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Library Resources & Technical Services, the quarterly official publication of the Resources and Technical Services Division of the American Library Association, is published at 1201-05 Bluff St., Fulton, MO 65251. Editorial Office: American Library Association, 50 E. Huron St., Chicago, IL 60611. Advertising Traffic Coordinator: Janice Sher, Advertising Office, ALA Headquarters, 50 E. Huron St., Chicago, IL 60611. Circulation and Business Office: Central Production Unit/Journals, ALA Headquarters, 50 E. Huron St., Chicago, IL 60611. Subscription price: to members of the ALA Resources and Technical Services Division, $4.00 per year, included in the membership dues; to non-members, $8.00 per year; single copies $2.50.

Second-class postage paid at Chicago, Illinois, and at additional mailing offices.

LRTS is indexed in Library Literature, Library & Information Science Abstracts, Current Index to Journals in Education, and Science Citation Index. Its reviews are included in the Book Review Digest, Book Review Index, and Review of Reviews.

Contributors: Manuscripts of articles should be addressed to the Editor: Wesley Simonton, Library School, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, MN 55455. Each manuscript should be in two copies, typed in double space, with illustrative matter in finished form for the printer. Preceding the article should be its title, the name and affiliation of the author, and a 75- to 100-word abstract. The article itself should be concise, simply written, and as free as possible of jargon. Citations should be brief, easy to understand, and consistent in form within the article. Copies of books for review should be addressed to: Ellen Altman, College of Library Science, University of Kentucky, Lexington, KY 40506.

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The Editor's Assignment

WESLEY SIMONTON

It is customary for a new editor to present a statement of goals, principles, procedures which will provide guidelines for his tenure of office. Such statements, however easy to prepare, may prove to be of questionable utility in the evaluation of the editor's performance by his colleagues and his critics. Nonetheless, I owe you mine.

The editor of a professional journal has a varied assignment: to recognize the contribution of the newcomer to the profession, assisting him by providing, as needed, knowledge, if not wisdom, from his own experience; to stimulate the experienced professional to present his mature thoughts, assisting him by suggesting or providing any larger context which seems appropriate; and, probably most important of all, to seek out the scholarly, perhaps provocative, presentation which will cause all of us to review our goals, our principles, our procedures.

In another light, and more fundamentally, the assignment of the new editor is to demand no less of his authors and of his readers than has been demanded in the past. His hope must be to demand more.

I pledge to you my best efforts.
International Developments in Cataloging*

DOROTHY ANDERSON
Executive Secretary
IFLA Committee on Cataloguing

The IFLA Committee on Cataloguing has been at work since 1954 to establish international standards for cataloging and bibliographic records; it was responsible for the International Conference on Cataloguing Principles, Paris, 1961, and the International Meeting of Cataloguing Experts, Copenhagen, 1969. In recent years there have been increasing demands from national cataloging bodies and bibliographic agencies for uniformity in codes and practices, and in consequence there has been more willingness to make national concessions in order to reach international standards. The IFLA Cataloguing Secretariat was established in 1971 to assist this trend by co-ordinating work, promoting new projects and acting as a liaison center.

This is not the first time I have been in Washington, but it is the first time I have attended a gathering of ALA. I am very glad that I came first to ALA Midwinter, because I find myself so much at home. It is all familiar to me—a working conference. You are all involved in committees, subcommittees, work groups, task forces. You are busy people giving of your time and your services to further the interests and needs of your profession. I can understand and appreciate what you are doing because it is familiar. The structure of ALA Midwinter is akin to the IFLA conferences I know.

The International Federation of Library Associations (IFLA) is exactly what its name implies; and its major visible sign of activity is the yearly conference when representatives of library associations and libraries come together to meet and talk in larger and smaller gatherings of plenary sessions, committees, sections, and working groups. IFLA sec-

tions represent groups of libraries of the same type: public libraries, university libraries, etc.; the committees deal with library functions—serial publications, cataloging, and so on.

In one sense IFLA is simpler than ALA because the structure is simpler; but, on the other hand, there are complexities at the international level that you do not suffer, chiefly distance, communication and language. For example, the chairman of one IFLA committee resides in Leipzig and the secretary in Moscow, and their common language of communication is English. But basically, the work of IFLA depends, as it does in ALA, on the individual officers of the committees and sections, the chairman, the secretaries, the working group members—their energy and enthusiasm, their ability to promote work; and this has been IFLA’s entire life style until now. The people who come together at the annual conference accept posts voluntarily and carry out these functions in addition to their ordinary jobs. The only difference is with the Committee on Cataloguing: we have a permanent secretariat which has been in existence for eighteen months.

The Committee on Cataloguing is fortunate that twenty years ago two energetic and skillful people served as chairman and secretary, Sir Frank Francis and A. H. Chaplin, respectively, both of the British Museum. They initiated in 1954 the first cataloging project to be undertaken. I first became involved with the work of the committee in 1958 when plans were afoot to hold a conference to consider cataloging principles at the international level. At that time it was not even certain whether there was any basis on which to bring catalogers together at an international conference. At a preliminary meeting in London in 1959 it was agreed that there was justification for believing that national cataloging codes had enough in common and that representatives of national cataloging bodies would be prepared to compromise for the sake of uniformity. The result, the International Conference on Cataloguing Principles (ICCP), held in Paris in 1961, was a landmark, and a great success, because it was very carefully prepared, limited in its scope, and had definite objectives. Two years of preparation preceded it, during which library associations all over the world were encouraged to form national cataloging committees to study working papers, and to appoint delegates to come to the conference with authority to vote. The document resulting from the conference, the “Statement of Principles,” was first presented as a draft, and was then discussed and revised section by section, and each revised section was voted upon. Anyone reading the report of the ICCP cannot but be impressed with the discussions and with the willingness of the representatives of national cataloging bodies to compromise, to set aside national traditions, in order to reach some measure of international agreement. This was particularly evident in the discussion of Section 9 which deals with corporate authorship. Delegate after delegate from countries which had not hitherto accepted the concept of corporate authorship agreed to do so. The ICCP was, as I said, a landmark, a watershed, in the history of cataloging. Delegates were asked to return

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to their countries prepared to implement the “Statement of Principles” in new national codes or in any revision of cataloging codes. In the years after 1961 there came a burst of national activity in cataloging with the “Statement of Principles” as its background and basis.

Within five years it was apparent that the “Statement of Principles” was perhaps not quite so clear-cut, not quite so perfect as had been thought at the time. When national cataloging committees came to look at it in the context of drafting complete codes, they found ambiguities in the text and inconsistencies in the terminology; in some cases it was too general. In particular, Sections 9.11 and 9.12, which deal with the selection of corporate body as main entry, were not satisfactory, and national cataloging bodies, in interpreting the “Statement of Principles” and in composing national codes, either had difficulty in agreeing to accept one or both of these sections, or interpreted them differently.

By 1964 the IFLA Committee on Cataloguing had agreed that it would be useful to produce an annotated “Statement of Principles” which would elucidate some of the inconsistencies in the text, and which would, perhaps, include examples to explain the intention of the text. A. H. Chaplin and I undertook the first edition which was issued in 1966. We were not satisfied; we thought that the “Statement of Principles” should come under examination by a more representative group of catalogers. This was the motive force for arranging another international cataloging meeting, the International Meeting of Cataloguing Experts (IMCE), held in Copenhagen in 1969.

In the years since 1961, there had been in the world of books and libraries quite remarkable changes which had begun to affect cataloging fundamentally. The impact of the computer on libraries and the Shared Cataloging Program (NPAC, National Program for Acquisitions and Cataloging) of the Library of Congress were particularly significant. The 1961 ICCP had concentrated on headings: it established principles with regard only to the choice and form of headings and entry words. Now came the question whether it was possible to look at the remainder of the catalog record—the body of the entry—and see if standardization could be achieved there also. At the IMCE these further aspects of the cataloger’s work were considered, as well as a review of the ICCP “Statement of Principles.” But the Copenhagen Meeting was quite different from the Paris Conference. Its title, International Meeting of Cataloguing Experts, shows that participants were chosen because they were expert in their field, because they were known to be working on a particular question, or because they represented countries where it was known there was considerable activity in cataloging. It was a small meeting—there were forty-five participants with some observers, a total of about sixty. The “Statement of Principles” was examined; there was no question of changing its text, for that had been fixed by the vote of official national delegations at ICCP. The IMCE could only draw attention to weaknesses and inconsistencies in the “Statement of Principles,” and make recommendations for the solution of problems not adequately
handled. The IMCE recognized, for example, the unsatisfactory nature of Sections 9.11 and 9.12, and noted that no codes evolved since the ICCP had found it possible to formulate rules consistent with both those sections.

The IMCE then went on to examine the possibility of drawing up an international standard for the descriptive content of catalog entries. It is important to realize the impact of LC’s Shared Cataloging Program on the discussion that took place. The IMCE report states:

The participants agreed that the Shared Cataloging Program had shown that variations in descriptive detail could be accepted, and so had encouraged a more flexible attitude among cataloguers towards changes in their own systems, but that greater uniformity was nevertheless desirable, as variations could lead to uncertainty in identification. The Shared Cataloging Program, in making catalogers more aware of existing variations, had also increased their willingness to work towards uniformity.3

The Copenhagen Meeting had four significant results. The first was the establishment of the working group to draw up an annotated “Statement of Principles.” Dr. Eva Verona, the chairman of the Yugoslav cataloging committee, was its chairman and was, in fact, the principal author of the resulting publication.4 She was asked to include in it a complete review and comparison of all cataloging codes which had been produced since 1961 based on the Paris Principles, of which there have been more than twenty.

The second result was another working group, under the chairmanship of A. J. Wells, the editor of the British National Bibliography, to work on an International Standard Bibliographic Description. The document used as the basis for discussion at the IMCE and for the working group had been produced under a UNESCO contract by Michael Gorman, who had examined the elements and characteristics of description in some eight national bibliographies. The working group was able to meet twice soon after the IMCE and in the summer of 1970 their second draft of the international standard which has come to be known as ISBD was circulated very widely, to all the IMCE participants and also to a number of other cataloging bodies, large national libraries, etc., so that comments could be presented at an open session during the IFLA Moscow conference of 1970. All comments received either then or by correspondence were taken into account in drawing up the third draft. The working group had another meeting early in 1971, and by the time of the IFLA conference in Liverpool that summer, the final draft of ISBD was ready and was presented by the group’s chairman at an open session of the IFLA Committee on Cataloguing, which gave its general approval. We then published the text as the recommendation of the Working Group in December 1971.5

Other results of the Copenhagen Meeting are long term. Third was the Resolution of the IMCE which expressed a statement of policy that can be considered the basis of all our work not only in the IFLA Committee on Cataloguing, but also in all other IFLA activities which are
concerned with the international communications system. The resolution reads:

Efforts should be directed towards creating a system for the international exchange of information by which the standard bibliographic description of each publication would be established and distributed by a national agency in the country of origin of the publication. The means of distribution in such a system would be through the medium of cards or machine-readable records. The effectiveness of the system will be dependent upon the maximum standardization of the form and the content of the bibliographic description.°

There are two sides to this issue. First comes the acceptance of international standards for producing bibliographic records so that each country can contribute in a form which will be acceptable to all others. Secondly is the recognition that the national bibliographic agency in each country is for its own authors the authority for determining the form of the author’s name, whether it be personal or corporate, and that the descriptive records it produces are acceptable to all other countries as the definitive record of its publications. This is all part of our larger ideal of an integrated worldwide international communication system, the concept of universal bibliographic control.

The fourth result of the Copenhagen Meeting was the establishment of the IFLA Cataloguing Secretariat. The participants felt that if any work were to be implemented in the international field of cataloging, it was necessary to have some continuing organization to coordinate the work of various international bodies already making investigations in the same field. The resolution reads:

It is desirable to establish a continuing secretariat to assist and co-ordinate future work arising from the resolutions of the IMCE and directed at creating an international system for the exchange of bibliographical information and promoting the necessary uniformity in headings and description... the various sections and committees of IFLA interested in these problems [should] be invited to cooperate with the secretariat, which would also make contact with the appropriate organs of other interested bodies.7

To carry out that resolution we were fortunate to obtain a grant from the Council on Library Resources to establish the Cataloguing Secretariat for an initial period of three years. We are now half way through that period, and I think we have succeeded in undertaking the various functions assigned to us: liaison and coordination amongst cataloging and bibliographical organizations; provision of services to working groups and individuals engaged in particular cataloging projects; promotion of projects relating to the international standardization of cataloging and bibliographical practices; editorial and publishing activities; and the production of a regular information bulletin. We received the grant from the Council on Library Resources on the understanding that alternative sources of income would be available for the future, among which would be income from publishing. We are producing a quarterly journal, International Cataloguing, in which we aim to report
on work in progress.\textsuperscript{8} We have published Dr. Verona's annotated "Statement of Principles," and the \textit{International Standard Bibliographic Description}.\textsuperscript{9, 10}

Indeed, in the eighteen months since July 1971, when the Cataloguing Secretariat came into being, the momentum has increased enormously. I am constantly surprised at how much more interest, how much more demand for compatibility, for acceptance of uniformity or standards, has become evident in the three years since the Copenhagen Meeting. But it must be emphasized that we can only perform a role as a coordinating unit. We reflect and promote: we do not impose. The momentum for our work must come from national bodies eager to promote particular projects.

We have working groups covering both the traditional side of cataloging and the new, automated work of systems and computers. We have, for example, a working group to establish uniform headings for liturgical works. This sounds old-fashioned, but is just as relevant as any other standard. We have a small working group on the organization of headings for voluminous authors in the catalogs of large collections; a meeting of this group is taking place in April of this year. We have a new joint working group with the IFLA Committee on Mechanization concerned with content designators, because it is thought necessary that these labels or tags be uniform in automated systems. But then the cataloging aspect comes in—there is no point in making the labels uniform unless you make sure that the nature of the contents designated by the label is also uniform. Henriette Avram of the Library of Congress is the chairman of this working group, which includes representatives from various mechanized national bibliographies of Europe and North America.

We have another joint working group, with the IFLA Committee on Serials, to consider an "ISBD for serials." This group, under the chairmanship of Mlle. M.-L. Bossuat of the Bibliothèque Nationale, Paris, includes catalogers and serials experts, and it has contacts with other international organizations involved in the same field. The director of the new International Center for the Registration of Serials in Paris, Mme. M. Rosenbaum, has been co-opted on this group which has facilitated its efforts. It is anticipated that there will be compatibility in the terms and definitions used in the ISBD for serials and the guidelines produced by the International Center.

We have followed much the same pattern with the ISBD for serials as we followed with the ISBD for monographs. A second draft was very widely distributed last summer before the IFLA Conference in Budapest, and there was an open session at which there was an opportunity for everyone to express his views, or the views of his country or his national cataloging committee. All comments received then or since were taken into consideration in the preparation of the third draft examined by the working group at a meeting in November 1972. A fourth draft has been revised by the working group and is now near completion.
The ISBD for monographs was distributed on publication to more than 70 national bibliographic agencies with a request that they examine it, consider its introduction in their national bibliographies, and comment on it. Immediately on publication it was introduced into the national bibliographies of three countries, and has since been accepted in others. In the year since publication we have received comments from a large number of countries, organizations, and persons; and we have noted a general willingness to accept the standard. In Switzerland, for example, they are prepared to accept the ISBD, although they are not happy about one or two points; in the interest of international standardization, however, it will probably be introduced into the Swiss national bibliography at the beginning of its next five-year sequence. The Yugoslav cataloging committee and the Croatian cataloging committee concluded that for the sake of international uniformity Yugoslav librarians would accept the ISBD. This was not an easy decision because the ISBD is, in its main parts, at variance with the cataloging tradition of Yugoslavia and with certain needs of their national libraries and national bibliographies.

We have found that the comments on ISBD are of three types. First, there is still some complete misunderstanding of its purpose and scope, though we thought that these were fully explained in the foreword and the introduction. The second type of comment relates to the actual text, and it is apparent that there is some misunderstanding of the text, because sometimes it is ambiguous. It is in very compact English, which became evident the moment various countries started to translate the ISBD into their own languages and the question of a uniform interpretation of each section arose. The third type of comment relates to detail in its usage. As early as the summer of last year, variations in practice in using the ISBD were creeping into the national bibliographies of Germany and Great Britain. This tendency was discussed last year during the IFLA Conference at Budapest, and it was decided that it would be very useful to hold a meeting as soon as possible to go over the text, to try to ensure complete uniformity in its interpretation and the details of its practical application. Prior to the IFLA Grenoble conference this summer, we, therefore, are arranging a meeting to which are invited representatives of the various organizations using the ISBD, representatives of organizations about to use it, and those representatives of organizations which have commented seriously on the ISBD. From this meeting we expect to establish a definitive text of the ISBD which will have the approval of a larger body of catalogers and representatives of national bibliographic agencies than were present at the 1969 International Meeting of Cataloguing Experts.

Another of our projects is the study undertaken by Eva Verona on corporate authorship. She did so much work on corporate authorship in preparing the annotated “Statement of Principles” that she felt no further study was possible. However, last summer Elizabeth Tate of the ALA Descriptive Cataloging Committee wrote, asking if some new ex-
amination of the concept of corporate authorship at the international level could be undertaken in view of problems in interpreting the Paris Principles and revising the *Anglo-American Cataloging Rules*. I talked to Dr. Verona about this, and though she was at first reluctant, she agreed to undertake a study on two levels: the basic concept of corporate authorship and the problem of form of name of corporate bodies. We are planning to devote a cataloging session at Grenoble to this subject.

Work at the international level is not always fast, and there are particular problems—of communication, of development, of compromise. Communication problems occur at both the spoken and the written level, but more noticeably at the spoken. I think most of you are understanding me because I think I am talking English. But even so there are areas where the English I speak and the English you speak is not the same. In international meetings, even when the common language is English as it often is, problems of misunderstanding can occur. Scandinavians and Russians and Germans may know English, but may lack practice in hearing it and using it. For example, I have discovered that tenses can mean very little. One does not say, “We shall close the catalogues” because that may be interpreted as “We are closing the catalogues.” To say, “We should close the catalogues,” may be interpreted as “We are closing the catalogues.” So one tries to be very clear by saying, “We are hoping to close the catalogues” or “We think it would be a good idea to close the catalogues.” At the written level, problems are less severe, but they still arise when letters are written in a language not the writer’s own.

Then in the international field there is the problem of varying stages of development. We are all catalogers, wherever our library, whatever the shape of our publications, whatever the style of our alphabet, doing essentially the same job: describing a publication uniformly and in such a way as to make its record unique. But our resources are so different. In Western Europe and North America we are now recording cataloging data via computers. Other countries are less fortunate. Some have typewriters, but in countries where there are a multiplicity of national languages and typewriters are not available with keyboards in all the required scripts, it remains the task of the cataloger to create a catalog record by hand. In working toward international standards we cannot consider only the world of Europe and North America. We must always remember that in trying to create an international system we return to our basic statement of policy, the Resolution of the IMCE.

The final element in the picture is compromise. To reach international agreement, like any domestic or regional agreement, there must of necessity be compromise. In our working groups there is always a certain amount of give and take. At the 1961 International Conference on Cataloguing Principles we had the quite extraordinary example of the acceptance of the concept of corporate authorship. Those of us trained in the tradition of Anglo-American cataloging may find it hard to realize just how much of a concession this was for those countries where the idea of corporate authorship was new. So the ICCP was, from that point
of view alone, an outstanding example of compromise. More recently, the drafting of the International Standard Bibliographic Description demanded compromise from the working group, but again it must be recognized that the European group members made many more concessions than those with the Anglo-American cataloging tradition behind them.

To end on a personal note. A number of years ago I worked for a political scientist, David Mitrany, who has been responsible for one remarkable contribution to our international world: an idea so simple, so easy that we take it for granted, the concept of the functional approach to international government. It is the idea that in planning for an international world it is better to concentrate on those aspects of life we have in common—our work, our professions—than on those that divide us. From this idea came the establishment of the specialized agencies of the United Nations, the World Health Organization, UNESCO, etc., and also the multiplicity of nongovernmental international organizations, most of them functional units. The International Federation of Library Associations is just such a professional organization, with one additional advantage: all librarians are internationalists at heart. We have to be, from the very nature of the material we are working with and the purpose of the work we are doing.

But catalogers even more than other librarians have functional links: we are approaching our task in the same way, asking the same questions, making the same decisions. If international librarianship means working for a common goal, then catalogers are fortunate that their function is international, their purpose is uniform.

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Library Resources & Technical Services

**SEMINAR ON CONSERVATION OF LIBRARY MATERIALS**

The Library of the Boston Athenaeum announces that it will sponsor a “Second Seminar in the Application of Chemical and Physical Methods to the Conservation of Library and Archival Materials.” The meeting, to be held in the Beacon Hill headquarters of the Colonial Society of Massachusetts on October 1-5, 1973, will be in two parts. Three days, October 1 to 3, will be devoted to the theoretical aspects of the conservation of library materials; the examination and treatment of damaged materials; and a review of the latest developments in research on the causes for deterioration, new restoration techniques, and recent literature. The last two days, October 4 and 5, will be devoted to the administrative aspects of conservation including planning for total conservation; staff organization and management; recruiting, education and training of conservation personnel; budget considerations; disaster control; and criteria for on-the-premise repair and restoration vs. professional assistance.

Anyone interested may apply for participation in one or both parts by addressing a request to the Boston Athenaeum, 10½ Beacon Street, Boston, MA 02108. Those selected will be assessed a conference fee of $50.00 for each part or a total of $100.00 for the entire week.
Developments in Copying, Micrographics, and Graphic Communications, 1972

Francis F. Spreitzer
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Los Angeles, California

In 1972 a great deal of work was accomplished in library reprography. The long-established services, such as full-size and microcopying, made their well-nigh indispensable contributions to study, research, and information gathering; microform library materials found increasing use; and microfilms as library systems tools gained some ground.

This good news would not be worth mentioning if it were not linked to some underlying bad news about serious threats to the fulfillment of the library's mission—making library materials available for use. Add to these the non-happenings—certain potentially useful developments which were expected to materialize during the year but failed to do so—and it becomes understandable that some may have mixed emotions at the examination of events in library reprography this past year.

Copyright problems outweighed all other library difficulties. The copyright revision bill continued to make its way through Congress at a snail's pace. Predictably, it did not become law. Although the controversy over cable television ended with a compromise, several other issues remained unresolved. When the president signed S.J. Res. 247 into law on October 25, extending the duration of expiring copyrights until December 31, 1974, it was thought that "copyright law revision suffered another blow" and that the "action gives little hope for... revision in the 1973 session."1,2

No bill, of course, may be preferable to a bill which would inadequately protect the public interest. Charles Gosnell may be right in stating that "[o]n balance it would seem that librarians and library patrons have very little to gain and much to lose in copyright revision. They find themselves pitted against proprietors seeking to restrict or abolish fair-use and not-for-profit principles and proposing blanket restraints on display of material through television screens, computers, and facsimile transmission. In the long run, the big issues will be decided in

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big-money terms, typical of the battle between music composers and publishers versus juke-box operators and CATV." The book containing Gosnell’s article, a good introduction to current thought about copyright, is highly recommended reading for librarians concerned with copyright problems. Among its several useful articles, we call special attention to Lyman R. Patterson’s “Copyright and the Public Interest” for the fundamental issues it raises.

In debates over new legislation, groups with political clout usually prove more persuasive than those with lofty ideals but no power; unfortunately, in almost every political arena, libraries are included in the latter category. Nothing is wrong with Donald Culbertson’s urging the National Commission on Libraries and Information Science “to use its prestige in pressuring Congress, the Administration, and various special interest groups for—at the very least—guarantees of the right to experiment with systems for information storage, retrieval, and delivery and the right to use copyrighted information for scientific research,” or with the Association of Research Libraries’ (ARL) and the American Library Association’s (ALA) effort to gather support from groups such as the American Association of Universities and other interested parties for the substitute amendment for Section 108 (d)(1) of the Copyright Revision Bill, S. 644, which they recommend at the end of the legislative session. But will such support be sufficient to insure satisfactory legislation, or would it help to follow Rita Paddock’s suggestion and “pull the plugs on the Xerox machines—nationwide—for a month and let the users lobby for copyright revision if they want to”? This proposed amendment states that:

(d) The rights of reproduction and distribution under this section entitle any library or archives whose collections are available to the public or to researchers in any specialized field to duplicate, by any process including photocopying and sound recording, any work in its collections other than a motion picture, and to supply a single copy or phonorecord upon request, but only under the following conditions:

1. The library or archives shall be entitled, without further investigation, to supply a copy of no more than one article or other contribution to a copyrighted collection or periodical issue, or to supply a copy or phonorecord of a similarly small part of any other copyrighted work.

2. The library or archives shall be entitled to supply a copy or phonorecord of an entire work, or of more than a relatively small part of it, if the library or archives has first determined, on the basis of a reasonable investigation that a copy or phonorecord of the copyrighted work cannot readily be obtained from trade sources.

3. The library or archives shall attach to the copy a warning that the work appears to be copyrighted.

If incorporated into S. 644, this amendment would write long-established practice into law. It seems consistent with the Constitutional intent of the copyright law as commonly understood by librarians and scholars—but not by publishers. In view of the recent posture of some
publishers, vigorous opposition to the amendment can be expected. It remains to be seen whether such opposition can be overcome with arguments in congressional hearings or possibly by settling the differences in the marketplace where libraries do have some power—purchasing power.

It would not have been easy to obtain an agreement to such an amendment in the past, and it may be more difficult now that the publishers have won a round in an important court battle. We are referring to Commissioner Davis’ report in the United States Court of Claims, No. 73–68, the Williams & Wilkins Company v. The United States, filed on February 16, 1972. In this case, the plaintiff, Williams & Wilkins Co., alleged that the defendants, the National Institutes of Health and the National Library of Medicine, have “infringed plaintiff’s copyrights in medical journals by making unauthorized photocopies of articles from such journals.” The commissioner held that “plaintiff is entitled to recover reasonable and entire compensation.” Although William North accurately described the situation created by this report as a “great leap backwards” for the way it disregarded the interests of library users and concurred with an unabashedly monopolistic concept of copyright, the report was still only a report, and not law, unless and until accepted by the Court. Some publications gave the impression the publishers had won the war. Publishers’ Weekly, for example, ran an article with the headline “Government Loses Photocopy Suit.”

The Williams & Wilkins Company took full advantage of the impact of the report with full-page advertisements appearing shortly after the commissioner filed it. The ads announced “A Statement of Fact and Faith” presenting a “simple plan based on the idea of a reasonable annual license fee for the right of copying our materials” and inviting comments and questions. Yet as late as May, the company answered a letter of inquiry by writing that it was not in a position to give details of the plan. It stated, however, that the license would not apply to copies to be sent outside of the library on loan or otherwise. In other words, these advertisements, which could have induced some librarians to stray into treacherous legal territory by buying the license, did not tell them they would have to pay royalties on top of license fees.

It was very fortunate that library organizations were quick with clarification and advice. Verner Clapp, chairman of ARL’s one-man copyright committee, promptly summarized the Davis report in the ARL Newsletter. After his summary, he reported that copyright representatives from a number of library organizations recommended that librarians should “continue existing policies with respect to photocopying of copyrighted materials” until the Williams & Wilkins case is finally settled. Later in the year, ALA and ARL started cautioning librarians that the Davis report is not the law, no matter what Williams & Wilkins may say, and accepting the license offer would only weaken the case for obtaining legal protection for library copying.
The libraries' firm stand on this issue, coupled with hints of not renewing some subscriptions and omitting from the Index Medicus titles which may not be copied softened the position of Williams & Wilkins. The original proposal to license duplication for in-house use and to collect royalties on copying for interlibrary lending was withdrawn, without prejudice, until an appeal of the case could be heard. However, the institutional rates, which would have included licensing fees, remained in effect. This amounted to an increase of 3.6 percent to 40 percent in subscription prices and was the first tangible result of the Davis report. Just as Williams & Wilkins abandoned the licensing scheme, at least temporarily, another publisher, Marcel Dekker, Inc., adopted it and announced a new policy which appeared identical to the first proposal of Williams & Wilkins. A short time later, however, this publisher dropped the plan also and opted merely for a price increase.

Opinions on the Davis report varied. According to Gerald J. Sophar, some experts felt the case was so tightly reasoned that royalty payments should be anticipated for the future. Philip Rosenstein pointed out the irony of scientific publishers getting a copyright ownership free from an author, charging him a page fee when his article extends beyond a certain length, and then wanting to collect reprint royalties from users. Many such articles, moreover, are the result of research supported by government funds.

Ralph R. Shaw also disagreed strongly with the Davis report. He took exception with several of its findings, and found much of its reasoning erroneous with both irrelevant or wrong analogies and important contentions lacking in evidence. His argument ended by saying that private uses of copyrighted material by scholars, including copying done for them, are outside the scope of the Copyright Law (17 USC) because under the Constitution the Copyright Act gives authors and their assigns a monopoly of general public uses alone.

Williams & Wilkins and some other publishers contend that not only are they assured by law of a monopoly of all uses but also that for them such a monopoly is an economic necessity. In writing and in talks their spokesmen have continued to insist that "photocopying is seriously damaging scientific publishing activities." The "exhaustive analysis of the situation [which] convinced [Williams & Wilkins] that uncompensated photocopying could lead to the demise of the scientific journal as we know it" has not been made public. Published studies have invariably indicated no significant damage attributable to photocopying in the library. Only the smallest suggestion of damages was made in the court case—possibly two cancellations, at the most, out of a total of over 20,000 subscriptions to the four journals in suit.

The crux of the matter appears to be some publishers' discovery that library photocopying is not so much a threat to be feared as a money-making opportunity to be exploited. In other words, this potential source of new income is being recognized by some publishers as becoming available if only the monopoly of copyright can be made complete through

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its extension beyond the scope of general public use. Were it true that "each photo copy user is a potential subscriber or at least a potential source of royalty income for licensed copying" and that the long-established practice of library copying for private use, as a result, is contrary to the interests of publishers, then the same point of view could be maintained, and indeed is being maintained, about lending the original work (not a photocopy!) itself.\textsuperscript{31}

The idea that a publisher has the right to charge libraries for the privilege of lending copyrighted materials to their users is known as the "Public Lending Right." According to this concept, libraries, when they buy books from a publisher, do not buy the right to circulate them. This lending right remains with the publisher, who can collect royalties or licensing fees before granting it.\textsuperscript{32} From this point it is easy to envision attempts to collect residual rights for using any information in the works sold. Allen Kent even mentions the possibility of title-manipulating indexes sharing their revenue with publishers and possibly authors.\textsuperscript{33} If such thinking seems incompatible with traditional concepts of copyright, the same may be true of the apparently increasing practice of placing copyright notices on microfacsimiles of public-domain materials. Can a nineteenth century printed score of a Beethoven symphony, for example, or a government document published by the Government Printing Office (GPO) become copyrightable by virtue of a reduction in size? Some publishers seem to think so.

\textit{Full-Size Copying}

If modern libraries are to function freely and flexibly as cooperative information and education centers, they will continue to find a growing need for reliable full-size copying machines. The temperamental performance of these machines, especially in coin operation, continues to irritate both library users and maintenance personnel. In this problem area, there is not much good news to report.

The commercial development of electrostatic coated paper (zinc-oxide) copiers, though possibly not yet at an end, has certainly reached a plateau. Except for an Addressograph-Multigraph copier using strobe lighting and pressure fusing, the few new models appearing on the market differ little from their predecessors. The manufacturers seem to be getting ready to invade Xerox territory with plain-paper copiers. International Business Machines (IBM) was the first challenger about two years ago. With its first patent-infringement suit still unsettled, IBM has a new entry, the Copier II.\textsuperscript{34} Aiming as it does at the Xerox 2400 market, it may be a trend setter. Other machines in the "coming soon" stage also seem to be patterned after this relatively high-speed, high-volume, high-yield machine. Litton Industries' Royal Bond Copier, though the subject of another Xerox patent-infringement suit, is now publicly available, and the Van Dyk 4000 (for 4000 copies per hour) is being field tested.\textsuperscript{35, 36} Addressograph-Multigraph intends to use a plain-paper copy process developed by Canon, Inc., of Japan. Xerox's upgraded 720,
known as the 1000, features improved speed and performance and a few new bugs. A Xerox color copier is promised for 1973. “Late 1973 or early 1974” may see the introduction of the Rudicon, the first laser copier by Xerox. IBM, Savin, Singer, Canon, Minolta, and others are said to be developing similar processes. Most librarians, however, are primarily interested in machines that are currently available by rental or purchase.

As to finances, the availability of third-party leasing options for Xerox machines may offer some advantages to very large library systems. Coin-operated copying is now a profitable business as indicated by the Los Angeles County Public Library’s award of a five-year photocopy concession to a commercial enterprise, which paid $120,601 for the privilege of placing copying machines on location and agreed to charge no more than ten cents a copy.

An evaluation of copying machines in Library Technology Reports (LTR) is a help in machine selection. The introduction points to the fact that although books can be copied after a fashion on most of the machines, no currently available copier is as well adapted as it should be for use with bound volumes. The LTR report mentions the fire hazard present in the Xerox 914 and 720 copiers. Another Library Technology Project publication, Card Catalog Reproduction, called attention to this problem. Paper jamming may cause the cards to scorch. This problem must be dealt with when the machine is attended at all times, as it should be, the occasional smoldering and smoke is a nuisance but not a real danger. Both of these sources, however, remain silent about an inconspicuous problem of a different kind: incomplete fusing. Libraries impressed with the low initial cost and immediate delivery of cards produced on these versatile office machines may find themselves finally losing both time and money as the image rubs off some cards after filing and use. This problem has been noticed in some libraries, and it would be desirable to document such cases as well as to investigate the durability and graphic quality of cards made on office copiers. Several articles published this past year dealt with the production costs of cards.

Microform Materials and Micropublishing

Few momentous events occurred in 1972, but there was no lack of excitement. The commissioner’s report on Williams & Wilkins v. the United States and its possible consequences kept the library and publishing world in suspense, but the case remains undecided. Many people looked forward to the inauguration of the GPO’s microform distribution program, but it did not materialize. News about the birth of some cleverly conceived micropublishing ventures was welcome, and the death of others which looked promising just a year ago produced disappointment.

“Micropublishing” remains a vogue term often applied to a variety of essentially dissimilar activities. Its use has led to much possibly harmful confusion. It seems reasonable to assume, for example, that the
GPO microform program has been delayed, at least in part, by the opposition to what many have called the Public Printer’s entry into the micropublishing field. Yet it is clear that the GPO is planning to limit the program to simultaneous issuance of documents in two forms: full-size print on paper and facsimile reprint on microfilm. The GPO has no intention to “add value” to the microreprint by reformatting it or providing it with any special indexing or other bibliographical apparatus. Its program would not compete with any publication containing added value.

On May 3, the Joint Congressional Committee on Printing (JCP) “authorized and directed” the Public Printer “to establish the capability of distributing and selling publications in microform, and to that end to procure multiple copies of microform publications via competitively established commercial contracts.” The JCP also declared that “micropublishing in the government [is] within the purview of the provisions of Title 44 of the U.S. Code,” and falls under the authority of JCP.

“GPO Gets Green Light” wrote the Micro-News Bulletin. The Information Industry Association (IIA) objected strenuously and submitted to President Nixon and JCP recommendations that would require the Public Printer to purchase commercially available published collections of GPO documents for depository distribution. Later IIA sent to the chairman of JCP, Rep. Wayne L. Hays, D-Ohio, a strongly worded letter opposing once again the simultaneous microprinting of documents by GPO. The JCP, unmoved by IIA’s arguments, replied closing with the statement that questions concerning the implementation of the authorization can be directed to the Acting Public Printer.

On August 11, the GPO Micropublishing Advisory Committee was discharged. GPO then issued an invitation to bid on microfiche service and held a government/industry meeting in Washington (August 24) to discuss specifications of the GPO microdepository program and questions about the Defense Supply Agency’s Mini-Cat program (computer-generated supply catalogs, filmed at 48x, to be distributed by GPO). The Superintendent of Documents closed the meeting with the announcement that the Mini-Cat program could move ahead but that the GPO document microform program was still under study, its implementation as yet unapproved.

Some librarians hoped to know more about the specifications that would affect library use, such as the type of film and the polarity, but nothing further was heard from GPO. The next move would remain unknown until the start of the next session. The air was filled with confusing news items, such as a contract award to the Johnson Research Corporation for microfiche for depository libraries and the announcement of the “first microfilmed publication offered for sale by the Superintendent of Documents”—the complete record of the 1971 Postal Rate Commission proceedings on three reels of microfilm. This is a modest beginning by any standard, but in time the GPO program will add significantly to the microfilm holdings of American libraries.
Moving into the vagaries of statistics, we find that currently the proportion of microforms to books in libraries is estimated at 20-25 percent. This figure, though tentative, indicates the order of magnitude. Microform holdings without doubt are growing at an accelerated rate. In 1971-72, the seventy-eight university library members of ARL reported an 11 percent increase in microfilm reels, 35 percent in microcards, 13 percent in microprints, and 32 percent in microfiche.

The figures are difficult to interpret, partly because of sizable fluctuations due to changes in reporting and counting of, rather than to increases or decreases in, holdings. The statistics are also based on a physical count of microforms. A microfilm reel with many hundreds of pages, an ultrafiche with five to seven titles and up to three thousand pages, a microfiche with a brief technical report or with one part of one book, up to sixty to ninety-eight pages—all count as one unit. If full-size library materials were counted this way, each book, each bound periodical, each pamphlet and manuscript leaf, and every one-page item in a vertical file would count as one unit. There are good reasons for not counting the size of library collections in this way, and some of these apply to microform library materials equally well.

Working with the available figures, however, we may be able to gain more useful information by attempting to convert these units into page equivalents. The results indicate that ARL university libraries added perhaps 250 to 280 million pages on microfilm, 200 million pages on microfiche, and about 120 to 150 million pages each of microcards and microprints. The micro-opaque estimates appear surprisingly high and are probably heavily inflated by the inclusion of large, previously unreported collections.

The vast quantities of microforms amassed by libraries are useless without access. Facilities for microform use are improving. The Microform Reading Room of the Joseph Regenstein Library at the University of Chicago, for example, is typical of a room designed around the equipment available and patterns of use of the 1940s. Set aside in a low-traffic area, it is very dark and furnished so that the standard reading machines of that pioneering period may be used as well as possible. The arrangement at the Library Learning Center at the University of Wisconsin, Green Bay (UWGB), which opened in February 1972, is strikingly different. Here the microforms and full-size periodicals occupy one whole floor. Not merely adjacent and unseparated, the quarters are unified, exquisitely furnished, delightfully bright.

Though the physical accommodations offered by libraries like the one at UWGB are superb, other problems with microforms unfortunately persist. Inadequate bibliographic control continues to plague most microform collections. This difficulty is the unfortunate result of two factors. Many libraries, first of all, have been all too willing to accept poorly produced and badly formatted microreprints. They have also accumulated much more micro material than they are willing or able to organize. Large parts of rich collections, as a result, are rendered useless.
The ARL study of microfilm problems concluded with the publication of Felix Reichmann and Josephine Tharpe's *Bibliographic Control of Microforms*, which proposes a machine-readable index for microsets, a "national tool" to supplement each library's catalog and to assist in the selection and processing of microtexts. We can all be thankful for Appendix Four, "A Microform Bibliography," which comprises most of the book. It is an invaluable tool immediately available for use.

Reichmann and Tharpe recommend full support of the National Register of Microform Masters. This much under-used work has been published in a new edition abandoning the previous order of entries by LC card number sequence and replacing it with an alphabetical arrangement.

The trend toward supplying catalog cards with microtexts continues. It is coupled with another movement toward unified catalogs in multimedia libraries. Certain difficulties persist, however, for libraries cataloging microforms by title instead of author main entries according to the *Standards for Cataloging Nonprint Materials*. This practice separates many catalog entries for books from those for microform versions of the same title, often making it difficult for the user to ascertain that a title is available in both forms. The *Standards* choice of a single designation, "microform," to refer to all types of microtext materials may prove impractical unless, of course, a library collection is restricted to one type alone.

Finding a reference in a catalog is just the first step toward finding information. Looking for a way to break the indexing logjam, G. W. W. Stevens, a leading scientist in micrographics, urges the authors to assign key words to their articles. The Bay Area Social Responsibilities Round Table wrote the Micro Photo Division of Bell & Howell to protest the microfilming of yet another collection, the Women's History Library, without an index. The importance of making micropublications usable is recognized in both word and act by some micropublishers, as shown, for example, by both Robert Roe's talk at the National Microfilm Association (NMA) convention in New York and the new Subject-Heading/Page-Designation Index for the microfilm edition of the *Ei* (Engineering Index) annual. Microform Review includes in its evaluation of micropublications a description of external and internal finding aids, as well as an analysis of their organization, contents, and physical characteristics.

This type of technical information, necessary as it is for routine publications, is absolutely crucial for the librarian thinking of buying expensive and novel packages, such as the *Library of American Civilization* and the NCR-PCMI (National Cash Register-Photo Chromic Micro Image) ultrafiche collections introduced in 1971. These two ventures provoked a great deal of discussion. Charles E. Evans, Carl M. Spaulding, Elmer M. Grieder, W. Carl Jackson, and John Webb expressed the concerns of librarians on the matter. An excellent overview of high-
reduction microfiche, including these two collections, appeared in Advanced Technology/Libraries. Allen Veaner is preparing a user survey for Microform Review.

The ultrafiche publishing front was relatively quiet in 1972. Library Resources, Inc., published its second “library” (Library of English Literature, Part I), but PCMI seemed inactive, possibly because of a deemphasis of microform activities by NCR. A national reference library on ultrafiche was suggested by the president of Dartmouth College, John Kemeny, and another new high-reduction system was further discussed, but not marketed, by Wynn Crew. By the end of the year, NCR, the pioneer, called at least a temporary halt to the further development of microfilm products.

Several original publications appeared in conventional (medium-reduction) microfiche format. Mansell’s Archives of British Men of Science received accolades in Microform Review. Transcripts of the Columbia University Oral History Program were published by the New York Times. Microform Publishers International plans to issue on microfiche, without the usual high costs and publication delays, original manuscripts submitted by scientists, scholars, and other authors. Royalties will be paid to the authors.

Some services present previously printed material, such as news stories, but in a newly organized form. Recent entries in this category are, among others, The World Looks at the USA and Infact: Current College Catalogs on Microfilm. The most ambitious example of this type, in a class of its own, is the New York Times Information Bank, an advanced system with full-text retrieval capability. It has become operational in part.

Most micropublications, however, are still facsimile reproductions, with most micropublishers confining themselves to reprinting. Carol A. Nemeyer’s Scholarly Reprint Publishing in the United States, notable for its general perspective, provides good coverage of the early history and current state of micropublishing.

Publishers of full-size materials do not seem too interested in reprinting their backlists in microform, and simultaneous publishing of books in full-size and microform editions appears to be a long-range plan rather than an immediate avenue to higher profits. A British wide survey concluded that, at least for now, dual publishing of books in full-size and micro formats is unlikely to increase the total number of copies sold. Publishing periodicals in multiple formats may be more advantageous since it provides tangible benefits to the purchaser, such as speedier delivery and/or service as back-up copy.

Various periodicals have started to appear in multiple formats. The Honeywell Computer Journal furnishes both paper copy and a microfiche at the same time, and some British publishers of scientific journals air mail microfiche copies to overseas subscribers. Norman Cousins’ new magazine, World, has given subscribers the choice between a paper
and a microfiche edition. A 35mm positive-microfilm edition will also become available for less money than the microfiche. Entries in Current Physics Titles refer to the microfilm cartridge and frame numbers of Current Physics Microform, a monthly microfilm publication containing the full text of all articles published by the American Institute of Physics the previous month in thirty-four journals of primary importance.

Leo Grulliow is one of many people asking for the simultaneous publication of all materials on both microfilm and microfiche. An article by Nancy R. Minnich in Library Journal illustrates the problems of assembling a workable system out of the multitude of micropublication formats and the equipment required to use them.

As Albert Boni celebrated his eightieth birthday, he could look back on the millions of microprints sold by his company, the Readex Microprint Corporation, and take pride also in the greatest success so far in miniaturized reprinting history: the Compact Edition of the Oxford English Dictionary. Instead of appearing on -fiche or -film, this edition of the OED is on paper at a low reduction ratio of 4x. Bound as a book and consulted with a simple magnifying glass, this miniprint edition went through several printings in the course of a few months and by summer 1972, sold 35,000 copies for £28 each. A sample page of this micro-book may be seen in the Penrose Annual 1972.

A set of new editorial standards for microfilm and facsimiles was adopted by the Rare Book Libraries' Conference on Facsimilies. Fees charged for library books loaned to reprinter continued to be discussed, with micropublishers insisting the proposed fees are too high. It might be best for all concerned to leave more on-demand microreprinting in the hands of library photoduplication services and rely on the National Register of Microform Masters and publications like the Microform Review for publicizing availability. The example of the 3M Press/New York Public Library cooperative arrangement, which has come to an end, seems to have demonstrated that the commercial distribution of valuable library materials in low demand may lead to considerable price increases without becoming financially attractive.

The London Times on microfilm, one of the desirable commercial newspaper properties, has changed micropublisher. On July 1, 1972, the Microfilm Corporation of America (MCA) took it over from Eastman Kodak. A new film of the backfile is also available, and the price, alas, has almost doubled. Another important paper on microfilm, the New York Times, became the object of a controversy. Some libraries discovered film boxes pulverizing and metal filing cabinets corroding. Chemical exudations of the vesicular film used by MCA for the production of part of the backfile were found to cause the problems. Several micropublishers were quick to publicize their exclusive use of 35mm silver positive films meeting archival standards of permanence. The manufacturer of the vesicular film involved in the controversy, however, placed ads in library journals praising the strong points of its product and urging librarians to ask for it.
Two small, inexpensive microfiche viewers stirred the greatest interest at the NMA Convention exhibits in May: the Eastman Kodak (EK) Ektalite and the Bell & Howell Briefcase Reader. In design, both are remarkably individual. The Bell & Howell model, quite familiar from previous showings as a perennial prototype, is now apparently close to production. The Ektalite is refreshingly unconventional, with a fixed hood shielding a small, curved, highly directional front projection screen. Commentators have agreed that the powerful EK marketing techniques will sell large quantities of both this long-expected machine and microfiche in general. From the fair number of other new fiche readers we mention only two: the Gakken Macro-Vue 230, a low-cost unit with good optics from Japan; and the Micro Design C.O.M. 1200, which can take two standard-size (4" x 6") fiche at a time, or a single, double-sized, foot-long fiche (4" x 12"), nonstandard but reportedly useful.

While microfiche viewers, at least for now, seem to be designed for low cost and light weight, rollfilm readers are apparently being developed to emphasize speedy access and high performance. Few libraries can afford a 3M Microdisc computer-coupled 16mm reader ($54,000) or an Extek AutoSearch terminal ($6,000-$11,300), but a keyboard-command reader-printer, such as the Canon Frame-O-Matic 330MB/450MB, or a Northstar II in the $2,000-$3,000 class, is not only very convenient but possibly cost effective as well in suitable systems applications outside the reading room. A new microfiche retriever, the Ovonic 401, was said to display any of 30,000 images within seconds and at a price of only $1,000 (in quantities). The DDSI Ultrafiche Map Mosaicking System puts 15,000 square feet of maps on a single, undivided 4" x 6" ultrafiche—an example of the imaginative application of currently available technology.

The 3M 201 is the dry-silver-process version of the familiar 200, 18" x 24", 35 mm rollfilm reader-printer. Another large-size printer is the Ricoh 600, which uses zinc-oxide coated paper, as do other new machines made by Ednalite, Océ, and A. B. Dick. An unusual electrostatic enlarger-printer, the Caps A2, could be useful in library photolabs. It takes rollfilm, fiche, or aperture card, produces 6" x 9" to 18" x 24" prints at infinitely variable magnification ratios from 7.8 to 18x, works well from either positive or negative film, is simple to operate, and should be quite dependable in service. The investment required, however, is relatively large ($4,550). And finally, the long-awaited ambi-polar version of the Xerox Microprinter has become available at last.

Any cataloger can microfilm National Union Catalog entries with the Cata-Cam camera, which produces catalog-card-size enlargements on the Xerox Copyflo machine as its end product.

Ovonic Type 902, a very high-contrast, high-acutance, and easily processed duplicating film was to be available "at the end of the year."
It was not, but the unusual properties of the film merit sustained interest.105

The Caps 16mm cassette features drop-in loading and may be used interchangeably with open reels on some Caps microfilm readers.106 The microfilm cartridges now sold by Xerox/University Microfilms also accept the standard storage reel. Although the Xerox system is similar to the ID101 in its function, the two apparently are not interchangeable. The advantages and disadvantages of cartridges and cassettes for library use have been analyzed in Library Technology Reports.107

Aetnastak now markets four-inch-wide shelves for microfilm storage which come in attractive colors and are compatible with most standard library shelving. The Hollinger Corporation has introduced a fold-up microfilm box made of chemically inert card stock.

Developments in new imaging processes and materials would require much more space for an adequate description than is available here. Fortunately, excellent brief summaries appeared regularly in the IGC Monthly and in Micrographic News & Views. In his chapter on microfilm technology in the sixth volume of the Annual Review of Information Science, Carl Nelson presents a skillful summary of the state of the art at that point in time.108 Isaac Asimov, famous for his clearly written popularizations explaining science and technology to the layman, has published an introduction to holography for the nontechnical reader, and A. E. Ennos discusses its applications to graphic design.109,110 Monty M. Maxwell also provides sound information on a variety of topics in an article intended for librarians, who must bear in mind that it takes fifteen years, on the average, for new technical discoveries to become practical realities.111

The noisy enthusiasm that accompanies the announcement of some fascinating new concept always tends to obscure the lead time needed to go from discovery to production. On November 25, for instance, a novel microrecording and viewing method made front-page news in the New York Times.112 Called a "fly's eye" approach to miniaturization, this invention of Adnan Waly considers the object to be reproduced, the page of a book for example, as an aggregate of several thousand small cellular areas instead of as a unit. It photographs these tiny cells with many lenses very small in diameter and very short in focal length. Consequently, both camera and reader can theoretically be made very thin, portable, and inexpensive. The sheet of film on which the material is reproduced must be the same size as the original. Because each area on the film is reduced in size by, say, 25x, a great deal of unexposed area remains after the first exposure both beside and above or below each exposed cellular area. These remaining cells may be used for the reproduction of further material until the whole surface of the film is covered with images. At a reduction ratio of 25x, it would be theoretically possible to photograph 25 x 25 or 625 pages on a single sheet of film. This method is very ingenious indeed in its concepts, but it is still in the very
early development stage and must overcome some serious technical problems.\footnote{118}

Other developments are now ready for library and educational use. Norelco has come up with an audiovisual cassette system, called PIP, for “programmed individual presentation,” in which separate super-8 film and sound cassettes are synchronized in one easy-to-use unit not originally intended for, but adaptable to, microfilm use.\footnote{114} The Lincoln Laboratory at Massachusetts Institute of Technology has developed what it calls an LTS terminal using “audiographic microfiche”—a standard (4” x 6”) fiche carrying images and magnetic tracks for audio and computer-logic output.\footnote{115} Finally, there is computer-input microfilm, an outgrowth of optical character recognition—a complex and powerful but still very expensive systems tool.\footnote{116}

Several publications consist of equipment lists and specifications. Ronald F. Gordon’s guide is devoted to microfiche readers, while Mark McKay’s covers other equipment as well.\footnote{117, 118} Alonzo J. Sherman offered free microfiche copies of a reference list, and the NMA Buyer’s Guide contains the most recent compilation of manufacturers and service companies.\footnote{119, 120} Hubbard W. Ballou’s 1972 Supplement to the indispensable Guide to Microreproduction Equipment reports that 159 different models of microreaders are now available in this country.\footnote{121}

Properly designed, conducted, and—an equally essential condition—properly interpreted tests can be helpful in selecting equipment. W. J. Barrett’s article on the evaluation of microfilm readers at the National Reprographic Centre for documentation (NRCd) in England recalls the invaluable service William R. Hawken has performed for libraries through his lucidly presented equipment tests, first published in a series of Library Technology Project books and later in Library Technology Reports.\footnote{122} His work is now continued by the R. A. Morgan Company of Palo Alto, California. Microfiche readers from Datagraphix, Dioptrix, Realist, and Washington Scientific Instruments were included in the most recent test series.\footnote{123} A survey of microform storage cabinets and microform reader-printers also appeared in LTR, as well as the previously mentioned article on microfilm cartridges and cassettes.\footnote{124}

From its foundation in April 1959, the Library Technology Program (LTP) furnished librarians with information both badly needed and unavailable (and still not available) from any other source. In his article “LTP—The Rattle in an Infant’s Fist,” Verner W. Clapp recalled the events leading to the organization of LTP, some of its objectives and achievements, and recent threats to its life resulting from a questionable reassessment of the value of its services.\footnote{125}

By the time his article on LTP was published, unfortunately both Verner W. Clapp and LTP (but not LTR) were dead. Clapp made many significant contributions to library reprography, and much good has come from his work as a librarian, writer, and president of the Council on Library Resources. Another innovator, a relentless and creative worker of vastly diversified interests, Ralph R. Shaw, died on Oc-
October 14, a few days after the publication of his incisive article on the copyright controversy raised by the case of the Williams & Wilkins Co. v. the U.S. Librarians will remember Shaw for his major accomplishments, but micrographers will remain indebted to him for a seemingly small matter—the simple book cradle he designed for the Department of Agriculture Library in the late 1940s, which proved so practical that it is still used in many library photoduplication laboratories.

Applications, Audiovision, Facsimile Transmission

Up to now, microforms have largely provided substitute or backup copy for full-sized library materials. Though still largely used for these two purposes, they have been finding ever widening areas of application, such as photocharging. Now micrographics can place at the disposal of librarians a great variety of systems tools usable with or without computers, ranging from the elementary to the very sophisticated, and promising both economic and operational advantages.

The Council on Library Resources supported several experiments with catalogs on microform: the New York Public Library (catalog renewal), Rice University (regional union catalog), and Tulane University (computer output microfilm [COM]-produced short-title catalog). Several libraries in the U.S. and abroad have reported on functioning systems with a great variety of approaches. Duplicates of Yale University’s security film catalog (1969/70) may be useful and are available to other institutions. The Illinois State Library catalog on microfilm facilitates interlibrary transactions. Its public catalog was closed and filmed; new additions to it form a new file and cumulate quarterly.

The University of Missouri found an inexpensive way of making the catalogs of each of its four campus libraries available to the other three. The catalogs are microfilmed separately without interfiling. As a result, no union catalog is created, but the result is still useful and worth mentioning because of its very low cost.

The 126 libraries which contributed reports of holdings to the North Carolina Union Catalog, now on microfilm, include the North Carolina State Library, the libraries at the State University and Duke University, and the institution in charge of the microfilm project, the library at the University of North Carolina. Six sets have been distributed so far. Current plans include publishing annual supplements and a five-year cumulation.

These and similar projects aim at the dissemination of catalog information to remote locations and also count on the capability of film to serve as security copy if needed. An ALA subcommittee chaired by Charles G. LaHood, Jr., has drafted a set of specifications for microfilming library catalog cards. Microfilms made to these specifications would be interchangeable among libraries, and those made on planetary cameras could be used for recreating the card catalog as well.

A more sophisticated application of micrographics technology couples it with computer techniques to produce COM catalogs. Basic infor-
Information on COM, with examples of library applications to date, may be found in the May 1972 issue of *Advanced Technology/Libraries.*

The Georgia Institute of Technology Libraries in Atlanta converted their card catalog to a microfiche catalog, with additions generated from computer output (MARC [MAchine Readable Cataloging] tape, if available) on microfiche. The entire catalog may be consulted in six locations within the library and in thirty-six faculty offices outside the library. The catalog is also available by subscription. At the Rand Afrikaans University, Johannesburg, thirteen COM microfiche replace the former 3,000 pages of computer printout catalog. The South African State Library produces the *Joint Catalogue of Monographs in South African Libraries* on COM microfiche, with entries arranged by ISBN (International Standard Book Number). The United Kingdom reports enthusiastic public response to COM-produced rollfilm catalogs. The Cornwall County Library, which now uses film in cassettes and manual readers for its catalog of new acquisitions, regards this method as a good alternative to paper printouts, which became too costly as their volume increased past a certain point. The same layout (British National Bibliography format, upper-case letters only) is used as previously. A similar system now in use at the Westminster City Libraries has been praised for economy in both time and money, and the public seems to be well pleased.

Computer-output microfilm is now being used in processing. The Yale University Library relates favorable experience with its biweekly in-process lists on COM microfilm. Besides using on-line visual display terminals as part of their book ordering and cataloging system, the Cheshire County Libraries have added COM microfilm. All branches receive film copies of the annually published adult book catalog with cumulative monthly supplements.

*Books in English* may well become a landmark in bibliographic publication history. It attempts to list all books for adults printed in English. Produced by merging converted LC with BNB MARC data through a COM microfilm intermediary on NCR-PCMI ultramicrofiche, it is published in bimonthly progressive cumulations and a definitive annual edition. Publication takes only four weeks after each closing date even though the filming is done in the United States. It has only one file to check and costs relatively little. All this is possible by the combination of computer and high-reduction microreproduction technologies.

Paris Publications announced two COM microfiche bibliographies: the French *Books in Print on Microfiche* and the US *Books in Print on Microfiche.* The publisher promised delivery in ten days after the closing date instead of the usual three months, and four completely new editions per year instead of one. Bro-Dart, moreover, has made available a computerized catalog on microfilm, and the Richard Abel Company has offered MARC tape printouts on microfiche. The combination of COM and photocomposition promises the most satisfactory results not only for publishing but also for library catalogs and bibliogra-
phies. Examples of good work possible with the RCA Videocomp may be seen in the *Journal of Micrographics*. A major grant has enabled the New York Public Library to develop a photocomposed book catalog for branches and bookmobiles.

The established library microfilm laboratories do not have to wrestle with the challenges of the new micrographic technologies since these are still fairly far removed from smaller-scale operations. These laboratories are troubled mostly by financial problems. As David Kaser says of interlibrary loans, handling costs are most inadequately reflected in library photocopying (as well as microfilming) charges. Typically, the services are severely underpriced. Any effort to be self-supporting must balance rising costs with corresponding price corrections. Accordingly, the Federal Records Center and the LC Photoduplication Service have published new price schedules.

“The Revolution Has Been Postponed” and “Video Cartridge/Cassette Industry Turmoil Continues”—these two headlines succinctly describe the “audiovision” scene. CBS-EVR, the only system with several years of market exposure, went into limbo; RCA’s Holotape process appeared to need several more years in the laboratory, and Ampex decided against the manufacture of its Instavideo cartridge equipment. New systems continued to proliferate. The Teldec videodisc, promising but as yet unmarketed, may get competition from the MCA color videodisc and from the Philips VLP system. Super 8mm film for video reproduction remained in the background, and only two magnetic tape systems—one for cartridge, the other for cassette play—actually became available. The Avco/Sears Cartrivision aims at the well-to-do home market. The Sony U-matic Color Videocassette system, apparently more versatile and less expensive, has been well received by the armed forces, research institutions, and industry.

Libraries have been experimenting with videotape for years, and programs such as the Video Center at the Port Washington, New York, Public Library are exciting demonstrations of the great potentials of the library as a community information and education center. The Carnegie Commission on Higher Education referred to the closely-related electronic media (videorecording and cable television) as a “fourth revolution,” following the third, the invention of printing, and has urged massive federal aid for its development. *IGC Monthly* and *Advanced Technology/Libraries* have published concise, up-to-date information on these topics and have also discussed how the newer electronic media relate to the printed word.

There are about 25,000 facsimile transmitters operating in the United States today. Voice-line systems like the one offered by Xerox are economical, easy to use, and adequate for data transmission. Considerable improvements in speed and resolution are still needed for fine type on printed pages. Matsushita has reported significant progress in transmission speed but not in resolution. Comfax has developed Computer-Pix, a facsimile transmitter with micro-image input and 8½” x 11” output. Though unexciting technically, a U.S. Postal Service test program...
Publications, Research, and Professional Activities

New periodicals of the year, such as the *LJ/S LJ Previews*, *VidNews*, *Videoplay Magazine*, and *Videoplayer* indicate the growing interest in nonprint media. The vital statistics of micrographics publications, however, registered only one birth and three deaths. *Microfilm Techniques*, a controlled-circulation magazine for operational microfilm personnel, is a welcome addition filling a specialized need. Since December 5, *Micrographic Weekly's* material can be found, less conveniently, in *Graphics Communications Weekly*. *Micrographic News & Views* has been abandoned by its publisher—a calamity! *ASPE* published 11,000 photographic science and engineering abstracts in 1972. It folded with the December issue.

The last semi-annual activity report of Project Intrex presents the encouraging conclusion of a user preference study: “[T]he microfiche form is acceptable to most users of the Barker Engineering Library.”168, 169 Most students chose microfiche even when hard copy was equally available. Ralph W. Lewis and Giuliana Lavendel’s study of “user resistance” at Ames Research Center found that scientists and engineers there rejected microfiche not because of any lack of standardization, shortcomings of equipment, or physical impairment but because they could not use microfiche as working copy. The same people insisting on paper for working copy have accepted, and sometimes even requested, microfiche for other uses, such as scanning literature to determine its relevance.160, 161

Ronald F. Chapman’s brief article, “A Beginner’s Guide to Library Photoduplication” fills a gap until the photolaboratory manual planned by *LTR* becomes available.162 Judy Fair’s writings about the microtext reading room are full of sound advice on a complex subject lacking adequate treatment elsewhere in library literature.163 Steven Rice’s “Fiche and Reel” is an informative introduction to microforms.164 Don Avedon’s treatise on “Microfilm Permanence and Archival Quality” is concise and accurate, but librarians still need information on the properties of nonsilver films.165 Also brief and informative is a program guide for microforms published by the Library Service of the Veterans’ Administration.166 Many provisions of the Code of Federal Regulations for records management microfilming are applicable to similar activities elsewhere.167

ALA/ISAD devoted a seminar to microfilms in library automation (New York, May 1972); in closed-circuit television programs planned for distribution through the City University of New York network, METRO, New York, included Hubbard Ballou’s presentation on microforms.168

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In recognition of the growing importance of reprography and micrographics, the Public Archives of Canada has created an Office of Technological Studies, with William D. Wheeler appointed as senior advisor. ARL submitted its final report to the U.S. Office of Education on the long-pursued question of a national microform agency. Edward A. Miller, the author of the report, found sufficient interest in and a definite need for an “Office of Micrographic Activities” that would develop library microform standards, evaluate publications and equipment, provide informational and educational services, and encourage research and development efforts in all areas of microform production and use. The office would operate under the aegis of a research-oriented library association at an annual cost of $100,000. Miller also recommends that funds be sought to continue the groundwork needed to establish this office and later to support the first two years of its operation. Plans for a similar agency at the University of Denver were apparently abandoned for financial reasons.

By naming John Y. Cole as foreign newspaper microfilming coordinator, the Library of Congress has implemented the recommendation of an ARL report prepared by Norman Shaffer. This new position has been created to coordinate the expansion of foreign-newspaper microfilming among American research libraries. The Photoduplication Service issued Specifications for the Microfilming of Newspapers in the Library of Congress, and the Microfilming Clearing House Bulletin No. 89 brought the National Register of Microform Masters up to date.

The RTSD/RLMS report for 1971-72 appears in the Fall 1972, issue of Library Resources and Technical Services. The newly formed RLMS Discussion Group held its first informal meeting at the ALA conference in Chicago.

Several concerns and activities of RLMS would be paralleled by the Microforms Task Force of the ALA Government Documents Round Table, with stated purpose to “promote the concept of microforms as [a] permanent medium for dissemination and storage of information contained in all municipal, state, and federal governmental agency libraries.” The Task Force proposed to undertake a survey of microform holdings and equipment in 2,000 American and Canadian libraries and to gather information about their future plans.

Besides abolishing LTP, ALA has relinquished the sponsorship and secretariat of the American National Standards Institute’s (ANSI) Committee PH5 (documentary reproduction, including micrographics). The National Microfilm Association, with an active Standards Board of its own, became a member body of ANSI and was expected to sponsor PH5. NMA issued three industry standards in 1972: MS3, Facsimile Transmission of Microfilmed Documents; MS4, Flowchart Symbols and Their Usage in Micrographics; and MS104, Inspection and Quality Control of First Generation Silver Halide Microfilm. The draft of a fourth, Microfiche of Documents, a revision of the 1967 NMA standard,
provides for a single 98-frame format and a maximum 24x reduction ratio.

Standards and public relations—such as National Microfilm Week, September 24–30—are the traditional concerns of NMA. There is now a strong, new emphasis on contact with the “largest group of users of microfilm in the future,” librarians and educators.\textsuperscript{176} The establishment of an NMA Library Liaison Committee, chaired by Carl M. Spaulding, is a beginning. President Milton Mandel has stressed the unquestioned importance of user education. Librarians within NMA may help fill another need—the education of the producer and businessman. One of the year’s more important lessons seems to be that both these needs are equally urgent.

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IN 1972 PUBLISHERS AIMING AT ALL TYPES of audiences produced a large amount of material of serials interest. Articles appearing in the literature ranged from “Can a School Librarian Find Happiness (And Savings) as Her Own Periodicals Jobber?” by Sally Mahoney in *Wilson Library Bulletin* to “Sex Mags for Libraries” written by Fred Abrams for Bill Katz’s “Magazines” column in *Library Journal*.¹ ² Serials control served as the theme for a LARC Association Institute and for the New England Library Association Conference. Serials acquisitions were discussed at Acquisitions Preconference II sponsored by the Resources and Technical Services Division of the American Library Association.

Increasing costs caused difficulties for both publishers and librarians. In an effort to curb rising costs combined with deteriorating postal services, publishers sought independent delivery services. Utility company meter readers, milkmen, and housewives are delivering magazines just as newspapers are delivered.³

During the year many new periodicals were issued. *Popular Science* celebrated its hundredth year.⁴ At the year’s close, the publishers of *Life* announced that, as of December 29, 1972, *Life* would cease publication. Decreases in circulation and in advertising pages plus soaring costs contributed to its demise.⁵

**Cataloging**

The Library of Congress serials cataloging staff which was enlarged in 1971 is now able to keep current with new receipts. New serials in most languages are cataloged from the first piece received; changes of title or name of corporate body are made as soon as they are identified. As a result, production has increased from about 3,000 titles in fiscal 1971 to about 10,000 titles in fiscal 1972.⁶

**National Serials Data Program**

With support from the three national libraries and a supplementary grant from the Council on Library Resources, the National Serials Data
Program began its third phase in 1972. The program which was established in 1969 "to develop a central machine-readable source of serial cataloging information and an economically feasible system of handling serials" is directed by Paul Vassallo. The goals of the third phase are: "an authoritative automated bibliographic resource for serials—information for cataloging and transfer of data on serials; a base from which several kinds of library tools can be developed; and a system constituting the U.S. segment of the developing International Serials Data System."7

Union Lists

Several union lists were published in 1972. Journal Holdings of Maine Libraries is a computer-produced listing of the holdings of thirty-one libraries in Maine. Over 3,000 entries are included.8 The third edition of the Intermountain Union List of Serials with nearly 28,000 entries represents the holdings of forty-four academic, public, and special libraries in Arizona and Nevada.9 The Union List of Foreign Legal Periodicals of the Southwestern Chapter of the American Association of Law Libraries, compiled by Guido F. Olivera, consists of 800 titles, representing the holdings of twenty libraries. The Tarlton Law Library of The University of Texas at Austin, School of Law is the publisher.10

Duplicates Exchange Union

The Duplicates Exchange Union sponsored by the American Library Association's Resources and Technical Services Division attracted new interest through efforts to aid the many libraries whose collections were damaged by floods. The union is composed of libraries which mail to each other one or more lists per year of duplicate materials in useable condition. There is no charge except for postage on materials received. Libraries interested in joining should contact Duplicates Exchange Union, American Library Association, 50 E. Huron St., Chicago, IL 60611.

Economics

Periodical and serial services prices continue to rise at a rapid rate. "Price Indexes for 1972: U.S. Periodicals and Serial Services" by Norman B. Brown and William H. Huff states:

In 1971, the average subscription price of the periodicals on which these indexes are based was $11.66, $1.25 more than in 1970. In 1972, the average subscription is $13.23, $1.57 more than in 1971. Since the base years, 1967-1969, the index has increased 52.8 points, an average of 13.2 points each year. The same trend is also shown in the indexes for serial services. In 1971, the average subscription for a serial service was $90.05, $4.61 more than in 1970. In 1972, the average price is $95.38, $5.33 more than in 1971. Since the base years, 1967-1969, the serial service cost index has increased 31.7 points, an average of over 7.9 points annually.11

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Foreign Serial Literature

La Bibliographie des Revues et Journaux Littéraires des XIXe et XXe Siècles provides information about French “little magazines” and the literary life in Paris and the French provinces. Beginning with the journals not easily available in the main French libraries, it will describe all French reviews and magazines. Volume one contains bibliographical studies of fourteen nineteenth century literary reviews.12

The Public Affairs Information Service initiated a new index of French, German, Italian, Portuguese, and Spanish publications on public and economic affairs. The first volume of P.A.I.S. Foreign Language Index covers periodical articles only for 1968-1971. The 1972 volume will review a selection of books, pamphlets, government publications, and reports as well as periodical articles.

The Library of Congress Information Bulletin notes that the Library of Congress received the January 1972 issues of two reactivated journals from the People’s Republic of China. The revival of Wen wu (Journal of Museums and Relics) and K’ao ku (Archaeology) apparently indicates the renewal of academic publishing which ceased in 1966 with the beginning of the Great Cultural Revolution.13

The Canadian Serials Directory, 1971: A List of Canadian Periodicals and Serial Publications offers the “first comprehensive listing of all current Canadian serials.”14 This unedited manuscript edition was to be replaced by the standard edition of the Directory in late 1972.

The Börsenverein des Deutschen Buchhandels began publication of a new series of “German books in print,” Verzeichnis lieferbarer Bücher. The first volume contains some 152,526 titles taken from the catalogs of participating publishers.15

Periodical Resources

The International Federation of Film Archives and the R. R. Bowker Company have announced plans to publish an annual International Index to Film Periodicals. The first edition, which is scheduled for publication in spring 1973, will index all articles and reviews in fifty-seven international film periodicals.

Serial Publications in Anthropology, the first in a series of supplements to Current Anthropology, comprises a “comprehensive international listing of serial anthropological literature.” The University of Chicago Press is the publisher.

Developed for use by Standard Oil (New Jersey) geologists, economists and mining engineers, Mining/Business Index is now available to others through the Jeffrey Norton Publishers. This monthly computer-generated index provides comprehensive business information on the mining industry.16

Reprints

Reprints of periodicals and new collections based on reprinted peri-

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odicals continue to find a market. *Antiquity: A Quarterly Review of Archaeology, Mathematics Magazine, American Economic Review, Journal of Accountancy* and the *Atlanta Constitution* are representative of this year’s output. *British Industrial History in Railway Periodicals* marks the entrance of the Harvester Press into micropublishing. The four periodicals currently available in this series represent 375,000 original pages; additional titles are in preparation. *The Black Experience: Journals* contains “four hundred years of black experience from Africa and the Americas.” The twenty-eight titles included in Series 1 and 2 are now available from Kraus Reprint.

*Williams & Wilkins*

The Williams & Wilkins Company’s attempt to establish new institutional subscription rates including a license to photocopy met strenuous opposition from the library world. In “A Statement to Librarians from the Williams & Wilkins Company” the company sought to institute the higher rates

“to spread fairly the ever-increasing costs of publication among all those who use the journal and to compensate for possible loss of individual subscription revenue. . . . Beginning with 1973 volumes, we have institutional subscription rates which provide for an automatic license to make single-copy photocopies of articles from our journals for your patrons in the regular course of library operations on your premises, but does not include the making of photocopies for other institutions or for fulfilling interlibrary loans. . . . Multiple copies of a single article may be made upon remittance of 5¢ per page per copy made to the publisher.”

Williams & Wilkins justified the new institutional rate on the basis of an opinion handed down by Court of Claims Commissioner James F. Davis in February 1972 which held that the company was entitled to “reasonable and entire compensation” for library photocopying of its journal articles. Many libraries reacted to the new rates by cancelling all their Williams & Wilkins subscriptions. The National Library of Medicine stated in a letter to Williams & Wilkins that it would agree to pay the higher price “based on an institutional rate to all libraries, but could not accept the implication that a license for photocopying is necessary.”

On October 2, 1972 Williams & Wilkins announced in a “Letter to our Customers and Friends” that it would accept the National Library of Medicine’s position. The letter states: “Our new institutional rates, which we shall continue to request, shall have no connection whatever with a license to photocopy, implied or otherwise. . . . We are . . . withdrawing our proposal for the five-cents-per-page interlibrary loan fee until the appeal of our case has been heard. In the meantime, we hope to work with libraries in an effort to develop a solution which will be mutually acceptable.” A final court decision with its tremendous impact on the copyright issue is yet to come.

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For Librarians

A new edition of Irregular Serials and Annuals: An International Directory edited by Emery Koltay made its long-awaited appearance in July. It contains data on some 19,500 serials and continuations which are issued annually or irregularly. International Standard Serial Numbers (ISSN) have been assigned to each entry. A combined index for the entries in this volume and the fourteenth edition of Ulrich's International Periodicals Directory is included. New editions will be published biennially with supplements appearing between editions.

Magazines for Libraries, second edition, edited by Bill Katz and Berry Gargal, provides detailed information about 4,500 periodicals published throughout the world. Each entry is written and signed by a specialist in the field. In addition to complete bibliographical information, it includes data about each magazine's editorial policy, audience, format, and types of features. New features of this edition are a separate listing of free magazines and periodicals, and an expanded bibliography of magazine selection aids.

In January the R. R. Bowker Company introduced LJ/SLJ Hotline. Issued weekly, it features late-breaking news of interest to librarians.

CALL (Current Awareness—Library Literature), a bimonthly journal, prints contents pages of basic library literature periodicals and magazines in related fields. Reviews of new periodicals, abstracts of current literature and an index of periodical titles are also included.¹⁸

LJ/SLJ Previews: News and Reviews of Non-Print Media issued by the R. R. Bowker Company began publication in the fall. Previews' stated purpose is "to provide critical reviews of new [non-print] material to help organize and alleviate some of the burdens of selection."¹⁹ Publishers and distributors of nonprint media are asked to provide Previews with review copies of all items they release; reviews will be published for each item received.

A new feature of Publisher's Weekly is its "New Media Publishing" which first appeared in September.

New Titles

Periodicals whose first issues appeared in 1972 received careful examinations from librarians with stringent budgets. The variety of new magazines is illustrated in these titles: Gay Sunshine; Alternatives: Perspectives on Society and Environment; Cell Differentiation; Neuroscience and Behavioral Psychology; Higher Education; and Second Order: An African Journal of Philosophy.

American Chronicle; A Magazine of History offers a general approach to American history for the reader who has some background in history, but is not a professional historian. Capitol Studies published by the United States Capitol Historical Society is concerned with all aspects of the Capitol building including the Congress.

Encore, a news monthly for blacks, sold out its first two issues in ma—
jor cities. Editor Ida Lewis describes it as a "magazine not just of so-called 'black news,' but of all the news of the world reported from a black perspective."²⁰

A new monthly magazine for women, Ms., is edited by Gloria Steinem. The purpose of Ms. is "to communicate the commonality of feeling among women around the country."²¹

Sociological magazines continue to be of interest. Human Behavior Publishers and distributors of nonprint media are asked to provide drama, and nude theater. Similar in approach with a narrower topic is Sexual Behavior.²² Correctional Program News aims to aid prison inmates to rehabilitate themselves by stressing a positive mental attitude.²³

For wine lovers, Vintage presents "everything you've always wanted to know about wine."


In Conclusion

The Williams & Wilkins controversy over copyright provided the most important item in this year's work in serials; the final outcome is still pending. The tripling of serials cataloging production at the Library of Congress and progress toward a machine-readable source of serial cataloging information were also significant developments in 1972. The present economic conditions and the prospect for the future will likely demand from serials librarians increased knowledge and skill to serve effectively the library's public.

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MICROFORM STANDARDS

The American National Standards Institute (ANSI), Photographic Technical Advisory Board has transferred the sponsorship and secretariat of the ANSI Sectional Committee on Photographic Reproduction of Documents (PH5) from the American Library Association to the National Microfilm Association (NMA) effective January 11, 1973. Harold Fromm will continue as chairman; Don Avedon, technical director of NMA, will serve as secretary.

ANSI Subcommittees PH5-1 and PH5-2 will be disbanded and the projects of those subcommittees transferred to NMA standards committees. All members of PH5-1 and PH5-2 have been invited to become members of the NMA standards committees. Subcommittee PH5-3 will continue for the present.

The seventeen NMA standards committees will continue to develop and write industry standards which may be proposed to ANSI Committee PH5 for national standard status.

Year's Work in Cataloguing And Classification

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Introduction

W. H. WEBB HAS WRITTEN THAT “the soaring sixties are going to be followed by the stringent seventies, which will be followed by the stagnant eighties.” While we hope his forecast of the eighties is not accurate, certainly thus far into the seventies the financial crunch has come to many of us. Webb continues: “Administrators . . . are going to chip away further at the library’s infrastructure—better known in many places as the Technical Service Division.” Cost studies have become more important as resources lessen, and tightened budgets have reduced the momentum of automation. Otherwise our concerns in 1972 were not too different from those of previous years and are discussed below under familiar headings.

As is the custom with these year’s work articles, matters already reported in the pages of this journal are seldom repeated. Appreciation is due the several colleagues who have supplied assistance and comments, particularly Ann Craig Turner of the University of British Columbia and June Thomson of the University of Victoria.

Time and Cost Studies

Webb’s prophesy of the “stringent seventies” has become a reality to many of us. The writing is literally on the wall for everyone to see on the cover of the December 1972 issue of American Libraries, which shows the Enoch Pratt Library’s sign announcing service cuts for budgetary reasons. Earlier in the year, the Pennsylvania State Library and the Law Library were forced to cut operating hours in order to reduce expenses.²

The funding problem has been recognized to the extent that in 1972 two journals devoted entire issues to papers discussing methods of obtaining maximum value for each library dollar expended. The January issue of Library Quarterly, entitled “Operations Research: Implications for Libraries,” was devoted to the proceedings of the thirty-fifth annual conference of the University of Chicago Graduate Library School. Through the creation of mathematical models, operations research seeks
the most effective solution to problems in library management in terms of costs and benefits. That library belt-tightening is not a peculiarly North American activity is demonstrated by the June issue of *Aslib Proceedings*, devoted to papers from the 1972 Aslib Engineering Group Conference “Costing Library and Information Services.” The papers deal with costing techniques generally and the application of these techniques in specific facilities such as the United Kingdom Chemical Information Service. Cook describes a method of charging for information services that provides a continuous review of the library's costs and efficiency, and, incidentally, a continuous justification of its existence.

The appearance of costing on the programmes of library conventions this year also indicates that we have seen the shape of things to come. In sponsoring its “Workshop on the Costing of Library Operations” in conjunction with the 1972 Canadian Library Association conference, the Canadian Association of College and University Libraries recognized the growing concern of Canadian librarians for the effects of fiscal stringency on their operations, and their need to develop appropriate evaluative techniques. Two guest speakers with accounting backgrounds discussed the use of cost data for planning, control, and special decision-making, and three librarians presented papers describing cost analyses undertaken at their libraries. Of special interest to technical services librarians is the paper by P. Baldwin of Simon Fraser University library, which breaks new ground in comparing the ticked or highlighted tracing subject catalogue (favourably) with the traditional typed-at-the-top-of-the-card subject catalogue. The detailed time and cost information given in this paper would be of great value to any librarian considering subject catalogue alternatives. J. Jorgensen, of Waterloo University library, provided time and cost data for card set preparation; alphabetizing, filing, and microfilming catalogue cards; acquisitions procedures; interlibrary loans; and reserving. Such detailed data are rare in library literature, and unfortunately both Jorgensen's and Baldwin's papers remain unpublished. Baldwin has also written an unpublished, comprehensive cost study of his card production methods using time study techniques developed by Turner, and with results agreeing with hers as reported in this journal.

The dearth of useful data in the area of catalogue card production has prompted the Reproduction of Library Materials Section (RLMS) of the American Library Association (ALA) to organize for the ALA convention in Las Vegas a program on the current state of reproduction of bibliographic records. Under the direction of J. Nitecki, the program committee is soliciting papers describing specific techniques now in use in libraries and providing cost data.

Fortunately for those of us who have thus far managed to avoid costing our operations, several useful how-to-do-it articles have appeared this year. Kountz presents a practical, straightforward methodology, disguised with a light frosting of humour to make it quite palatable to the beginner. This article includes a short, annotated bibliography on li-
brary cost accounting. More specialized but nonetheless comprehensible to beginning library cost analysts is Armstrong's paper, which gives a formula for assessing the full operational cost per hour of each library staff member. Wilkins uses regression analysis to develop standard times from raw time data collected in diary studies. Unit costing is considered by Price.

One common fault in the majority of articles reporting cost analyses undertaken by individual institutions is the absence of specific, complete, detailed cost data. Too often the results are generalities—"method A proved to be significantly better/cheaper/faster than method B"—or they neglect to inform the reader what elements are included in the given costs. A case in point is Anderson's article comparing the cost of purchased LC cards with that of cards produced using Xerox 914 duplication of edited LC proofslips. This comparison is potentially very useful. However, although Anderson includes costs for materials and equipment, he fails to compare the labour costs of the two procedures, assuming instead that they balance one another. As one of the most expensive elements in card production, labour can not be dismissed so easily, and Landram raises doubts that the labour costs in question are in fact equal.

Several other articles with varying amounts of cost detail on catalogue card production have appeared during the year. The computer-produced cards prepared by the Ohio College Library Center (OCLC) have been discussed in two publications. The center's Newsletter compares the per-card cost of multilith and MT/ST card production with OCLC's, to the latter's advantage. In his discussion of the computer's role in improving access to library holdings, Kilgour compares the cost of OCLC cards produced from MARC II data with that of manually produced cards based on LC card copy as those costs have been reported in the literature. Again, the computer emerges victorious. But before you ring up your local computer salesman, consider the number of items not on the MARC tapes. For the small library relying chiefly on purchased cards, Woods provides some useful cost data on LC cards versus other card services. It is his contention that LC cataloguing is in general more costly than Dewey/Sears cataloguing for the small library because LC cards are more expensive, and catalogue maintenance costs are higher, particularly for the subject headings and classification if LC subject headings and LC classification are used.

The costs of other technical processes have been examined this year also, perhaps in response to the administrative financial chipping cited earlier. A large scale cost analysis has been undertaken by the Birmingham Libraries Cooperative Mechanisation Project. The cataloguing systems of three British libraries, two university and one public, have been analysed for the purpose of evaluating a proposed cooperative cataloguing system using MARC tapes. Average costs for cataloguing and classifying a title, reproducing a card, and filing a card were calculated for each library.

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Technical services is not the only area taking a long, hard look at itself. In fact, this year’s literature contains considerably more material describing time and cost studies performed in other departments of the library. Considering Webb’s dire prophesy that technical services would be the administrator’s first choice for budget cuts, this apparent apathy on the part of many technical services librarians is rather frightening.

Catalogue Use Studies

Computerizing the Card Catalog in the University Library is the misleading title of a catalogue use study conducted at the University of Michigan by Palmer. Its subtitle, A Survey of User Requirements, is nearer the mark. A helpful summary of previous catalogue use studies draws attention to their findings. This study, perhaps the most statistically reliable to date, supports findings of earlier studies that the most used elements of the catalogue entry are title, author, call number, subject headings, and date. Other elements in this study were used 3/8 of the time or less with the exception of the infrequently provided contents note, which was used by almost one quarter of the respondents. The study accepts the finding of the Merritt study of 1949 that subject approach is used less for older and foreign language material than for current English material, and quotes Merritt’s assertion that by omitting subject headings for foreign language materials the subject cataloguing work load could be reduced by 50 percent while reducing the efficiency of the catalogue by only 6.2 percent. Palmer’s treatment of computerization of the catalogue is discussed below under Automation. Maltby and Duxbury, like Palmer, found that some of the elements on the traditional catalogue card are used rarely by patrons. Concise annotations, especially for nonfiction, should be considered, according to their study.

MacLean also found that “the catalogue is used very largely only to find the location of books on the shelves rather than to find out further bibliographic information about particular books.” Many of the elements on the library card were little used. Annotations were the most frequently suggested additions to the cards. MacLean found a much greater use of the catalogue among those who had been given some instruction in its use, and stresses the importance of such instruction.

Hewitt conducted a study of one aspect of the catalogue itself. Using valid statistical sampling techniques, techniques which are only beginning to be applied in libraries, Hewitt found that the divided catalogue at the University of Colorado Norlin Library had a 1.1 percent filing error rate, a 10.14 percent blind reference rate, a 1.48 percent mutilated card rate, and some obsolete cards. The primary purpose of the audit was to set task priorities for maintenance projects. One outcome of the audit for the library was to identify a faulty procedure which did not provide for the cancellation of cross-references when an entry was withdrawn.

The United Kingdom catalogue use study reported this year was a national survey intended to garner the opinions of users and nonusers of
British catalogues, as the ALA study attempted to do for the U.S. in 1958. It was found that 41 percent of library users make no use of the catalogue whatsoever. The nonuse rate varies from 69 percent for county libraries through 24 percent for university libraries to a low of 6 percent for the national library of Wales. Author was the most popular approach to books in university libraries, with subject the most popular in public libraries. The failure always to provide the title approach in British libraries may have been responsible for the poor showing of that method of access. As in many other studies, this one found that there is very little use of collation and other bibliographic detail on catalogue entries, and that patrons would welcome annotations.

Aubry found it more difficult to search the same file in book form than in card form, an unfortunate finding granted the author’s opinion that large, on-line automated catalogues are not now feasible, but that automation might be used to produce printed catalogues.

Gradually, generally accepted statistical methodology is being applied to the study of the catalogue and its use. The information such studies provide is essential if computerization of the catalogue is ever to become a reality, or if manual methods are to be much improved.

**Automation**

Automation is no longer considered to be the magic cure for the ills of bibliographic control. In the wake of Mason’s balloon pricking, a more realistic picture is beginning to emerge. For the layman, Valentine surveys instances of the not-so-successful use of computers in libraries. The giant step backward to book catalogues which sometimes seems to be a part of computerization of the catalogue is beginning to be recognized as retrogressive. Thus, Alonso found that “the computer-produced book catalogue offered fewer advantages than a manually-produced card catalogue.” There were after all reasons why the card catalogue replaced the book catalogue as the most common form.

But another giant step backward has been proposed. Would you believe fixed shelf location? Hazelton proposes a scheme “in which the library as well as the books are considered as three-dimensional entities, and classification is revised to reflect this concept.” In other words, books are placed in relation to each other not only horizontally but also vertically and at varying distances. Unless one posits a library stack which expands, this scheme must imply fixed shelf location with its requirement for reclassification as the space allotted for particular topics is filled.

Many have hardly recognized the automation monster or have made only a slight bow in its direction. The second updating of the standard manual on scientific and technical libraries by Strauss and others continues to mention automation only briefly and includes only a few references although automation is used more widely in scientific and technical libraries than in general libraries. Others continue their love affair with the computer and use semantic sledgehammers to deal with gnat-sized
problems, as in “The Development of a Semantic Differential to Assess Users’ Attitudes Towards an On-Line Interactive References Retrieval System” by Katzer. Some use the new technology to increase our knowledge of alternative methods of subject control, as in “A New Comparison Between Conventional Indexing (MEDLARS) and Automatic Text Processing (SMART)” by Salton. Salton finds that “when an automatically generated word control list or a thesaurus is used as part of SMART [automatic] analysis, the results are comparable in effectiveness to those obtained by the intellectual MEDLARS indexing.”

Popularizers of automation still appear, fortunately in view of the many articles on the subject with only an occasional English word. One such popularizer who advises that automation be considered by the middle size library is Miller.

There is yet no computerized catalogue of a general collection which serves all the functions of the traditional card catalogue. What we do have is automated control of the literature of a specific subject, usually in science; or form, frequently serials. There are also extensive files on computer, such as that of the Ohio College Library Center but subject access via the computer has not yet been provided and will not be for a minimum of three years. The material produced by OCLC for its members, both its Newsletter and manuals for users of its services, will be prime resource material for anyone undertaking cataloguing on computer display terminals as part of a programme of automation. Although OCLC does not provide a complete, automated catalogue, the extent of its coverage is growing, with a relationship developing with the New England Library Information Network (NELINET) and libraries beyond the borders of Ohio. A six month trial hookup with Dartmouth may result in NELINET beginning an OCLC type service, providing full sets of catalogue cards based on computer terminal input and stored bibliographic data.

A covey of acronyms reported recently representing automated subject control efforts include CAIN for agriculture, ELMS for business technology, SIDERAL for petroleum, INIS for nuclear science, MEDLARS, our old friend, for medicine, and LEADERMART for transdisciplinary users of science and engineering information.

Reports of automated serials programmes at Victoria University, the University of Auckland, Massey University, the University of California at Los Angeles, and the Rand Corporation attest to the great activity in this area of automation. Activities in Great Britain include the production of an alphabetical author catalogue at Shropshire County Library and work at Bath, including the testing of adequacy of short records by a machine record and the development of a language (SPECOL) to be used to produce selective listings. Stiles and Maier describe TRACY (Technical Reports Automated Cataloging—Yes), the system which is presently in operation at the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration at Boulder, Colorado, for cataloguing technical reports using optical scanning of catalogue input sheets typed
from report covers. Jonge has asserted that it will be necessary to close
the present Centrale Catalogus of The Hague's Koninklijke Bibliotheek
and to change over to a new mechanized system.

Kilgour remains optimistic about the place of computers in librari-
ies. Drawing on the Ohio College Library Center experience, he states
that computerization can lower cataloguing costs, but that it is necessary
to computerize the entire process. Others are finding that when one pro-
poses to automate the bibliographic information and the functions of
the card catalogue, the costs become prohibitive. Palmer, in the study
mentioned above under Catalogue Use Studies, found that while bibli-
ographic data reduction could cut the cost in half, it would still cost 100
times as much to produce a computerized catalogue. In the two and one
half pages devoted to cost considerations the method of computing the
cost of the present system is not given, and one wonders if all costs have
actually been included. It seems clear, however, that converting and ma-
nipulating the entire bibliographic record plus conversion to the MARG
format is not a financial possibility, granted present technology. It is en-
couraging therefore to see experimentation with the computer produc-
tion of microform and the automatic retrieval of information in micro-
form. Wall reports on COMP (computer output microfilm peek-a-boo)
used as a manual adjunct to an automated retrieval system. Landau
also discusses the possibility of integrating computerized on-line retriev-
al systems and large microform data banks. An experiment in comput-
er originated microfilm (COM) at the Cornwall County Library is re-
ported by Marriott, in which COM has proved to be considerably cheap-
er than conventional printout. The prototype computerized bibli-
ographic record produced at the University of Missouri in connection
with planning for a union catalogue for its four campuses proved too
expensive and complicated and was abandoned. The union catalogue
needs of the four campuses are being met now by microfilmed cata-
logues supplemented by COM.

Many are coming to believe that a computer produced book cata-
logue has little to recommend it over a conventional card catalogue. Be-
cause it is not financially possible at present to have an on-line catalogue
containing all the data now on library cards and allowing access at all
points at which a card catalogue can be consulted, the direction in which
libraries may move is toward a single entry manual file, on cards or com-
puter produced microfilm, containing the full bibliographic data and car-
rying the bibliographic function of the catalogue, but with the find-
ing function automated using drastically reduced bibliographic infor-
mation. Such a system has been proposed by MacDonald and Elrod.

PRECIS (Preserved Context Index System), in which the British Na-
tional Bibliography (BNB) assigns a descriptive “string” or phrase to
a book and links to that phrase both subject headings and class numbers,
allows the automatic classification and assigning of subject headings to
subsequent works which the same phrase describes. The phrase generates
index entries. A thesaurus assures consistent use of terminology in con-
structing the phrases. One of the more recent efforts to summarize the system is that of Gold. In examining its early application he finds areas in which it had weaknesses. He makes the mistake of suggesting UDC (Universal Decimal Classification) as a replacement rather than as a corollary of PRECIS. A commentary by Austin places Gold’s analysis in proper perspective and begins a public discussion which may result in transplanting of PRECIS to Canada. Indeed, the Canadian MARC includes features of PRECIS.

Halm describes the use of UDC in a mechanized system using the KWIC (Key Word in Context) method of indexing. A KWIC index using “surrogate” or assigned titles is issued as a means of alerting staff to works in their area of interest.

Soergel asserts that conceptual structure and file organization should be considered independently by classification theorists. The restrictions imposed by file organization in mechanized systems are fewer than in manual systems, allowing a variety of coordinated specialized schemes to operate in relation to each other.

MARC was considered as a vehicle for the international exchange of bibliographic information at a June 1971 seminar in Berlin. Sixteen papers from the seminar were published in 1972. The format was found basically adequate, but problems are raised both in terms of the mechanics of MARC and in terms of content, particularly LC’s practice of superimposition. MARC’s future probably lies more in this area of international exchange rather than in application to our own catalogues.

Meanwhile, MARC continues to grow and have cousins if not offspring. Cataloging-in-Publication (CIP) records are now a part of the MARC data base, and records of audiovisual materials are to be included. The ERIC data base is available in MARC II format. MARC’s acceptance in other countries continues, with the publication of a Canadian MARC and the BNB acceptance of MARC, including the geographic area code. Both France and the Netherlands are to make use of MARC features in the production of their national bibliographies. The description of the MARC format for monographs has reached its fifth edition.

Formats for other forms such as films, maps, manuscripts, music, sound recordings, and serials have been or are being developed. LC seems increasingly responsive to the consumers of MARC, surveying them on such questions as a government documents indicator and stabilizing the subscription price at $1,000 yearly. The RECON project has been suspended, and those records so far converted have been placed on sale. The Library of Congress is now considering the automation of its own authority files. The University of Toronto and the University of Saskatchewan have joined the ranks of those producing cards from MARC tapes.

The National Serials Data Program entered its third phase, directed at the development of a serials data base, during the year. Current plans are to include the existing machine-readable serial data bases of the Na-
tional Library of Medicine and the National Agricultural Library and, beginning January 1, 1973, to include current serial cataloguing information from the Library of Congress as well, thus creating machine-readable records based on the holdings of all three national libraries.

Another consortium of three libraries has developed in British Columbia: TRIUL. A task force of this group (which combines the University of British Columbia library, Simon Fraser University library, and the University of Victoria library) is to study the feasibility of separating the finding and bibliographic functions of the catalogue with the object of automating the former. The librarian of the University of British Columbia, Basil Stuart-Stubbs, is the chairman of a committee appointed to consider the creation of an automated national union catalogue for Canada. The Canadian Union Catalogue is now a single entry card file at the National Library.

Although it breaks little new ground, one of the more helpful publications of the year in summarizing work to date is Guidelines for Library Automation: A Handbook for Federal and Other Libraries, by Markuson and others. In the first section the major concepts of library automation are clearly presented. Systems descriptions of fifty-nine U.S. federal libraries comprise section two. A variety of source material on related topics may be found in section three.

Should libraries be automated, a desirable tool is an index to the Library of Congress classification. The work of compiling a composite index has been completed at the University of British Columbia, with the help of a Canadian government grant.

The need for a comprehensive index to the LC classification was not met by the publication of Classified Library of Congress Subject Headings, by Williams and others. Like the list of subject headings upon which it is based, gaps exist because many headings were not classified. The classified list (volume 1) may help the occasional person go from number to term where there is no available comprehensive shelf list. Except as a compilation of those LC headings for which class members are suggested and as an index to the first volume, there seems to be little value to the alphabetic second volume.

Classification and Subject Headings

The major event in classification for many in 1972 was the receipt of Edition 18 of Dewey, which was not distributed until 1972 despite the 1971 imprint. Perceptive reviews hailed its innovations: the improved auxiliary tables (incorporating some of the advantages of UDC), the three volume format (tables, schedules, and index), the unlamented departure of "divide like," and the introduction of "general special" at the previously emptied 04 number. Practising classifiers were pleased with the small number of relocations and recognized that the time had come for restructuring in 340 Law and 510 Mathematics. The tables of concordance for Law and Mathematics at the back of volume 3 will assist classifiers during the transition period. Reviews written by library

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school professors occasionally revealed isolation from the work-a-day world. Croghan of Great Britain suggests that "at any point where the General Special device is used, one should simply add an additional zero to all the Standard Subdivisions surrounding it." 89 This is a fine solution for the classified catalogue, but unworkable for the ongoing library because of the time and expense involved in changing numbers on cards and spines for very little gain. Classifiers using Dewey for larger collections were only too happy that the Dewey 17 practice of the automatic application of multiple zeros was abandoned in Dewey 18. Ramsden in Australia is surprised that "problem" rather than "jurisdiction" is recognized as the primary characteristic in 340 Law. 70 Croghan calls this arrangement "silly." 71 Some law librarians have found that their patrons prefer law topics classified together regardless of jurisdiction, particularly for those countries whose law is based on English common law. Moys recognized this in her 1968 law classification which was designed to be used as an expansion of either Library of Congress or Dewey. 72 The index of Dewey 18 is not the blunder that was the first index of Edition 17.

Classifiers can be dated by the edition of Dewey in which they feel most at home (just as reference librarians date themselves when they say "Mudge" or "Winchell"). As an Edition 15 librarian, I find myself more at home in Edition 18 than any in between. The requisite detail has been reintroduced without creating a classification too complex for the small collection. In one of the more readable and informative reviews of Edition 18, Batty pronounced Dewey "alive and well and living in Albany." 73 Foskett has identified the 18th edition of Dewey and PRECIS as two important recent developments in indexing. 74 Dewey 18 is pronounced an improvement over Edition 17, particularly in the greater clarity of the directions for use. PRECIS, mentioned under Automation above, is correctly regarded as one of the most important recent developments in subject analysis.

Abridged Edition 10 of Dewey began to reach purchasers in February 1972. This edition is even more abridged than Edition 9, and for the first time differs in a greater degree than just fullness from the edition upon which it is based. The numbers of Edition 10 are not only shorter than those of Edition 18, but in some cases differ in meaning. Because of these changes, users of the abridged edition can no longer shorten numbers given on LC cards without checking the schedules. Differences are most likely to be noted in Law, Biography, standard subdivisions (with more zeroes in Edition 18), and geographical subdivision with irregularities in Edition 18 not carried over to Edition 10.

The Library of Congress classification is certainly alive, and living in more places than ever before as the reclassification trend continues. Recently published schedules abandon typeset for typescript, and leave a blank left page for our own notes. Classifiers were pleased to see new editions of Q Science and B-BJ Philosophy announced. 75 With the out-of-dateness of some of the schedules, classifiers were grateful to the Li-
brary of Congress for making available photoduplications of the anno-
tated schedules in use there.

It is particularly helpful to have class H Social Sciences, last revised in 1950, in this form because of the many manuscript annotations and additions. Also ameliorating the situation are the volumes of Gale Research Company’s Cumulation of Additions and Changes Through 1970, still appearing in 1972 with D History, G Geography, M Music and three more P’s, D, G, and M with the preceding B-BJ Philosophy and S Agriculture reflect the largest number of changes in the published schedules. H Social Sciences is yet to come. Unforeseen editorial difficulties have slowed the publication of some of the cumulations. Another helpful cumulation is available from the University of California Library Automation Program for $40.00: a cumulation of the seven annual supplements to the Subject Headings Used in the Dictionary Catalogs of the Library of Congress, 7th ed.

The only complete published law schedule continues to be Moys. LC’s KF for U.S. law has been with us since 1968, introducing triple letters for the first time. This year the seventh segment of LC’s KF shelf list was issued and numbers from KD Law of the United Kingdom and Ireland, available in draft form, began to appear on LC cards.

Of continuing interest to classifiers and library school students will be the collection of ten commissioned papers in classification edited by Maltby: Classification in the 1970’s. While some may find the theoretical material far removed from their interests, those looking afresh at subject analysis preparatory to automating bibliographic control will do well to return to the basic considerations which form the volume’s content. Of particular interest in this regard are Maltby’s introductory paper which assesses the advantages and limitations of classification, “Classificatory Principles in Natural Language Indexing Systems” by Vickey, and “Prospects for Classification Suggested by Evaluation Tests Carried Out 1957-1970” by Keen. The major classification schemes are the subject of other papers: The Bibliographic Classification by Mills, who suggests the desirability of a thorough revision of the classification, including the application of principles of facet analysis; The Colon Classification by Gopinath; Dewey by Vann; The Library of Congress Classification by Immroth, who makes the case he has made elsewhere for chain indexing of that system; and The Universal Decimal Classification by Lloyd, who advances the utility of UDC as a switching language between information services using a variety of languages.

Öhman defends UDC as a source of thesaurus descriptors, reporting a range of 74.7 percent to 96 percent reconciliation possible between UDC and terms in a variety of special subject thesauri. UDC was also discussed as a switching language by Lloyd, and Rigby considered its role in mechanized subject information retrieval at a symposium sponsored by the University of Maryland. UDC continues to be of major importance in Europe not only for classed catalogues but for automated Selective Dissemination of Information programmes.

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Many West German libraries, particularly academic libraries, are arranging their book collections by accession number and the use of classification is limited to a classified catalogue. A study group of West German librarians has undertaken a five year project to prepare a new classification for German libraries, rejecting seven existing schemes. Christ as a social scientist and a librarian was aware of a "lack of congruence between the terms used in the language of social science and the subject headings provided in libraries to facilitate information retrieval." In Concepts and Subject Headings, he examines that relationship for the social sciences and finds that "a wide conceptual gulf exists between social science and library science," with little overlap between the conceptual frameworks of social scientists and those operating in the LC subject heading structure.

The problem is not limited to the social sciences. When we are forced to use Electronic Digital Computers for "computers," or Salvage (Waste, etc.) for "recycling of wastes" or Jazz Musicians for "rock and blues artists," we can understand the continued rumours concerning the possibility of the Library of Congress' abandoning its present subject heading list and beginning anew. Only those of us with a checked tracing grid, curd subject log, see how we could adapt to such a change without adopting the European practice of closing one catalogue and beginning another. We are grateful for LC's responsiveness to our objections, and their willingness to introduce see references to obscure terms used as headings from the more familiar terms we would have preferred. Occasionally LC even introduces a long awaited heading: Rock Music became a heading in October, as announced in Music Cataloguing Bulletin. This monthly publication of the Music Library Association now in its third year continues to be one of the best publications serving cataloguers.

Angell's paper on LC subject headings at the Maryland Symposium indicates the present thinking of the Library, in support of the present list under certain conditions:

I am persuaded that the Library's list of subject headings can become and remain an up-to-date and responsive instrument for subject access to the collections only if it is developed and maintained under conditions which permit the adoption of changes without the necessity of complete revision of earlier cataloging. Such conditions would be largely provided either by setting a cut-off date for the addition of subject entries to the present card catalogs and starting a new subject catalog at periodic intervals, of a span to be agreed on, or by developing techniques for the introduction of subject heading changes and additions without revision of existing entries. Both alternatives are under study in the Library.

His conclusion is: "The most reasonable path of progress, however, is considered to be the improvement of the list in its present terms." The latter of the two alternatives Angell suggests would seem to be the direction which will be followed with general references to earlier material under older headings. Among other revisions suggested by Angell are...
the expression of all time subdivisions by date, e.g., change U.S.—History—Civil War to U.S.—History—1860-65; the standardization of form subdivisions used by the three U.S. national libraries; and the inclusion, in future editions of the list, of such features as a list of subdivisions and a keyword list of headings and subdivisions.

Wellisch has identified, at the Maryland Symposium, the difficulties of using LC subject headings for subject retrieval and has suggested their augmentation by terms taken from specialized thesauri and their coordination with other terms through common classification codes. Other noteworthy papers presented at the Symposium include a discussion of the work of the British Classification Research Group, of Thesaurusfacet, a faceted classification andthesaurus for engineering and related subjects, and of the PRECIS system for computer-generated indexes and its use in the British National Bibliography.

Although many elementary school libraries are turning to commercial catalogue services, other children's collections particularly in public libraries welcome the printing of subject headings for children's literature on LC cards and in the supplements to the seventh edition of the LC subject heading list. The addition of class numbers and annotations for children's material is also welcome.

The cataloguing of children's literature received more attention in 1972 than in any recent year. Librarians have been concerned about the large number of commercial enterprises which supply card sets for children's books and their apparent unawareness of the national standard represented by LC's cataloguing. This uneasiness prompted the survey undertaken by the American Library Association's Ad Hoc Committee on Cataloging of Children's Material to determine both the degree of awareness and acceptance of the standard. Harris and Hines, reporting on this survey, assert that "it is time for all of us to standardize, and . . . LC offers the best, if not the only, possible choice for a standard." As much as I agree, it seems unlikely that the International Standard Bibliographic Description, being planned for introduction by LC in 1974, will be adopted soon by agencies cataloguing children's material. Practices are likely to become even more dissimilar.

Local history buffs will be assisted by LC's new practice of assigning at least one subject heading beginning with the place name to materials with content of local significance, which formerly may have had only topical headings divided geographically.

Westby's second edition of the Sears list, like its immediate predecessor, omits Dewey classification numbers, a feature many of us continue to miss. "While the new headings added to the ninth edition were chiefly from the fields of science and technology, those suggested and selected for this edition reflect the current interest in social and environmental problems." Computers and Pollution are subject headings, but "recycling of wastes" is under Salvage (Waste, etc.), reflecting the editor's practice of selecting entries from the LC list.

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Filing

The two most recent published codes of filing rules are the very carefully prepared ALA Rules for Filing Catalog Cards and the too simplistic Filing Rules, A Three-Way Divided Catalog by Morse. Not yet published is a set of rules for the many libraries having a two-way divided catalogue, most of which draw up their own rules or make do with the first mentioned above. Not so widely available is Rather's Filing Arrangement in the Library of Congress Catalogs, but the major changes proposed in this working document were reported in this journal. His proposals for filing as written those names and words written variously as one and two words, for filing as written abbreviations including Mc, and for filing numerals numerically before letters, would greatly simplify filing for the computer. It may be asked whether this principle of filing as the word or phrase as written may not also better meet the expectations of catalogue users. Even though patron convenience is the argument given for our filing arrangements, research is lacking on this point. Rather proposes to retain the person-place-thing hierarchy abandoned by many libraries. His argument in support of this arrangement is that it does not hurt the majority use made of the catalogue while helping the minority browsing use. Again, there is not sufficient research to show that anyone uses the catalogue in such a way that it is helpful to have London [England] filed with London, Ontario rather than having London, Jack coming alphabetically between them.

Approved by the RTSD board at the 1972 ALA Annual Conference was the establishment of an Ad Hoc Committee on Computer Filing. The new committee is charged with the task of producing an “Anglo-American Code for Computer Filing” in cooperation with the Working Party on Computer Filing of the Cataloguing and Indexing Group of the Library Association.

The Committee on Cataloguing of the International Federation of Library Associations (IFLA) at its meeting in Budapest also had filing on its mind, and proposed establishing a task force on the subject, which has been merged since with ISO TC/46 Sub-committee 4 Working Group on Filing, established at ISO TC/46's meeting at The Hague September 4, 1972. Since British librarians are much in evidence at IFLA we may safely assume that there will be coordination between the efforts of this new joint committee and the working party of the Library Association. Also received by the Committee on Cataloguing at Budapest was Principles for the Arrangement of Entries of Personal Authors, Working Paper 3, the result of a task undertaken the year before by Höhne. Höhne rejects the arguments for chronological filing of cards under the uniform title Collections, and instead proposes a list of literary categories. Argument from the floor and in corridors supported language and date order, but agreed with Höhne that the uniform title Selections should be abandoned and the material included in Collections. Höhne further confused the matter by proposing that Author/Publisher's Title
be main entry with Author/[Collections] as an added entry but that for other uniform titles the main entry be Author/[Uniform Title] with an added entry under Author/Publisher's Title. Perhaps Working Paper 4 will produce solutions for the arrangement of voluminous authors which can become a part of the work of the committees now considering filing.

The Library of Congress' spelling out of "U.S." and "Gt. Brit." will make filing easier not only for the machine, but also for the fallible new file clerk. Also welcome as a boon to filers are LC's new practices of omitting initial articles in audiovisual cataloguing where they would cause difficulties in automated filing, and of providing romanized titles in parentheses prior to the title in the body of the entry, rather than as a title transliterated note.

Nonbook Cataloging

Part III of the Anglo-American Cataloging Rules (AACR), which covers nonbook materials, was not as thoroughly revised as the other portions of that code. The inconsistencies between provisions for various media showed that these rules had grown from analogies with various print forms and had not been considered as a whole. The rules were far too detailed for the school library. School libraries have the bulk of such material, perhaps because so many of the titles in the new media, particularly kits and filmstrips, are issued for the juvenile user. Many problems in the newer media simply were not covered by the rules. In 1971 the Canadian Library Association published the preliminary edition of Non-Book Materials. A valiant effort, it suffered from too great an emphasis on the school level which led many academic cataloguers to reject it out-of-hand. This year the authors of Non-Book Materials have been hard at work with an advisory committee and have produced two working drafts of the first edition which promises to be an excellent code for cataloguing nonbook materials at all levels. The new code calls for all media designations to be placed in parentheses after the title. This is to allow additional forms in the future to be handled without further elaborating the media designations. Some of the media designations are departures from previous terminology; established collections may elect to continue terms now in use.

The Association for Educational Communications and Technology (AECT) continues the practice of entering all media under title. The entry under title of the musical or artistic product of one person would result in cards which integrate poorly with a catalogue of printed materials. Most librarians will probably prefer the new Non-Book Materials code which will allow for author entry when appropriate. Of course authorship is so diffuse for most nonbook material that entry will frequently be under title in that code as well. The argument over this question has been over a very small portion of the media to be catalogued. It is unfortunate that greater agreement with AECT could not have
been achieved before the publication of its Standards for Cataloging Nonprint Materials, third edition.

A guide more consistent with Non-Book Materials is Cataloging Non-Print at NMAC, a Guide for the Medical Librarian, published this year by the National Medical Audiovisual Center in Atlanta, Georgia. It does not allow for author entry, but with the addition of provision for author entry, this guide could be used in any situation where a very detailed bibliographic record with full notes is desired.

An excellent progress report of deliberations on a/v cataloguing is given by Evelyn Geller under the title "A Media Troika and MARC." The Library of Congress startled some of us by combining phonotape and phonodisc of the same recording on one catalogue card with the media designation phonorecord.

The Resources and Technical Services Division of ALA had as theme at its 1972 conference in Chicago "Manipulation of Media for Use: Standardizing Bibliographic Organization of Media." The afternoon session was devoted to "Rules for Cataloging Multi-Media," with papers presented on catalogue entry, media designation, classification, and the cataloguing of machine readable data files. The usual topics of debate were raised in the discussion: author versus title entry for some a/v material and entry under performer as main entry for some phonodiscs. The summer 1972 issue of this journal reflected the a/v theme in two of its articles. Inventoriez et Classez Facilement vos Documents Audio-visuals/Easy Method for Inventory-taking and Classification of Audio-visual Material is the bilingual title of a bilingual work written and published by Françoise Lamy-Rousseau. Basically a classification by form of media, this work advocates accession order within form. The author also suggests the possible use of the code as a control device, much like an accession number, with established subject classification schemes. The use of a form rather than a subject classification is counter to the position taken by Non-Book Materials. One might question the value of two classifications which would be the result of using this scheme in conjunction with a subject classification. There are some problems with the English translation. "Classée" has been translated "classified" where "filed" is intended. "Fiche principale ou fiche officielle" has been translated simply "main entry," creating the impression that the public catalogue contains a main entry card distinct from author and title cards.

Bibliographic Control of Nonprint Media edited by Grove and Clement collects sixty-eight papers given by forty-nine contributors at an institute on systems and standards for the bibliographic control of media, which met in Norman, Oklahoma, in 1969. Additional material comes from subsequent meetings in 1970. While the acceleration of events has already bypassed much that was said there, this over 400 page collection can still tell you more than you probably want to know about the subject.

Robbins in "Current Resources for the Bibliographic Control of
Sound Recordings" deals primarily with printed lists of phonodiscs rather than the library organization of recordings. 

*Library Journal* / *School Library Journal Previews* is a new publication containing "news and reviews of non-print media." Reviews begin with "complete bibliographic information and . . . brief description of content" which can assist with both the descriptive cataloguing and the summary note for the item. This is particularly helpful in the cataloguing of motion pictures and filmstrips. Another aid is the inclusion of producers of a/v material in the CIP programme.

Reichmann found that local bibliographic control of microforms is minimal; the bibliographic control given printed materials is usually withheld from microforms. Internationally, he found that cooperation is barely discernible, and he suggests a U.S. national agency to provide bibliographic control of microforms, perhaps using Computer Output Microfilm. 

Analytics for several major microform sets not analysed previously are available from the Catalogue Divisions, University of British Columbia Library, Vancouver 8, B.C., Canada. Among the sets analysed are *American Fiction*, *English Books, 1641–1700*, *Travels in the Confederate States*, *Travels in the Old South*, and the United Nations document set, the latter analysed by agency information cards created at Simon Fraser University.

Computer tapes (machine readable data files) have themselves been identified as library material. The University of British Columbia library has established a branch known as the Data Library to handle such material. Some libraries have become involved in the production as well as the cataloguing of phonotapes of interviews. Known as oral history or living history, these tapes capture the memories of elderly members of the community, frequently members of ethnic minorities, whose experiences broaden the spectrum of history.

Shaw describes three methods of cataloguing pictures: self-indexing files, individual cataloguing, and group cataloguing. Individual cataloguing is recommended for more valuable pictures, and group cataloguing for less valuable items with a common theme. Self-indexing is suggested first for a file of portraits, the most frequently called for type of picture in general collections.

*International Standardization*

The *International Standard Bibliographic Description (ISBD)*, published by the IFLA Committee on Cataloguing in 1971, is suggested as an instrument for the international communication of bibliographic information. A standard set of punctuation marks makes it possible for man or machine to recognize the various elements which make up the bibliographic description of a book. Perhaps the most visible difference to laymen in the ISBD appearing on the catalogue copy of various national libraries (initially the German, French, Canadian and British) is the diagonal (/) separating author statement from title. Other differ-
ences cataloguers will notice include the omission of brackets for information not found on title pages, the invariable inclusion of an author statement, the use of double punctuation when required for consistency, and the use of a period and dash to separate the major areas of the description. The use of a colon after place of publication is already a feature of many bibliographies. Yugoslavia and the USSR are among probable future users of *ISBD*. The Library of Congress, having originally intended to adopt *ISBD* in March 1973, now finds it necessary to defer the date to 1974 because of the planned revision of Chapter 6 of *AACR*.

At its Budapest meeting in 1972 the IFLA Committee on Cataloguing considered an interim draft of an “International Standard Bibliographic Description for Serials” (*ISBD-S*). The greatest difference between *ISBD* and *ISBD-S* is the introduction of the concept of the key title. It is held that because serial titles are frequently not distinctive, additional elements of the description will need to be added to the title until a distinctive title is achieved. *ISBD-S* accomplishes this by introducing a double diagonal (//) at the end of the key title. The double diagonal may occur at the end of the title before the author statement, resulting in a triple diagonal, or it may occur later in the entry after the single diagonal has indicated the beginning of the author statement. It appears, however, that the working group will abandon the double and triple diagonal as a result of the strong reaction against it, and the concept of the distinctive title will replace that of a key title.

The new Hungarian draft cataloguing code accepts the Paris Principles of author-title cataloguing, giving up in the process some existing national practices.

We look forward to an ISBD for nonbook materials.

Entry, as well as description, is becoming more standard. The Library of Congress announced deletion of *AACR* rules 98 and 99. The deletion, recommended by the ALA Descriptive Cataloging Committee and the Canadian Library Association Committee on Revision, removed the major difference between the North American Text and British Text. Thus, in mid-1972, LC began to establish directly under the name of the body, as provided in *AACR* 60-64, new corporate bodies which under *AACR* 98-99 were established under place. Headings previously established by LC under the provision of *AACR* 98-99 were retained under LC’s superimposition policy.

International Standard Serial numbers (ISSN) are beginning to appear on the covers of more journals, suggesting their use as a quick check at point of receipt and later in the adding of bound volumes if covers are left on in binding.

*AACR* has been published in Spanish, making these rules even more widely available and influential.

The *Code International de Catalogage de la Musique* in English, French, and German is still in progress. The Cataloguing Code Commission of the International Association of Music Libraries is creating

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these rules both to provide a basic cataloguing guide and to facilitate co-operative cataloguing and exchange of information among libraries. The scope of the rules is the bibliographic description of performable works of music.

A new programme for cataloguing manuscripts in the Federal Republic of Germany has been reported by Striedl. For manuscripts of oriental origin held in German libraries standardized modes of cataloguing have been developed. Thirty-one uniformly designed volumes devoted to the manuscripts of various Eastern languages and fourteen supplementary volumes have been published.¹¹²

And So Forth

Gore is still with us, this time advocating the placing of books awaiting catalogue copy in rough subject order in an open area for public use prior to cataloguing.¹¹³

Mansell's publication of The National Union Catalog Pre-1956 Imprints is well past the 200 volume mark without reaching the middle of the alphabet. Rowman and Littlefield's 1956 through 1967 cumulation of the NUC, the British Museum Catalogue 1966-1970 supplement, the Bibliothèque Nationale's catalogue of accessions up to 1960, and a new cumulation of New Serials Titles are all completed or nearing completion.

International Cataloguing, a new, small quarterly journal, began publication January 1972 as a vehicle for IFLA's Committee on Cataloguing. Considerable space in issues one and three was given to the problems of the multilanguage multiscrypt catalogue, the theme of the 1971 meeting in Liverpool. The major debate is between integrating collections and catalogues by subject or dividing them by language. One proposal was for integrated shelves and classed catalogue, but with an alphabetic author-title catalogue and classed catalogue index in each of the major scripts of the collection.


The Library of Congress' publication of its Far Eastern languages catalogue was welcomed, as was the prospect of the early publication of the 1968-72 quinquennial cumulation of NUC.

The number of libraries in the National Program for Acquisitions and Cataloging filing their Depository Control Files (one copy of each card printed by LC) by title rather than main entry at last formed a majority of the libraries in the program. At their urging the Library of Congress began January 1973 distributing the cards sorted by title rather than by main entry as in the past.

Dougherty found perfectionist librarians to be one of the roadblocks to cooperative processing in a Library Journal Mini-Symposium.¹¹⁵ He was taken to task effectively by Helen Stiles in a letter to the editor in which she pointed out that administrators might benefit from

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a stint in technical processing. Such a tour, she wrote, should “provide a library manager with some notion of the accuracy and problem solving involved in book processing” which she sees as “the heart of the problem—the reason for resistance to change.”

A recent issue of *Feliciter* contains a summary of a survey of library technician training programmes in six provinces of Canada. The teaching of cataloguing in library schools has received assistance from two new publications. The first is Hickey’s *Problems in Organizing Library Collections*. This casebook is the fourth in Bowker’s “Problem-Centered Approaches to Librarianship” series. These case studies introduce to the teaching of technical services elements too often lacking in library school preparation of the technical services worker. As warned in the introductory matter, the cases contain errors and half truths. A companion volume of analyses would have insured against some of these half truths being imparted as truths to students. The second aid to teachers of cataloguing is Painter’s *Reader in Classification and Descriptive Cataloging*. While both inclusions and exclusions can be argued (what happened to subject headings?), this collection does preserve and make more accessible to teacher and student several major papers.

To return to the financial note with which we began, ANYLTS, the statewide processing project for New York, has been abandoned for lack of funds.

**Conclusion**

So we are changing, but not through the application of principle to problem as happened with the creation of AACR. We are rather changing as we adjust to pressure, the pressure of cost considerations on the one hand and interface (horrible word) with computers and other libraries and library traditions on the other.

It appears that our replacement by machines is not imminent. We will be producing cards, and card catalogues, for some time.

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INTERNATIONAL STANDARD BIBLIOGRAPHIC DESCRIPTION FOR MONOGRAPHS

The Resources and Technical Services Division's Cataloging and Classification Section Descriptive Cataloging Committee has issued a statement on the International Bibliographic Description for Monographs. The ISBD for Monographs, developed by the Working Group on the International Standard Bibliographic Description established at the International Meeting of Cataloguing Experts, Copenhagen, 1969, was published by the IFLA Committee on Cataloguing. The statement, prepared at the 1973 Midwinter Meeting of the American Library Association follows:

The Descriptive Cataloging Committee reaffirms its acceptance, in principle, of the ISBD for monographs and the incorporation thereof in the Anglo-American Cataloging Rules.

It recommends that the Library of Congress proceed with its plans for the implementation of the ISBD for monographs in its publications.

The Committee will proceed rapidly with its responses to the proposed revision of Chapter VI. The Committee recommends further that the revised Chapter VI not be published until there is an opportunity to incorporate into it any glosses of the ISBD resulting from the scheduled meeting of the experts called by the IFLA Committee on Cataloguing in Grenoble in August 1973.

The Descriptive Cataloging Committee recommends that the International Standard Bibliographic Description for Serials should not be referred for adoption until it has been made consistent with the ISBD for monographs to the greatest extent possible and recommends maximum coordination with the International Standard Serial Numbering system.

The Committee recommends that the IFLA Committee on Cataloguing clarify, codify, and issue to the national member organizations its standards-making procedures.

We suggest that the following steps be included:

a) Proposed standards should be referred in draft stage for comments to the appropriate national agencies or associations through the channels prescribed by that organization. Sufficient time should be allowed for careful study of the document.

b) At each state of referral the documents should be carefully labelled using pre-defined terms, so that the national organization will know the status of the standard.

c) Once a recommended standard has been adopted by the requisite number of organizations it should not be subject to change for a period of two years, at which time any of the organizations that have adopted it may request a revision.

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Library Resources & Technical Services
Twenty years ago classification theorists in the United States and England had almost abandoned general classification. The Classification Research Group (CRG) developed various special schemes, using facets and experimenting with notation. Expanding collections kept the practical problems of general classification in view, and new questions raised by the special schemes returned attention to general theory. With a NATO grant, CRG agreed to develop a new general classification. Using Kyle’s scheme as a model and integrative levels theory for facet grouping, the group has explored applications of general systems theory and relational analysis. A general indexing language is emerging that provides a flexible classification structure and reflects contemporary theories of knowledge.

T WENTY YEARS AGO MOST CLASSIFICATION THEORISTS—with the exception of the indefatigable Ranganathan in India—had just about abandoned attempts to construct a practical and intellectually satisfying general classification scheme. In 1951 Jesse Shera declared that library classification had “failed lamentably” and pointed out the growing trend for traditional methods to be “discarded in favor of an entirely new array of tools—indexes, subject bibliographies, annotations, abstracts” and various mechanized techniques. In the same paper he quoted extensively from William James, applying the principles of pragmatism to classification, and specified a study of user habits as the only suitable foundation for future classification work. Surveying the history of
library classification he singled out two reasons for its failure: the assumption of a universally valid order of knowledge and the insistence on hierarchical organization.

Pursuing the same theme in 1953 Shera listed the limitations of library classification as linearity, inconsistency of organization within main classes, inability to provide for growth of knowledge, and excessive complexity. In his judgment Ranganathan’s “implicit rejection of the physical book as the constituent unit in classification and his substitution of the thought—or subject unit” was the most significant contemporary break with tradition and had provided the theoretical foundation for such new approaches to bibliographic analysis as Uniterms, coordinate indexing, and punched card techniques. Recent developments, he said, pointed to the obvious conclusion that “the concept of a universal library classification is not only a pretty illusion, it is a contradiction in terms. There can be no universal library classification because there is no universal library user.”

The British classification theorists who formed the Classification Research Group (CRG) in 1952 took a similar position. In the words of D. J. Foskett, one of the group’s founders, “the only point on which its members could agree was in rejecting all existing schemes of classification as unsatisfactory.” During its first few years, according to Foskett’s report, the CRG explored the basic principles of subject indexing and by 1955 they were agreed that coordination of concepts is the only means by which the librarian can transform the terms of a query into the terms by which the document collection is organized. Traditional schemes did not facilitate this transformation, in part because they expressed only genus-species relationships, while in reality concepts are related in many different ways. Although the CRG never accepted Ranganathan’s theories in toto, they recognized that his notion of facets—groups of concept terms derived by dividing a subject into useful categories—could be adopted without accepting the fundamental categories of Personality, Matter, Energy, Space, and Time (P-M-E-S-T) that Ranganathan had posited in his Colon Classification.

Problems of notation were the next focus of CRG work, and various ideas were incorporated into a variety of classification schemes developed by individual members for specialized collections. In the search for principles fundamental to notation design, J. E. L. Farradane introduced a new approach to facet analysis. Instead of beginning with subject categories, he began with nine categories of relations based on theories of human mental mechanisms put forth by contemporary psychologists, which he viewed as more reliable than “the innumerable vaguenesses of ordinary language.” He analyzed the subject of a document into individual terms and then, using symbols to stand for the various relations, connected the terms into phrases expressing specific subjects. According to Foskett, relational analysis contributed a new principle of facet sequence to replace the abandoned P-M-E-S-T sequence of Ranganathan’s scheme, for the relational categories represented “distinct [and
The problem of sequence is not always apparent in the construction of specialized schemes, because there is often implicit agreement among users on the most useful sequence within a given subject. But the CRG recognized early that facet sequence remained a problem for any general classification. Their minutes published in 1958 record the statement that disagreements over sequence showed there could be "no logical or uniquely helpful facet order discoverable, since the helpful order might vary both with the emphasis of the document indexed and with the interests of the reader."8

In 1957 an international conference on classification was held in Dorking, England. Jesse Shera presented a paper in which he expanded his earlier views. He attributed present problems of classification to patterns that have dominated western thought since classical times. Aristotle's analysis of physical entities into sets of abstract characteristics led to classification according to genera, species, and subspecies on the basis of these characteristics. But although the doctrines of mutually exclusive substances consisting of conjunctions of attributes "are neat, compact, and beautifully simple, . . . they fail to take into account the interconnectedness of real things."9

In Shera's view classification must reflect contemporary developments in philosophy, psychology, and the natural sciences and recognize that "the pattern of organization, the classification of experience, differs from individual to individual; admitting, of course, that there are certain basic patterns, classifications, that are familiar to all."10 Classification, then, "is pragmatic and it is instrumental. It is at once permanent and ephemeral. Permanent because without it cognition is impossible; ephemeral because it can be rejected when its utility is exhausted."11 Shera predicted a return to classification "as the basis of librarianship," but with a new appreciation of it "not as a tool, but as a discipline in which is to be studied the reaction and response of a living mind to the record left by a distant and usually unknown mind. . . ."12

For the CRG the main result of the Dorking conference was that it turned their attention from the construction of more special schemes to the problems of integrating the special schemes into a new general scheme.13 They were aware of a growing need for a new general classification inclusive and flexible enough for rapidly expanding libraries and national bibliographies covering general literature. Moreover, the value of developing more and more unrelated schemes for special libraries was itself called into question. Writing a few years after Dorking, Phyllis Richmond, one of the founders of the unsuccessful Classification Research Study Group in the United States, argued that the proliferation of special schemes in some fields indicated duplication of labor and lack of standardization.14,15 Foskett objected, on more theoretical grounds, that the special schemes "assemble in one context, as it were by brute force, all the contexts in which a particular entity may
exist. . . . Each scheme has to compromise between ignoring certain rela-
tions altogether and extending to cover large parts of the whole field of
gnoleedge." It would be useful, he thought, to have a compatible
general scheme to draw on for those areas peripheral to any given spe-
cial scheme.

Richmond discussed some of the problems she saw in working the
many existing special classification schemes into a single general
scheme. First, to understand and apply some of the special schemes one
had to be a subject expert at the Ph.D. level. Second, since each special
classification required some unique subject categories and relations, there
could be no one form of organization common to all parts of the gen-
eral classification. Third, since a great deal of current research is inter-
disciplinary, connections would be necessary between special schemes not
originally designed for compatibility.

Although there were a number of individuals in the United States
eager to attack these problems, they were unable to meet frequently
enough to make a concerted effort. The British CRG was remarkably
steadfast, but for several years after Dorking, classification research
could be only the spare time concern of these busy professionals. Final-
ly their enthusiasm gained some financial support; in 1962 NATO grant-
ed about $14,000 to the Library Association (whose membership over-
lapped CRG) for development of a preliminary draft of a general
classification scheme. This virtually insured that the general classifica-
tion would remain the dominant concern of the CRG for several years
to come.

Barbara Kyle, working for UNESCO, had developecl a general classi-
fication scheme for the social sciences which now served the CRG as a
model for a broader general scheme. Because the literature to be classi-
fied covered several academic disciplines, Kyle had looked beyond any
one of these disciplines for facet categories. She had returned to Ran-
ganathan's theories for her basic approach, but she had limited her cate-
gories to Persons and Activities and had applied them directly to the
whole area covered by the classification rather than first dividing it into
main classes. Kyle could not derive her facet sequence, any more than
her categories, from accepted practice within any particular discipline,
but her scheme was nevertheless somewhat specialist-oriented in this re-
spect. Unlike Ranganathan's Colon Classification and the special
chemes devised by CRG members for other subjects, the Kyle scheme
conformed with current social science theory in citing Activities before
Personalities.

Kyle's rejection of subject disciplines as determiners of main classes,
although it had the advantage of removing built-in biases, could not be
carried over to a more general classification scheme without difficulty.
The larger the area of knowledge covered, the longer would be the lists
of enumerated Personalities and Activities (or any other facet categories
that might be named), and any system of notation devised to code them
all and join them to express complex subjects would soon grow far too
complicated for human use. Both to keep notation manageable and also to produce physical arrangements of documents suitable for browsing, some means had to be found for grouping the terms intelligibly.

At this point it becomes more difficult to record the development of general classification theory because the sources and interrelationships of some of the new ideas influencing CRG thinking are not precisely spelled out in the literature.

Richmond had advocated a "universal heterogeneous" classification—that is, if I understand her correctly, a purely practical combination of special schemes incorporating different notations as necessary to suit different disciplines. This would allow the disciplines to function conveniently as main classes without according them theoretical status as absolute divisions of the world of knowledge.

Apparently this approach was not congenial to the British group. They envisioned an intellectually coherent general classification and they sought underlying principles that would give that coherence both relative permanence and maximum flexibility. Essentially, they set themselves the task of expressing in a classification scheme a theory of knowledge valid for contemporary western man. Whether or not this was a fully explicit aim shared equally by the whole group is doubtful, but epistemological theories certainly came in for much CRG discussion soon after 1960.

The most deeply explored of the ideas new to CRG in the 1960s has been the theory of integrative levels, which provided a ready-made answer to the problem of grouping facet terms and ordering them meaningfully. Foskett defines the theory concisely:

> The theory states that the world of things evolves from the simple to the complex by an accumulation of properties, and that, at each level, the aggregation of the entities of the level below, with their emergent properties, forms a new whole with individual and unique properties. Each whole is more than the mere sum of its parts, and loses its identity if broken down.

He goes on to say that the theory offers "a scientific basis for the ordering of entities into a sequence, from fundamental particles up—in Ranganathan's terminology, a series of personality facets based on the real relations between entities, and not on some arbitrarily chosen set of disciplines or main classes."

It is not clear how this theory was introduced into CRG discussions. In the article just quoted, Foskett says the group "hit upon" the theory. It is first mentioned in CRG "Bulletin No. 6" as "adumbrated among others by J. K. Feibleman and Joseph Needham." In 1963 Foskett wrote that the theory "has been discussed in both natural and social science, and . . . has also occupied the attention of the Classification Research Group for some years." He briefly traced its history from the nineteenth century and cited a 1937 exposition of the theory by Needham and one from 1954 by Feibleman.

It is not possible to determine from published CRG statements
whether the group adopted the theory because they accepted it as a true interpretation of the structure of reality, as a true theory of knowledge, or simply as a suggestion (with no judgment as to its truth) for a convenient classification structure. In the quotation above Foskett speaks of “real relations between entities,” and Feibleman certainly presents it as a theory of scientific knowledge if not explicitly of reality. As such it would introduce no less an implicit bias into classification than did the old structure of the academic disciplines, and a bias, moreover, not even prevalent in the learned community.

Foskett, however, seems to believe that it is not necessary to make a truth judgment: “...[the theory] has, I am sure, a valuable contribution to make, provided that we do not carry it over from science in a wooden and unscientific way. We are entitled, for example, to speak of a biological organism as existing on a ‘higher’ level than a crystal, but are we equally entitled to speak of an international business cartel as being on a ‘higher’ level than a single country?” Later he grants that “there is by no means general agreement over the validity of its application to social science,” but that “fortunately, the librarian with subjects to classify does not have to express an opinion on the question of whether such groups have real existence. They are real enough in the literature...”

Practical difficulties in integrative level grouping appeared almost immediately. The series of levels arrived at by 1961 was logical enough from Fundamental Particles to Molecular Aggregations, and again from Cells to Human Societies, but it seemed that a branch would be necessary beyond the molecular level to differentiate organic from inorganic entities. Also, common sense would suggest placement of the products of human activity in the same sequence as human beings themselves, but in physical terms human artifacts belong with other inorganic substances. The means of accommodating conventional subject disciplines was unclear, too, because several of them cut across integrative levels, yet they are established in literature and can scarcely be ignored. Helen Tomlinson eventually realized, in fact, that accommodation of existing literatures would require a different set of integrative levels for almost every traditional subject area.

A more complex problem was how to retrieve information about entities present, but unnamed, in a higher level. Foskett suggested falling back on cross-references in the alphabetical index until a better solution is found, but how far this should be carried is not clear. It would be useful, he points out, to link “team” with “cricketer,” but it would make little sense to try to link “child” with “cell.”

At some point Tomlinson, working on the NATO project, noticed two further problems. First, not all whole entities relate to their parts in the same way; second, a classification scheme must incorporate many class terms which designate aggregates rather than integrated wholes (e.g., “metals” and “pets”). When the CRG issued “Bulletin No. 8” in 1964 the Minutes recorded this statement: “It was agreed that something
more than levels was required and that we had, as yet, no clear idea what this 'something' might be."

The second new contribution of the 1960s to general classification—general systems theory—was brought into the work of the CRG when Derek Austin took over the NATO project. This was not a new theory, either. It was developed over a long period of time, beginning around 1930, by the biologist Ludwig von Bertalanffy, and like the integrative levels theory it is by no means generally accepted by his fellow scientists. When it came to the attention of classification theorists is uncertain, but Shera mentioned it at Dorking in 1957 as one sign of the modern restructuring of knowledge.

Austin came to see that the behavior of entities varies with their situation and that aggregate class terms are a recognition of this. Similarly, recognition of variations due to context forces us to distinguish between properties of entities (e.g., temperature) and properties attributed by observers (e.g., taste), and between processes which are intrinsic at certain entity levels (e.g., reproduction) and others which are not (e.g., trade agreements). What emerged from this was "the notion of recurring patterns of processes which appear at many different entity levels. At each level, the process naturally receives its appropriate specific name . . . , but it can be seen to be an example of a general phenomenon."

What general systems theory had to offer here was a theoretical framework which takes account of these situational relationships and patterns of processes. The same concerns brought back to the center of attention the analysis of relations—the third area to be developed in the past decade in relation to general classification. The relational analysis carried out by Farradane during the period when CRG was concentrating on specialized schemes has already been mentioned. Farradane has continued to hold the view that the key to classification is recognition that knowledge is a matter of "how we obtain our concepts and how we interrelate them in our minds," not a matter of the structure of external reality. Austin, however, has produced a different set of relational operators which Foskett says "reflect the influence of Farradane . . . , but . . . do not bear any relation to the schools of psychological thought exemplified by Piaget and Guilford, to whom Farradane acknowledges a debt."

Just how far general systems theory and relational analysis will carry general classification theory is not yet apparent. So far the discussion of the advantages and disadvantages of these approaches has been rather sketchy. The most recent review of CRG work has been Foskett's Classification for a General Index Language, published in 1970. This is an introduction to the 1960-68 progress reports of Tomlinson and Austin which were published together in 1969 under the title Classification and Information Control. I can only concur with Shera and Richmond who found Austin's reports on his explorations of general systems theory obscure. Even Foskett's usually lucid writing becomes difficult to follow when he deals with Austin's recent work.
Clearly Austin has found in general systems theory some powerful suggestions for the new classification, but these reports were issued before its practical implications for the integrative levels scheme designed by Tomlinson had been worked out. Whether or not general systems theory holds solutions for all the problems encountered by Tomlinson remains to be seen. Hopefully CRG research has matured enough in the past four years so we may soon expect a fully articulated exposition.

At this stage it would not be reasonable to make judgments about the new general classification. As Foskett explains in his 1970 report, and as he emphasizes in its title, what is emerging from a decade of CRG research is not a classification scheme in the old sense but a “general index language”—only the framework of a scheme, without all the facets actually being named or their relationships specified. How it is likely to affect practice is open to conjecture. Ranganathan’s Colon Classification, widely hailed for its theoretical innovations, has generally been judged too complicated for practical purposes; the CRG classification may be judged too abstract. Resistance to change, both psychological and economic, is always strong. Nevertheless a new classification so painstakingly developed will undoubtedly be influential.

One conclusion can, I think, be safely drawn. Although great gains in flexibility have been made by the developing CRG scheme, claims that it is a purely neutral indexing language because it has done away with main classes and other traditional subject groupings cannot be upheld. It seems that we have come full circle. We have seen rejection of the universal order of knowledge assumed by traditional classification, then the purely pragmatic design of special schemes for special subjects without reference to the intellectual world surrounding them, and finally a return to universals in the form of relations—Farradane’s, based on theories of human concept formation, or Austin’s, derived from theories of relations within and between systems. An outdated philosophical position has been dropped only to be replaced by one considered more compatible with contemporary needs.

A recent article by Sarah Ann Scott Huckaby, among several other criticisms of the scheme so far developed by the CRG, questions even its purported harmony with current intellectual trends. She argues that the evolutionary thinking it exemplifies is reminiscent of the nineteenth century philosophies of Herbert Spencer and Auguste Comte and of the 1906 classification scheme of James Duff Brown. She argues further that Austin’s stress on chronology, following Feibleman and Needham, ignores contemporary concepts of time.

Austin’s response to the Huckaby article, however, turns this objection aside by stating that he, at least, is not permanently wedded to any single epistomological position. He continues to believe that the integrative levels and general systems theories offer models useful for the development of a general classification. He admits, however, that “we tried too hard to instill a kind of respectability into our researches by setting them into a philosophical framework.” He sees now that “we need to
take from these theories just as much as suits our practical purposes without regard for their antecedents or the impeccability of their philosophy."

This comes close to Shera’s view, quoted above from statements he made in the 1950s—that is, that classification is pragmatic and instrumental. Hopefully, the CRG has demonstrated conclusively that classification must be exactly the kind of activity that Shera wanted it to become: not a search for the true ordering of knowledge but “a discipline in which is . . . studied the reaction and response of a living mind . . .” to the changing world of knowledge.

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Methods Used in Out-of-Print Acquisition; A Survey Of Out-of-Print Book Dealers

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Evaluations of out-of-print book dealers supplying the California State University, Northridge, library show that most titles supplied are received within nine months from the date of the list. In this survey of dealers the reason most often mentioned as responsible for the lack of response after nine months was that the dealer assumes that the library has acquired the title from someone else and no longer wants it. This article suggests that purchasing standards should be established by academic libraries so that everyone is operating under the same group of assumptions. The survey also discloses the methods of locating books that dealers consider to be most effective.

IN AN ATTEMPT TO ESTABLISH METHODS for acquiring out-of-print titles in relatively large numbers, the California State University, Northridge (CSUN), library maintains a dealer specialization file by subject, a transaction record on dealer activity, and a summary performance evaluation of dealers.¹ The summary performance evaluation is designed to provide information about the percent of titles supplied in relation to the total number of titles on order with a particular dealer, the percent supplied over a period of time, the average unit cost of titles supplied, and various other trends in the performance of that dealer. In a recent evaluation of out-of-print book dealers supplying the CSUN library it was apparent that most titles supplied were received within nine months from the date of the list. We were curious about how the dealer approaches the problem of locating the titles on our want lists. What method does he find most useful? What does he believe the reasons are for the lack of response by dealers to want lists after nine months?

¹Manuscript received for review March 1972; accepted for publication, September 1972.
In order to obtain such information, a questionnaire was prepared and mailed, along with a copy of our purchasing policy, to 286 U.S. and foreign dealers from our dealer specialization file; these were dealers who had already indicated an interest in searching for o.p. titles. Within three weeks, more than 50 percent of the questionnaires were completed and returned; some were accompanied by a letter expressing the reactions of the dealer on the problems of o.p. buying. The final tabulation is based upon the answers given by 108 U.S. and 49 foreign book dealers. Some dealers did not answer every question; the percentages, therefore, are based on the number of dealers answering each question rather than on the total number of responses received.

Question No. 1: What method do you use for locating out-of-print books?
A. Advertise
B. Check other dealers catalogs
C. Contact other dealers by letter
D. Visit other dealers
E. Supply from own stock
F. Other (Specify)

The response was:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>U.S. Dealers</th>
<th>Foreign Dealers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A. Advertise</td>
<td>82% (89)</td>
<td>57% (28)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B. Check other dealers catalogs</td>
<td>76% (82)</td>
<td>78% (38)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C. Contact other dealers by letter</td>
<td>63% (68)</td>
<td>68% (31)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D. Visit other dealers</td>
<td>76% (82)</td>
<td>65% (32)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E. Supply from own stock</td>
<td>92% (99)</td>
<td>92% (45)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Under "other" the most frequently mentioned methods were auctions, the use of book scouts, rummage sales, and special book sales.

Question No. 2: If you use more than one of the above methods, list below in the order of their effectiveness (list the most effective first and the least effective last).

Those listed as most effective were:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>U.S. Dealers</th>
<th>Foreign Dealers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A. Advertise</td>
<td>32% (31)</td>
<td>29% (12)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B. Check other dealers catalogs</td>
<td>3% (3)</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C. Contact other dealers by letter</td>
<td>13% (12)</td>
<td>14% (6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D. Visit other dealers</td>
<td>17% (16)</td>
<td>5% (2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E. Supply from own stock</td>
<td>35% (34)</td>
<td>52% (22)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Those listed as least effective were:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>U.S. Dealers</th>
<th>Foreign Dealers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A. Advertise</td>
<td>18% (16)</td>
<td>15% (6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B. Check other dealers catalogs</td>
<td>24% (21)</td>
<td>23% (9)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C. Contact other dealers by letter</td>
<td>17% (15)</td>
<td>25% (10)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
There was no agreement among dealers in either group as to which of the methods listed is least effective. Some trends can be observed, however, in the tally of methods considered to be most effective; both groups agreed that supplying from their own stock was most effective with advertising second. Hardly anyone felt that checking other dealers' catalogs was the best way to attack the problem.

Question No. 3: If you advertise want lists received, what publications do you use?

This was an attempt to discover those publications that the dealers use and are therefore most likely to read. U.S. dealers overwhelmingly chose *AB Bookman's Weekly* for the U.S. and *Clique* for Great Britain. No U.S. publication other than *AB Bookman's Weekly* received more than two votes. Several foreign dealers listed those same two publications; some use the daily newspapers. Other publications mentioned by foreign dealers were *Börsenblatt für den deutschen Buchhandel* (Germany), *Swensk Bokhandel* (Sweden), *Gazettino Librario* (Italy), *The Book Dealers' Weekly* (England).

Question No. 4: A recent study indicates that in most cases very few titles are supplied to us after nine months from the date of the want list. State below what you believe the reasons are for this lack of response after the first nine months.

Seventy percent (74) of the U.S. tallies fell under one of the following:

1. The dealer feels that the library has acquired the title from someone else and no longer wants it.
2. Continued searching is too expensive for the amount that can be charged for the book.
3. The easy ones show up first and after nine months you are left with the really difficult ones.

The response by foreign dealers was quite different; 47 percent (29) of the tallies indicated that the demand far exceeded the supply thereby making it very difficult to locate specific titles. One dealer in Russian publications stated that the U.S.S.R. produces insufficient quantities even for its own use and that it is essential to order that material from pre-publication lists. A South African dealer made much the same comment in terms of items being in short supply. Letters from the foreign dealers indicated that many are small, one man operations, and that it would cost too much to hire staff for o.p. searching for the amount of income that would be realized from the few titles located.
Question No. 5: Do you make more than one attempt to locate the titles on our list? Yes ☐ No ☐

The response was:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>U.S. Dealers</th>
<th>Foreign Dealers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>82% (84)</td>
<td>83% (38)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>18% (18)</td>
<td>17% (8)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Question No. 6: If you checked “yes” in question 5, state below how long you continue to search.

The response was:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>U.S. Dealers</th>
<th>Foreign Dealers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Indefinitely</td>
<td>54% (42)</td>
<td>59% (22)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>two to five years</td>
<td>5% (4)</td>
<td>14% (5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>one year</td>
<td>23% (18)</td>
<td>8% (3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>six months</td>
<td>13% (10)</td>
<td>8% (3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>one to three months</td>
<td>5% (4)</td>
<td>11% (4)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Question No. 7: If you checked “no” in question 5, state below the reasons why you do not make more than one attempt to locate them.

The response to this question was consistent with response to question No. 4. Most U.S. dealers said that (1) they assumed that the library had already acquired the titles and (2) that further searching is too costly. Most foreign dealers said that (1) further searching is too costly or (2) they only supply from stock.

This limited survey suggests that a new approach is needed for o.p. buying. For one thing, we were surprised at the number of dealers who only supply from stock, and perhaps these dealers should be treated and evaluated in a different manner from those who actively search. Lists need not be sent to them on an exclusive basis for a long period of time; six months will probably be adequate. Also, it should be expected that their prices generally will be somewhat lower than those of dealers acquiring books through the search process.

The responses to the questionnaire clearly revealed that most book dealers assume that a library sends its lists to several dealers at the same time; they expect to have their quotations refused after a period of time. This assumption prevailed in spite of the fact that the purchasing policy, sent to each dealer with the questionnaire, clearly stated, “The list is being sent exclusively to you for a period of at least one year. Please continue to search until you receive our letter of cancellation for the titles.”

This apparent confusion suggests that somehow a uniform purchasing policy for academic libraries should be developed. Perhaps a group of booksellers and librarians could develop a set of standards for o.p. purchasing that would be mutually agreeable. This is undoubtedly the
kind of problem that the American Library Association, or one of its divisions or sections, might take under consideration. It would be possible to give the standards a distinctive name, and librarians could then indicate on the want list that they would abide by those standards. The book dealer would be relieved thereby of trying to remember large numbers of different purchasing policies. The dealer could, in turn, advertise special consideration for libraries that accepted the standards. In order to achieve maximum cooperation from the dealer, the standards should include both exclusive dealer status and a limit on required quotations to items costing over a specific amount; CSUN specifies a limit of $30. CSUN attempts also to keep rejections at an absolute minimum, and the uniform policy should state this principle. Of course, if the dealer supplies the wrong title, or if the copy is in poor condition, we feel free to reject it.

It is becoming more and more evident that before real progress can be realized in o.p. acquisitions, some standardization of methods must occur so that book dealers and librarians will know what to expect from each other. Each has a set of needs to which the other should learn to respond.

The interest of the book dealers was clearly demonstrated by the rapid response given to the questionnaire. Some dealers took the time to write letters explaining their points of view about the difficulties of o.p. acquisition. If librarians show as much interest in the problem as the book dealers have shown, then solutions will be forthcoming.

REFERENCE

Library Out-of-Print Book Procurement: The Stanford University Experience

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and
Arthur Meyerfeld
Stanford University Libraries
Stanford, California

The article describes the out-of-print book procurement system presently in use at Stanford University libraries. Instead of granting exclusive rights to a bookdealer, Stanford relies upon an in-house specialist, a former bookdealer, who prepares desiderata letters and evaluates offers received. His procedures seem to indicate the value of an in-house o.p. searching operation. A sample of titles procured by the methods described show a possible average saving of $12.96 per title by choosing the lowest priced offer as opposed to the highest.

ARTICLES ON OUT-OF-PRINT BOOK PROCUREMENT have discussed the pros and cons of searching in-house versus searching through search dealers and the advantages and disadvantages of exclusives versus ordering through a number of dealers. No one has reported on another approach, the one used by Stanford University libraries, i.e. searching by the library with the library acting as the exclusive agent. Eldred Smith pointed out the advantages of the library using bookdealers rather than acting as the search agent.1 In her article, Betty J. Mitchell concentrated on the evaluation of various dealers and their performance.2 The Stanford experience identifies another aspect of o.p. procurement—the fluctuations of price. In acting as the sole agent in o.p. procurement, the Stanford libraries have discovered the advantages of being able to secure the right edition, of the right title, at the right price, at the right time.

To paraphrase Maurice Tauber on acquisitions: “The art of [out-of-print book procurement] requires the talents of the detective, the diplomat, and the businessman.”3 This best represents the experience of Stanford University libraries during the past five years. We have discov-

Manuscript received for review, February 1972; accepted for publication, August 1972.

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ered that o.p. work requires the painstaking, methodical efforts of the detective; the patience and tact of the diplomat; and the efficiency and competitive spirit of the businessman. Although Stanford’s o.p. book procurement system has been most successful, it may be difficult to duplicate elsewhere in its entirety since it has relied on combining the above talents in one individual, a former bookdealer. However, in developing our procedures, we have come to conclusions which might have general applicability.

**History of the System**

In 1967 the Order Division of Stanford University libraries decided to appoint a full time person to manage o.p. book procurement. This position was created for a number of reasons. First, the Stanford libraries had begun a rapid expansion of staff and expenditures in 1964. “Between 1964 and 1967 all campus libraries doubled their rate of acquisition” in order to fill lacunae in the Stanford research collection which had arisen during previous years of austerity budgets. Second, although the budget had doubled, the rise in book prices made it essential to spend a large portion of the budget for current and reprint titles. Therefore, the amounts available for out-of-print material had to be spent with care. Third, Stanford’s expansion of its graduate enrollment, which doubled between 1956 and 1966, required new collection strengths which demanded buying esoteric titles, sometimes available only in the out-of-print market. Last, the prices for o.p. books had increased as much as 500 percent in the ten years between 1960 and 1969, forcing Stanford, along with other university libraries, to be very discriminating in its o.p. book buying policies.

**The Methodology of the Stanford System**

We have discovered several major problems with granting the exclusive right to search and supply to specific dealers. First and foremost, the dealer has to add his costs for searching and procuring, as well as his profit margin, to the price of an o.p. title. Second, many dealers specialize in a specific subject and, since Stanford is looking for books in virtually all fields, a one dealer approach is insufficient to supply our needs. Third, o.p. bookdealers, no matter how large and efficient, cannot always supply on demand. However, with its newer faculty demanding titles for their new courses, Stanford must be able to acquire o.p. titles with dispatch. Last, exclusive search orders to dealers do not encourage competitive prices. The dealer who spends his effort in finding a title with exclusive rights to a library’s o.p. list does not have to compare his prices with other dealers’ prices.

With differences in pricing of identical items so wide-ranging, our experiences with exclusive search orders have been discouraging. We, therefore, have entrusted our o.p. book procurement to an in-house staff specialist, thus retaining the exclusive search rights within the Stanford Libraries by controlling and performing searching at Stanford. The spe-
cialist spends his effort in five general areas: (1) the study of catalogs; (2) visits to area bookdealers (both require a good memory as well as ample time); (3) telephone calls; (4) advertising in *AB Bookman’s Weekly* and *TAAB*; and (5) mailing of desiderata letters. The last method has proved the most successful.

Basically the procedure used by Stanford’s o.p. specialist is simple. As each requested title is received on a 3 x 5 request card (Exhibit 1), the main entry for each request is assigned to various subject lists. When there are a sufficient number of entries on a subject list, the list of dealers for that subject is consulted. A xeroxed desiderata letter for the subject, using a full bibliographic entry for each title, is then sent to each dealer listed for that subject. When offers are received in response to our desiderata letters, the offers are evaluated by the following criteria: (1) comparison with offers already received; (2) probability of better offers, which can often be surmised by noting how many offers have already been received, the size of the original edition, and the imprint date; (3) the need for the title, which might make a high priced offer more acceptable; and (4) the past performance of the dealer making the offer, which is clearly a subjective judgment and will be covered later.

**Price**

The market price for a given title varies widely, therefore our system is predicated on the proposition that an approach to a virtually unlimited range of dealers will locate the best price for a title. Our specialist has only one customer: the Stanford libraries. Therefore he can choose the lowest price which is offered. Recently we had an offer from Europe for a reproduction of the *Codex Aureus* in six volumes for $640.00. Several days earlier an offer had come in from a New York dealer for $1,250.00. Some other recent examples show the variations for a typical selection of titles:

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Anderson, Robert T. *The Bus Stop for Paris: The Transformation of a French Village*. Garden City, N.Y.: Doubleday, 1966, c1965. $3.00; $5.00; $6.00; $7.50; $12.98.


Chevigny, Hector. *My Eyes Have a Cold Nose*. New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1946. $2.00; $3.00; $4.00; $4.50; $6.00; $7.50; $9.50; $15.00.

Ehrmann, Winston W. *Premarital Dating*. New York: Holt, 1959. $3.50; $6.00; $9.00; $10.00; $15.00.


Tonsor, Stephen John. *National Socialism; Conservative Reaction or Nihilist Revolt?*. New York: Rinehart, 1959. $4.50; $17.50.

From this selection of titles the average savings by choosing the lowest priced item as opposed to the highest would be $12.96 per title.

It is not possible to achieve savings of the above kind with an exclusive search order. For example, some of the greatest savings at the Stanford libraries have been international savings. We have sent our desiderata to both English and American dealers, and have discovered in many cases very low offers on English titles from American dealers. For example, we recently searched for a copy of the first edition of Winston S. Churchill's *Liberalism and the Social Problem*, 1909, and received the following offers:

- **English Dealer A**: £75
- **English Dealer B**: “1st edition in nice state” $200.00
- **English Dealer C**: “embossed ‘advance copy’ Nice copy” $105.00
- **English Dealer D**: “First Edn. Nice copy. very scarce. £60
- **American Dealer F**: “First edition. Title page smudge.” $47.50

In another case we were looking for an art book about François Boucher by Haldane MacFall, *Boucher, the Man, His Times, His Art, and His Significance*, London, 1908. It was offered in Paris for $105.00 and in New York for $12.50.

Many times we have been searching for a large number of copies for reserve use and have noticed the advantage of dealing with a variety of dealers as opposed to an exclusive dealer. We were searching for five copies of *Volume 17, Number 2, Spring 1973*...
copies of a book by Isidor Schneider, *The Enlightenment*, 1965. We had two offers for five copies at $8.50 each and $15.00 each. The difference for the five copies is $32.50. In another case we were seeking fifteen copies of a Michelin guidebook and received offers of $2.50, $3.75, and $6.00. Between the lowest and highest offers there is a savings of $3.50 and the difference for fifteen copies is $52.50. In yet another case in the fall of 1968, we were asked to come up with ten copies of three German titles which were needed for a winter seminar in German history. These titles were published in 1861, 1918, and 1930, respectively, and had on the average 527 pages each. The price of xeroxing them would have been approximately $750.00 (30 x 500 x .05 per page). We were able to acquire all copies before the winter deadline at a cost of approximately $50.00 plus time and postage. This last case not only indicates the advantage of dealing with several dealers from the standpoint of difficulty of finding titles, but also from the standpoint of urgency. One dealer often cannot supply what is needed by a deadline.

Selection of a Dealer

Stanford's o.p. specialist uses a number of sources for locating out-of-print dealers. First, he uses the following major bibliographies which were listed in an article by Felix Reichmann:


Five additional books used at Stanford are:


All of the above directories (except the last) pin-point the subject specialities of dealers.
Second, the o.p. specialist follows the trends. It appears from the many address changes and frequent disappearance of o.p. dealers that mobility in the o.p. book trade is high. It is necessary regularly to peruse the o.p. trade journals such as AB Bookman’s Weekly and The Clique in order to keep up with the new dealers. General o.p. catalogs which are received in the Order Division are also routed to the specialist for his use. These catalogs help acquaint him with new dealers.

Third, a large number of offers have been received in response to our advertisements in AB Bookman’s Weekly and TAAB. By advertising in AB Bookman’s Weekly and TAAB we have discovered many sources as good as, or better than, some of the big name firms. These men have proven to be real specialists, most anxious to cooperate and often of great assistance in sharing their insights and yielding information not readily available as to comparative points of different editions, series, etc. If the dealers are not known, then their offers are filed into a dealer offer file which allows us to note new dealers and their subject matter. If a new dealer’s continued offers indicate a specialty, then he is added to an appropriate “dealer by subject” list.

Last, the importance of having someone who is familiar with dealers, their attitudes and problems, is obvious when selecting dealers. Stanford’s o.p. specialist, with over forty years’ experience in the book trade, has the patience and experience necessary to follow the sources of supply carefully. For example, one dealer may supply certain fields at a very low cost for a period and then raise his prices. Another dealer may suddenly supply these fields at a lower cost. The specialist must keep track of these changes in order to buy books at the lowest cost from the right dealer. The Stanford libraries have experienced more than one case where an order was sent to a dealer in response to an offer; he did not supply; two months later, he offered the same book at a higher price. It is this instability of the market which makes it essential to seek a wide range of offers. We believe that this is a major reason why a library cannot rely on any specific dealer to search and supply titles.

**Appraisal of Dealer Performance**

First, one can use a simple appraisal of responsiveness by checking the dealer correspondence file. It is also of great importance to notice the subject in which the dealer seems strongest. Second, one can compare the prices of each dealer with other dealers. If the prices of offers are consistently high, then this must be accepted as a fact. However, if the high priced dealer can deliver the title desired, then the price offered is not always important. Generally it is possible to gauge whether a price is high by comparing known dealers. For example, if dealer A’s price seems high, then a look at dealer B’s price might help to establish what is fair. If dealer B is well known to have consistently moderate prices and his price is higher than dealer A’s, then perhaps dealer A is quoting a price which is low. A third dealer’s price gives an even better perspective on what a fair price might be. Sometimes factors other than price,
such as accuracy, promptness, and reliability, influence a decision to accept an offer.

Third, another evaluative device is antiquarian book records. The bibliography, "Reference Tools for Pricing Out-of-Print Books," in Felix Reichmann's article is very useful. We also use McGrath's *Bookman's Price Index*.

Fourth, it is possible to measure the reliability of dealers when titles are ordered from these dealers. That is, when a title arrives in the library, is it the exact title ordered with the same price tag as quoted in his original offer?

Fifth, cooperative dealers help us to build our collections by recommending additional titles. They also hold our desiderata indefinitely. If a dealer offers a title which was on a desiderata letter three or four years earlier, it indicates that he has an efficient control system and is prepared to utilize this system to serve his library customers.

Finally, "good will," the willingness not just to make a sale, but to serve and help, is an element of great importance to the library and, all too often, is not considered enough. It might be wise to accept the $7.50 offer of dealer A rather than the $6.00 offer of dealer B when we are assured of receiving the right edition in good condition.

**Dealer Attitudes**

The major objection to the library acting as the searcher is that dealers are not willing to spend extra time searching for an item where there is no guarantee that the library will purchase it. However, the best dealers do not object to receiving circular letters and desiderata lists, and the number of very advantageous quotations outweighs the loss of a few. We have experienced a very strong willingness on the part of dealers to quote on books listed in our desiderata letters.

**The Economies of the System**

We always hope for the largest number of offers so that we can get the lowest price. However, we always buy at what we consider a reasonable price. We also realize the expense of sending out a large number of desiderata letters. However, a fairly simple and quick "routine" technique of expediting this might, it seems to us, be devised at almost any place in accordance with the special needs and resources of a particular library. Many libraries already have punched card systems for serials or other acquisitions purposes. Some of the tabular aspects of Stanford's system, i.e. lists of desiderata by subject, lists of dealers by subject, the preparation of desiderata letters, etc. could be managed very economically using a punched card system, thereby reducing some internal overhead costs. In what measure our way of managing o.p. procurement can be applied elsewhere cannot be answered here. This is mainly a question of personnel available at a particular library and whether or not the time/expense factor makes it worthwhile.
Reprints

Since our procurement system has had such success, Stanford now checks on the o.p. market for titles which have been reprinted at what we consider exorbitant prices. For example, recently we saved $117.00 on a set of ten volumes of works on various artists by Loys Delteil which were being reprinted at a cost of about $360.00. In another recent case, a reprint which cost £96 was available in the original edition at the price of £30. An offer for the original edition of Evreiskaia entsiklopediia (the Russian edition of the Jewish Encyclopaedia in sixteen volumes) sold for £175 (or $429.00) versus $832.00 for a reprint of the same set. The price of the o.p. book generally goes down very quickly after it has been reprinted.

Conclusions

There are some generalizations which can be made from the Stanford experience in o.p. procurement. It seems desirable for libraries to compare the prices offered for books rather than to deal exclusively with a particular dealer since the price of o.p. books varies so widely. Also, overhead can be reduced to a minimum by batching requests, by using the regular typing and searching units, by using standard forms, and by placing the responsibility for o.p. procurement in the hands of one individual, preferably one who has an intimate knowledge of the book trade. Thus, it is possible to achieve measurable cost savings by having the library act as the searcher, sending out its own desiderata letters, and checking them. Most dealers appear to be willing to cooperate with libraries in checking their lists, sending offers, and even suggesting additional titles the library might wish to purchase. Many will work very hard without demanding exclusive search orders. Since individual dealers vary widely in their general pricing of books and not infrequently are inconsistent in their own offers, it is necessary to treat each offer separately. We have found that a good o.p. procurement program can bring big public relations dividends for the library by acquiring titles which faculty have been unable to obtain. We have advertised in AB Booksman’s Weekly and TAAB for items which are extremely difficult to find, and we have found that a fairly large number of offers usually results. We know that prompt ordering assured a high percentage of return on offers. Many dealers offer to reserve items until they hear from you. Finally, in-house searching allows a library to find a book when it is needed since the library can put the extra effort into a search when it is required.

REFERENCES


Volume 17, Number 2, Spring 1973
MICROFILM RATE INDEXES

The Resources and Technical Services Division Library Materials Price Index Committee has authorized the publication of the 1972 “Microfilm Rate Indexes (for selected United States libraries)” in the Directory of Library Reprographic Services (5th ed.).

Normally all price indexes are published in The Bowker Annual of Library and Book Trade Information, but the microfilm data was not readily available to Robert C. Sullivan, compiler of the “Microfilm Rate Indexes,” to meet the deadline for the 1973 Bowker Annual. Thus, the committee has released the 1972 “Microfilm Rate Indexes” for publication in the Directory of Library Reprographic Services to be published by and available from Microform Review in June 1973.

All library materials price indexes including the 1972 microfilm rate indexes will be published in the usual format in the 1974 Bowker Annual.
On-Line Computer Techniques in Shared Cataloging

DEN L. KNIESNER
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and
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This report pertains to a large research library beginning the change-over to shared cataloging by an on-line system, and the early stages of the implementation of computer techniques for part of the technical processes system of the Ohio College Library Center (OCLC). Later stages will include acquisition and serial programs.

EARLY IN 1971, the Ohio College Library Center (OCLC), located across the Olentangy River from the main library of the Ohio State University, announced that the planning phase requiring more than three years had been accomplished and that the operation phase was scheduled to begin. This library center provides an on-line computerized, shared-cataloging service for most of the academic libraries in Ohio. The purpose of this paper is to inform the reader of how one member library, the Ohio State University libraries (OSUL), has recently succeeded in implementing this innovative project.

Three stages marked the introduction of the OCLC shared-cataloging system. Stage 1 began in early spring of 1971 and involved a unit catalog card or catalog card set mail-order operation—"the off-line system." Stage 2 engaged the direct hookup of Spiras Irascope cathode ray tube remote-access terminals with the OCLC Xerox Sigma 5 computers via telephone lines during August and September 1971. The Ohio State University libraries was now on-line and could request production of sets of catalog cards from MARC (MAchine Readable Cataloging) records electronically as viewed or modified and edited. Stage 3, in October 1971, permitted OSUL to introduce completely original cataloging through the
terminals into the computer files at OCLC and have finished sets printed as in the first two stages.

During the first and second stages, the data base at OCLC consisted solely of MARC records cumulated from computer tapes mailed weekly from the MARC office at the Library of Congress. Catalog cards and card sets were printed on demand from this data base. Stage 1 provided the fifty-odd participating institutions with the opportunity to develop their own computer profile for card production. The profile is a special computer program which overrides the general program controlling production of cards in order to observe the requirements of each institution concerning card format, printing of peculiar “in-house” information, number of sets to be produced, unit cards to be sent to the National Union Catalog, and a myriad of other details. These profiles were developed during general meetings in the spring and early summer and through the completion of questionnaires.

Many different services were offered by the off-line system during Stage 1, each identified and initiated by color-coded prepunched IBM cards. OCLC-printed unit catalog cards and card sets could be ordered by LC card number. The color code determined whether a unit card or a card set was printed, whether the Dewey Decimal or Library of Congress call number was printed, and whether or not a Cutter number would be added or adjusted. A thorough description of these variegated services was included in the Manual for OCLC Catalog Card Production, dated February 1971. Finished card sets with Dewey call numbers are currently being printed by this off-line system for the Education Library of OSUL which maintains a special collection of over 15,000 volumes of Dewey-classed books.

Throughout Stage 1, OSUL ordered unit cards printed by OCLC, but continued its card production method of photocopying corrected LC cards or its own typed main entry cards and Xeroxed sets. Comparison of LC cards with the cards printed from OCLC’s MARC record data base substantiated the occasional dissimilarity between LC cards and their MARC tape counterparts. Lengthy contents notes on LC cards were not present in MARC records if their inclusion would produce a record exceeding 2,048 characters in length, which is the set maximum for a MARC record. Incomplete contents notes in MARC records were deleted when the records were added to the OCLC data base since it was determined that these notes are usually changed or deleted by catalogers in member libraries when they appear on LC cards. Typographical errors on LC cards did not necessarily appear on their MARC tape counterparts, and vice versa.

A series of weekly meetings involving professionals in the Catalog Department and key administrators was begun in the spring 1971, and a committee was appointed to determine desirable changes in work flow and the concomitant reorganization of technical services. In July, the Processing Division-QUE (Quick Editing) was created as a separate division in anticipation of Stages 2 and 3. Processing Division-QUE
would process books with acceptable MARC copy and, as procedures were improved, books with acceptable non-MARC LC copy. The pur-
view of Catalog Department activities would become more or less origin-
al cataloging. A second newly-created division was the Catalog Mainte-
nance and Card Production Division (later changed to Bibliographic Records Division), and each division is headed by professional person-
nel.

Five terminals were installed by the end of August—three in the Processing Division-QUE and two in the Catalog Department. Later one was reassigned and moved from the Catalog Department to the Bibli-
ographic Records Division. A program had been developed by OCLC which enabled catalogers to practice on the terminals even though cards could not be produced. Two additional manuals had been issued by OCLC: (1) Creation of Machine Readable Catalog Entries; an Adapta-
tion of the “Data Preparation Manual: MARC Editors” (May 1971) (which became known as “the yellow manual”), and (2) Cataloging on a Cathode Ray Tube Terminal (June 1971) (known as “the green man-
ual”). Catalogers were instructed in MARC editing techniques of assign-
ing correct numeric tags to the appropriate fields (main entry, title statement, imprint, etc.) and alphabetic codes to the subfields (e.g., place of publication, publisher, date).

As assurance that the five terminals would be scheduled for optimum use, an 8½” x 14” workform was designed. (See Figure 1.) All necessary cataloging data, including tags and codes, could be assembled on this form by the cataloger and later transferred into a terminal by a library assistant. After cataloging data was input, the workform would be sent to the Bibliographic Records Division to be matched against OCLC-printed cards when they arrived in the mail a few days later.

Several weeks before OSUL was able to use the terminals for real production, it became evident that the initial capabilities of OCLC’s computers would be quite limited. Detailed holdings information could not be printed out on the cards in the format that was desired. A decision was made by the OSUL technical services staff that at first only single copies of single volume works would be processed through the new system. (OCLC-computers are expected in 1972 to be capable of handling multiple copies for single or multiple locations within an institution.) Even prior to this decision, other materials such as serials and non-
roman alphabet works had been exempted from the OCLC system. Analyticals and “bound-withs” had also to be exempt because of their special handling in a shelflist. Theses and all multimedia materials were excluded because the formatting program could not handle the call numbers of these special materials. Fortunately, most diacritical marks could be satisfactorily printed so that very little cataloging copy would need to be channeled into manual card production for that reason. Fi-

nally, partially-roman letters, such as Polish “ł”s and Scandinavian “ø”s were not problems in OCLC-printing.

Individual identification codes were now assigned to each staff mem-

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Figure 1
Cataloging Data Input Workform

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ber and student assistant who had been authorized to use the terminals for input cataloging, card production, updating of records, etc. When Stage 2 began, staff members could use the terminals in full authorization mode—but only after identifying themselves to the computer in a routine called "logging-in." When finished, staff members would terminate the full authorization mode through a simple "logging out" routine.

During the early part of Stage 2, OCLC could only print cards from MARC records which had been added to the data base. At OSUL, a paraprofessional copy editor would call up a record on the terminal screen and, following instructions on the workform, edit the screen display by correction, addition, or deletion routines. The edited display would then be transmitted electronically to OCLC. An OSUL location code was automatically added to the record on the OCLC archives tape and in the master file (to which the terminals had direct access). The entire record was then added to a daily card production tape. As a special service, the OCLC card production tape is made available to OSUL for selecting OSUL titles to be added to the data base of the OSUL on-line Remote Catalog Access and Circulation Control System (LCS).

If a printed workform was used by library or student assistants in editing terminal screen displays, they were accompanied at first by attached LC copy when it was available. This procedure was established for the early period and was soon found to be unnecessary. Corrections were indicated in the appropriate fields on the workform. The OCLC master file could be searched for a particular MARC record in three ways: (1) by typing in the LC card number, (2) by typing in the first three characters of the main entry plus the first three characters of the first significant word in the title, or (3) by typing in the first three characters of the first significant word in the title plus the initial character of the next three words. Response time was generally instantaneous. Additional search techniques were available for dealing with common authors or titles. Also, anyone searching the master file had to learn a few rules concerning the alphabetical structure of the computer files.

When member libraries began adding their original cataloging during Stage 3, Processing Division-QUE staff was instructed to use the copy and edit where necessary if LC classification was on the record. Searches for this type of copy obviously could not be made by any card number.

Before Stage 2 was completed, numerous complications were discovered and had to be resolved. For example, OCLC programmers had to develop an automatic "parsing" routine so that their computers could take apart a call number and format it correctly when printing cards. The MARC office had not published a parsing routine at that time. OCLC proceeded to develop its own parsing rules based on the construction of pure Dewey and LC call numbers. Third Cutter numbers are not used in LC call numbers; they are used in OSUL call numbers. Since the OCLC computers were not programmed to look for a third Cutter number, it was necessary to treat OSUL's third Cutter number as a "free
As Stage 3 began, most of the basic problems had been resolved. The Catalog Department effort was concentrated on mastering the MARC format. In the Processing Division-QUE, an effort was made to speed up processing by using the on-line copy of MARC tapes to the extent that catalog cards were ordered as the basic search for copy was completed. Accepting LC call numbers without modification has been a goal of this unit; however, this has developed into a problem due to the exceptions and original cataloging and classification of the Ohio State University libraries throughout the years. As the OSUL on-line circulation system (LCS) is being developed to include technical services, the two systems, OCLC and LCS, are being interfaced and will provide a scanning capability of the classification for shelflisting purposes. As this scanning capacity improves, additional materials of all formats will be considered if copy is available for processing by the Processing Division-QUE instead of being sent to the Catalog Department.

An Advisory Committee on Cataloging had been established by OCLC to assist the staff of the center in determining the use of data from MARC records. This committee has been reactivated to assist in establishing acceptable standards for original cataloging input to the OCLC bibliographical base. It has met monthly and submitted a final draft proposal to the membership for consideration. The programmers at OCLC have continued to work at expanding and upgrading the capabilities of their computers. A complex interactive program was written to determine whether an incoming record was new or actually a duplicate of a record already in the master file. A holdings update/cancellation technique was also devised for use at the terminals. An improved program for indexing records is being utilized which has lessened the rigidity of typing rules (e.g., spacing), as cataloging data is input at the terminal.

The instantaneous availability of authoritative cataloging copy and greatly speeded card production are only the two most obvious benefits of this new shared-cataloging system. The ability of precatalog searchers to search by LC card numbers and titles has made the determination of main entry much easier. The utility of the remote access terminal to determine statewide holdings for interlibrary loan purposes has already been established here. Cataloging activity has reached a new level at the Ohio State University libraries with the successful implementation of on-line computer techniques. As the programs for technical processes are being written by the OSUL and the Ohio College Library Center programmers together, acquisition procedures and current serial check-in activities will be revised for a total system. Cooperative program writing will allow an interface from the beginning between the OSUL Circulation System (LCS) and OCLC which should be advantageous to all Ohio member libraries.
The Structure of Library of Congress Subject Headings for Belles-Lettres in Chinese Literature

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The writer discusses two categories of Library of Congress subject headings for belles-lettres in Chinese literature: (1) the literary genres, and (2) the chronological subdivisions. He illustrates both categories with specific examples taken from LC cards for Chinese materials, and then suggests concrete steps for improving the effectiveness and ease of approach to those materials. He recommends that more romanized Chinese terms be adopted for those literary genres foreign to Anglo-Saxon concepts, and more period subdivisions be introduced to the headings for literary history.

In 1958 THE LIBRARY OF CONGRESS began to include East Asian titles in its printed cards. Since then, the majority of Chinese collections established in American academic libraries have adopted LC subject headings in their entirety. If LC cards are received for the Chinese materials being cataloged, the headings indicated in the tracing are accepted. If no LC cards are available for the Chinese materials being cataloged, original cataloging is required to get these materials organized for use. However, the subject headings assigned will still be within the scope of the LC subject headings list and its supplements. As the Chinese collections in American academic libraries continue to expand, a corresponding growth of LC subject headings is expected for an adequate subject coverage. Now seems to be the time to review the guiding principles LC and its cooperating libraries have applied in the establishment of subject headings for Chinese literature.

It should be noted that in the long history of traditional Chinese librarianship, the use of subject headings has never occupied any signifi-
cant place. With the application of LC subject headings for Chinese literature, LC and its cooperating libraries have attempted to accomplish at least two things: the integration of Chinese materials with the Western language materials through subject headings, and the added subject approach to Chinese materials besides the author and title approaches. This paper will use LC subject headings for belles-lettres in Chinese literature as samples for a demonstration and analysis of LC subject headings for Chinese literature in general. It is felt that the structure of LC subject headings for Chinese belles-lettres has greater clarity than that of LC headings for other classes of Chinese literature.

The writer will discuss two categories of LC subject headings for Chinese belles-lettres: (1) the literary genres, and (2) the chronological subdivisions.

In the establishment of subject headings for Chinese literary genres, LC apparently has followed two principles. The first principle is the adoption of the English terms for the Chinese literary genres, whenever satisfactory English terms exist. Some of the examples are as follows:

- Chinese poetry ("Chung-kuo shih" in Chinese)
- Chinese drama ("Chung-kuo hsi chii" in Chinese)
- Chinese fiction ("Chung-kuo hsiao shuo" in Chinese)
- Chinese prose literature ("Chung-kuo san wen" in Chinese)

The second principle is the use of romanized Chinese terms for those literary genres the concepts of which are exclusively Chinese and foreign to Anglo-Saxon experience. Some of the examples are as follows:

- Tz'ü
- Fu
- San ch'ü

It is clear from these examples that as a general rule, the subject headings devised according to the first principle are more comprehensive, while those devised according to the second principle are more specific. To correlate the headings of both groups, LC has introduced a system of “see also” references from a given subject to related or subordinate subjects which represent other aspects of the same topic. Thus, for the subject headings cited above, we find:

- Chinese poetry
  - see also Tz'ü
  - Fu
  - San ch'ü

- Chinese drama
  - see also San ch'ü

- Chinese prose literature
  - see also Fu

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These “see also” references, incidentally, also serve to clarify the ideas contained in the subject headings. The above examples have explained to the reader that “fu” can be considered as a variation of either Chinese poetry or of Chinese prose literature, and that “san ch’ü” can be considered as a variation of either Chinese drama or of Chinese poetry. The combination of these two “see also” references fulfills, at least to some extent, the requirement of an explanatory card.

Of course, “see” references are generally made from the variant or synonymous terms of the literary genres to guide the readers to the terms devised or chosen by the subject cataloger. The following is but one of the examples:

Ch’ing ch’ü
see
San ch’ü

It would be reasonable to expect LC to adopt more headings of romanized Chinese for other literary genres particular to Chinese literature, as new titles are cataloged and old cards revised. A more specific heading could have been used in the subject cataloging of the following title:

Chang, Jên-ch’ing.
Li tai p’ien wên hsüan.

This is a collection of “p’ien wên,” compiled by Chang Jên-ch’ing. The subject cataloger at LC used the heading CHINESE PROSE LITERATURE, because he apparently had no other choice than to accept this comprehensive English term when no specific heading was available. However, “p’ien wên” or “balanced prose” has practically no parallel in the literary history of other parts of the world. Professor Ch’ên Shou-yi, in his CHINESE LITERATURE, a HISTORICAL INTRODUCTION, called “p’ien wên” “a particular literary phenomenon which blurred almost completely the line of demarcation between prose and poetry.” The basic pattern, he explained, was the creation of two sentences or clauses in parallel form with characters in one strictly matching the corresponding characters in the other.

The heading “p’ien wên” would likely be devised by LC according to the principle of specificity, in the organization of other materials on the same topic for use. There have been published a considerable number of books of “p’ien wên” and about “p’ien wên,” many of which have been kept in the Chinese collections of American academic libraries. And, “p’ien wên” is the term commonly used by writers on the subject and is most likely to be known to the reader interested in the subject.

Other examples are the subject headings chosen for the books of “yüeh fu” or about “yüeh fu,” as in the following:

P’an, Chung-kuei, 1901–
Yüeh fu shih ts’ui chien.

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Both titles are collections of "yüeh fu," and LC used as subject heading CHINESE POETRY (SELECTIONS: EXTRACTS, ETC.) for the former, but CHINESE BALLADS AND SONGS for the latter. This inconsistency in the choice of heading reflects the lack of precise heading which would satisfactorily represent the concept of "yüeh fu." "Yüeh fu" actually meant "Music Bureau," an official agency of the imperial government whose mission was to collect popular songs sung by the common people. These popular songs, composed predominantly of five-syllable lines, have been consistently classified and labeled as a literary genre by themselves. A student of Chinese literature would be more likely to seek the materials he wants about this topic under the heading "yüeh fu" than under a comprehensive heading of an English term.

A discussion of LC subject headings for the literary genres in Chinese belles-lettres naturally leads to a study of LC period subdivisions for these headings.

The period subdivision is used here to demonstrate some of the problems in subdivision of headings for Chinese belles-lettres, because the heading for the literary history is the most obvious type of heading which requires subdivision. LC has already made an initial effort in subdividing the headings for Chinese literary history by introducing the subdivision 20TH CENTURY under various headings that require such subdivision. Among the examples are:

Wang, Chê-fu.
Chung-kuo hsin wên hsüeh yün tung shih. LC card no. C66-1108

Yeh, Ting-i, d. 1954.
Chung-kuo hsien tai wên hsüeh shih lüeh. LC card no. C58-7386 rev

For both titles, LC used the heading CHINESE LITERATURE—20TH CENTURY—HISTORY AND CRITICISM.

Ko, Hsien-ning, 1907–
Wu shih nien lai ti Chung-kuo shih ko. LC card no. C66-492

Chang, Mo.
Hsien tai shih ti t'ou ying. LC card no. C68-1071

For both titles, LC used the heading CHINESE POETRY—20TH CENTURY—HISTORY AND CRITICISM.

Yip, Wai-lim.
Chung-kuo hsien tai hsiao shuo ti fêng mao. LC card no. 77-841123

For this title, LC used the heading CHINESE FICTION—20TH CENTURY—HISTORY AND CRITICISM.

However, many of the spans of time frequently treated in the his-
History of Chinese literature have not been introduced as period subdivisions. These periods in many instances represent the rise of a certain literary movement and are generally recognized by even the beginning scholars of Chinese literature. The following are taken from LC cards:

Wên, I-to, 1899–1946.
T'ang shih tsa lun. LC card no. C58-5931

Yang, Ch'i-kao.
T'ang tai shih hsüeh. LC card no. C68-1740

Both titles treat of the Chinese poetry of the T'ang dynasty (618–907), the golden age of Chinese poetry. When a student of Chinese literature speaks about Chinese poetry, he immediately associates it with the T'ang dynasty. The subject catalog loses its effectiveness and ease of approach if books about T'ang poetry are entered under the general heading CHINESE POETRY—HISTORY AND CRITICISM together with books about Chinese poetry of other periods and about Chinese poetry through the ages. LC used the general heading, but is expected to introduce the period subdivision in its revision of old cards, or at least in its cataloging of new materials on the same topic. Then the heading would read: CHINESE POETRY—T'ang dynasty, 618–907—HISTORY AND CRITICISM.

Other periods that rank next to the T'ang dynasty in the history of Chinese poetry would include at least the Sung dynasty (420–479) and the Ch'ing dynasty (1644–1912). However, LC also used the general heading CHINESE POETRY—HISTORY AND CRITICISM in the cataloging of the following two titles:

Yen, En-wên.
Sung shih kao lun. LC card no. C62-368

Chung-hua shu chü. Shang-hai pien chi so.
Ch'ing shih hua. LC card no. C65-869

A student of Chinese literature would seek the former title under the heading CHINESE POETRY—SUNG DYNASTY, 420–479—HISTORY AND CRITICISM, and the latter under the heading CHINESE POETRY—CH'ING DYNASTY, 1644–1912—HISTORY AND CRITICISM.

Similarly, the necessity of period subdivision also applies to at least one literary genre of the Yiian dynasty (1279–1368). Although Chinese drama can be traced back as far as the Ch'in dynasty (249 B.C.–202 A.D.), it reached its artistic perfection in the Yiian dynasty, when some of the most brilliant dramatists flourished. The following two examples are also taken from LC cards:

Yen, Tun-i.
Yüan chü chên i. LC card no. C61-4062

T'ung, Fei.
Yüan ch'ü. LC card no. C67-3195
LC entered both titles under the heading Chinese drama—History and criticism. The reader would have to thumb through a considerable number of cards in the catalog under the general heading to locate materials about the dramatic literature of the Yuan dynasty. It would increase the effectiveness and ease of approach if both these and similar works were entered under a heading with the period subdivision. Then, the heading would read: Chinese drama—Yüan dynasty, 1279-1368—History and criticism. The period that ranks next to the Yuan dynasty in the history of Chinese drama would be the Ch'ing dynasty (1644-1912). If sufficient materials are acquired, it would be desirable to introduce the heading Chinese drama—Ch'ing dynasty, 1644-1912—History and criticism.

"Tz'ü" is a variation of the Chinese poetic form, which reached its peak during the Sung dynasty (420-479). Sung "tz'ü" is comparable to T'ang poetry or Yuan drama in importance as a literary genre in Chinese literature. The following two examples are again taken from LC cards:

T'ao, T'ang.
Sung tz'ü p'ing chu.  
LC card no. C68-1551

T'ang, Kuei-chang.
Sung tz'ü ssü k'ang.  
LC card no. C61-4511

For both titles, LC used the heading Tz'ü—History and criticism without period subdivision. It is felt that the period subdivision—Sung dynasty, 420-479—after the main heading would greatly facilitate the reader's use of the subject catalog.

The heading Chinese fiction also could be subdivided by the name of the period, followed by inclusive dates. For the following two titles, LC used the general heading Chinese fiction—History and criticism:

Liu, K'ai-jung.
T'ang tai hsiao shuo yen chiu.  
LC card no. C66-2098

Ch'ien, Hsing-ts'un.
Wan Ch'ing hsiao shuo shih.  
LC card no. C66-2070

The former could have been entered under the heading Chinese fiction—T'ang dynasty, 618-907—History and criticism, and the latter under the heading Chinese fiction—Ch'ing dynasty, 1644-1912—History and criticism. Another period that is familiar to the writers and researchers of Chinese fiction would be the Ming dynasty (1368-1644).

Hopefully, as the Chinese collections in American academic libraries expand in size, more specific subject headings will be devised for the literary genres, and more period subdivisions introduced in the headings for literary history. The combination of these two elements would offer an adequate number of headings for an effective and easy approach to the Chinese materials organized for use.
PAPER CONSERVATION NEWS

H. Wayne Eley has announced the publication of Paper Conservation News, a newsletter devoted to current and practical information about the conservation, restoration, and preservation of paper.

Articles already scheduled cover lamination, matting, and framing of prints and drawings, an evaluation of pressure-sensitive and water activated tapes, bookbinding practice and conservation, the correct paper environment, and temporary conservation measures. In addition to articles there will be book reviews, annotated citations of current articles and publications, and information and evaluations of new products. Editorials, an inquiry column in which readers’ questions will be answered by competent specialists, announcements of meetings, lectures, and seminars will also be included.

The key personnel of Paper Conservation News are H. Wayne Eley, publisher; Dianne S. O’Neal, editor; Mary Todd Glaser, contributing editor; and Stephen P. Ferrari, production manager. The first issue of Paper Conservation News will appear May 1, 1973. The subscription rate is $8.00 per year (six issues), and subscriptions may be placed for one, two, or three years by writing to: Paper Conservation News, Department S, 15 Broadway, New Haven, CT 06511.

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Cataloging Screenplays

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This paper describes a system for cataloging and classifying screenplays which is a variation on the LC approach. It evolved because the LC system has often proved awkward in its adherence to the literary author entry concept—and not always consistent within that concept. The LC entry form has varied: usually author, occasionally title, and in several instances author entry cut by title. In the alternative system presented here, title is established as the definitive entry form. A structured classification scheme is developed within the range of numbers which LC has assigned to collected and individual screenplays—i.e., PN1997.A1-Z89. Several further deviations from LC practice are noted and explained. The result has been found to be a more workable and relevant method of cataloging screenplays.

During the past two years, the library at California State University, San Diego, has acquired an increasing number of published screenplays. These screenplays represent finished films, complete with credits, and as a rule are generously illustrated with stills. In cataloging them, we have found the Library of Congress method of classifying screenplays—as literary works entered under the author—unsatisfactory for our particular needs. Consequently, we have worked out a system for cataloging and classifying screenplays which we consider more appropriate.

As a first step, we reviewed the three logical possibilities for main entry—author, director, title—and decided to enter by title:

Entry under author of the screenplay, currently used by the Library of Congress, seems the least suitable of the three because a film script, unlike a play script, does not constitute a complete work in itself. Rather, it is the foundation for a final art form which is largely visual in impact and whose success depends to a very great extent on the skill of the director. The identity of a screenplay's author is usually of secondary interest to either the average filmgoer or the professional critic. Cases
where the author is a prominent literary figure like Faulkner or Cocteau are not frequent enough to warrant author as a universal entry form.

Entry under director of the film at first seemed the best choice, since in the professional and critical context the auteur theory prevails and films are generally considered the work of the director. It may be argued that the director has nothing to do with the screenplay as such and that it is the screenplay with which we are dealing here. But most screenplays are published after the fact, fully illustrated with stills from the film, and they frequently include commentary by or about the director. In many cases the director is also the author, co-author or "creator" of the script—e.g., Bergman, Fellini, Buñuel. Nevertheless, it is doubtful that the director can be considered more important than the screenplay itself. And, even if this were so, other considerations make director a questionable choice for entry form: first, it is a narrow approach to works of general popular interest; and, secondly, classifying all a director's films under expansions of his name Cutter can become extremely complicated.

Title of the film is the entry form we ultimately chose because it most accurately reflects the conventional identification of this art form and because title entry lends itself to a flexible classification system which encompasses such variations as translation, adaptation, and criticism. For uniformity, we decided to use the title under which the film has been shown in the United States. To establish the uniform title in the original language as LC has done seems unnecessarily arcane—e.g., Jag är nyfiken for I Am Curious (Yellow).

Once the main entry form was established, we made two further innovations:

1. Designation of the English version as "original." Because the majority of published screenplays received by our library are English translations of foreign originals, to Cutter them all as translations is highly impractical. Consequently, we regard all English versions as "original." The actual original language versions are designated by the addition of the second Cutter "Z1," and translations into languages other than English are designated by expansions of "Z2."


Finally, we developed the comprehensive system presented below.

Classification

Catalog all screenplays, both in published and scenario form, by title,

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adapting the classification PN1997.A1-Z89 as follows:

Collections of screenplays
PN1997.A1A-Z By title (as distributed in the U.S.A.) (see COLLECTIONS)

Individual screenplays
PN1997.A2-Z89 By title (as distributed in the U.S.A.)
.xZ1 Original language.
.xZ2-29 Translations. By language.
.xZ3-39 Adaptations. By author.
.xZ4-49 Criticism. By author.

Entry Form
Enter all screenplays under the title used in U.S.A. distribution, followed by “Motion picture” in parentheses. (See Figures 1 and 2.)

Title Cutter
Cutter for title as precisely as possible, using at least two digits, to allow for the many similar alphabetical combinations which can occur.
Ex: B22 Baby Doll
     B23 Backlash
     B24 Bad Day at Black Rock

Distributed under English title

<table>
<thead>
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<th>PN 1997</th>
<th>The Blue Angel (Motion picture)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Script of the motion picture Der Blaue Engel directed by Josef von Sternberg with lyrics and dialogue by Robert Liebmann. Based on the novel Professor Unrath by Heinrich Mann.

I. Liebmann, Robert, II. Von Sternberg, Josef, 1894- III. Mann, Heinrich, 1871-1950./ Professor Unrath.

Figure 1

* It may seem that our statements about published screenplays do not justify the inclusion of scenarios in this system, but our library receives so few scenarios that for us this is the most sensible way to treat them. For libraries with extensive collections of scenarios, another approach might be desirable.

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Distributed under original title

La guerre est finie (Motion picture)

Text by Jorge Semprun for the film by Alain Resnais. Translated by Richard Seaver. Film editor: Robert Hughes.


192p. illus. 21cm. (Evergreen original, E-452)

I. Semprun, Jorge. II. Resnais, Alain, 1922-

Figure 2

B24 Bad day at Black Rock
B254 Ballad of a soldier
B26 The bank dick
B27 Barabbas
B29 Battle cry
B298 Bay of angels

Remakes

1. If the remake title is the same as the original, add "12" to the original title Cutter for the second version, "13" for the third version, etc.

Ex: G66 Goodbye Mr. Chips
    G6612 Goodbye Mr. Chips (musical version)

2. If the remake title is different, enter the screenplay under the new title with the appropriate Cutter. Indicate the original title in a note.

Translations

Assign the second Cutter "Z1" to screenplays in the original language. Indicate translations in languages other than English by expansions of "Z2."

Ex: Z23 German
    Z24 French
    Z25 Italian
    Z26 Spanish
    Z29 Russian

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Adaptations of the Screenplay

1. For a simplified "screenplay" or illustrated text, use the original entry. Add a second Cutter, "Z3-39," for the author of the adaptation. If the title differs, trace it as an added entry. (See Figure 3.)

Note: The Cutter "Z32" is for the original German version of the adaptation. The English translation of the adaptation is indicated by

![Figure 3](image)

![Figure 4](image)
Chronicle of the film The red badge of courage, written and directed by John Huston, based on the novel by Stephen Crane.

1. The red badge of courage (Motion picture)

Figure 5

adding “2” to that Cutter: “Z322.” (French translation would be “Z324,” Italian “Z325,” etc.)

2. For a novel, stage play, or other literary work, use the author of the adaptation as the main entry and assign the appropriate literary classification. If the title differs, trace the original title in its entry form. (See Figure 4.)

Criticism

Here are included criticisms of the screenplay, criticisms of the film

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itself, narratives of the film's production, etc. Enter under the author of the criticism. Use the classification of the film under discussion and add a second Cutter, "Z4-49," for the author of the criticism. Trace both the title of the film (entry form) and the director as subjects. (See Figure 5.)

Collections

A. Screenplays by one author.
Figure 9

1. Enter works containing three screenplays or less under the first screenplay title given on the title page or in the contents. Trace remaining titles; author of screenplays; directors, if different from author; title of book, if distinctive. (See Figure 6.)

2. Enter works containing four screenplays or more under the first screenplay title given. Make title analytics for remaining titles. Trace author of screenplays; title of book, if distinctive. (See Figure 7.)

B. Screenplays by several authors.
1. Enter works containing three screenplays or less under the first screenplay title given. Trace remaining titles; authors of individual screenplays (first author only); directors; editor of book; title of book, if distinctive; subject Screenplays, indicating nationality if uniform. (See Figure 8.)

2. Enter works containing four screenplays or more under the first screenplay title given. Make title analytics for remaining titles. Trace editor of book: title of book, if distinctive; subject Screenplays, indicating nationality if uniform. (See Figure 9.)
Courses in Reprography Offered In Graduate Library Schools

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University Library
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What is the impact of the continuing developments in reprography on United States library school curricula? This subject was explored in a 1965 survey and the Reproduction of Library Materials Section of the Resources and Technical Services Division was curious about what changes have occurred in the past seven years. Questionnaires were sent to all accredited library school programs in the U.S., and the responses indicated that only seven schools now offer special courses related to reprography. Library schools in general seem to have been slow to revise their curricula to keep pace with new technologies.

Approximately seven years ago, Rolland E. Stevens surveyed thirty-six graduate library schools to determine the impact of technological developments in the area of “microphotography and other copying methods” on library school curricula. His findings were not unexpected, but interesting nonetheless.1

In the first place, he found that only one, Columbia, of the twenty-nine schools which responded to his questionnaire offered a course wholly concerned with photoduplication. On the other hand, all twenty-nine schools covered in some manner or fashion what might be termed the “technical services side of photoduplication,” i.e., the acquisitions and cataloging of microforms. There seemed to be somewhat less attention given to the use of such collections or the management of library copying services. Stevens concluded from his study “that future instruction on microforms will increase as these media for copying and publication become more important to libraries. Such instruction is likely to be on the use rather than the production of microforms, and to be incorporated into traditional courses on selection, acquisition, cataloging, reference, and administration, as well as into new courses on data proc-

Manuscript received for review, December 1972; accepted for publication, January 1973.

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essing, information retrieval, and automation, rather than to be offered as one or more separate courses."

Since 1965, there have been very significant technological developments in microimagery and reprography. More and more material continues to become available in microform; ultramicrofiche has become a reality; and Computer-Output Microfilm (COM) software and hardware have opened whole new frontiers in the area of on-line information retrieval systems utilizing large microform data banks and computer terminals. These developments, in the opinion of the RTSD Reproduction of Library Materials Section Executive Committee, justified another survey of the library schools to see to what extent technological changes since the Stevens’ survey have affected library school curricula.

As a first step, catalogs of forty-four library schools with accredited programs were studied. This process revealed that Maryland and North Carolina had joined Columbia in offering a special course devoted exclusively to photoduplication and reprography. In addition, it was found that the University of Minnesota offers a course in library mechanization in which there appears to be a very strong emphasis in these areas. In general, this part of the study seemed to bear out Stevens’ prediction that information regarding technological advances in these fields would be spread throughout the curriculum rather than concentrated into special courses.

However, catalogs can only vaguely reflect the intellectual environment of a professional school. Course titles can imply either more or less than the course content as it actually unfolds in the classroom or seminar. For instance, one school which several years ago used to offer courses in the “Literature of the Social Sciences,” now offers courses entitled “Resources and Information Systems” in the Social Sciences. The catalog by itself is not much help in determining if more than a change in terminology has taken place, whether or not there has been a substantive change in the course offerings which reflects in awareness of new technologies.

Consequently, a letter and a questionnaire were prepared and sent in April 1972 to all of the accredited library school programs in the United States. The purpose of the letter was to elicit from the library school deans and directors a general statement concerning their views of the proper place of microimagery and reprography in the curriculum and an evaluation of the effectiveness of their own programs. The purposes of the questionnaire were (1) to obtain some details regarding what was actually taking place in the classroom, and (2) to learn of relevant courses which may not have turned up in the catalog study. Unfortunately, the respondents tended to react to the latter rather than the former which resulted, in many cases, in a recapitulation of information already available in catalogs. However, several respondents sensed the real thrust of the project and supplied some very useful information.

Four additional schools can be added to the list of those offering spe-
pecific courses in microimagery and/or reprography: Michigan, Rutgers, SUNY-Albany, and Drexel. Of these, Drexel and Michigan are especially interesting because both utilize specialists from industry as faculty.

At Drexel, James E. Crew, who as senior systems consultant for E. E. duPont de Nemours is engaged full time in the development of information systems utilizing a variety of microforms and other copying techniques, has taught for six years a course in reprographic techniques. On the average, fifty students per year have availed themselves of this opportunity. The course at Michigan, “Reprography Techniques and Materials” is taught by Steven Rice, vice-president for Editorial Administration, University Microfilms. The questionnaire also uncovered the fact that Michigan is planning a new course on the organization and administration of copying services.

Perhaps the most interesting result of the survey was that it seemed to indicate a developing trend toward offering special courses rather than treating microimagery and reprography relatively briefly in a number of other courses as has been the case at most institutions up to the present time. For example, an analysis of the Illinois curriculum supplied by Stevens showed that a total of eight to ten hours, spread throughout seven courses, is spent on microimagery and reprography. In 1965 Stevens found that only one of twenty-seven schools which replied to his questionnaire offered a special course. By 1972, this figure had risen to seven out of thirty-two, or to 21%.

One of the factors behind this developing trend toward special courses would seem to be technological developments which have linked the computer and the high speed camera. The economics of COM and its applicability to a wide range of library and user informational needs are so obvious that they are apparently elevating microimagery to a new level of appreciation in library school curricula.

At the present time, there seems to be a fairly strong feeling among a large number of librarians that the library schools have not kept up with new technologies, that their graduates are not adequately prepared to cope with the management informational and educational problems which are related to developments in the computer and allied industries. In light of this attitude, Andrew Horn’s reply to the questionnaire might be instructive:

Your covering letter is what’s important to me because you put your finger right on it when you said that a school’s published catalog can . . . for the most part only hint at course content and the total intellectual environment of a professional school. One of the ways schools have responded to change or pressure is to tack on a new course, usually because it’s difficult to change a whole curriculum. That’s not such a bad first step; but if it stops there, it really doesn’t mean a thing. Sooner or later, the sum total of new course offerings must be pulled together into a coherent whole, a philosophy, if you like, which permeates the entire curriculum. . . .

All of our courses have been revamped since 1965. We even added a separate degree in Information Science, and one of our post-MLS Certificates of Spe-
cialization is in Library Systems Analysis and Automation. The biggest change, however, is our new position on the MLS degree. If you read our course descriptions carefully, you'll notice we talk about information, texts, and documents instead of books and periodicals—i.e., the format isn't what matters, it's the recorded information in whatever format.

What I'm saying is that in the school the whole curriculum, not isolated courses, takes it for granted that libraries are, or soon will be, multimedia collections, document reproducers and transmitters, and linked elements in a complex library system and information network. A good many of our graduates come back to us with the complaint that their training was for a librarianship that doesn't yet exist, and that we should have told them that the real library world is still quite nitty-gritty, manual, traditional, and unimaginative.

Both the questionnaire and Horn's report seem to point toward the fact that the library profession, in general, has been slower than might be desirable in demonstrating a strong commitment to rapid change in response to new technologies.

Horn's view of the library of the immediate future as a multimedia information center linked to similar entities in an overarching information network is impossible to dispute. Too many of the elements are already in place. It would also be difficult to dispute that the fact that the impetus in this direction comes from technological developments in the area of hardware capable of digital to documentary transformation (COM) and documentary to digital transformation (OCR). These, plus other advances in microimagery, e.g., ultra microfiche, seem destined to alter the basic nature of information storage and transmission in the very near future.

It is to be hoped that fewer and fewer graduates of our most intellectually energetic professional schools will find the libraries in which they hold their first professional positions to be traditional and unimaginative environments. And, if this does turn out to be the case, that they will devote a large measure of their energies to bringing about fundamental changes.

For the entire profession, both teachers and practitioners, the challenge is to respond to the opportunities which technological developments in the area of micrographics and reprography present, teachers by developing faculties and curricula which will send into the field graduates soundly based in theory and principles, and practitioners by creating the kind of working environment which will stimulate the development of efficient and effective applications in libraries of all types.

Although the evidence is fairly meager, the survey seems to indicate significant movement in this direction by library schools. If it was not too encouraging to have one dean ask "what is COM," hopes rose when another noted that the fourth edition of his school's catalog will be on COM produced microfiche.

In a survey conducted in 1971 by the Micro-News Bulletin, published by the National Microfilm Association (NMA), it was found that very few courses in microimage technology are being offered by colleges and
universities in the United States. It is encouraging to note that NMA now includes a section on education in its *Micro-News Bulletin*, and the association is seeking to establish a concise listing of all courses available in the United States relating entirely or partially to micrographics. Courses in addition to those alluded to have been identified as being offered at the following institutions: California State University (Los Angeles), University of California (San Diego), Community College of Denver, University of Denver, Georgia Institute of Technology, University of Missouri (Kansas City), University of Missouri (St. Louis), Portland State University, and the University of Virginia.

REFERENCES

REVIEWS


During the period between August 1969 and April 1970 three sessions of the United States Office of Education media institute, Systems and Standards for the Bibliographic Control of Media, were held. More than two years later, we have in printed form the sixty-eight papers presented by forty-nine distinguished contributors. The verbatim transcriptions have been reworked, revised, and rewritten by the editors, but presumably, the essence of the original works remains. The comments by the speaker-consultants and participants which are interspersed both elucidate and enliven the proceedings. As is the case with most publications of this type, there is considerable variation in quality of the contributions. However, it would not be fair to be overly critical on this point since the coverage of the topic is so broad that its treatment must necessarily be a composite of many persons' expertise.

This work is in no sense a manual or guide to the procedures of bibliographic control, though the title might imply that. It is the result of an ambitious project which aimed toward an analysis of the scope and complexity of the bibliographic control of nonprint media, and attempted to show both the urgency of the situation and some of the things being done about it. In the editors' words:

It was convened to facilitate: (1) the systematic evaluation of existing bibliographic sources for nonprint material; (2) a critical review of published and unpublished guides, manuals, handbooks, schedules, and suggested standards by librarians, audio-visual specialists, and commercial firms; (3) the consideration of user needs and their implications for systems of retrieval; (4) an examination of current research and the identification of conflict, duplication, and trends in the control of audiovisual software; (5) an evaluation of commercial firms' concerns, needs, and proposed solutions; (6) the consideration of systems and standards for the location, evaluation, selection, storage, and retrieval of nonbook material; (7) the establishment of an international perspective in the consideration of controls for media and (8) the establishment of structured dialogue between members of the various professions mutually concerned with the control and use of media.

Reading the work, one may search in vain for a systematic treatment of some of these topics. However, if anyone ever doubted that problems existed in this area, he should be totally convinced by this picture of variables playing against variables: the diverse forms of the materials themselves, the users' needs, the purveyors' ambitions for their utilization, the relationship to those other companion materials—books, the conflicting and ambiguous terminology.

While most of the forms of media in current use are mentioned and some are discussed at length, some fundamental matters are missing or treated only incidentally. Foremost among these omissions is the idea of prior bibliographic control at the source, which could assure, for example, the consistency of title given in or on a work and the date of issuance, thus eliminating factors which complicate the problem of control. Another basic omission is a discussion of the meaning of the terms "bibliographic control" and "nonprint media." One report recognizes "The Terminology Crisis," but it would seem that definitions of these two basic terms must precede all other considerations. Other omissions are
the possible applications of the Cataloging-in-Publication idea and the use of an equivalent of the Standard Book Number, both of which have been discussed in other circles. A paper showing the strong relationship between bibliographic control of print and nonprint media would have been appropriate also, though some aspects of this are touched upon in Maurice Tauber's paper on the proposed standards for bibliographic references and the ensuing lively discussion.

Taken as a whole, this work presents a bewildering picture. Fortunately, we have had some progress since 1970, particularly in the activities of the Joint Advisory Committee on Nonbook Materials and their soon to be published code, and as evidenced by the Library of Congress publication, Films: A MARC Format. Most importantly, the Institute provided an opportunity for the participants to exchange ideas in a relaxed atmosphere, and from this to go back to their drawing boards with refreshed ideas and broadened perspectives. Some day we may look back on this publication as the turning point from which an improvement in the bibliographic control of nonprint media began.

It is impossible to complete this review without mentioning the quality of bibliographic control evident in the bibliography. As we all know, the bibliographic control of printed materials is no simple matter. Since a couple of obvious errors stood out on page 399, the whole page was checked for accuracy. Of the twenty-four items on the page, ten lack pagination, one item is out of alphabetical order, one omits the joint author, one places the second author first (a participant in the conference), one author's surname is misspelled, one omits the series, and a major university's library school is placed in its sister institution. Bibliographic control, like some other homely virtues, should begin at home.—Suzanne Massonneau, School of Library Science, Florida State University, Tallahassee.


The most recent volume in the NCR Reader Series deals with two-thirds of what, at least until recently, was the typical library school course in cataloging and classification. Painter notes that: "The two parts of the readings are tied together not so much by logic—one does not lead to the other—but rather because they are indeed, perhaps unfortunately, still linked in the hearts and minds of the American cataloger." Subject cataloging, a topic excluded from the present anthology except in passing references, has also traditionally been part of basic cataloging courses. The relationship between vocabulary control and modern concepts of classification is obviously based on something more rational than what is in the hearts and minds of American catalogers. And considering the purpose of the present compilation, the reader should have been told the rationale for including only classification and descriptive cataloging.

The purpose of this volume is wholly admirable: to provide material which will give the student "an understanding of, or at least an ability to converse and reason with, the principles and theories of organization." The major objective is "not the how-to but, rather, the why."

Painter has selected thirty-six items (from books and the periodical literature) which span almost a century from the first report of Melvil Dewey's system to the Paris Conference...
ence and the use of MARC tapes. Most important writers are represented: Bliss, Dewey, Richardson, La-Montagne, Ranganathan, Shera, Sayers, Mills, Vickery, Farradane, Richmond, Strout, Cutter, Osborn, Chaplin, Lubetzky, Batty, Haykin, Avram, and others. All material is from the Anglo-American tradition, and though I would have liked the inclusion of some material from the European literature, the material already included is a formidable challenge to any beginning student.

A small number of the selections have already been anthologized by A. R. Rowland (The Catalog and Cataloging, 1969) and R. K. Olding (Readings in Library Cataloging, 1966). The duplications, however, are not a serious issue, and in any case Painter's work stands up very well in comparison to Rowland and Olding. On the other hand Olding's work is enhanced by really excellent introductory notes to each reading; and Rowland does a very good job with descriptive cataloging and also gets into subject headings. By and large, if one had to choose among the three readers, Painter's would have to be the first choice.

One limitation which bothers me a bit is the lengths to which Painter has gone to avoid saying anything about the material. Her assumptions (which may be valid) seem to be that the material should speak for itself. For example, a lengthy excerpt from E. C. Richardson's classic work is reprinted from the Shoestring Press reprint of 1964, without any note that the work dates from 1912. Richardson is important, but much of what he says is rather quaint and some of it shouldn't be taken too seriously. Instructors using these readings will, then, have to put some of them in a proper historical perspective.

Setting aside these limitations and turning to the readings themselves, we find that the compiler has made an excellent and provocative selection which is surely as fine as one could ask for. The material is also very neatly organized for instructional purposes. Each of the two main sections begins with readings on historical background and development. The classification readings are organized around: Principles, Theories and Philosophies; Automatic Classification; and Research in Classification. Appropriate groupings are used in the readings in descriptive cataloging. All things considered, and within the limitations set by herself or by the series editor, Painter has done a remarkably fine job. At issue is the question of what needs to be taught and what we need to know about cataloging and classification—the "how-to" or the "why." The two are not mutually exclusive. In a basic course, neither can be neglected at the expense of the other. It is an encouraging sign that there are approaches which try to put organization and access problems in a historical and theoretical perspective. By such an approach, practice and the study of traditional tools (Dewey, LC, etc.) can only be improved and made into an intellectual pursuit which will capture the imagination of the student.

—Gordon Stevenson, State University of New York, Albany.


Not all the papers read at the seminar are published in this report, and not all of those published are likely to be of interest to persons not
already aware of the work to which they refer, in the sense that what is reported is not usually all that innovative or theoretically interesting.

The German locus makes it appropriate that many Cermarr projects are reported; four of the five papers in Part 2 “UDC in Computer-prepared Catalogues, Bibliographies and Indexes” are by Germans, with two on the Documentatio Geographica. The same locus may have something to do with the fact that the two most valuable (and most critical) papers are by Germans: “Chancengleichheit der DK und der Thesauri” by H. Arntz, and “Possibilities for a Reorganization of the UDC” by I. Dahlberg. Arntz describes UDC’s inability to substitute for specialized (disciplinary or mission-oriented) information languages, thus calling into question its real universality. Dahlberg (her paper has been available as a separate title since 1970, was published in Nachrichten für Dokumentation in 1970 and translated for the Journal of Documentation in 1971 under the title “Possibilities for a New Universal Decimal Classification,” and was exposit in Ottawa in 1971 at the Conference on the Conceptual Basis of the Classification of Knowledge—this FID/CR publication thus seems a bit redundant) suggests a radical restructuring along the lines of a universal general-categoric (cf. de Grolier) and freely-faceted (cf. Gardin) plan, largely following in substantive outline a none-too-satisfactory suggestion by von Weizsacker. But the results would indeed be superior to that obtainable with any extant general classification; the question still remains whether they would be worth the cost—and how long it would be till a new plan became necessary.

Far too many of the papers are hardly more than sketches; only those in attendance could really get anything out of (re-)reading them; but of course distribution to attendees is a function of published proceedings. Several essentially tutorial lectures were, happily, omitted from the published volume.

There is some doubt in my mind whether publication of such volumes in the future serves any real purpose. I cannot deny that UDC is neither as well nor as widely known as it deserves, or that its capabilities in regard to a meshing with computers are seen to be as good as they are in comparison with the capabilities of LC or DC. But the question must be: do further publications such as this and the first (Copenhagen) seminar make that much of an impression on the unconverted? Periodical publication would doubtless reach a larger audience than publication in a series little known except to FID members, though that would not allow the benefit that does accrue to those attending and thereby being apprized of recent developments by colleagues whose claims can be challenged on the spot.

So: this publication and that of the Copenhagen seminar deserve a place in research collections as the record of pioneering efforts by Freeman and Atherton, by the Zentralstelle für maschinelle Dokumentation, etc. But if future meetings are to have their proceedings published, there should be a greater preponderance of papers that lead into the future (and I do not mean science fiction such as Rigby’s paper here) instead of dwelling on a fairly obvious present.—Jean M. Perrault, University of Alabama Library, Huntsville.


This manual deals with the entire
gamut of descriptive and subject cataloging with a slightly heavier emphasis on the practical rather than the theoretical. A sound basis is set with a discussion of the nature and purpose of catalogs and the history of catalogs, cataloging, and catalog codes. Following chapters deal with each part of the catalog, the author, title, the subject, and the name catalogs. Next, the text presents the problems of special materials such as serials, music, and government documents, and finally turns to analytics, notes, and annotations. The final chapters are concerned primarily with the physical aspects of processing, such as forms of the catalog, filing and arrangement, guiding, centralized and cooperative cataloging, administrative organization, and modern methods of information retrieval. The volume contains an extensive bibliography of 403 citations to which the footnotes are keyed.

The reviewer finds proper evaluation of the volume a bit difficult since the author does not provide either in the preface or in the first chapter any indication of the orientation or possible audience of the text. While admitting that "another book on cataloging" does indeed need some justification, the only statement of purpose is that the attempt is to provide both theory and practice. The publisher's blurb on the jacket indicates that the book is a comprehensive guide to cataloging intended for both practicing catalogers and advanced students of cataloging and indexing. This, however, is somewhat misleading, for in fact the manual appears to be aimed at the beginning student or cataloger.

The presentation of material is clear, concise, and a pleasure to read. The organization is good and follows a logical sequence with practical illustrations from thirteen libraries well integrated as case studies. The manual reads very much like lectures prepared for an introductory cataloging class minus the practical problems which so often burden cataloging manuals. The concentration is on description of the major characteristics in each area rather than any in-depth analysis. Thus, the manual is for the student who needs an introduction to the field, or the cataloger who needs to up-date or broaden his horizons.

The major drawback of this manual for the American librarian is its British orientation. Although the publisher states that it has international appeal, the international appeal would be restricted to those countries largely founded on and following the British systems. The text does indeed attempt to refer frequently to American cataloging developments and contributions, but most of the illustrations are British, as are the card formats and most of the discussion of subject catalogs. As a result, an American cataloger would find the manual extremely difficult to use. The content also occasionally suffers from the British tone particularly in the final chapters on processing. These chapters are too brief to provide more than a reminder to look for more sources in the bibliography, and in places show some misconceptions about American activities in centralized and cooperative processing.

Thus, the manual is to be recommended as a survey or overview of the descriptive and subject cataloging world, but chiefly for the British-oriented librarian.—Ann F. Painter, Graduate School of Library Science, Drexel University, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.

This volume, the fourth in its series, takes the student via case studies into the back room of the library to see how it is on the job. The author's introduction discusses the use of the case method in teaching courses in the bibliographic control of library materials, emphasizing the importance of group discussion as a means of gaining the maximum from the method.

The value of the case method in instruction is its potential for giving the student a feeling for the actuality of everyday practice in the profession about which he is learning and some of the excitement of being involved in using his grasp of theory. The essence of a good case is that it has two sides or more, that in a solution to its problem there is a balance of several pulls in different directions. Hickey's real life dramas are not carried to happy endings. The reader is usually left dangling with the necessity of providing his own denouement.

The book's thirty cases, averaging about six pages in length, include problems set in university, college, public, school, and special libraries, both large and small. They cover a wide array of aspects of the organization of library materials—the divided catalog, reclassification to LC, a backlog in a cooperative processing center, machine-readable serial records, a lost catalog tray, modification of LC subject headings, student orientation to the card catalog, a regional union catalog, an author whose book has been misclassified, and many more. The easiest cases come first, followed by those of increasing difficulty.

An unbiased examination of these cases would convince the reader that an important and almost constant consideration for technical service librarians is that of personal relations—with their colleagues, with other librarians, and with the library's users. And the emphasis is deliberate. Says Hickey in the introduction, "Practicing librarians ... know full well that the organizational function of the library is at heart a social one and that the design and operation of a library catalog department requires as much skill in interpersonal relations as it does in the construction of flow charts or the preparation of a catalog card" (p. xviii). Each case is set in its library context, and particular attention is paid to presenting the personalities involved, confronting catalogers with other categories of librarians and some users, so that, in the author's words, "the analyst can base his recommendations upon human as well as technical considerations" (p. xix).

It is refreshing to find the author deliberately emphasizing the human relations aspect of organizing library materials, the area of librarianship which is considered the most withdrawn from human contacts. Practically all of the thirty cases allow for the human element, and the problem of communications is shown for what it is—the most difficult aspect of library operations. There is no sex bias. (Kenneth Shaffer, please note.) Emotion is realistically and impartially depicted among librarians of both sexes, emotion which is produced by frustration and lack of understanding, not brought on by an attack of the vapors.

The cases have the smell of reality, and indeed the preface states that they are "drawn from incidents which have actually transpired or were reported to have occurred in approximately the manner described" (p. xiv). Note, for example, case twenty-seven's depiction of the aftermath of the failure of Florida Atlantic's premature attempt to step completely into the brave new world of computers. The author must have been collecting the cases over quite a period of time. They could not have
been found easily within a short time.

All of the cases are told in the all-knowing third person, usually in the past tense with the future represented by questions to the reader about the next step. It is possible that a variation in this method of presentation, such as use of the first person to set the scene, would present more forcefully the personality problem fused with the technical problem. Certainly, the scene could be set with fewer words, with the author stating flatly in the present tense the situation which exists, omitting the longer, narrative way of bringing out the personalities. However, the author's deliberate effort to present a problem which has reality in terms of its situation and the personalities of the protagonists must be applauded. Given her intention, her tone and style serve to carry it off. A first reaction that the cases are rather naively told soon gives way to a conviction that they serve the purpose which the author intended and that it was a good purpose.

The careful explanation of each case opens up the text to both the library science student and the practicing librarian who is not a cataloger. The cases could be used in some library situations for continuing education, particularly for beginning librarians. In staff study groups, the case method can be used to defuse issues, transferring the problem away from local personalities to the impersonal problem with similar issues.

Useful features of the book include case titles which indicate the problem under consideration, abstracts under each title in the table of contents, leading questions at the end of each case, and an appendix presenting sample analyses of the two final cases, one by a student and the other by the author for each case. It is an excellent text and an example of an author accomplishing what she set out to do. About the most serious criticism which can be made is that no CIP record is in it!—Helen W. Tuttle, Preparations Department, Princeton University Library, New Jersey.


Have the Proceedings of the Third International Seminar on Approval and Gathering Plans held at West Palm Beach, Florida, Feb. 17–19, 1971, exploded the myth that approval plans are intended exclusively for large libraries, academic or otherwise, with immense budgets? I fear not. Although the intended emphasis of the conference was to be the "economics of approval plans," I saw little in the seven papers presented which would convince medium-sized institutions with moderate budgets to pursue the virtues of the approval program with its oft-mentioned economies.

And what is an approval program anyway? Richard Chapin, in perhaps one of the most interesting moments at the symposium, suggested: "First, we don't know what we're talking about. No one has been able to define the difference between a gathering plan, an approval plan, blanket order, or other such projects that are designed to sell us more books" (p. 117). I suppose that it is this lack of definition, of explanation, which has resulted in my uneasiness about the value of the publication of these proceedings. A standing order for all books published by a university press has little place in a discussion of approval programs except as it may be described as a forerunner of the ap-

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proval program. Yet it is grouped
with approval plans and gathering
plans as though it were a full-
fledged member of the family. The
function of the approval plan as I
see it is to supply currently published
materials, English language or other-
wise, geographically limited or not,
limited in terms of subject specialty
or not, to the library which has pro-
filed its needs accordingly. Modifica-
tions in format may be introduced to
meet the special requirements of the
library involved (e.g. Abel, Bro-Dart,
and Baker & Taylor, if requested,
will send forms only for perusal).

And what of the "economics"
of approval programs? Trite as it may
seem, libraries are, or should be, very
cautious about participating in pro-
grams which are not sound invest-
ments. I am not sure that the case
studies discussed would convince any
librarian that he should opt for turn-
ning over a part or the whole of his
collection building responsibilities to
a dealer if statistics show that "the more
efficient your bibliographic searching
and acquisitions procedures, the less
likely you will be to save by having
an approval plan, while the more in-
efficient they are, the greater will be
your saving" (p. 9).

Harriet Rebuldeola's discussion of
approval plan methods is of great
utility for anyone considering par-
ticipation in an approval program be-
cause she details the various rubrics
into which approval programs fall.
She offers sound advice in regard to
the selection of a plan to meet the
needs of the library, based on dis-
counts, service, and the facility with
which the plan operates. While the
members of the dealers' panel could
have dealt more readily with the seri-
ous issue of economy, they chose rath-
er to describe their respective opera-
tions. What arrangements can be
made for the library with a budget of
moderate size to participate in an
approval program? Are there limita-
tions on participation because of the
size of one's budget? While some
dealers intimated that there were no
limitations, I suspect there is indeed
a budget level below which the jobber
will not go. There is a profit motive
after all!

Richard Chapin may have been
correct when he wondered "what else
there might be to confer about on ap-
proval plans" (p. 23). I wonder
whether service has been done fully
to the subject of the economics of ap-
proval programs by the publication
of these papers. If there are econo-
ic advantages to an approval program
(and I believe there are), then what
exactly are these benefits and how ex-
tensive are they? Unfortunately, little
attention was given to the economic
advantages of approval and gathering
plans in the papers presented. Thus,
college and research librarians must
still await conclusive evidence regard-
ing the economics of approval pro-
gams.—David L. Palus, Vassar Col-
lege Library, Poughkeepsie, New York.

Wynar, Bohdan S. Library Acquisi-
tions: a Classified Bibliographic
Guide to the Literature and Ref-
erence Tools. 2d ed. Littleton,
239 p. (Library Science Text Se-

With this revision, Wynar has cor-
corrected several glaring flaws of his
1968 book, such as weak editing,
bland physical format, and the lack
of an index. He has retained the
same basic arrangement, listing items
under five chapters—"The Role of
Technical Services in the Library,""Or-
ganization and Administration of
Acquisitions," "Developing Acquisi-
tions Programs," "Publishing, Pur-
chases, and Cooperative Acquisi-
tions," and "Gifts and Exchanges";
he has updated the information by
including new sections, such as "Ap-
proval and Blanket Order Plans," and

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substituting some newer titles for old and out-dated ones. Other sections have been enlarged, for example, "Libraries and Automation" now contains 132 entries as compared to 114 in the previous edition. A stronger editorial hand is reflected in the fact that even with the addition of new sections and titles, pagination was reduced from 275 to 239 pages.

Another beneficial change is the use of consecutive numbering of entries which facilitates their location through the new index. Annotations, when provided, continue to be brief and generally helpful, although a bit redundant at times. While the placement of titles under the various chapters and headings may appear arbitrary, the listings indicate a broad understanding of the most important materials pertinent to the topic of acquisitions. Of all changes, the most important is the addition of the index.

The proliferation of writings in the field of library science generally, and in the area of acquisitions specifically, leads one to question whether a book such as this can be practical for a long time. Librarians with some experience, staff members, and others conversant with indexes to current library literature will not find it so. However, for the beginning professional, the library school student, and others needing an overview of the subject, this compilation is handy and easy to use.

Budding bibliophiles will find it valuable to make an in-depth comparison between the original and revised edition for lessons in how the physical format and arrangement of a book can substantially add to or detract from its impact.

The book is adequately bound, attractive, and easy to read. The improvements help it to fulfill the author's aim, which is to "provide order librarians and those responsible for the organization and administration of acquisitions departments, with a comprehensive bibliographic guide to standard practices as expressed in the literature, and to list selected reference tools for various aspects of order work and book selection." Problems represented in all types of libraries are listed, making this edition universally acceptable for most libraries.—Millie Jue Tsui, University of Hawaii Library, Honolulu.


One of the primary reasons for the creation in 1958 of the Micropublishing Projects Subcommittee, of the Resources and Technical Services Division Resources Committee, was the recognition of the need for establishing a review mechanism for micropublications, to guide librarians considering the purchase of this increasingly available form of material. Various attempts to establish this mechanism within ALA came to naught until Allen B. Veaner became chairman of the Micropublishing Projects Subcommittee in the mid-1960s. Veaner and his committee were able ultimately to convince Peter Doiron, then editor of Choice, the book review magazine for the Association of College and Research Libraries, of the merit of including reviews of micropublications, as well as of books, in Choice. A series of three articles appearing in the June, September, and December 1968 issues of Choice served as the groundwork for the proposed publication of actual reviews. ALA's Library Technology Program was enlisted by the Micropublishing Projects Subcommittee at about this same time, to commission the writing of a manual for reviewers of micropublications. This manual, The Evaluation of Micropublications; A Handbook for Librarians, authored by Veaner with the
assistance of his committee and numerous specialists, appeared in mid-1971 as *LTP Publication*, no. 17. For various reasons *Choice* was unable to publish further reviews of micropublications and Alan M. Meckler, then a graduate student at Columbia University, decided to publish the quarterly *Microform Review*.

The first issue of *Microform Review* appeared in January 1972. Now that the first four issues have appeared, we have a sound basis for evaluating the effectiveness of this new journal.

Each of the first four issues has averaged 85 pages (a total of 340 pages) and included approximately ten microform reviews (a total of forty-one to date). Although this is not a large number of projects considering the current avalanche of micropublications, and particularly the vast number that have appeared in the past thirty years, it is a most welcome and encouraging beginning. The cost of the forty-one projects reviewed thus far, if purchased, would exceed $200,000.

In addition to microform reviews, each issue includes an editorial or a comment section, several pages of current news items about microforms, four to six general articles (a total of twenty-two to date) and several book reviews (a total of nine thus far), a list of recent articles on micropublishing, a clearinghouse section listing recently completed projects, and a cumulative author-title index to both the microform reviews and the book reviews. Reviewers are generally well qualified academically and constitute an impressive list of representatives of a cross section of United States college and university faculties or libraries. Unfortunately, most of the microform reviewers provide insufficient coverage of the technical aspects of the micropublications. The microform projects tend to be reviewed more as traditional hard copy publications rather than as micropublications. Items such as the cost per reel or fiche, the total footage or number of fiche, or the number of titles are not given uniformly. Sufficient references to existing technical standards such as NMA, ANSI, COSATI, ALA, LC are not given; neither are references to filming position, reduction ratio, etc. Emphasis on the administrative and technical criteria, in addition to the bibliographic criteria, for evaluating micropublications, as defined by Veiner in his June 1968 article in *Choice* is needed. This imbalance is recognized by the editor-in-chief and, as stated in his letter of September 25, 1972 to this reviewer, "... we can look forward to steady improvements in the technical areas of the reviews."

Other areas of improvement needed are to alert the reviewers to refer to *Newspapers in Microform* rather than to the *National Register of Microform Masters* in the reviews of newspaper projects, and to include dates of publication consistently or definite information about the availability of the microforms. Some reviewers admit that samples of the projects reviewed were either not available or were not viewed; certainly no valid technical evaluation is possible in such cases. Some articles, such as those on simultaneous publication by Pergamon Press, University of Toronto Press, or the University of Washington Press, are really commercials or announcements rather than evaluations.

Greenwood Press, Inc., leads the list of micropublisher's projects reviewed with seven reviews, Bell & Howell is next with five, Readex has four, NCR-Microcard Editions and the National Archives have three each, Research Publications and National Micropublishing Corporation have two each, and the remaining fifteen micropublishers have one each. Not only the larger commercial mi-
cropublishers are represented but also several institutional publishers such as the National Archives, Temple University, Ohio Historical Society, Hoover Institute, Cornell University, and Yale University library.

The page layout, particularly of the reviews, is not as attractive and easy to read as is desirable. While there are large segments of blank space and a generous border at the top of each page, the text of the evaluations appears cramped; the technical evaluation section needs to be expanded and organized more clearly. It is hoped that reviews of projects by micropublishers such as Microfilming Corporation of America, and additional projects of Xerox-University Microfilms will be included in subsequent issues.

Despite these relatively minor areas that need improvement, this quarterly, at the annual subscription price of $20.00 per year ($30.00 for both paper copy and microfiche, or $20.00 for either paper copy or microfiche only), is a most welcome addition to library literature and well worth the investment by any library purchasing any quantity of microforms. Most encouraging is the evidence that this journal is improving with each issue. Its success was assured when it secured Veaner as editor-in-chief. It made a further stride forward when it obtained Hubbard W. Ballou, head, photographic services at Columbia University library, as technical editor beginning with the April 1972 issue. As announced in the October 1972 issue, it broadened and strengthened its board of editors by adding, to the original ten members, Charles R. Bryant of Yale University library, L. L. Aden, vice president of the Microfilm Association of Great Britain and B. J. S. Williams, assistant director of the National Reprographic Centre for documentation (NRCd) in England. The latter two members particularly add lustre to the editorial board because of their acknowledged expertise in the microform field and because they introduce more of an international flavor to the group.—Robert C. Sullivan, Order Division, Library of Congress.
Advisability of Adopting an International Regulation Concerning the Photographic Reproduction of Copyright Works. July 1972. 11p. ED 066 179. MF $0.65, HC $3.29.


The preliminary study of technical and legal aspects of photographic reproduction of copyright works, submitted to the UNESCO General Conference shows that the use of modern methods of reproduction, including photocopying, microform reproduction, and analogous procedures, makes it desirable to seek ways of reconciling users' interests with the rights of the authors and publishers of works reproduced in this way. While it is necessary to protect the legitimate rights of copyright holders, their control over the use of copyright works must not become an obstacle to the development and improvement of documentation systems. Account must be taken not only of the interests of authors and publishers, but also of the advantages that photographic reproduction processes offer to users, libraries, documentation centers, educational establishments, research workers, etc. This report does not repeat the arguments set forth in the preliminary study regarding the desirability and timeliness of adopting an international regulation on this subject, but takes into account new factors that have become operative since that document was prepared. This report also considers the possible scope of the proposed regulation and the method which should be adopted for the purpose.


Institution: American Library Association, Chicago, Ill.

Policy statements are adopted within the American Library Association (ALA) by the Council, the Divisions, and the Executive Board. This collection includes statements adopted from 1940 through December 1969. Additional policies, adopted by different bodies, can be found in other compilations such as: the ALA Constitution and Bylaws, the Awards Manual, the Conference Manual, and the manuals dealing with personnel and management at headquarters. This edition of ALA Policies, Procedure, and Position Statements was compiled by the ALA Policies Division Committee assisted by the headquarters staff.
Access to Machine Readable Bibliographic Data, a Proposal to MERIT. August 1972. 16p. ED 066 200. MF $0.65, HC $3.29.

Institution: Wayne State University, Detroit, Michigan University Libraries.

MERIT has promulgated the objective to make machine readable data bases accessible to its members. The sharing of competencies and facilities will make it possible to establish a service to MERIT institutions collectively that cannot be established separately. This expansion of the MERIT network will make demands on resources and facilities of its members, but in the long run the institutional objectives will be better served. This program will further develop expertise in the planning and development of network goals and not merely represent the interest of the separate member institutions.


Institution: Council of Europe, Strasbourg (France). Committee for Higher Education and Research.

Prior to the meeting of the Committee for Higher Education and Research of the Council of Europe, library experts met to discuss shared cataloging in research libraries. Working papers by three of the experts are presented in this volume. The paper by Anneliese Budach on “The Deutsche Bibliothek at Frankfurt am Main and its Contributions to Shared Cataloguing” discusses that library’s efforts to meet international cataloging standards since 1966. J. P. Ducarme presents general comments on shared cataloging in research libraries emphasizing standardized bibliographical control. He discusses the past and present efforts toward standardization, and some of the problems involved, and concludes that standard shared cataloging rules are a necessity. In “The Uses to Be Made of MARC Input,” P. Brown looks at the special characteristics of library data processing by computer. Reasons for the slow development in the use of MARC, as well as the use that has taken place, and indications for the future are discussed.


Institution: Southern Methodist University, Dallas, Tex.

Sponsor: Texas State Library, Austin.

This project was an experimental effort to study, analyze, and understand interlibrary networks. The immediate purpose of the project was to develop methodologies for evaluating or analyzing networks; the ultimate purpose was to provide planning assistance to network funders, designers, or operators. The project was conducted in four simultaneous phases. The Conceptual Model (Phase I) considered components of network design and performance, and identified thirteen significant operational parameters. The Behavioral Model (Phase II) simulated network operations through “game playing” and further confirmed the validity of the Conceptual Model. In Phase III an effort was made to quantitatively analyze interlibrary networks in a metropolitan area. Significant operational variables were identified and measured. A Node-Network Dynamics Grid was developed to assist in evaluation and analysis of the Pilot Model Data. An Analytical Operations Research Model was developed in Phase IV to provide network planners with a tool for network performance prediction as a function of design options. A generalized network model called Lib-NAT (Library Network Analysis Theory) was developed and is presented. The methodologies developed in this project have been used by several states for network planning or evaluation and seem to be valid when properly applied.

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The objective of this cataloging manual is to recommend specific methods for cataloging audiovisual materials for use in individual school media centers. The following types of audiovisual aids are included: educational games, filmstrips, flat graphics, kits, models, motion pictures, realia, records, slides, sound filmstrips, tapes, transparencies, and videotapes. The definition, cataloging, processing, housing, circulation, and care of each is discussed. The two basic principles which were applied to this manual are: (1) instructional materials should be centralized, organized, and administered for the maximum accessibility and use by students and teachers, and (2) the most important consideration in organizing materials is the content not the form.


This paper was submitted to Our Lady of the Lake College as an independent study project in library science. It covers the 1125 LI documents listed in Research in Education from March 1971–April 1972 and focuses attention on the 169 which are not available from the EDRS. It briefly discusses the relative difficulty of obtaining non-EDRS LI documents and aims at reducing the difficulty and increasing the control over the non-EDRS LI document. Four tables present information which can be used to control these documents better. Table 1 lists the documents by ED number and notes those that are available from the National Technical Information Service, those that are listed in Library Literature, ERIC/CLIS lists and those on hand and on order for Our Lady of the Lake College library. The other three tables use complete bibliographic citations to list the entire 169 non-EDRS LI documents and the hardcopy holdings and on order lists of these 169 documents at Our Lady of the Lake College library. This paper will be especially useful to scholarly libraries that require good control of ERIC/CLIS holdings.


The growth of indexing services has emphasized the need for more knowledge of the indexing process itself. This study postulates that: (1) definitions of indexer consistency should consist of the indexer's perception of indexable concepts and his choice of terminology; (2) both parts of the definition can be measured separately; (3) there will be a large difference in the degree of each; and (4) indexer consistency scores should contain both elements. For the study, five indexers read 550 journal articles and labeled the concepts discussed in each article. Findings from this exercise indicate a need for a reexamination of the problem of indexer consistency and its relation to: (1) tests of the effectiveness and efficiency of indexing languages and systems; (2) index tools and methodology; (3) index research, much of which has concentrated on terminological relationships to the neglect of concept-related problems; and (4) indexer consistency as a factor in indexer-user consistency in choice of concepts or terms for the retrieval of indexed information.


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Detailed analyses of the retrieval effectiveness of the Intrex-System configuration have been made in an effort to establish, quantitatively, (1) the value of free-vocabulary and deep subject indexing; (2) the usefulness of various fields of information such as title, abstract, and subject-index phrases as indicators of desired information; and (3) kinds of retrieval strategies that yield most complete and satisfying results. Details of an experiment with the Massachusetts Institute of Technology compatible time-sharing computer, in which a cluster of users simultaneously engaged the machine for information-retrieval purposes yielded valuable information for future designers of time-sharing systems dedicated exclusively to information retrieval, are presented. A detailed analysis of the performance reliability of the Intrex full-text storage and retrieval system has been made.


Institution: Southwestern Library Interstate Cooperative Endeavor (SLICE), Dallas, Tex.; Oklahoma Dept. of Libraries, Oklahoma City. MARC-O.

The purpose of this manual is to provide the detailed information needed by users of the Cataloging Data Search and Print Service for day-to-day operation. It contains: (1) introduction and background information, (2) availability and initiating procedures, (3) instructions for filling out the cataloging data request form, (4) keypunch instructions, (5) sample, (6) processing at SLICE/MARC-O, (7) cost and billing procedures, and (8) additional information. Illustrations of a flowchart, completed cataloging data request form, sample keypunched cards, and printed cataloging data as requested are included.


Institution: Southwestern Library Interstate Cooperative Endeavor (SLICE), Dallas, Tex.; Oklahoma Dept. of Libraries, Oklahoma City. MARC-O.

Following discussions of SLICE, MARC, MARC-O, and SLICE/MARC-O are descriptions of the five services offered by SLICE/MARC-O. These services are: (1) cataloging data search and print, (2) MARC record search and copy, (3) standard SDI current awareness, (4) custom SDI current awareness, and (5) SLICE staff support. As the MARC data base expands to include serials, multimedia and foreign publications, maps, and other English language monographs, the potential for regional coordination of library development becomes greater. Some of the functions or services possible in the SLICE/MARC-O system which have regional implications are: (1) regional union catalog of monographs, (2) routing of interlibrary loan requests, (3) coordinated data base services, (4) coordinated functional services and (5) cooperative resource development.

Smith, Stanley V. and Williams, Joel. Library Statistics of Colleges and Universities: Institutional Data, Part B, Fall 1971; Basic Information on Collections, Staff, and Expenditures. 1971. 190p. ED 065 136. MF $0.65, HC $6.58.

Institution: National Center for Educational Statistics (DHEW/OE), Washington, D.C.

The statistical data shown in this report are for the same 2,514 college and university libraries and five joint libraries which were included in the first report (Part A—ED 016 996) for fall 1971. Information is presented here in four developmental areas: (1) the provision of library privileges beyond an institution's own students, faculty, and staff; (2) a centrally organized collection of nonprint materials; (3)
interlibrary cooperation; and (4) participation in Title III, Library Services and Construction Act (LSCA) programs. Additional information is provided for indexes of operating expenditures, collections, and staff, and for regular library staff by term of appointment, type of position, and sex. The questionnaire form and a list of new institutions are appended.

*Standards for Input Cataloging.* June 1972. 28p. ED 063 965. MF $0.65, HC $3.29.

**Institution:** Ohio College Library Center, Columbus.

The member libraries of the Ohio College Library Center (OCLC) adopted standards for input cataloging in order to improve technical processes while still keeping costs at a minimum. Increased compatibility of records input by different libraries was the final goal. It was decided that Library of Congress practice should be followed whenever possible, and that the *Anglo-American Cataloging Rules* should be used secondarily. Fields for which standards have been established are: bibliographic control numbers, knowledge numbers, main entry, supplied titles, title paragraph, physical description, series statement, bibliographic notes, subject added entries, other added entries, series added entries, and local fields.


**Institution:** Ohio State University, Columbus. Computer and Information Science Research Center.

**Sponsor:** National Science Foundation, Washington, D.C. Office of Science Information Services.

This study investigated some pattern recognition capabilities of devices consisting of arrays of cooperating elements acting in parallel. The problem of recognizing straight lines in general position on the quadratic lattice has been completely solved by applying parallel acting algorithms to a special code for lines on the lattice. The relation of the code to Farey series and continued fractions, and the effects on the code of a line when the line is subjected to affine transformations were studied in detail. Algorithms for reducing straight line codes to a standard form were developed and made the basis of a line recognition process. Cellular automata were designed to carry out line recognition. Other cellular automata were designed to recognize topological connectedness, detect boundaries and approximate curves by straight line segments.
S. R. RANGANATHAN

The Board of Directors of the Resources and Technical Services Division of the American Library Association notes with sadness the death of one who has been a titan of our profession for as long as any can remember, S. R. Ranganathan. His extensive writings on many fields of librarianship but particularly on the philosophy of library science and on the classification of knowledge, as exemplified by his Colon Classification, have had a great impact on generations of librarians in countries all over the world. Those whom he taught, those who heard him lecture, and those who came to know him were struck by the stimulating power of his intellect. Now that his long life of distinguished productivity is over we wish to pay tribute to his many contributions to our profession and to our specialty in that profession, technical services.

29 January 1973

RALPH R. SHAW

The Board of Directors of the Resources and Technical Services Division of the American Library Association and the membership of the Division were deeply saddened by the death, on October 14, 1972, of Ralph Robert Shaw, whose entire career contributed uniquely to the advancement of the technical services of libraries both in the United States and throughout the world. Although these contributions have already been publicly recognized by the American Library Association in its award to him of the Melvil Dewey Medal and of honorary membership in the Association, the Resources and Technical Services Division wishes to pay tribute on this occasion to the values which Ralph Shaw upheld in his work as librarian, library educator, publisher, inventor, and gadfly to the profession.

Ralph Shaw demanded and called forth the best efforts of his colleagues and students in assessing the effectiveness of cataloging procedures, classification efforts, the bibliographic control of materials, and mechanization of technical processing activities. No one could long escape his pointed questions: "What are you doing? How much does it cost? How long does it take? Why do you do it at all?"

The wide-ranging intellect of Ralph Shaw could consider the intricacies of copyright law, translate ponderous bibliographic tomes from the German, construct the Rapid Selector, and provide technical consultant services—all with apparently equal ease and sometimes simultaneously. He had the gift of making the complex and the difficult seem absurdly obvious and easy. Always he prodded and nudged the profession to reach out beyond itself; and, in so doing, Ralph Shaw instilled in librarianship a spirit of adventure which carries his energy, if not his physical presence, into the future of the profession to which he gave so much. For most librarians, the name Shaw will always call to mind Ralph Shaw.

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IN THE MAIL

The Fall 1972 number of LRTS presented several articles on subject analysis in which LC practices were directly involved. I thought it might be of interest to readers to have a few additional facts to complement the picture already presented.

Lois Mai Chan's article on The Period Subdivision in Subject Headings points out a diversity in chronological subdivisions which has presented an ultimate problem in preparing the eighth edition of the Library of Congress Subject Heading List and all 1973 supplements by computer filing. Our solution has been different from that proposed by the author, however. We have added explicit dates to existing words or phrases instead of placing the dates first, since it enables us to interfile the new and old forms in the card catalogs with the least retraining of files and a minimum retyping of authority cards and cards with overprinted subject headings. The varying position of the dates, some at the beginning and some at the end of the subdivisions, presents no problem to the computer, which identifies the subdivisions as chronological in type, searches for the dates, and arranges the subdivisions in chronological order. All new chronological subdivisions adopted after January 1, 1973, should contain explicit dates, whether standing alone or appended to a phrase.

John White's article on On Changing Subject Headings is appreciative of the problems involved in changing terminology brought about by integral shifts in the scope of terms or by altering social attitudes. The Library of Congress is giving serious consideration to adopting the system recommended by Mr. White in which files under obsolete headings are terminated and interrelated with new files under updated terms by means of explanatory guide cards. For the present, however, the manual alteration of main entries and cards overprinted with subject headings remains a deterrent to the updating of subject headings.

Wasyl Veryha's article on Library of Congress Classification and Subject Headings Relating to Slavic and Eastern Europe is not of recent authorship since it was presented as a paper before an open meeting of the Slavic and East European Subsection/ACRL/ALA in Denver on March 27, 1971. At that time I prepared a comment on the paper, pointing out certain changes that had already been made (the Classification of Polish and Finnish art in Table 4, Class N), the inadmissibility of considering the national republics of the Soviet Union independent jurisdictions like the Scandinavian countries, etc. A summary of Mr. Veryha's paper was read at a meeting of the same subsection in Dallas on June 25, 1971, but no mention was made of LC's response. Subsequent to the publication of the Fall 1972 issue of LRTS, the Subject Cataloging Division met with representatives of the Subsection at the time of ALA Midwinter in Washington for a most productive exchange of views. Recognizing the necessity for changes in the handling of Slavic and East European materials, the subsection assumes the role of providing a systematic overview of modifications desired from the point of view of Slavic specialists with a general designation of priorities. The Library of Congress, on the other hand, will give serious consideration to the desired changes, recognizing that this is an area that needs great adjustment in order to reflect the jurisdictional realities of the present day.—Edward J. Blume, Chief, Subject Cataloging Division, Library of Congress.

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The RTSD Cataloging and Classification Section through its chairman Ronald Hagler reports, "The appearance of the first edition of Nonbook Materials: The Organization of Integrated Collections (by Jean Riddle Weirs, Shirley Lewis, and Janet Macdonald; pub. by Canadian Library Association; dist. in U.S. by American Library Association) in January 1973, following the preliminary edition of 1970, calls for formal CCS review inasmuch as the preliminary edition was 'accepted as an interim guide for the cataloging of nonbook materials' by the CCS Executive Committee in June 1970."

A motion passed by the CCS Executive Committee and endorsed by the RTSD Board at ALA Midwinter 1973 requests that the Descriptive Cataloging Committee, that committee's Subcommittee on Rules for Cataloging Machine-Readable Data Files, the Cataloging of Children's Materials Committee, and the Subject Analysis and Organization of Library Materials Committee "examine the publication . . . so that at the Las Vegas Conference, the CCS Executive Committee may judge the extent to which the publication can be recommended on behalf of ALA as a cataloging guide." Other interested ALA units and committees are requested also to review the content of the publication with a view of reinforcing potential ALA endorsement.

Responses to the CCS request were received at Midwinter 1973. The Descriptive Cataloging Committee, which "has adopted a policy of not endorsing any manuals pertaining to descriptive cataloging of library materials," states "Nonbook Materials will serve as a valuable source material for the preparation of the new edition of the Anglo-American Cataloging Rules together with the expected recommendation by the LA committee and other publications." The Cataloging of Children's Materials Committee "unanimously recommend[ed] that Nonbook Materials be endorsed . . . and strongly urge[d] that this action be taken as soon as possible."

The Canadian Library Association, Committee on Revision of the Anglo-American Cataloging Rules passed the following motion at its January 1973 meeting:

The Committee on Revision of the Anglo-American Cataloging Rules of the Technical Services Section of the Canadian Library Association, speaking for CLA, endorses the substance of the first (1973) edition of Non-Book Materials by Weirs, Lewis, and Macdonald, in the areas of descriptive cataloguing covered. This publication has been prepared with the advice and assistance of responsible committees of all four corporate authors of AACR, as well as other committees, and incorporates principles agreed upon for North American usage by the AACR authors at meetings during 1972, these principles also being the agreed-upon basis for a thorough revision of Part III of AACR. It is recognized that the said "authors," of which this committee is one, have reached no agreement yet on the organization of AACR Part III, and that in some matters both of principle and detail, alternatives will have to be offered in the final AACR version. To the best of our ability to recognize them at this date, the above-mentioned publication also incorporates, as alternatives, these differences. We recommend Non-Book Materials, therefore, to all Canadian librarians for the practical handling of this type of material.
Documents of American Theater History

Vols. 1 and 2: Famous American Playhouses

William C. Young

Presenting a unique compilation of primary and secondary sources illuminating the history of American playhouses, from 1716 to 1971. Letters, diaries, journals and newspaper reports of participants and observers show how the American playhouse evolved architecturally from crude colonial structures to elaborate complexes, how theater companies were organized and financed, how audiences responded to the plays presented and how religious and cultural values affected the theatrical enterprise. Arranged chronologically. Lavishly illustrated, completely indexed for use as a reference book. All sources reproduced have complete bibliographic citations.

Volumes 1 and 2, $50. ISBN 0-8389-0136-0 (1973)

Volume 1, 1716-1899
Volume 2, 1900-1971

Volumes 3, 4 and 5, Famous Actors and Actresses of the American Stage are in preparation.

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Comments on the... shelving generally favorable with the following exceptions: unsatisfactory finish, i.e., paint runs and rough spots on the brackets was noted in one reply. Two replies noted late delivery of the shelving and one supple noted an incorrect shipment of panels. Another reply mentioned a tinual breakdown of the hinges on accessory-periodical shelving. Finally, one reply most critical of the shelving reported that the brackets have a tendency to collapse when unhooked and that swaying ranges could be swayed, and sibly toppled, when fully loaded.

From an evaluation of the same shelving in the March, 1971 LIBRARY TECHNOLOGY REPORTS.

Library technology reports

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