of biographical reference. New ed., 1889. Philadelphia: Gebbie. $2.25.

Allibone, S. A. Critical dictionary of English literature and British and American authors. 5 vols. 1859–1902. Philadelphia: Lippincott. $17.50.

Who's Who. 1906. New York: Macmillan. $2.

Who's Who in America. 1906–1907. Chicago. Marquis. $3.50.

Century cyclopedia of names. 1901. New York: Century Co. $10.

Lippincott's Gazetteer of the world. New ed., 1905. Philadelphia: Lippincott. $8.

GENERAL ARTICLES ON CATALOGUING

Library Journal:

Fellows, J. D. Cataloging, accessioning and shelf listing for small libraries. 1899. 24:c68–70.

Lane, W. C. Cataloging. 1893, 18:238–240.

Van Dyke, J. C. Making of library catalogs. 1885, 10:126–127. Also in *Independent*, April 16, 1885.

Whitney, J. L. Catalogues of town libraries. 1879, 4:268–275.

Public Libraries:

Benedict, L. E. W. Suggestions to beginners in cataloguing. 1896, 1:266–267.

Bullock, E. D. Practical cataloguing. 1901, 6:134–138.

Bushy, M. J. Cataloging. 1903, 8:148–150.

Catalog Symposium. 1901, 6:150–154.

Clatworthy, L. M. Cataloging. 1904, 9:107–109.

Ganley, Marie. Some problems in cataloging. 1901, 6:139–143.

Jones, E. L. Making of a card catalog. 1904, 9:109–113.

Jordan, F. P. History of printed catalog cards. 1904, 9:318–321.

Reinick, W. R. Cataloging of government publications. 1900, 5:83–87.

Simpson, Frances. Some problems in cataloging a normal school library. 1901, 6:153–154.

Smith, F. E. Best catalog for a small library. 1901, 6:147–150.

Wellman, H. C. Cost of cataloging. 1902, 7:314–315.

Barrett, F. T. Alphabetical and classified forms of catalogues compared. (Second International Library Conference, 1897, Transactions, 67–71.)
Brown, J. D. Manual of library classification and shelf arrangement. 1898. London. Library Supply Co. 4s.
Atlantic Monthly:
Fiske, John. A librarian's work. 1876, 38:480–491.
Nation:
Hagen, H. A. The librarian's work. 1877, 24:40–41. (On Dr. Fiske's article.)
Cutter, C. A. The cataloguer's work. 1877, 24:86–88. (An answer to Dr. Hagen.)

Classification.—Like cataloguing, classification is a difficult process for the untrained and inexperienced librarian.

The purpose of classification is to bring together on the shelves the books which treat of the same subject, and in this way to make the resources of the library more readily accessible to both the librarian and the public (the "open shelf system" is taken for granted).

Whatever system is adopted, it should be permanent, and should be elastic enough to provide for growth without reclassifying every few years.

The usefulness and efficiency of a library depend more on its proper cataloguing and classification than upon any other detail of administration. Both require technical knowledge, and a large amount of common-sense and good judgment.

No scheme of classification has yet been devised that is perfectly satisfactory (except to the inventor), because authors will not write books from the standpoint of the classifier, and it is sometimes difficult to find just the right place in any scheme for a given book.

Certain rules and principles must be followed in cataloguing and classification, yet it is necessary to recognize occasional exceptions or the system breaks down.

The character of the library must be taken into consideration, and books must be classified where they will be most naturally sought and will be most useful. The use made of the books in a public library is quite different from that in a school library.

Having decided upon a definite location for a book, the classification of which seemed rather dubious, the next book like it should be classified in the same place. The public naturally think the methods of the librarian radically wrong if two books similar in character are so classified that they are found on opposite sides of the room or in different rooms.

A book treating of two or more subjects should generally be classified according to the one most important to that particular library.

Books should not be classified simply by title, which is sometimes misleading. The table of contents may not indicate sufficiently the character of the book, and even the text may fail in this respect. The classifier sometimes finds a clue in the preface, in which the author states his object.

The disadvantages of the "fixed location" used in older libraries need not be discussed, as this classification has very generally been abandoned. A book classified by this system always stands absolutely in the same place, in

respect to shelf, tier, and room, irrespective of its subject or relation to other books.

Systems of classification. The two systems of classification most widely known are the Dewey Decimal System and the Cutter Expansive System. Both are used in modern libraries. The first, which this report recommends for a school library, has the advantage of being better known because it has been longer in use and has been adopted in a large number of libraries.

It is claimed for the Decimal System that it is more easily understood than other systems, is adapted to small or large libraries, is flexible, admits of broad or close classification, and may be elaborated without reclassification as the library grows.

As the name implies, it is based upon the decimal system of notation, the books so classified standing on the shelves in numerical order.

Dewey, Melvil. Abridged decimal classification and relative index. 1894. Boston: Library Bureau. $1.50.

The Alphabetic Index of subjects (with references from synonyms) gives the corresponding class number for each, and indicates its exact place in the preceding tables. The preface fully explains its use, with practical suggestions to beginners.

Inexperienced classifiers will be aided by the following:

A. L. A. Catalog:

Kroeger, A. B. Guide to the study of reference books.

N. Y. State Library. A $500 library recommended for schools.

——— Selection of best books (for the year). Published annually.

Note.—These three publications give the Decimal classification for each work.

Public Libraries:

Bullock, Edna. Problems in classification. 1900, 5:6–8.

Preparing books for the shelves. 1898, 3:117–118.

Tyler, A. S. Classification. 1899, 4:377–380.

Van Valkenburgh, Agnes. Classifying and cataloging a small library. 1898, 3:199–201.

Library Journal:

Fletcher, W. J. Library classification: theory and practice. 1889, 14:22, 77, 113.

Foster, W. E. Classification from the reader's point of view. 1890, 15:–c 6–9.

Gifford, W. L. R. Difficulties in the Dewey classification and their adjustment. 1896, 21:494–498.

Small libraries.—For a library of five hundred volumes or less, a list of authors and titles on cards will serve the purpose of a more formal or systematic card catalog. The cards should be arranged alphabetically by authors, and can be used in place of the accession-book and for taking the inventory.

OUTLINE OF A SCHEME ADAPTED FROM THE DECIMAL CLASSIFICATION

0 General works, cyclopedias, periodicals, etc.

1 Philosophy, ethics, logic, etc.

2 Religion, Christian and non-Christian.

3 Sociology, political economy, political science, law, education, commerce, customs, folklore.

4 Philology, English, German, French, etc.

5 Natural science.

6 Useful arts, medicine, engineering, agriculture, domestic economy, manufactures, etc.
7 Fine arts.
8 Literature.
9 General history.
9.1 Travel.
9.2 Biography.
9.3 Ancient history.
9.4 European history.
9.5 Asian history.
9.6 African history.
9.7 North American and United States history.
9.8 South American history.

Book-shelving.—Arrange books on the shelves according to subject—science, literature, history, etc. Arrange books belonging to the same class alphabetically by the author's name, except in biography, where it is more important to arrange them by the name of the person written about.

The first figure of the Decimal Classification indicating the class to which the book belongs, with the initial letter of the author's surname below, can be written on the inside cover and on a label pasted on the back of each volume.

Write the combination of class number and author's initial in the upper left corner of the catalog card which represents the book, as it identifies the book and locates it on the shelf.

Untrained librarians who feel unequal to cataloguing and classifying their libraries may prepare for this work, to some extent, by a six-weeks' course in one of the summer library schools; or may engage an expert cataloguer temporarily, under whom the librarian can work as an apprentice until she can carry on the work unaided.

IX. CALL NUMBERS, SHELF-LIST, LOAN SYSTEM

Book numbers.—After books have been assigned a class number, it is necessary to distinguish those belonging to the same class by means of a book number or author number. Many books may receive the same class mark, but the book number belongs to one book only. It is as distinctly individual as a person's name. If a work consists of two or more volumes, the same book number is assigned to each volume; but each volume must be distinguished from the rest of the set by its volume number—1,2, 3, etc.

Cutter tables.—The order usually adopted for arranging books belonging to the same class is alphabetic. The library may contain twenty-five books on botany by Brown, Jones, Smith, etc. By using the Cutter author tables (*Library Bureau*, $1.25) in assigning book numbers, these books will stand on the shelf alphabetically by authors. The Cutter table consists of the initial letter of the author's name, if a consonant, followed by two figures. If the initial letter is a vowel, the table gives the two first letters followed by one figure. The book number for an author named Brown is B81. A second edition of the same

book receives the book number B811; while a different book by Brown, on the same subject, receives the book number B812. Books are arranged on the shelves first by class number, then by book number; and under book number, first by letter, then by figures.

For a small library the initial letter and one figure will give a shorter book number. The second figure may be added to distinguish two authors of the same name.

If the Cutter table is not accessible, the initial letter of the author's surname may be used, adding 1, 2, 3, etc., to indicate different books by the same author, or books by different authors having the same initial letter. Names beginning with the same letter can be kept together under one class by this method, but not in a strict alphabetic order.

In biography the book number is for name of person written about and not for name of author. It is more important to keep biographies of George Washington together on the shelf than to alphabetize them by author's name.

The letter *Z* is a convenient book number for a volume of pamphlets or for a box of unbound pamphlets. Such a collection by various authors will stand on the shelf at the end of their class.

For simplified book numbers, including special schemes for keeping books by the same author (in literature) in an alphabetic arrangement, see Melvil Dewey, *Simplified Library School Rules.*

Shelf-list.—Having assigned a class number and book number, compare this assignment with shelf-list, to be sure that it has not been used already for another book. The combination of class number and book number together is the call number (see below).

The shelf-list is a record which represents the books as arranged on the shelves, first by classification, then by book or author numbers. Enter every book on the shelf-list as soon as the book number is assigned.

The shelf-list has several important uses. It must be consulted in assigning book numbers, as it is the only record which shows what call-numbers have been used for other books. When the proper classification of a book is doubtful, the shelf-list may be consulted for the classification of books of similar character. If the card catalog does not include subject entries, the shelf-list may be used as a subject catalog, but it will not (like the catalog) give subject analytics. The shelf-list is also used in taking the inventory of the library, and is a source of interesting statistical information.

Shelf-list sheets.—The shelf-list may be kept on sheets laced in a binder. Standard shelf-list sheets, with or without printed headings and binder, are made by the Library Bureau.

If kept on sheets, the entries are made as follows: Write the class number on the upper outside margin of the sheet, where pagination is printed in a book. If the class is not likely to grow rapidly, two subjects may be entered on the same sheet, the second being written half-way down on the outer margin. If decimal classification is used, its numbers are arranged in numerical order, of

course like the books on the shelves. Book numbers under each class are arranged alphabetically, as far as possible, in book-number column, the accession number (or numbers) is written next, followed by number of volumes if more than one, author's surname, with initials and brief title. It is impossible to keep book numbers in a strict alphabetical order as new books are entered. From time to time the sheet must be copied and entries rearranged.

To avoid much of this copying, the New York State Library has adopted a smaller shelf-list sheet containing ten lines to the page instead of twenty-five, and one subject only is put on a sheet.

Shelf-list cards.—Another method of keeping the shelf-list, one which is used in several libraries, is on cards. These never need to be copied. A card is made for each title and dropped in place as soon as made. Items on the shelf-list card are copied from the catalog card, and consist of call number, author's surname, brief title, and accession and volume numbers (if more than one volume.) Cards are filed in boxes or drawers in the order in which the books are arranged on the shelves. The cards may be thinner than catalog cards. The objections to the card shelf-list are the same as those raised against the card catalog. The cards may be lost, stolen, or displaced, and are not as easy to consult as a page containing a number of entries over which the eye may glance without the trouble or loss of time entailed in handling separate cards. Many librarians consider these objections insurmountable.

Dewey, Melvil, ed. Simplified shelf list rules. (In his *Simplified Library School Rules*, 1898.)

Public Libraries:

Crawford, Esther: The shelf list. 1899, 4:381–383.

Inventory.—The annual inventory is more quickly taken by two persons, one reading numbers of books on shelves while the other checks numbers on shelf-list. Note all missing books on a separate sheet, and look up afterward. They may be charged out to readers, at the binder's, or out of place in some other part of the library.

The best time for the inventory of a school library is during the long vacation, when most of the books are in.

Call-numbers.—After the call-number is assigned any book, record it in upper left corner of all cards for that book, with class number on the top line, the book number just below it; on shelf-list, on book-plate, on book-card, and card-pocket—class number in the left corner, book number in the right corner. It should also appear upon the back of the book, and here a variety of methods are in use in different libraries. The number should be at the same distance from the bottom of each book, that the backs may appear uniform on the shelves. The number may be gilded on by a binder. This is very satisfactory, especially to the eye, but it is too costly for a small library, from three to five cents a volume. In many libraries Dennison gummed labels are used; but unless put on with great care, these drop off, are quickly soiled, and wear out easily. The surface of the book where the label is pasted must be roughened

and the glaze removed with sand-paper, a file, or with ammonia, taking care not to injure or discolor the binding beyond the place covered by the label. After the label is on the book, cover it with white shellac applied with a camel's-hair brush. Old labels can be removed with wet blotting-paper. The process of labeling is described minutely in Miss Stern's *Essentials in Library Administration.*

The call number may be written directly on the back of the book itself with a pen or brush, using David's white letterine for dark bindings, and Higgin's waterproof ink for light bindings. Cover these also with shellac to prevent rubbing off.

Library routine.—The ordinary routine followed in getting a book from publisher to library shelf is: ordering (after comparing order-slips with catalog and with unfilled and outstanding orders, to avoid buying unnecessary duplicates), checking bill after book is received, dating order-slip, accessioning, placing accession number in the book, embossing (if stamp is used to denote ownership), plating, pocketing, cutting leaves, cataloguing, writing author, subject, and other entry cards, making subject analytics if necessary, classifying, assigning book number, shelf-listing, writing book-cards, writing in call number, labeling back, placing book on shelf, and filing the cards in the catalog. In a small library all of these steps need not be taken; but whatever are taken should be in this order.

The accession-book, card catalog, and shelf-list are the most important library records.

The accession-book is numeric, by date of reception; the catalog is alphabetic; the shelf-list is numeric by classification and then alphabetic by book numbers.

Public Libraries:

Adams, Z. F. Practical hints on organization. 1898, 3:344–345; 1899, 4:58–59 143, and 198–199. Treats of accessioning, charging system, shelf-listing, classification, etc.

Loan-desk.—The loan-desk is the business department of the library, and often (especially in small libraries) is the reference department as well. It is the place where the public ask questions; and where, according to treatment received, their impression of the library, favorable or otherwise, is formed. This department should run very smoothly. The reader should find quickly what he asks for or learn why he cannot get it. Loan-desk work demands patience, courtesy, and the necessary firmness to enforce rules—but the greatest of these is courtesy.

The records of the loan-desk should tell the whereabouts of a book that is not on the shelves: who has it, how long it has been out, and when it is due. Generally, one book may be borrowed for two weeks. This time may be extended on due notice, if wished. In a public library more than one book should be issued to a reader, if needed for study or other serious work.

Teachers should be permitted to take out as many books as they wish, and

keep them as long as their work demands, provided this does not interfere with the rights of others.

In the charging system a book-card and a reader's card are used. A book-card, approximately 3×5 inches (7.5×12.5 cm.), of light cardboard, is made for every volume. The class number is written on the top line at the left and book number on the right, author's surname on the second line, and a brief title on the third line. The book-card is kept in the card-pocket when the book is in the library, and at the desk when the book is out.

The reader's card is usually light brown, of same size as book-card. The reader keeps his card if he has a book out; if not, it is filed (alphabetically) in the library for safekeeping. The name and address of the person holding the card are written at top of reader's card, as well as his number, which is assigned from the register, a blank-book recording by numbers the persons who use the library, with names and addresses.

A box containing book-cards of all books out is kept on the desk. These cards are arranged back of the dates upon which these books are due. When a book is returned by the borrower, at the back of it will be found a slip pasted on the fly-leaf—the time-slip—upon which is stamped the day when that book becomes due. If July 27, look in the card-box, back of the twenty-seventh, for the book-card corresponding in name to the book. When found, stamp in right-hand column the date returned, and then put the card in the pocket of the book. The book is then ready to return to the shelf.

A borrower chooses a book which he wishes to take out. The book-card is then in the pocket. Take it out, stamp in left-hand column date on which the book is drawn out—July 27—write in the middle space the borrower's number, and place the card in the card-box, back of the date, two weeks later when the book will be due; viz., August 10. Then on the time-slip cross off the date last stamped on it, and stamp the date when that book becomes due, as, August 10. Then the book is ready to be sent out.

When books go to the binder's, stamp or write "bindery" on the book-cards, and file in the charging box.

Statistics of daily circulation may be kept in a blank book or on cards. In a library of five hundred volumes or less, books can be charged by writing on a slip of paper the author and title of the book, or class number and author's initial, name of borrower, and date of issue. These slips should be filed under date of issue, and the charge canceled when book is returned. If statistics of circulation are desired, preserve the slips.

Dana, J. C. Charging system. (In his Library primer, 1903:116–121.)
Plummer, M. W. Charging system. (In her Hints to small libraries, 1894:35–41.)
Stearns, L. E. Loan system. (In her Essentials in library administration, 1905:65–71.)

Public Libraries:

Dodge, Virginia. Loan system. 1898, 3:259–261.
Miner, S. H. Two book system. 1897, 2:173–175.
Sharp, K. L. Loan systems. 1897, 2:295–298.
Wood, Miss. Charging systems. 1899, 4:375–377.

Library Journal:
Bolton, C. K. The "two-book" system. 1894, 19:161–162
Carr, H. J. Report on charging systems. 1889, 14:203–214. (Contains a bibliography of references with annotations.)
Hill, F. P.. Preparing a book for issue and charging systems. 1896, 21:51–56.
Jones, G. M. Cards for the "two-book" system. 1895, 20:168–172.
Sheldon, H. G. Elementary talk on charging systems. 1897, 22:63–64. (Followed by a list of references on charging systems.)
Plummer, M. W. Loan systems. (In United States Bureau of Education, Papers prepared for the World's Library Congress, 1896:898–906.)

X. BINDING

A problem.—The right kind of binding for library books at a minimum cost is a problem which few libraries have solved. A large library, binding thousands of volumes yearly, can get special prices under contracts, but the small library must pay good prices to get good work. As a rule, cheap binding is not good binding.

The modern book, as it comes from the publisher, is pleasing in appearance, especially the book issued for popular reading. The cover design is usually artistic and often ornate. However, sometimes it begins to fall to pieces before it leaves the cataloguer's hands.

The man on the street who buys a book for a Christmas or birthday gift is satisfied with a pretty cover. He passes it on while new, and its wearing qualities do not concern him. But the librarian would be better satisfied with a plainer cover and stronger binding. A new book should circulate many times before it needs rebinding. A publisher who will spend less on exterior decoration and more on the wearing qualities of the book will find favor with libraries.

A book rebound should last longer than a new book, because (presumably) it is hand-sewed with linen thread, while (generally) the new book was machine-sewed with cotton thread. As a matter of fact, a rebound book does not always wear better than in its original form. Binders say this is because the paper used for the modern book is made of wood pulp and is too rotten to hold the thread; the paper tears loose from the stitches, and leaves drop out.

Sewing.—Strength of the binding depends chiefly upon the sewing. After the printed sheets have been folded, gathered, collated, and made compact by pressure, they are ready for sewing. In flexible binding, cords are placed on the back of the sheets forming raised bands, and the thread is passed around the cord. Old books were sewed in this manner, and therefore lasted longer than modern books, this being a much stronger method of sewing. It is not used now, because a cheaper process is easier for the sewer. The ordinary method is to saw grooves on the backs of the sheets, usually three, deep enough to hold the cords or bands; and the thread is then passed through the back of each section (four pages) around the outside of each cord. The objection to this method is that it weakens the back, and the book will not lie as flat as with a flexible binding.

Whipstitching or overcasting is used on worn-out or poor paper. The pages are collated and pressed, then sewed, then the sheets separated into sections are glued on the back, and then overcast along the back around the cords, the stitches of each section passing through the preceding section.

For heavy or large books tapes, because much stronger, are substituted for cords, and are occasionally used for valuable books of ordinary size.

Leather binding.—After sewing, end papers or fly-leaves between the book and the cover are pasted on, front and back, sheets are trimmed, the back is made convex and the front concave by hammering (rounding and backing, it is called), and the book is then ready for covers.

Mill-boards of the right size, a little narrower than the book, are then prepared for covers. When morocco is used, these boards are "laced in." The cords are drawn tight thru the boards, cut off, and the small projecting ends unraveled or frayed out, and hammered down until quite smooth. The band serves as a hinge connecting the book and cover. The weakness of the binding is often in the hinge, the cords break, and the book drops out of the cover. Binders sometimes put in an extra cloth hinge, fastened to the book and cover. In the Duro-flexile binding used by Cedric Chivers, one of the strips of linen which connects the end papers is inserted between the boards, and one of the end papers is pasted inside the cover; so that two thicknesses of cloth are between the cover and the book.

Head-bands are purely ornamental. They are bought in strips, which are cut to the proper length and pasted on the back of the book, top and bottom.

Backs.—The book is then ready for the cover-back. The leather for the cover-back is cut to the right size and drawn down on all edges. In a "tight" back the leather is fastened to the back of the book and forms part of it. In a "loose" or open back, "strips of paper are glued to the back, over which are placed others free from the back; part of the leather is turned in between these so that the covering of the back only adheres to the loose paper."[1] The leather

[1] W. J. E. Crane, *Bookbinding.*

in an open back connects the boards forming the sides, and is not attached to the book. When a book with such a cover is opened, a hollow is formed beween the leather and the back. The loose back is flexible, looks better, and is used extensively on that account. The tight back wrinkles the leather, but is much stronger and lasts longer. As a rule, old books have tight backs.

Casing.—For cheap cloth or leather binding a case is made, somewhat as follows: a piece of linen is cut, about a half-inch wider than the thickness of the book, and pasted on the back of the book. The board sides are prepared as before, and the cords, instead of being laced in the boards, are frayed out at the ends and pasted down smooth together with the over-edges of the linen strip, which thus connects the cover boards and the backs. The cover cloth is then cut, enough larger than the cover boards and back to allow its being turned over the edges and pasted down. The in-papers are then pasted in, and the cover is then ready for "finishing." Generally the case is made com-

plete, with title and ornaments stamped on with a machine die, before the book is glued into place.

Cover material.—The strongest and best material for covers is Turkey morocco or goat, but it is too expensive for a small library. Persian morocco is cheaper, but not as strong. Calf, Russia, and all grades of sheepskin should not be used in a public library. Next to Turkey morocco, American Russia or cowhide is the strongest leather. For library binding, leather is used either on the back only, "half morocco," or on the back and corners only, "three-fourths morocco." The sides are covered with cloth or marbeled paper. Vellum corners, tho less common in America, are stronger than leather.

Dampness, dryness, dust, gas, heat, sunlight, tobacco smoke, all deteriorate leather. Heat dries the oil out of the skin and makes it harden and lose flexibility; dampness causes mildew, while a strong light rots and fades.

Of cloth bindings, linen is most satisfactory, the Bancroft and Holliston cloths being the best. Buckram is strong, but the rough surface is objectionable. There is a very satisfactory smooth-finish buckram now on the market. Canvass is cheap and durable, but it has a rough soft finish that holds the dust. For heavy books canvass is by far the best.

For a small book which is subjected to hard usage, one of the strongest and cheapest bindings is half-buffing, or thin "split cowhide", with a tight back and strong cloth hinge. A binding of this kind will sometimes outlast the book itself, while the cost is about the same as cloth.

In selecting the color for binding, avoid light shades, as they soil easily. Browns and maroon are very satisfactory. Red and green are the most durable colors. Black is generally used to disguise imperfections in the skin.

Collating.—Every book should be collated before it is sent to the binder, and all missing parts supplied if possible. The title-page, index, all pages,and all illustrative material should be accounted for; and the binder should be held responsible if any of these are missing when the bound volume is returned.

A slip giving directions as to style of binding, material, color, and lettering should be sent, and a record kept of each volume, the author, title, accession number, volume number, style of binding, and date when sent. This record is checked when the books are returned, with date and price of binding.

If large numbers of books are to be bound, the binder should be asked for lower prices. Sometimes it is best to send books away from home in order to get better binding or lower prices.

If the price of rebinding nearly equals original cost of the book, it should be thrown away and a new copy bought.

Pamphlets.—Pamphlets not often used may be stabbed with wire or sewed, and fastened in board covers with plain cloth backs, costing from ten to fifteen cents, according to size and quality.

In the St. Louis Public Library a temporary binding is used for magazines *which could also be* used for pamphlets, consisting of a portfolio with past-e

board sides covered with paper. At the top and bottom are eyelets through which stitches are passed along the length of the paper.

Pasteboard boxes 9½×7×2 inches, for holding unbound pamphlets can be bought for five or six cents each.

Clippings may be mounted on sheets of manila paper, and filed in boxes properly labeled.

Crane, W. J. E. Bookbinding for amateurs. Scribner. $1.
Cockerell, Douglas. Bookbinding and care of books. Appleton. $1.25.
Horne, Herbert P. The binding of books. 1894. Kegan Paul, Trench, Trübner & Co. $1.50.

Public Libraries:

Dana, J. C. Binding for a public library. 1902, 7: 147–148.
Crawford, W. R. The book when bound. 1904, 9:263–264.
Fergus, E. C. Clippings for the library. 1901, 6:329–331.
Hagey, Joanna. Binding. 1904, 9:268–272.
Hollands, W. C. Bookbinding. 1904, 9:260–262.
Soldan, F. J. Directions for binding. 1904, 9:259–260.

Library Journal:

Bliss, H. E. Better book binding for libraries. 1905, 30:849–857.
Dewey, Melvil. Colors in binding. 1885, 10:339–340.
——— Binding rules and specifications for New York State Library. 1899, 24:573.
Duro-flexile bookbinding (Cedric Chivers). 1887, 12:70–71.
Hathaway, F. P. Binding for a public library. 1879, 4:245–250.
Poole, R. B. Elements of good binding. 1892, 17:c 15–18.
Ranck, S. H. Leather for bookbinding. 1901, 26:681–684.
Woodard, G. E. Notes on bookbinding. 1898, 23:231–237.

Johnston, D. V. R. Elements of library binding. (In U. S. Bureau of Education, Papers prepared for the World's Library Congress, 1896:907–916.)
Article on "Bookbinding in New International Encyclopedia, 1902, Vol. 3. New York: Dodd, Mead & Co.

Repairs, and general care.—Books can be kept in good condition for a long time and the cost of binding saved by care, and by making repairs as soon as needed. Binder's thread and needles, cloth of different colors, paper, paste, glue, paraffin paper, transparent gummed paper, and "onion skin" are the necessary tools for mending books. Loose sheets can be sewed in, cloth hinges pasted on covers, and cloth backs glued on. Tears can be mended with paraffin paper and white paste, or with "onion skin." Colored leather can be washed with alcohol; white leather or cloth, with soap and water. Leather can be softened and cleaned with vaseline. Gasoline will clean any kind of binding. Books in a white or light binding can be covered with white shellac varnish when new, and then washed with impunity. Ink spots can be removed from paper with H. H. Collins' Ink Eradicator (Union Square, New York). Nothing will remove ink from book-covers, however, without disfiguring binding. Books returned from the homes where there has been any serious contagious disease should be burned at once, as there is no inexpensive process for the proper disinfection of books. To be effective, disinfecting vapor must come in contact with every page.

Rats and mice gnaw the backs of books to get at the paste. Cockroaches eat bindings. Bookworms (other than human) are not as common as they are supposed to be. A genuine bookworm is very rare.

Public Libraries:
Leighton, F. H. Preparing new books and restoring old. 1905, 10:223–224.
Straight, M. W. Repairing of books. 1900, 5:88–89.
Library Journal:
Disinfection of books by vapor of formalin. 1895, 22:388.
Hagan, H. A. Insect pests in libraries. 1879, 4:251–254.
How to wash a book. 1885, 10:184–185.
Poole, W. F. Spread of contagious diseases by circulating libraries. 1879, 4: 258–262.

General care.—Books should not be packed closely on the shelves; the friction wears out the binding, and tops are frequently broken or pulled off in getting books from shelves. They should not be shelved so far apart that they fall over, or stand so obliquely as to warp covers. If for any good reason books only partly fill a shelf, they should be kept upright by means of book supports. Folios may be shelved on their sides. Books should not be left open, nor leaned on, nor placed face downward while open, nor stand on their front edge. Nothing thicker than a sheet of paper should be left in a closed book. Books should be kept away from heat and sunlight, and should not be stored in a place badly ventilated.

In dusting a book, brush with a cloth away from the hinge without opening. Slap two books together flatwise to jar dust out of the edges.

Paper covers are less and less popular, since such covers invite carelessness and readers have more respect for an uncovered book.

Some public libraries use a book until it gets soiled, and then cover it. If covers are used, paper is better than cloth because cheaper, and can be thrown away as soon as it becomes grimy.

Other suggestions on the care of books will be found under the topic "Instruction to Children on the Care of Books."

Public Libraries:
Kroeger, A. B. Care of books. 1900, 8:319–320.

XI. LIBRARY ASSOCIATIONS

American Library Association.—The oldest library organization is the American Library Association, generally called the A. L. A. The first convention of librarians was held in New York City in 1853. At this, little more than a preliminary meeting, the delegates decided to form a librarians' association and to issue a library manual. Dr. R. H. Guild, of Brown University, prepared *The Librarian's Manual*, which was published in 1858. The A. L. A. was not organized until 1876, in Philadelphia, during the Centennial Exposition. At the same time the *Library Journal* was founded as the official organ of A. L. A. Complete files of this periodical and of *Public Libraries* (Chicago —founded in 1896) constitute a history of the library movement in the United States for the last thirty years.

The object of the A. L. A., as stated in the constitution, is to promote the *welfare of libraries in* America. In addition, it aims to effect needed reforms

and improvements, to lessen the labor and expense of library administration, to utilize the experiments and experience of the profession, to promote acquaintance, and to advance librarianship as a profession.

Since 1876 annual meetings have been held in different sections of the country. International conferences were held in London in 1877 and again in 1897. In Chicago, 1893, and St. Louis, 1904, the conferences were international in character, and foreign delegates were present and on the program. At the conferences papers are read, followed by formal and informal discussions. The proceedings are printed in the *Library Journal*, and sent to all members of the association.

Any person or institution engaged in library work may become a member by paying the annual dues, $2 for individuals, $5 for institutions. At present there are about 1,500 members.

The A. L. A. has the following sections: College and Reference, Trustees, Catalog, Library Work with Children, and State Library commissions. These sections hold separate meetings during the regular sessions of the A. L. A., to discuss phases of the work in which they are particularly interested.

One of the pleasant and profitable features of each meeting is a post-conference trip taken by a limited number after the close of the regular business sessions. Traveling together in this way increases personal and professional acquaintance.

Important work has been accomplished by the A. L. A. Publishing Board. This has been greatly aided thru the generosity of Mr. Andrew Carnegie, who gave in 1902, $100,000, "the income of which is to be applied to the preparation and publication of reading-lists, indexes, and such other bibliographic and library aids as will be specially useful in the circulating libraries of this country."

LIST OF A. L. A. PUBLICATIONS, WITH ANNOTATIONS BY SPECIALISTS

Kroeger, A. B. Guide to reference books. $1.25.
Larned, J. L., ed. Literature of American history. $6.
——— Supplement for 1900–01. $1.
A. L. A. Index to general literature. $10.
Iles, George, ed. Bibliography of fine arts. 90 cents.
——— Books for girls and women. 90 cents.
Subject headings for use in dictionary catalogs. $2.
Sargent, M. E. and A. L. Reading for the young. Supplement (1890–95). 50 cents.
Cornu, Sophie, and Beer, William. List of French fiction. 5 cents.
Hewins, C. M. Books for boys and girls. 10 cents.
Swan, R. T. Paper and ink. Free.
Index to portraits. (In preparation.)

Library tracts:

Why do we need a public library? 5 cents.
2. Wire, G. E. How to start a library. 5 cents.
3. Hutchins, F. A. Traveling libraries. 5 cents.
4. Soule, C. C. Library rooms and buildings. 5 cents.
5. Cutter, C. A. Notes from the art section of a library. 5 cents.
6. Stearns, L. E. Essentials in library administration. 15 cents.
7. Hitchler, Theresa. Cataloging for small libraries. 15 cents.
8. Tarbell, M. A. A village library. 5 cents.
A. L. A. Book list (eight months). 50 cents.

Printed catalog cards:

1. For current periodical publications.
2. Bibliographic serials.
3. For various periodical sets and for books of composite authorship. (Warner library of the world's best literature.)
4. For current books on English and American history.

For information regarding these publications address the Secretary, 10½ Beacon St., Boston.

Probably the most useful single book ever published for librarians is the *A. L. A. Catalog*. The preliminary edition, published by the United States Bureau of Education, was prepared in the New York State Library, as the catalog of the model library of 5,000 volumes in the library exhibit of the Columbian Exposition in Chicago, 1893.

The annotated *A. L. A. Catalog* (revised edition of the above) published by the Library of Congress, was prepared as part of the library exhibit at the Louisiana Purchase exposition, in St. Louis, 1904. This is a classed catalog of 8,000 volumes, the best in print for the average small library. It can be had of the superintendent of documents, Washington, for 50 cents; bound, $1.

The A. L. A. thru its president, Melvil Dewey, also prepared for the Library Congress a collection of "Papers on Library Economy," published by the United States Bureau of Education for the Columbian Exposition. These papers were printed and sent in advance to the members of the congress, and discussed at the conference, and are still valuable to librarians.

Fletcher. W. I. The American Library Association. (In his Public libraries in America 1894:85–92.)

Library Journal:

Dewey, Melvil. The American Library Association. 1876, 1:245–247.
Harrison, J. L. A. L. A. exhibit at Paris exposition. 1900, 25:282–283.
Library exhibits at Louisiana Purchase Exposition (including A. L. A. collection). 1904, 29:423–424.
Poole, W. F. Conference of librarians, Milwaukee, 1886: address of the president. 1886, 11:199–204. (A historical sketch of the A. L. A.)
Sharp, K. L. The A. L. A. library exhibit at the World's Fair. 1893, 18:280–284.
Woodworth, Florence. A. L. A. exhibit at Paris exposition of 1900, 25:116–119.
Work and Needs of the A. L. A. 1905, 30:858–860.

State library commissions.—A state library commission consists of five or seven members, generally appointed by the governor, but sometimes by the state board of education, and in some states are *ex officio* assignments. The state librarian and the superintendent of public instruction are usually members. With the exception of a paid secretary, all serve without salary.

The work of the commission is to promote the establishment of free public libraries by means of state aid, to give information and advice to new libraries in regard to selection and care of books and library administration, to increase the efficiency of existing libraries by gifts of money or books, or by loan of books and by personal visits to keep in touch with all libraries thruout the state. By means of traveling libraries, in charge of the commissioners, rural districts without libraries and small libraries in villages have been supplied with the books which they could not otherwise obtain.

Massachusetts has the pioneer library commission. It was organized in 1890, and has given advice on library matters in all parts of the state, and occasionally in answer to inquiries from abroad.

New Hampshire organized a state commission in 1891; New York, in 1892;[1] Connecticut, in 1893; and Vermont, in 1894.

The New York department first established the traveling-library system, and has specialized in library building and furnishing work for study clubs and library institutes. Its publications are numerous and valuable, including bibliographies and reading-lists on many subjects.

The Wisconsin commission is the pioneer in the West. It was organized in 1895 and makes special efforts in personal visitation and instruction, maintaining general and special traveling libraries, a magazine clearing-house, and a state document department. Without charge it helps to organize and classify new libraries, to reorganize old libraries and to create a desire for libraries in towns which have none. It publishes library statistics, news of library progress, lists of books for small libraries, buying-lists of current books, and lists on special subjects for special libraries.

The Wisconsin, Minnesota, Indiana, and Iowa State Library Commissions make a specialty of library instruction by means of summer schools, library extension, institutes, lectures, and correspondence.

Indiana has appointed a trained librarian and teacher to organize library work in the schools of the state.

Public Libraries:

Tyler, A. S. Instructional work of library commissions. 1905, 10:60–61. (What can be done.)

Michigan requires every commissioner of schools to make a report on library conditions to the State Library Commission for every district school and public library in his county.

Idaho sends books to lumber and mining camps.

Iowa has traveling libraries to lend to regular libraries and for general use, including books for study clubs, for young people, specific books for individuals, and books for the blind. It maintains a clearing-house for exchange of magazines, and assists in organizing local library associations.

In 1902 the State Library Commission Section of the A. L. A. was created. In 1905 an application made by the League of Library Commissions for affiliation with the A. L. A. was granted.

At present (1905) twenty-three states have library commissions. Their activities have been given in tabulated form by the secretary of the league in a paper read at the A. L. A. Portland conference in 1905. He divides the work into the four groups of "Direct Aid," "Advisory," "Instruction," and "Documents;"and states that the league has planned extensive undertakings in publications intended to help libraries by making accessible the result of the knowledge and experience of specialists engaged in the work.

The character of the publications of the state library commissions depends somewhat upon the location of the state. Annual reports are issued, lists of books and circular letters are sent to farmers and to the newspapers in rural districts. Bulletins and leaflets giving statistics and information on library progress, and all kinds of book-lists for school, public, and traveling libraries, are distributed without charge.

[1] This was more than a commission, really a distinct state department.

For information on the history, organization, work, and publications of state library commissions, see—

Public Libraries:

Brigham, Johnson. Synopsis of laws authorizing library commissions. 1905, 10:83–87. (Gives organization, purpose, and state appropriation.)
Reports from state library commissions. 1905, 10:62–67.
Stearns, L. E. Traveling libraries. 1905, 10:76–81.

Library Journal:

Brigham, Johnson. A model library commission law. 1905, 30:c 46–51.
Countryman, G. A. State aid to libraries. 1904, 29:c 148–152.
——— Traveling libraries. 1905, 30:c 56–58.
Hewins, C. M. The work of an eastern library commission. 1905, 30:c 51–55.
Legler, H. E. State library commissions. 1905, 30:c 40–45.
Thomson, John. How to secure a state library commission. 1901, 26:191–192.

State library associations.—The state library associations are unofficial in character, and resemble the A. L. A. in scope and aim. Membership includes those engaged or interested in literary work.

Special efforts are made to secure the attendance of library trustees, and also of library assistants who are unable, on account of the time and expense involved, to attend A. L. A. meetings.

Where no state library commission exists, the state association frequently undertakes the work of the commission, securing the enactment of library laws, circulating traveling libraries, holding library institutes, encouraging co-operation, and in general promoting library interests thruout the state.

One or several meetings are held during the year, and handbooks and book-lists are published. New York has the oldest state association. It was organized in 1890, and holds a largely attended "Library Week" each September at Lake Placid, at which papers are read and addresses made, followed by informal discussions. Other states than New York are represented, and the meeting is second only to the A. L. A. The association carries on institute work, publishes co-operative book-lists, watches library legislation, undertakes general oversight of professional library training, and has a committee on publicity to promote intelligent use of the local press for library advertising in small communities.

Each state association, of which there are now thirty-one, has accomplished similar work, modified by local conditions, and is planning to accomplish more in the future,

Local library clubs.—The local library clubs, city and state, are like the state associations, except that their interests are confined to a smaller territory. Meetings, informal in character, are held several times during the year, and special efforts are made to promote acquaintance among librarians and to advance library interests in that particular vicinity. The clubs usually publish a handbook or manual, and several have issued other publications of local importance.

New York is again the pioneer in this form of library organization. The city founded the first library club in 1885, five years before the state association was formed. The New York Library Club published in 1887 a *Union List of*

Periodicals in New York libraries, and in 1902 *Libraries of Greater New York*, in which are given the history, regulations, and resources of the New York public and institutional libraries.

The Chicago Library Club issued in 1901 a list of periodicals in Chicago libraries. Other clubs publish book-lists, bulletins, etc. There are at present twenty-one local library clubs in the United States.

The proceedings of the state commissioners, associations, and clubs are published in the *Library Journal* and *Public Libraries* during the year. An alphabetic list of these organizations with the name and address of the secretary is given in the *A. L. A. Handbook*.

Library Journal:

Green, H. E. Tabulated reports of state library associations. 1891, 16:52–56.

Dana, J. C. What state and local library associations can do for library interests. 1905, 30:c17–26. (Followed by a list of associations and clubs, American and foreign. For each association are given the name and address of the secretary, date of establishment, amount of dues, number of members, and meetings during the year, publications, and special work.)

Jones, G. M. State and other local clubs and meetings. 1898, 23:138–139.

Tillinghast, W. H. The field of work in state and local clubs. 1898, 23:519–521.

Public Libraries:

Farrar, I. F. How shall the program for a state library association be made up to be of the most use to the librarians of small libraries? 1902, 7:363–365.

Library schools.—The first school for training of librarians was established by Melvil Dewey in 1887 at Columbia College, New York. Two years later it was removed to Albany and became the New York State Library School, with Mr. Dewey as director; which position he held until January, 1906.

Other library schools are: Pratt Institute Library School, Brooklyn, N. Y.; Mary W. Plummer, director. University of Illinois Library School, Champaign, Ill.; Katherne L. Sharp, director. Drexel Institute Library School, Philadelphia, Pa.; A. B. Kroeger, director. Carnegie Library Training School for Children's Librarians, Pittsburg, Pa.; Frances J. Olcott, director. Simmons College Library Training Course, Boston, Mass.; Mary E. Robbins, instructor. Western Reserve University Library School, Cleveland, Ohio; W. H. Brett, dean. Southern Library School, Atlanta, Ga.; Anne Wallace, director.

Summer library schools are conducted by the Chautauqua Assembly, Indiana Public Library Commission, New York State Library School, and the Universities of Wisconsin, Iowa, and Minnesota.

APPENDIX

USEFUL BOOKS [1]

Salisbury, G. E. Library methods for school teachers. 1903. Whitewater, Wis.: Published by author. 25 cents.

Intended to help teachers who have had no library training, and who may be called upon to supervi s school libraries.

Stearns, L. E. Essentials in library administration. 1905. (A. L. A. Library Tract, No. 6.) 10½ Beacon St., Boston. 15 cents.

Covers all details of library organization in a thoro and systematic manner. A list of necessary librar y supplies is given, together with addresses of library supply firms, and a list of books on library literature. The suggestions are extremely helpful.

[1] Reference-books and articles on Specific Topics have been cited under such topics.

Milner, A. V. The formation and care of school libraries. Published by the Illinois State Normal University, Normal, Ill.

Baylor University (Waco, Tex.). Public school libraries. 1905. (Bulletin 8, No. 1.)

Dana, J. C. A library primer. 1903. Chicago Library Bureau. $1.
This book should be in every school or public library.

Plummer, M. W. Hints to small libraries. 1894. New York. Lane. 50 cents.

Denver Public Library Handbook. 1895. Carson-Harper Co. 65 cents.

Dewey, Melvil, ed. Simplified library school rules. 1898. Library Bureau. $1.25.
Includes definitions, abbreviations, card-catalog rules, accession and shelf-list rules, book numbers capitals, and punctuation.

Library Recipes (in Library Notes, 1895, Vol. IV, No. 15). Library Bureau. 50 cents.
Compilation of useful information in regard to mending, cleaning, pasting, etc.

U. S. Bureau of Education. Papers prepared for the World's Library Congress, held at the Columbian Exposition, edited by Melvil Dewey. 1896. Free.
Each branch of library economy is discussed by an expert, followed by a selected bibliography.

Pratt Institute Library (Brooklyn). Reading list in library science. 1902. Boston Book Co. 10 cents.

Library Journal (monthly). New York; published since 1876. $4 a year.

Public Libraries (10 months). Chicago; published since 1896. $1 a year.

"Libraries." New International Encyclopedia, Vol. II, 1902. New York: Dodd, Mead & Co.

—— Encyclopedia Americana, Vol. IX, 1904. New York: American Book Co.

ARTICLES IN PERIODICALS

Library Journal:

Adams, E. L. Library work with schools. 1898, 23:137.

Bolton, C. K. Library examinations in schools. 1895, 20:122.

Chamberlain, Mellen. Public libraries and public schools. 1880, 5:299.

Coe, E. M. Relation of libraries to public schools. 1892, 17:193.

Cole, G. W. How teachers should co-operate with librarians. 1895, 20:115.

Comstock, M. E. The library as an educational factor. 1896, 21:147.

Crunden, F. M. Relation of libraries and schools. 1904, 29:c 5.

Crunden, F. M., and Blanchard, C. A. Reading by school children and college students. 1888, 13:89.

Cutter, C. A. Supervision of children's library use. 1898, 23:149.

Dana, J. C. Libraries and teachers. 1896, 21:133.

Davidson, Charles. Library work in schools. 1899, 24:150.

Doren, E. C. School libraries. 1897, 22:190.

Dousman, M. E. Children's departments. 1896, 21:406.

Druar, Margaret. The public library as an aid in the school room. 1899, 24:143.

Fairchild, E. M., and Adams, L, A. Methods of children's library work as determined by the needs of the children. 1897, 22:c 19.

Foerste, A. F. Public school and the public library. 1897, 22:341.

Foster, W. E. How to use the public library: suggestions for the use of pupils, 1879, 4:447.

Gilbert, C. B. The public library and the public school. 1904, 29:169.

Green, S. S. Library aids. 1881, 6:104.

——— A bibliography of library science.

——— Aids and guides for readers. 1882, 7:145.

——— Report on libraries and schools. 1883, 8:229.

Hardy, G. E. The school library as a factor in education. 1889, 14:343.

Harris, W. T. Function of the library and the school in education. 1890, 15:27.

Hewins, C. M. Yearly report on boys' and girls' reading. 1882, 7:182.

Merington, Margaret. How may we make the guiding of pupils' reading a part of the teacher's work? 1895, 20:119.

——— Public libraries and public schools. 1887, 12:156.

New York Library Club. Relation of libraries to public schools. 1892, 17:204.

Olcott, F. J. Work with children at the Carnegie library of Pittsburg. 1900, 23:166.

Plummer, M. W. The work for children in free public libraries. 1897, 22:697.

Library Journal (continued):
Pratt Institute (Brooklyn) Children's department. 1898, 23:579.
Reports upon lending books to schools. 1891, 16:104.
Sanders, M. A. Relation of the public library to the school. 1889, 14:79.
Sawin, J. M. Some successful methods of developing children's interest in good literature. 1895, 20:377.
Stimson, Rev. H. A. Boys and books. 1884, 9:142.
Thurston, E. P. How can the character of the reading be improved? 1891, 16:47.
Tripp, G. N. Can the public library and the public school be mutually helpful? 1904, 29:173.
Van Sickle, J. H. Libraries in the school room. 1896, 21:152.
Work between libraries and schools. 1897, 22:181.
Young. The public library and the public school. 1896, 21:140.

Public Libraries:
Bishop, W. W. School libraries and public libraries. 1896, 1:94.
Cheener, W. H. Use and abuse of school libraries. 1897, 2:349.
Co-operation between schools and libraries. 1898, 3:154.
Dewey, Melvil. New library department of the N. E. A. 1896, 1:183.
Dodge, Virginia. The library and the school. 1898, 3:353.
Doring, F. W. How we use the library. 1903, 8:104.
Eastman, L. A. The children's room. 1898, 3:417.
English, M. F. Classification of school libraries. 1897, 2:351.
Folsom, Channing. How can and should the library assist the school? 1898, 3:164.
Haney, J. D. How shall the public libraries help the high school? 1902, 7:224.
Hoag, J. P. Co-operation of the public library and public school (Ontario). 1904, 9:225.
Lindsay, M. B. A children's corner in a small library. 1899, 4:142.
Lyman, Edna. Children's room at Scoville Institute. 1899, 4:9.
Mackenzie, Davis. The public school and the public library. 1897, 2:423.
Mercer, Martha. Relation of school and library. 1898, 3:405.
Miller, Marie. Schools and libraries. 1896, 1:89.
Parsons, John. The library and the school. 1896, 1:313.
Pratt, J. A. The library and the children. 1898, 3:77.
Schreiber, M. E. Co-operation between librarian and teacher. 1897, 2:2.
Stearns, L. E. Educational force of children's reading. 1897, 2:6.
Williams, Sherman. In regard to reading. 1899, 4:57.
Wright, P. B. Relation of the library to the public school. 1899, 4:11.
Young people and the school. 1896, 1:81.

N. E. A. Proceedings:
Dana, J. C. The librarian and the teachers. 1899:519.
Holland, E. O. The library as an adjunct to the secondary school. 1903:961.

Outlook:
Bissell, F. S. What the libraries are doing for children. 1902, 72:420.
Crunden, F. M. The public library a paying investment. 1903, 73:494.

New England Magazine:
Orr, William. Public school, library and museum. N. S. 1896. 15:245.

Atlantic Monthly:
Scudder, H. E. American classics in school. 1887, 60:85.
——— Educational law of reading and writing. 1894, 73:252.
Warner, C. D. The novel and the common school. 1890, 65:721.
Tomlinson, E. T. Reading for boys and girls. 1900, 86:693.

Contemporary Review:
Weisse, H. V. Reading for the young. 1901, 79:829.

American Monthly Review of Reviews:
Elmendorf, H, L. Some things a boy of seventeen should have had an opportunity to read. 1903, 28:713.

SUMMARY OF STATE LAWS RELATING TO SCHOOL LIBRARIES

Whenever available, the latest edition of the school law has been consulted, generally the statutes of 1902 or 1903.

For recent changes see Comparative Summary and Index of Legislation, published annually by the New York State Library.

ALABAMA.—Has no school-library law.

ARKANSAS.—Has no school-library law.

ARIZONA.—Allows $50 a year to every school district, provided it contains 100 children. The state superintendent (Report, 1902) deplores the fact that only $357.55 had been spent during the year for school libraries. The law specifies that the libraries are to be kept in the schoolhouses when practicable, and may be used by residents of the district upon payment of an annual or monthly fee.

CALIFORNIA.—Grants to each rural district 10 per cent. of its share of the county school fund, provided amount does not exceed $50. In cities, for every 1,000 children $50 is allowed. Residents may use school library by payment of a life membership, or an annual or monthly fee, amount not specified. A fee of $2 paid for a teacher's certificate constitutes the teachers' institute and library fund. Fifty per cent. of this may be spent for a teachers' library. In school districts from 5 to 10 per cent. of the county school fund may be used for this purpose, provided the amount does not exceed $50. In case there are five or more teachers in one school, $10 to $15 is allowed for each teacher. The state superintendent is authorized to make lists of books suitable for school libraries. The trustees or board of education make rules and regulations for the organization and administration of the libraries.

COLORADO.—Grants an annual tax of one-tenth of a mill for the support of school libraries, which are open to the public under regulations established by the district school board.

CONNECTICUT.—Grants $10 to every school district, and to every town maintaining a high school, which raises by tax or otherwise a like sum to establish a school library; also an additional $5 annually on same conditions, for maintaining and replenishing such a library. If the number of pupils exceeds 100, the treasurer shall pay $10 in the first instance, and $5 annually thereafter for every 100 or fractional part of 100 pupils in excess of the first 100. The school board must approve selection of books and regulations for use. The public-library committee (State Library Commission) shall advise and assist in selection, purchase, and cataloguing of books, and in maintenance and administration of school libraries, and shall lend them books and pictures.

DELAWARE.—Pays $100 annually to the chairman of the committee on traveling libraries of the state Federation of Women's Clubs, to be used for buying books (and cases) to circulate among public schools.

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.—Provides a certain amount annually for contingent school expenses, including books of reference, periodicals, etc.

FLORIDA.—Authorizes the Board of Public Instruction to appoint a librarian to have charge of the school library, to make it available to inhabitants of the neighborhood, and to change books from one library to another. School trustees may spend for school libraries or other educational purposes the fund raised by a tax of three mills on the dollar annually.

GEORGIA.—Has no school-library law. Libraries have been started, however, in different parts of the state thru efforts of teachers and women's clubs. Committees have been appointed to select books suitable for rural school libraries, and efforts have been made to pass a library bill which will give a permanent fund.

IDAHO.—Imposes a tax, not exceeding one mill on the dollar, for establishing libraries in connection with public schools. The State Library Commission gives advice and counsel to all free libraries and public-school libraries, to aid in organizing new libraries or improving those already established.

ILLINOIS.—Authorizes school directors to appropriate, for buying libraries, any school funds remaining after all necessary school expenses are paid.

INDIANA.—Authorizes establishment of free libraries in connection with the common *schools, and permits* a tax of one mill on the dollar. For establishing common-school

libraries in cities of 30,000 population a tax is granted of 25 cents on $100; in cities of from 35,000 to 40,000, 5 cents on $100.

IOWA.—Grants from the school fund not less than 5 cents or more than 15 cents for each person of school age in each school district. The State Board of Examiners prepares lists of books, and rules for administration of school libraries. The secretary of the board of education acts as librarian.

KANSAS.—Grants a tax, not exceeding two mills on the dollar, for library purposes. Where taxable property is more than $20,000, the tax is one and one-half mills; where more than $30,000, one mill; where more than $50,000, one-half mill. The board of directors must buy books on history, biography, science, and travel.

KENTUCKY.—Grants power to the Board of Education to establish and maintain a public library out of any funds except that received by taxation or from state funds. The board will make all rules and regulations governing such libraries.

LOUSIANA.—Has no school-library law.

MAINE.—Has no school-library law.

MARYLAND.—Grants $10 to each school district annually, provided the people in that district raise the same amount. The library must be in charge of a teacher, and books must be selected from lists furnished by the State Board of Education. The State Library Commission must give advice to public-school libraries as to selection, cataloguing, and other details, and help in organizing new or improving old libraries. It must organize and conduct traveling libraries, and may borrow from state libraries. The commission is allowed $1,000 annually for such purposes.

MASSACHUSETTS.—Has no school law relating to school libraries. The Board of Free Public Library Commissioners may give $100 to a free public library in a town of $600,000 valuation, if the trustees have rendered the library useful to the teachers and scholars of the public schools in such town. Trustees are authorized to use 25 per cent. of the school fund for buying books of reference, maps, and apparatus.

MICHIGAN.—Grants the establishment of a district-school library which shall be entitled to its just proportion of books from the township library, and also to its share of library moneys; the school inspectors to have charge of the township libraries and of all library moneys. The proceeds of all fines for any breach of the penal laws, for penalties in criminal proceedings, and for exemption from military duty must be apportioned among the several townships according to the number of children, and applied to township and district libraries.

MINNESOTA.—Empowers the state superintendent, and the presidents of the five state normal schools, to prepare lists of books suitable for school libraries; to include books of reference, history, biography, literature, political economy, agriculture, travel and natural science; and to make contracts for buying such books. The law provides for care of books, appointment of librarian, and for suitable rules. For one-half of the amount spent for such purposes each school district may make a requisition upon the state auditor. No district must receive more than $20 on first statement, nor more than $10 on any subsequent statement. The fund is $10,000 annually, or so much thereof as may be necessary to meet the provisions of this act. Any village may contribute to the school library, or other school purposes, all or a percentage of the license money received from persons selling intoxicating liquors.

MISSISSIPPI.—Has no school-library law.

MISSOURI.—Authorizes school boards to use from school funds not less than 5 nor more than 20 cents per pupil enumerated in the district each year, which shall be spent for books selected from lists compiled by the State Library Board.

MONTANA.—Grants for a library fund a tax of not less than 5 nor more than 10 per cent. of the county school fund, provided that such percentage does not exceed $50. In cities of 2,000 or more the library fund must not exceed $50 for every 500 children

of school age. Books must be selected from lists made by superintendent of public instruction. School trustees make library rules and regulations.

NEBRASKA.—Has a public-library tax only, of two mills on the dollar.

NEVADA.—Has no school-library law. School trustees may appropriate from school funds for library books; but unfortunately, from motives of economy, have so far failed to do this. The superintendent of public instruction, in his report for 1901–2, urges the legislature to appropriate from $5 to $100 for each school for library purposes.

NEW HAMPSHIRE.—Has no school-library law.

NEW JERSEY.—Grants $20 to any district which raises by tax, or in any other way a like sum, to establish a school library, and the further sum of $10 annually on same condition. Books are to be selected and approved as the State Board of Education may direct. If there is more than one schoolhouse in a district, school libraries may consolidate. One hundred dollars is granted to establish a pedagogic library for teachers, if a like sum is raised, and not less than $50 nor more than $100 annually thereafter on same conditions. The county superintendent and three teachers shall constitute a county committee, to select and buy books and apparatus for such library, and to make rules and regulations for use and management.

NEW YORK.—Grants to each school district an amount equal to that raised from taxation or other sources for library purposes; and appropriates $100,000 annually under this law, besides $50,000 for high-school libraries. The school library must not be used as a circulating library except to teachers, school officers, and pupils. Any public library may collect the books from any district library which has not been in charge of a librarian within one year. New York is the pioneer state in establishing school libraries. The first sum for this purpose was appropriated in 1838.

NORTH CAROLINA.—Appropriates every two years $5,000 for establishing rural school libraries and $2,500 for adding to libraries already established. For every $10 provided by the state the community must provide $10 and the county $10 in addition, with which to start a library; and $15 may be secured, on similar terms, for an enlargement of this library.

NORTH DAKOTA.—Appropriates $750 annually for district school libraries, to be circulated as traveling libraries. The state superintendent prepares lists of suitable books, with lowest prices indicated, and makes all rules and regulations. The district school board may appropriate not less than $10 and not more than $25 for each school library.

OHIO.—Authorizes establishment of public libraries in connection with public schools, and buying books other than school (text) books for a school library.

OKLAHOMA.—Grants from the district school fund, for the use of a school library, from $5 to $100, according to number of teachers employed. The county board of examiners shall furnish each county superintendent a list of reference and literary books, with list-price and cost-price of each, and the order of purchase designated. He shall furnish additional lists at stated periods for future purchases.

OREGON.—Levies, for district school libraries, a tax of not less than 10 cents for each child (in the county) between four and twenty years of age. Each district receives its share according to number of children. The books bought are selected from lists prepared by the state Board of Education. The school library must be kept in the school house, and the teachers are responsible for its proper care and protection.

RHODE ISLAND.—Grants authority to towns and school districts to appropriate such money for support of school libraries "as they shall judge necessary."

SOUTH CAROLINA.—Has no school-library law.

SOUTH DAKOTA.—Reserves from the school fund an amount equal to 10 cents for each person of school age as a library fund. Books are selected from state superintendents' lists. The clerk of the school district acts as librarian, with a teacher in each

school to represent him. The libraries "travel" in a circuit consisting of not more than ten schools.

TENNESSEE.—Has no school-library law.

TEXAS.—Has no school-library law. The school libraries, of which there are over 5,000 in the state, were started and maintained by local taxation or by funds realized from entertainments. The State Library Association has been very active, and the Women's Federation has established fifty-seven traveling libraries in rural districts.

UTAH.—Grants power to school boards to establish and support school libraries.

VERMONT.—Has no school-library law, but the Board of Library Commissioners maintains and circulates some traveling libraries selected for the use of schools.

VIRGINIA.—Has no school-library law.

WASHINGTON.—Grants a tax of one-tenth of a mill on one dollar for a school-library fund. The State Board of Education recommends books suitable for a pupils' circulating library and for a pupils' and teachers' reading-circle. Pupils of the eighth grade must read at least one of the reading-circle books before graduating.

WEST VIRGINIA.—Has no school-library law.

WISCONSIN.—Grants from school funds an amount equal to 10 cents for each person of school age, as a school-library fund. Books are selected from lists made by the state superintendent. The law prescribes all rules and regulations for administration of school libraries.

WYOMING.—Grants the establishment of public libraries in connection with schools. The tax is not less than one-eighth of a mill nor more than one-half of a mill on the dollar. A suitable place without rent must be furnished by the community. A schoolroom may be used for the library, and it must be free to all residents of the county.

Patten, F. C. Library Legislation (in Dana, J. C., Library primer, 1903, 147–151). (*Relates to public libraries.*)