CONTENTS

International Library Standards Update: ISO Technical Committee 46. Fred Blum 325
A "Third Force" in Photocopying Dispute? Christopher Wright 341
Sources of Current Acquisitions in the Jewish Field. Meir-Lubetski and Edith Lubetski 343
Can the Problems of Corporate Authorship Be Solved? Ake I. Koel 348
Trends Toward International Standardization of Bibliographic Elements: German Cataloging Reform. Nora Tamberg 355
Curriculum Laboratory Classification and Organization. Pat Sharp and Grace Songolo 372
Centered Headings in the Dewey Decimal Classification. Gordon Stevenson 378
Music Subjects Headings: A Comparison. Wilma Reid Cipolla 387
Resources and Technical Services Division—Highlights of the 1974 Annual Conference. Carol R. Kelm 398
Margaret Mann Citation, 1974: Frederick G. Kilgour 402
Frederick G. Kilgour. David L. Weisbrod 402
RTSD Board, Committee, and Discussion Group Meetings 407
Reviews 410
Index 422
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This article on international standards summarizes the background and organizational structure of the International Organization for Standardization; describes ISO Technical Committee 46, its subcommittees, working groups, and secretariats; mentions some other relevant technical committees and international organizations involved in standardization; describes the means of U.S. participation in ISO through the American National Standards Institute, Inc.; lists international standards published to date and standards in progress; and notes a few sources of retrospective and current information about international library standards.

THE INTERNATIONAL ORGANIZATION FOR STANDARDIZATION (ISO) grew out of the International Federation of National Standardizing Associations, which was founded in 1926 and continued until World War II, and its successor, the United Nations Standards Coordinating Committee (UNSCC). ISO’s first provisional General Assembly was held in London in October 1946. Its headquarters are in Switzerland (1, rue de Varembé, Case postale 56, 1211 Geneva 20).

ISO’s goal is to achieve “world-wide agreement on International Standards with a view to the expansion of trade, the improvement of quality, the increase of productivity and the lowering of prices.” To this end, ISO brings together the interests of producers, users, governments, and the scientific community in the preparation of standards.

* This article is designed as a brief companion piece to the author’s article on United States library standards: “Standards Update: ANSI Committee Z39,” Library Resources & Technical Services 18:25–29 (Winter 1974). The author expresses his appreciation to Marie Hogsett (ANSI headquarters in New York), and to Linda Schneider and Jerrold Orne (Z39 headquarters, School of Library Science, University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill) for kindly reading a draft of this paper and offering suggestions and encouragement.
At the end of 1973, ISO was comprised of the national standards bodies of seventy-three countries, fifty-eight participating members with full voting rights and fifteen correspondent members.

The governing body of ISO is the General Assembly, whose ninth triennial meeting was held in Washington, D.C., 4-14 September 1978. Several special sessions of the General Assembly, open to the public, focused on the impact and utility of international standards in such diverse areas as world trade, safety and health, metrification, and the environment.

The General Assembly chooses a Council, which meets annually. The administrative committees include the Executive Committee, Planning Committee, Standing Committee for the Study of Principles of Standardization, Committee on Certification, Development Committee, Standing Committee for the Study of Scientific and Technical Information, and the International Standards Steering Committee for Consumer Affairs.

The officers for 1974 are Ake T. Vrethem, president; N. Ludwig, vice-president; Léopold Borel, treasurer; and Olle Sturen, secretary-general.

At its headquarters ISO maintains an Information Center, which is devoted to collecting ISO standards and the standards of all its member bodies. According to B. E. Kuiper, formerly director of information and special studies for ISO, the Information Center has designed a system to issue the first computer-produced catalog of ISO standards. Special care has been taken to ensure that the program can also be used for a uniform presentation of the national catalogs, in other words for a "world catalog of standards."


The work of ISO is carried out by some one hundred and fifty technical committees, five hundred subcommittees, and over six hundred working groups. ISO Technical Committee 46 (TC 46) is responsible for "standardization in the field of documentation, libraries and related information handling, including information systems and interchange networks as applied to documentation." The secretariat for TC 46 is the Deutscher Normenausschuss (DNA). The following is a complete list of TC 46 subcommittees (SC) and working groups (WG), with indication of their secretariats:

Technical Committee 46: Documentation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subunit</th>
<th>Secretariat</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>WG 1</td>
<td>BSI</td>
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<tr>
<td>WG 2</td>
<td>DNA</td>
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<tr>
<td>WG 3</td>
<td>DNA</td>
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<tr>
<td>WG 4</td>
<td>DNA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WG 5</td>
<td>Library Resources &amp; Technical Services</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- 326 -
WG 6 Bibliographic Description
WG 7 Presentation of Publications
SC 1 Documentary Reproduction
WG 1 Microfiches
WG 2 Microcopying of Technical Drawings
WG 3 Microcopying Newspapers
WG 4 Quality of Microcopies
WG 5 Vocabulary for Documentary Reproduction
SC 2 Conversion of Written Languages
SC 3 (This number not used)
SC 4 Automation in Documentation (formerly WG 4)
WG 1 Character Sets for Documentation and Bibliographic Use
WG 2 Bibliographic Content Designators for Machine Processing
WG 3 Bibliographic Filing Arrangements
SCC
AFNOR
AFNOR
ANSI
BSI
SABS
AFNOR
AFNOR
ANSI
SIS
ANSI
BSI
NNI

The full names and addresses of the secretariats are:

AFNOR Association francaise de normalisation, Tour Europe, Cedex 7, 92080 Paris-La Defense, France.
BSI British Standards Institution, 2 Park St., London W1A 2BS, England.
DNA Deutscher Normenausschuss, 4-7 Burggrafenstrasse, I Berlin 30, Germany.
SCC Standards Council of Canada, 178 Rexdale Blvd., Rexdale, Ontario, M9W 1R3, Canada.
SIS Sveriges Standardiseringskommission, Box 3295, S-103 66 Stockholm 3, Sweden.

Each of the subcommittees and working groups has its own clearly defined scope or plan of work. For example, two working groups were established at the fourteenth plenary meeting in 1972. WG 6 (on Bibliographical and Similar Tasks) covers alphabetical arrangements, bibliographical references (including those for microfiche headers and patents), documentation cards, and international standard bibliographic descriptions. WG 7 (on Presentation of Publications) covers contents pages in periodicals, layout of periodicals, presentation of translations, short contents lists of periodicals, bibliographic strip, presentation of contributions to periodicals, scientific and technical reports, and technical manuals and handbooks.

Plenary meetings of TC 46 are held periodically. The fourteenth plenary meeting was held in The Hague, 26 September-6 October 1972; the fifteenth in Helsinki, Finland, 20-31 May 1974; and the sixteenth is scheduled for Belgium near the end of 1975. Meetings of the sub-
committees and working groups are held outside, as well as within, the framework of the plenary sessions.

**Other Relevant ISO Technical Committees**

There are a number of other technical committees which have some relevance to library or library-related standards. TC 46 maintains liaison with TC 6 (Paper, Board and Pulp), TC 36 (Cinematography), TC 37 (Terminology: Principles and Coordination), TC 42 (Photography), TC 95 (Office Machines), TC 97 (Computers and Information Processing), and TC 130 (Graphic Technology). A few other technical committees are also of interest, such as TC 10 (Technical Drawings), TC 12 (Quantities, Units, Symbols, Conversion Factors and Conversion Tables), TC 136 (Furniture), TC 145 (Graphic Symbols), and TC 154 (Documents and Data Elements in Administration, Commerce and Industry).

A current listing of the subcommittees, working groups, and secretariats of these technical committees may be found in the current ISO Memento. For a listing of the standards prepared by these technical committees, see the current ISO Catalogue. The 1974 Catalogue, covering through the end of 1973, lists, for example, forty-three standards under TC 36 (Cinematography), seven under TC 37 (Terminology), forty-one under TC 42 (Photography), and twenty-five under TC 97 (Computers and Information Processing).

**Other Relevant International Organizations**

ISO/TC 46 works in close cooperation with other international organizations in the field of documentation, notably the International Federation of Library Associations (IFLA) and the International Federation for Documentation (FID). International cooperation does not stop there, however. Among the other organizations which interact, at least to some extent, with TC 46 or its subunits may be mentioned:

- **CEC**  
  Commission of the European Community
- **CERN**  
  European Organization for Nuclear Research
- **CIB**  
  International Council for Building Research, Studies and Documentation
- **EBU**  
  European Broadcasting Union
- **ECE**  
  United Nations Economic Commission for Europe
- **ETC**  
  European Translations Center
- **EUDISED**  
  European Documentation and Information System in Education
- **EURATOM**  
  European Atomic Energy Community
- **FIEJ**  
  International Federation of Newspaper Publishers
- **IAEA**  
  International Atomic Energy Association
- **IATUL**  
  International Association of Technical University Libraries
- **ICA**  
  International Council of Archives
- **ICOGRADA**  
  International Council of Graphic Design Associations
The American National Standards Institute, Inc. (ANSI), a privately funded, nongovernmental agency, provides the official means of United States participation in ISO and in other regional and international standards organizations. ANSI provides the administrative support and the full share of U.S. dues for American participation in ISO. Roy P. Trowbridge (director—engineering standards, General Motors Technical Center, Warren, Michigan) is president of ANSI; Donald L. Peyton (ANSI New York headquarters) is managing director. G. F. Hohn is director of the permanent European office of ANSI established in 1972 (16, Chemin de la Voie-Creuse, 1211 Geneva, Switzerland).

The ANSI organization chart (Figure 1) depicts the organization of ANSI’s international effort. An International Standards Council (ISC), composed of experts in international standards management drawn from industry and government, is responsible for technical and administrative policies and budget recommendations for all of ANSI’s international standards activities. The U.S. National Committee (USNC) for ISO supervises U.S. participation in ISO and advises the ISC on budget and policy matters concerning ISO. Elizabeth A. Bridgman (ANSI New York headquarters) is secretary of the ISC and of the USNC for ISO.

ISO advisory boards are established by the USNC for ISO to coordinate participation in related ISO projects. (ANSI technical advisory boards [TABs] are usually designated by the USNC to serve as ISO advisory boards.) Each ISO advisory board establishes, in turn, a USA technical advisory group (TAG) for each ISO technical committee under its jurisdiction in which the United States participates. The TAG is responsible for developing the U.S. position on items considered by the respective TC; the TAG also designates U.S. delegates to meetings of the TC and its subcommittees. Daniel W. Smith and Marie E. Hogsett are the standards coordinators for the technical advisory board covering information systems, which has been designated the ISO Advisory Board for TC 37 (Terminology: Principles and Coordination), TC 46 (Docu-

U.S. Participation in ISO via ANSI

The American National Standards Institute, Inc. (ANSI), a privately funded, nongovernmental agency, provides the official means of United States participation in ISO and in other regional and international standards organizations. ANSI provides the administrative support and the full share of U.S. dues for American participation in ISO. Roy P. Trowbridge (director—engineering standards, General Motors Technical Center, Warren, Michigan) is president of ANSI; Donald L. Peyton (ANSI New York headquarters) is managing director. G. F. Hohn is director of the permanent European office of ANSI established in 1972 (16, Chemin de la Voie-Creuse, 1211 Geneva, Switzerland).

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Volume 18, Number 4, Fall 1974 • 329 •
According to the ANSI Progress Report for 1974:

ANSI is now participating in 600 technical committees, subcommittees, and working groups of ISO, compared to 200 in 1967. It holds the secretariat of 16 technical committees, 45 subcommittees, and 76 working groups. More than 50 percent of ANSI's technical operating budget for 1974 is programmed for international activities.

For thirty years ANSI has been a member of the ISO Council, which is responsible for the operation and administration of the organization. The managing director of ANSI is a member of the Council's Executive Committee. ANSI's deputy managing director is a member of ISO's Planning Committee which initiates technical activity. In addition, ANSI is represented on ISO's Certification, Development, and Information Committees.

ANSI Committee Z39 (relates to ISO/TC 46 on Documentation and TC 87 on Terminology), Committee PH5 (relates to ISO/TC 46/SC 1 on Documentary Reproduction and TC 42 on Photography), Committee...
Committee X3 (relates to ISO/TC 97 on Computers and Information Processing), and Committee Z 85, on Standardization of Library Supplies and Equipment, are the chief ANSI committees active in the library and information processing fields:

**Z39:** Standardization in the Field of Library Work, Documentation, and Related Publishing Practices  
*Scope:* To develop standards for concepts, definitions, terminology, letters and signs, practices, and methods in the fields of library work, in the preparation and utilization of documents, and in those aspects of publishing that affect library methods and use.  
*Secretariat:* Council of National Library Associations.

**PH5:** Photographic Reproduction of Documents  
*Scope:* Standards for photographic materials, apparatus, and processes pertaining to production, use, storage, and preservation of document reproductions.  
*Secretariat:* National Microfilm Association.

**X3:** Computers and Information Processing  
*Scope:* Standardization in the areas of computers and information processing systems and peripheral equipment, devices, and media related thereto.  
*Secretariat:* Computer and Business Equipment Manufacturers Association.

**Z85:** Standardization of Library Supplies and Equipment  
*Scope:* Definitions, specifications, dimensions, and methods of testing in the field of library supplies and equipment, exclusive of machine storage and retrieval.  
*Secretariat:* American Library Association.

Several other committees should also be noted, for example, P3 (Pulp, Paper, and Paperboard), PH1 (Photographic Films, Plates, and Papers), PH2 (Photographic Sensitometry), PH3 (Photographic Apparatus), PH4 (Photographic Processing), PH7 (Photographic Audio-Visual Standards), PH22 (Standards for Motion Pictures), S4 (Standardization in Sound Recording), and Y (Drawings, Symbols, and Abbreviations).

In keeping with the general practice of initial acceptance of a standard at the national level before international agreement is sought, drafts by U.S. standards committees frequently become the bases of international standards.

*Published ISO/TC 46 Standards in the Fields of Documentation and Documentary Reproduction*

By the end of 1973, over 2,500 ISO standards had been published in all fields, up from less than 1,600 in 1970 and under 200 in 1960. The number of library standards has grown proportionately.

Until the end of 1971, ISO standards were published as "Recommendations," the adoption of which within any given country rested with the respective national organization. Since the beginning of 1972, however, ISO issues "International Standards." Within the next few
years, most Recommendations will be revised and transformed into International Standards.

Standards go through several stages on the way to becoming International Standards. First “Draft Proposals” are circulated in the relevant technical committee. After agreement is reached in the technical committee, the document may be registered as a “Draft International Standard” (DIS) by the Central Secretariat and circulated for voting by all member bodies. Only when three-fourths of the votes cast are recorded in favor of the DIS is it sent to ISO Council for final review.

A complete list of ISO standards in the fields of documentation and documentary reproduction is given below. Recommendations are identified by an “R” preceding the number. Some relationships between ANSI (Z39, PH1, PH5) and ISO standards are shown by references enclosed in parentheses. The ISO member bodies act as sales agents within their own countries. Thus, the standards listed below may be ordered from ANSI at the prices quoted in the current ANSI Catalog.

ISO/R 18-1955 Short Contents List of Periodicals or Other Documents. 1p.

• 332 • Library Resources & Technical Services
ISO/R 832-1968 Abbreviations of Typical Words in Bibliographical References. 43p.
ISO/R 1116-1969 35mm and 16mm Microfilms, Spools and Reels. 9p.
ISO 2707-1973 Transparent A6 Size Microfiche of Uniform Division—Image Arrangements No. 1 and No. 2. 3p.

ISO/TC 46 Standards in Progress

The following list of standards in progress is limited to new standards. As a matter of course, many of the published standards listed in the preceding section are undergoing review or revision; they are not included here.

Layout of Documents
Contents pages in periodicals and collected works.
Patents—Bibliographic references, essential and complementary elements.
Scientific and technical reports; layout and presentation.
Technical manuals and handbooks, contents.

Standard Numbers and Codes
Codes for the representation of names of countries.
Guidelines for the implementation of ISBN.
International Standard Record Number (ISRN).
International Standard Serial Number (ISSN).

Translation, Transliteration, and Character Sets
Presentation of translations.
Romanization of Japanese.
Standard African character set.
Standard character set for Cyrillic characters other than GOST.

Volume 18, Number 4, Fall 1974
Standard character set for Greek alphabet.
Standard character set for mathematical symbols including logic symbols.
Standard character set for Roman complete alphabet including diacritics.
Standard control set.
Transliteration of the alphabets of non-Slavic languages using Cyrillic characters.
Transliteration of Yiddish.

Reprography and the Bibliographic Control of Microforms
Bibliographic entries for microfiche headers (and roll microfilm).
Dimensions and tolerances of microfiche A6.
Filing boxes for processed roll microfilms.
Method for determining and checking the quality of microcopies.
Method for determining the resolution obtained in microcopying.
Microcopying of technical drawings.
Physical characteristics of raw film determined for microfiche A6.
Targets for newspaper microfilms.
Technical requirements for microfilming newspapers.
Vocabulary for documentary reproduction.

Miscellaneous

Bibliographic filing arrangements.
Content designators for machine processing.
Guidelines for the establishment and development of monolingual thesauri.
Proof corrections.
Vocabulary of documentation.

Sources of Information about ISO Standards

Current sources of information are particularly important in an area which changes as quickly as that of standards. The following ISO publications, available from ANSI, are useful:

ISO Bulletin. (monthly, $6.00 per year) Contains standardization news, calendar of ISO meetings, and revisions to the ISO Memento.
ISO Catalogue. (annual with supplements, $15.75) Contains both numerical and subject listings of ISO standards.
ISO Memento. (annual, $12.60) Contains general information on ISO, including an address list of the ISO member bodies, administration of ISO, and a list of ISO technical committees, subcommittees, and working groups.
ISO Participation. (three times per year, $2.00) Lists participating and observer members for each ISO technical committee.
Status Report on ISO Draft International Standards. (quarterly, $8.00) Provides information on the progress of draft international standards through the various stages of ISO balloting.

These ISO documents are available at an annual subscription price of $38.00 for ANSI members or $42.00 for nonmembers if ordered in a group.

The ISO Annual Review may be consulted for annual summaries. For those interested in details of the work of specific ISO technical com-
mittees or their subunits, the annual reports are invaluable. The annual reports of ISO/TC 46 are available from its secretariat, the Deutscher Normenausschuss.

The most useful retrospective surveys are:


An important comparative study of national and international standards, rules, and regulations, covering through the end of January 1970. The lists of standards and member organizations in the annexes and the 275 references are now somewhat out of date. Contents: Part I: (1) Introduction; (2) Historical background and practice; (3) International standardization and its relation to national standardization; (4) Development of standardization according to fields of library and documentation techniques; (5) The role of international organizations in promoting the standardization of library and documentation techniques; (6) Summary and proposals. Part II: The present situation of standardization of library and documentation techniques in various countries.


This well-documented, topically arranged review of the historical background and current state of standardization focuses on IFLA and FID, rather than ISO. It covers through the end of 1971.


The author has played a unique role in the development of national and international library standards as chairman of ANSI Committee Z39 and provides an overview in historical context.

REFERENCES

The Longer Work Day and the Shorter Work Week: An OSUL Experiment

An experiment of scheduling the four-day (or four-and-one-half-day) work week in technical services at the Ohio State University libraries is described. The policy decisions and procedures implemented for the entire library system following the success of the experiment and the adoption of the new schedule are outlined.

LONG HOURS OF OPENING AND SERVICE for all phases of the public’s needs and various activities have been the accepted policies of many library administrators, and all types of working schedules and conditions for the library staff are involved. This is certainly true of the “public service” staff’s involvement, but, at the present time, not necessarily true in many “technical service” areas, where the traditional office schedule of five days a week, eight hours per day, has prevailed. Perhaps this has been because of the lack of an incentive to break the pattern of office hours, or it may have been to compensate for the scheduling that has appeared to be an advantage in public service areas.

A need for library staff in technical service areas to use the computer facilities beyond 5:00 p.m. was incentive enough for the Ohio State University libraries (OSUL) to experiment with work schedules and to consider seriously the four-day work week.1 After an investigation of the experiments in some offices and industries, a plan was developed and implemented at OSUL for the change from a five-day work week to a four-day work week for a trial period. The purpose was to increase the number of hours the staff would be available and thus to utilize more of the time accessible on the Ohio College Library Center (OCLC) terminals.

OSUL is participating in the shared-cataloging aspects of the on-line, automated OCLC program, and four cathode ray tube terminals have been installed in accordance with the OCLC formula and assessment. Before the program was operational, a decision was made to install at an

Manuscript received August 1973; accepted for publication January 1974.

336 Library Resources & Technical Services
additional charge a fifth terminal as the expected quantity of input, the procedures, and physical arrangements within the technical services areas could not be reorganized satisfactorily to be handled by four terminals.

With the OCLC terminals and program time available from 7:00 a.m. to 7:00 p.m., Monday through Friday, it was determined that the staff had more work than could be input during the 8:00 a.m. to 5:00 p.m. period, and requests were made for more time on the terminals, to be used to search for catalog copy as well as to input original cataloging copy. Strict schedules were established and maintained on each terminal to utilize the hours the divisions and/or departments were open until 5:00 p.m.

Before the additional financial outlay for a sixth terminal (approximately $2,980 per year for each terminal over four) was approved, the university libraries' administration suggested to division and department heads the possibility of experimenting with a more flexible schedule. Two units in technical services were asked for volunteers for the four-day work week in order to remain open after 5:00 p.m. In April 1972 the experiment began in the Catalog Department and the Bibliographic Records Division, both of which are housed on the first floor of the main library, flanking the Circulation Department. The location is significant in that there was no security problem for the technical services staff working after 5:00 p.m. because the staff in the Circulation Department is scheduled until midnight Monday through Thursday, and until 10:00 p.m. on Friday.

During the first period of the experiment, six staff members including faculty members and clerical assistants in the Catalog Department elected to try the new schedule. In six months (by fall quarter 1972) three of the staff had reverted back to a five-day work week, and no longer was there a combination of faculty members and clerical staff. At the same time, two sections of the Bibliographic Records Division participated and seven staff members (all library assistants) elected to work the new schedule. By September three staff members in this area were continuing the four-day work week. The option of selection of the work schedule has continued to be on an individual basis since September 1972, and those continuing on the four-day work week have been enthusiastic about it.

The experimental scheduling and staffing for the forty-hour, four-day work week in the Bibliographic Records Division worked well and achieved its goal: more input into OCLC terminals. The time used on the terminals after 5:00 p.m. has been useful in eliminating the backlog of original cataloging input and input to the Library Circulation System. Use of the terminal in the Catalog Department was less successful during the experiment; however, it has been used more after 5:00 p.m. by the Bibliographic Records Division than by the Catalog Department staff. The location of the terminals continues to be studied, but the problem should be eliminated as the technical services automation plans are
implemented and the planned expansion and remodeling program for the main library gets under way.

Consideration was given to the literature relating to the four-day work week before a final decision was made. Of special interest was Wheeler's study, concerned with attitudes regarding the effects of the four-day work week in participating companies.2 The items on which all concerned agreed in Wheeler's study and which were listed as advantages by OSUL faculty and staff were:

1. Employees will have more leisure time.
2. Recruiting will be easier.
3. Absenteeism will be reduced.
4. Employees will have more time for personal interests including time for classes and study.
5. Employee morale will be improved.
6. Employees will be willing to work a longer day for an extra day off.
7. Employees will be willing to work more effectively for an extra day off.
8. Less time and money will be spent on commuting to and from work.

As indicated by the Wheeler study, disadvantages were to be expected, and they became evident early in the OSUL experiment. The first relates to legal holidays. During the experiment it became necessary to modify the original policy concerning legal holidays (no time off if the holiday fell on the day a staff member was not scheduled to work), and return to the former library policy that the week in which the holiday occurs is a thirty-two-hour work week for all staff, thus equalizing hours and eliminating conflicts.

Other disadvantages appear to be:

1. The management job of scheduling becomes more difficult. Supervision of staff becomes more complex.
2. Two persons or more should be scheduled in a department at all times for security reasons if the area is not a public service one.
3. Working a longer day is more tiring to the employee.
4. Staff members should be adequately trained before the option of the four-day work week is granted. This may involve additional scheduling as staff morale may be affected as additional responsibility for an area is added to positions.
5. The productivity in an area may appear to increase, but it is questionable if such increased productivity can be sustained over a year's time.

After the experiment the flexible work schedule including the forty-hour, four-day work week was approved by the university libraries' administration, and the option is open now for any department, division, section, or unit in the library system to institute and implement the schedule.
The following guidelines and procedures were adopted by OSUL effective 5 March 1973 and incorporated into the Policy and Procedures Manual:

1. **Sick leave.** One hundred twenty hours per year are allowed. All computations and reporting to be reported in hours. (If staff member is on ten-hour work day, record should be submitted as ten hours.)

2. **Vacation leave.** Faculty members are allowed 192 hours per year if on twelve-month contract (160 hours if on nine-month contract). Nonacademic members are allowed 80-160 hours annual leave per year depending on length of service. Maximum annual leave is 24 working days if working eight-hour day, or 19.2 working days if working ten-hour day.

3. **Legal holidays.** Faculty members are entitled to legal holidays observed by the university. Nonacademic staff are entitled to all legal holidays. The week in which the legal holiday falls will be a thirty-two-hour work week for library faculty and nonacademic staff working a forty-hour schedule (including those on the four-day or five-day work week). Adjustments for leave should be made within thirty days after the holiday and with the approval of the supervisor if the staff member has been requested to work on the holiday by the libraries' administration.

4. **Lunch and breaks.** Staff members are entitled to a regular lunch period of one hour, or if schedule permits a supervisor may approve less. One fifteen-minute rest break is allowed for each four hours of work, but no rest break is allowed for a part of four hours.

5. **Length of work day.** The maximum number of working hours per work day is ten hours (excluding lunch hour). If the staff member is on a contract requiring overtime pay for work over eight hours per day, the option of a four-day work week with ten hours daily can not be allowed.

6. **Length of work week.** University policy does not allow that nonacademic personnel may work more than forty hours per week.

7. **Reporting.** Supervisors are to notify OSUL Personnel Office in writing of those persons working more than eight hours per day and of the adjusted work week.

OSUL department and division heads consider the following points in the decision to permit faculty and staff to elect the optional work schedule:

1. Security of the persons and the department after 5:00 p.m. must be considered. It is recommended that two persons be on duty in the area at all times with one person being given the responsibility for the area after 5:00 p.m.

2. The final decision regarding the scheduling of faculty and staff is to be made by the department or division head.
3. New members of the division or department should be adequately trained before approval is given to work after 5:00 p.m. or special permission is granted unless the immediate supervisor is on duty also. Consideration should be given to the effective performance on the job.

Hedges asserts that as the four-day work week spreads, the wider effects will become evident in the areas of total supply of and demand for labor on the part-time labor market, and on workers with family responsibilities, especially women. Thus, there continues to be the possibility of more experienced staff being available to libraries and other public service type facilities.

The experiment has been concluded and from it the procedures have been established and incorporated into The Ohio State University Libraries Policy and Procedures Manual. It is now an accepted policy that schedules and hours of work in technical services areas as well as in public services areas will continue to be flexible at OSUL. All areas of technical services immediately selected the option of the more flexible work schedules. One immediate result has been better utilization of OCLC terminal time at no additional rental costs by those areas using the OCLC terminals. In the future a concerted effort will be made to maintain flexible schedules and, as new staff is hired, the option of a four-day work week will be available.

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1. The term “four-day work week” is used throughout the article; it should be understood as including the option of a four-and-one-half-day work week as well.


A "Third Force" in Photocopying Dispute?

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ON THE FINAL DAY of the New York Conference ALA president Jean Lowrie wrote Barbara Ringer, the Register of Copyrights, asking her to take what could be a decisive step toward ending the protracted battle over library photocopying. On the instructions of the ALA Council, Lowrie wrote, she was asking the Register "to use your good offices to promote conferences and assume other activities which we trust will be conducive to some resolution of our problems with copyright."

In other words, Ringer was being asked to arrange cease-fire talks under the auspices of the Copyright Office.

The Council resolution, coming during a conference that included among the speakers Ringer, Alan Latman (lawyer for the Williams & Wilkins Company), and ALA counsel William North, urged the Register of Copyrights to set up meetings between representatives of the library and publishing world "to resolve so far as possible the different interests in copyright legislation."

The idea of asking the Copyright Office to act as unofficial arbiter in the photocopy dispute has been suggested before. But each time one side has feared that the other side held the balance of influence within the office and the idea was shot down. Since taking office last November Ringer has repeatedly urged publishers and librarians to sit down together and begin working on solutions to the photocopying dilemma.

At a Monday morning legislative information meeting for ALA members in New York, Ringer again suggested it was time for some "third force" to bring the parties together and approach the problem from a "long-range, relaxed point of view." She suggested the meeting might be arranged by the National Commission on Libraries and Information Science. At a later session with the Federal Library Committee, answering a question from ALA Copyright Subcommittee chairman Edmon Low, she said she would be willing to try herself "to bring the parties together at a table for discussion purposes."

While never indicating her exact feelings about library photocopying, she told librarians gathered at the Americana Hotel that she understood their concern over anti-photocopying provisions. "I understand it and I sympathize," she said.
The ALA request comes at a moment when copyright revision seems inextricably mired in the courts and Congress. An omnibus copyright revision bill (S. 1361) passed the Senate on 9 September 1974 by a vote of seventy to one. However, even the chief counsel for the Senate Subcommittee on Patents, Trademarks and Copyrights says the measure has "absolutely no chance" of getting through Congress this year because of the amount of time needed for hearings before the House Judiciary Committee.

Meanwhile, judicial interpretations of the sixty-five-year-old copyright law now on the books have been called into question by the Supreme Court's acceptance of the Williams & Wilkins case. Last November the U.S. Court of Claims ruled that the National Library of Medicine had not infringed the copyright of the Baltimore publisher of medical journals through its interlibrary loan photocopying, but in May the high court accepted the case for its fall term. No one is willing to guess what the court will say, or what effect it will have on legislation.

Delay on the Senate bill is probably in the interest of libraries. The bill as passed by the Senate would prohibit "the systematic reproduction or distribution of single or multiple copies or phonorecords" of copyrighted material. And the question arises immediately, "what is systematic copying?" The committee itself was at pains to define systematic. After describing several situations felt to be examples of systematic and nonsystematic copying the committee said in its report that a precise definition was impossible and "the committee therefore recommends that representatives of authors, book and periodical publishers and other owners of copyrighted material meet with the library community to formulate photocopying guidelines to assist library patrons and employees."

The Senate bill calls for the establishment of a National Commission on New Technological Uses of Copyrighted Works. "It is the desire of the committee," says the report, "that the Commission give priority to those aspects of the library-copyright interface which require further study and clarification."

But with this measure unlikely to emerge from Congress this year, and more legal and legislative battles seen for next year, the ALA suggestion that the Copyright Office begin the groundwork for an understanding between librarians and publishers seems to follow common sense and the spirit of the Senate report.
The general and specialized sources—publishers' catalogs, trade magazines and bibliographies, comprehensive and special bibliographies, book reviews, and government publication indexes—available to locate materials in the Jewish field are identified and discussed.

Library materials in the Jewish field have achieved greater prominence in recent years. The concern with ethnic groups and the growth of interest in the Jewish heritage have resulted in a proliferation of material. Judaica and Hebraica are published in almost every branch of the humanities, on all levels, and in many countries of the world. It is possible to locate a number of works in this area through general acquisitions tools, but better results will be obtained through the use of the specialized and more comprehensive sources listed here.

Publishers' Catalogs

The publisher's catalog is a basic source for acquisitions in the Jewish field. In the United States many publishers feature Judaica or Hebraica, or both. Bloch, Feldheim, Behrman House, Jonathan David, and the Jewish Publication Society are only a few of the exclusively American Jewish publishers. Most of these publishers are bookdealers as well, the most noteworthy being Bloch, who has an extensive collection of English, Hebrew, and Yiddish books published in the United States and abroad. Interest in Judaica is not limited to specialty publishers: many
general trade publishers and university presses have responded to the demand by increasing publication in this field.

European Jewish publishing is limited but not insignificant, for example, Soncino and Vallentine Mitchell in England, and E. J. Brill in The Netherlands. European publications generally are listed with American works and will be available at major American Jewish bookstores.

Israel is a very active publishing center, ranking "second in the world for the number of titles published in proportion to the population."

The names and addresses of most Israeli publishers are listed in issues of ha-Sefer be-Yisrael, the journal of the Book Publishers' Association of Israel. A useful pamphlet, which supplements this publication, is *Publishers and Printers of Israel: A Select List.* Although less inclusive, this English-language biennial describes the type of material produced by the leading commercial and institutional publishers.

**Trade Magazines and Bibliographies**

A welcome addition to the acquisition scene is *Judaica Book News,* a semiannual which provides a centralized listing of new and forthcoming English-language books in the Jewish field with separate alphabetical sections for hardcovers, paperbacks, and juveniles. The advertising, with excerpts from reviews, is plentiful, and the trade articles are informative.

Similar in type, the *Religious Book Review,* an annotated bimonthly arranged by subject, lists primarily books about Christianity but includes publications about Jews and Judaism.

*Judaica Book News* and *Religious Book Review* are more comprehensive but less current than such general trade magazines and bibliographies as *Publishers' Weekly,* *American Book Publishing Record,* *Cumulative Book Index,* or *Library Journal,* each of which is a useful source for a portion of current Judaica. The material is sometimes elusive in these trade sources, and the search should extend further than Dewey class 296 or topics "Jews" and "Judaism" because books of Jewish interest will be found under many general fields, such as Bible, history, and philosophy, as well as under specific subject headings, such as Israel, Zionism, and Hasidism.

*Ha-Sefer be-Yisrael,* the Israeli book trade journal, lists a small percentage of Israeli publishing, and appears irregularly, although it is supposed to be a monthly. Short descriptions are appended to the listings which are arranged topically. An English counterpart to this journal is the quarterly, *Israel Book World.* Arranged by publisher, the quarterly's annotated listing of new and forthcoming Israeli books is relatively short; however its reports of publishing developments and activities are salient.

The *General Book Catalog,* the Israeli one-volume version of *Books in Print,* *Subject Guide to Books in Print,* and *Publishers' Trade List Annual,* appeared in 1973 in a new format. This computer-produced volume contains an author, title, subject, and publisher listing of almost all
Israeli publications in Hebrew. An updated, improved edition, which will include all languages, is promised annually.8

Comprehensive Bibliographies

A most noteworthy tool for the extensive Jewish library is Kirjath Sepher, bibliographical quarterly of the Jewish National and University Library in Jerusalem.9 Arranged by subject, it lists Israeli publications in all fields, and Hebraica and Judaica of other countries. While not very current, the quarterly is extremely important because of its almost universal coverage. A reproduction of the section of Kirjath Sepher containing recent Israeli publications only is available as A List of Books and Serials Published in Israel.10

While use of Kirjath Sepher presupposes a knowledge of Hebrew, the Jewish Book Annual is of considerable value for the non-specialist.11 This serial offers yearly bibliographies of English, Hebrew, and Yiddish books; all entries are annotated, and the imprint of non-English-language material is translated. Each annual also contains various national literary surveys and subject bibliographies in the Jewish field. This tool can be particularly useful as a check on acquisitions of the previous year.

Special Bibliographies

Certain special bibliographies are of interest to the acquisitions librarian. The monthly Zionist Literature lists all publications related to Zionism, in all languages, from all countries of the world.12 The particular significance of this bulletin is that it includes not only books and periodicals but also pamphlets, reports, and mimeographed materials. Another publication of interest is the Quarterly Checklist of Biblical Studies, an international survey of new and recent books in the biblical field.13

Publication lists of organizations also provide subject information. For example, the Board of Jewish Education, the American Jewish Committee, and the Congress of Jewish Culture issue material on education, current affairs and Yiddish, respectively. A roster of national Jewish organizations in America and their publications is included in the American Jewish Year Book.14

Book Reviews

Almost all newspapers and periodicals in the Jewish field contain book sections which include announcements and reviews. A current centralized reviewing source is the Hebrew biweekly Al'Sefarim Chadashim: Lehet Divrei Bikoret (“On New Books: A Collection of Criticism”), which reproduces reviews of books appearing in Israeli newspapers and periodicals.15 For the English-speaking world there is the Hebrew Book Review, a semiannual which offers critiques of selected, recent Israeli literary publications in English.16

Volume 18, Number 4, Fall 1974
The most extensive tool is Circle in Jewish Bookland, a monthly which attempts to review all major Judaica and a selected number of Hebrew and Yiddish books. However, a gap of up to a year usually exists between publication of a book and the appearance of a review.

Periodicals

A comprehensive listing of periodicals of Jewish interest is found in Frankel’s The Jewish Press of the World, which is arranged by country and then by frequency. In some cases, remarks that indicate contents are included. If there is interest in Israeli periodicals and the Hebrew language is a barrier, then the Israeli Periodicals and Serials in English and Other European Languages, classified by subject, is an excellent solution. An annotated, but limited, list of English, Hebrew, and Yiddish periodicals published in the United States will be found in The Jewish Press: A Selected Listing.

The journals covered by the Index to Jewish Periodicals assume importance because of easy access to their contents provided through the Index; the periodicals indexed by this reference tool might serve as a subscription guide.

Government Publications

The Israel Government Printing Office issues quarterly, semiannual, and annual cumulated listings of its publications. While the majority of the documents are in Hebrew, a special section of non-Hebrew publications is included as well. A list of bookdealers handling the government documents is appended.

Unfortunately, there is no single source that incorporates all types of current material in the Jewish field. However, there are ample tools from which to choose. Thus it remains the challenge of the librarian to gather the various sources and make the most effective use of them.

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• 346 • Library Resources & Technical Services
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Volume 18, Number 4, Fall 1974 • 347 •
Can the Problems of Corporate Authorship Be Solved?*

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Since the Paris conference of 1961 corporate authorship has become rapidly an internationally recognized element in bibliographic control. There are difficulties in applying this concept to cataloging because there is no generally agreed upon theoretical basis for this type of authorship. An analysis of relevant concepts suggests that corporate authorship is basically a form of personal authorship and that the use of corporate name in lieu of personal name(s) is a problem of choice of name rather than one of determining type of authorship.

MODERN BIBLIOGRAPHIC CONTROL is centered around the concept of authorship. Personal authorship has long been recognized as a legitimate part of the bibliographic description of a work; corporate authorship is of a more recent date, having been in use mainly in English-speaking countries for slightly more than one hundred and thirty years.

Only since the Paris conference of 1961 has corporate authorship gained international acceptance. It is of some interest to note that although corporate authorship has a rapidly growing and important role in modern cataloging codes, discussions about it, on a theoretical level, have been largely limited to one point only: whether or not corporate bodies should be included in the concept of authorship. This point has been debated for years by the defenders and opponents of the "Prus-
sian Instructions,” a discussion that had become rather stagnant before the Paris conference and has almost ceased since.

Another point of interest is the curious fact that codes that “recognize” corporate authorship, such as the Anglo-American Cataloging Rules (AACR), have not felt the need to justify or explain its use nor do they give guidance for solving special problems connected with this type of authorship. Thus the cataloger is left to rely on his own resources and has to make up, from a body of confusing and sometimes contradictory rules, his own explanations and interpretations as he goes along.

The concept of corporate authorship is an important one and a better understanding of its role in bibliographic control is mandatory for both catalogers and catalog users. This understanding seems particularly important now because the most widely used code, the AACR, will be issued in a new edition during the next few years with, it is hoped, an improved text including better guidance in the application of the concept of corporate authorship.

An attempt is made here to analyze some of the concepts that seem relevant with the hope that this will encourage further discussion.

Development of the Concept of Corporate Authorship

As already mentioned, the concept of corporate authorship is a relatively recent phenomenon in the history of cataloging. The first major code to prescribe corporate author entries was published in 1841, as a part of the Catalogue of Printed Books in the British Museum. This code lists ninety-one cataloging rules under the heading “Rules for the Compilation of the Catalogue,” the use of which was sanctioned by the Trustees of the British Museum on 13 July 1839. Several of the rules deal with corporate authorship, the most important being

IX. Any act, resolution, or other document purporting to be agreed upon, authorized, or issued by assemblies, boards, or corporate bodies, (with the exception of academies, universities, learned societies, and religious orders, respecting which special rules are to be followed,) to be entered in distinct alphabetical series, under the name of the country or place from which they derive their denomination, or, for want of such denomination, under the name of the place whence their acts are issued.

These rules have had a considerable influence on the development of cataloging codes, particularly in English-speaking countries.

In Central Europe a different line of development took place. In 1886 Karl Dziatzko compiled Instruction für die Ordnung der Titel in alphabetischen Zettelkatalog der Königlichen und Universitäts-Bibliothek zu Breslau, which in turn became the basis for the “Prussian Instructions,” first issued in 1899. These German codes did not recognize corporate authorship and so created a division in the profession which lasted until 1961 when the Paris conference managed to bridge this chasm.

Volume 18, Number 4, Fall 1974 • 349 •
The recommendations of the Paris conference read as follows:

9. Entry under Corporate Bodies

9.1 The main entry for a work should be made under the name of a corporate body (i.e. any institution, organized body or assembly of persons known by a corporate or collective name)

9.11 when the work is by its nature necessarily the expression of the collective thought or activity of the corporate body,* even if signed by a person in the capacity of an officer or servant of the corporate body, or

9.12 when the wording of the title or title-page, taken in conjunction with the nature of the work, clearly implies that the corporate body is collectively responsible for the content of the work.**

* e.g. official reports, rules and regulations, manifestoes, programmes and records of the results of collective work.

** e.g. serials whose titles consist of a generic term (Bulletin, Transactions, etc.) preceded or followed by the name of the corporate body, and which include some account of the activities of the body.

These recommendations fail to clarify what exactly is meant by corporate authorship. It seems obvious that “collective activity” lends itself to a number of interpretations. The British Museum’s “agreed upon, authorized, or issued” works have become publications “necessarily the expression of the collective thought or activity” whose title page “clearly implies that the corporate body is collectively responsible for the content” in the Paris recommendations.

Both definitions are in a way operational as they define corporate authorship not in terms of what act or condition it is, but rather in terms of the form or content of its result, i.e., the work. Paris recommendation 9.12 specifies “collective responsibility for the content” as an additional criterion. How can a corporate body be collectively responsible for the content of a work? By agreeing to it? By financing it? Or is it simply British Museum’s “agreed upon, authorized, or issued” all over again?

Thus even after the Paris conference, librarians were left without a generally accepted theoretical basis for corporate authorship, a fact that is reflected in the wide differences in treatment accorded to corporate bodies in the numerous new codes, all purporting to follow the Paris recommendations.

No wonder that the authors of the annotated edition arrived at the conclusion that sections 9.11 and 9.12 “have not succeeded in solving it satisfactorily.” The importance of this failure has been increasingly recognized by the profession. Eva Verona is currently working on the problems of corporate authorship under the auspices of the International Federation of Library Associations, and the authors of AACR have discussed it, to name two of the recent efforts in this field.
Corporate Authors in AACR

AACR defines authorship:

By "author" is meant the person or corporate body chiefly responsible for the creation of the intellectual or artistic content of a work. Thus composers, artists, photographers, etc., are the "authors" of the works they create; chess-players are the "authors" of their recorded games; etc. The term "author" also embraces an editor or compiler who has primary responsibility for the content of a work, e.g. the compiler of a bibliography.

How is a corporate body defined in AACR? "... any organization or group of persons that is identified by a name and that acts or may act as an entity." It is of interest to note that AACR does not require legal incorporation for qualifying as a "corporate body"—the mere existence of a common name is considered sufficient. Such "non-incorporated corporate bodies" are simply groups of persons identified by a name.

The conclusions that can be drawn from these two definitions are:
1. Authorship is an act of creativity of a certain kind.
2. Persons or corporate bodies may be authors.
3. All corporate bodies are groups of persons, identified by a name.

These conclusions raise immediately a number of questions. Why does the AACR definition state "the person or corporate body"? Why not "the person or persons"? In current cataloging practice, at least according to AACR, a work may have one or more than one author. The main difference between persons and corporate bodies as authors is that the former are entered under their own names (or their substitutes) and the latter under the common name applicable to the group of authors as a whole, i.e., under the corporate name. The relationship between the authors and the work is identical in both cases.

Or, in other words, corporate authorship is a form of personal authorship rather than a different or special type of authorship. It follows that the use of corporate name in lieu of personal name (s) is a problem of choice of name rather than that of determining the type of authorship. This interpretation leads to a more consistent and a less complicated logical structure for explaining the role of authorship in the AACR. If we accept this view, it follows that corporate name indicating authorship can only be used in connection with "official" publications of a body. Such publications fall into two groups:

1. descriptive publications
   1.0 of goals, purpose, etc.: programs, manifestoes, declarations
   1.1 of activities: proceedings, acts, minutes
   1.2 of resources: lists of membership, balance sheets, inventories, catalogs

2. regulatory publications
   2.0 of organizational structure: constitutions, bylaws
   2.1 of activities: manuals, procedures, memoranda
   2.2 of quality: standards, job descriptions

Volume 18, Number 4, Fall 1974
Only publications falling into one of the categories listed above will be entered under the corporate body. As a result, the following types of publications will not be considered as examples of corporate authorship: journals, magazines, newspapers, research reports (not dealing with the organization itself) prepared by the members of the corporate body, and formal histories.

**Use of Corporate Heading in AACR**

AACR rule 17, although primarily designed to guide catalogers in the choice of main entry when both corporate and personal names appear on the title page, remains the main source elucidating the nature of corporate authorship. The general impression from reading this rule is that official documents of an organization should be entered under the name of the organization and that the content of the work in combination with the official status or position of the author(s) in the organization determines the entry. This impression is strengthened by the provisions of rules 17A and 18. Furthermore, corporate entry is prescribed either for individuals or for groups of individuals, depending on circumstances. Thus

- United States. Dept. of Agriculture.

stands in many cases for the Secretary of Agriculture, but may also designate the department as a whole, especially when used in a hierarchy of names, for instance:


Similarly, entries such as

- Mumford, Lawrence Quincy, 1903–
- Cleveland Public Library.

may all stand for one and the same person, in different roles and at different times in his life. Note that AACR defines a corporate body as a group of persons, but the use of corporate names in cataloging is not limited to groups of persons but may also be used for individuals. This ambiguity is nowhere explained in the AACR.

A pattern seems to emerge here: when a person (or group of persons) acts in an official capacity, entry is under corresponding corporate name; when a person acts on his own and not ex officio, the entry is under his personal name or its substitute.

We are here dealing with a concept similar to the legal term “character” or “role” in the juridical sense. A person may be parent, employee, party to contract, etc., all at the same time or at different times in his life, each role being legally recognized as being different, having rights and obligations of its own. A person may be many different personae much in the same way as an actor who plays different roles. AACR rule 17 deals exactly with this problem as it attempts to tell the cataloger how
to identify persons in official roles requiring corporate rather than personal name entries.

Curiously, AACR does not accord corporate bodies the roles of editor or compiler, an inconsistency nowhere explained in the code. Another peculiar rule is the qualification under rule 17 that prescribes corporate name entry for certain types of works having more than three authors. Why this contradiction with rule 3B that prescribes title entry of such works? Is it a hangover from the old rule 71 of the A.L.A. Cataloging Rules for Author and Title Entries? Of course, there will always be borderline cases when the role of a person may be difficult to determine. Is a chemist, who has made a discovery on company time as an employee and is reporting it in print, acting ex officio or as an individual? It must depend on the purpose, form, and content of the work. If it is in the form of an administrative document describing the activities of the employee to his supervisor, the entry should be under the corresponding corporate name. If it is an article in a journal written for the purpose of informing professional colleagues of the discovery, the work has the character of a private communication and should be entered under the author's personal name.

**Conclusion and Recommendations**

Applying Occam's Razor to AACR, we could eliminate corporate bodies from the definition of authorship altogether and reword the definition to read:

Author is the person or group of persons chiefly responsible for the creation of the intellectual or artistic content of a work.

Or, perhaps, even better:

Author is the person or group of persons who has created the intellectual or artistic content of a work.

Some parts of the rules of entry, mostly in the prefatory sections of AACR, would have to be rewritten to explain under what circumstances a person or a group of persons is entered under (1) his own name or its equivalent, or (2) corporate name. Provision should also be made for corporate bodies as editors or compilers of their official publications.

Thus the changes needed in AACR would be minor ones only. This seems a small price to pay for an improvement in the inner logic of this code, especially desirable as it is rapidly becoming international in application, spreading to countries not familiar with the corporate entry traditions of the United States or Great Britain.

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NEW STANDARDS AVAILABLE


The British Standards Institution (BSI) has published a standard which gives comprehensive recommendations for protecting documents and seals against many forms of deterioration. The standard, BS 4971 Recommendations for Repair and Allied Processes for the Conservation of Documents, Part 1: 1973 Treatment of Sheets, Membranes and Seals, deals with destruction of microbiological and insect infestation, mechanical and liquid cleaning, deacidification, repair and joining, lamination, and various other processes. Part 2 of BS 4971 will deal more specifically with the make-up and binding of archival documents, while a separate British standard is being prepared for the storage and exhibition of such documents. The standard, a British effort entirely since there is at present no parallel international standards work in progress, is expected to be useful to museums and other custodians of archival documents held permanently for their historical value and also to those responsible for fairly long term retention of documents in record offices. Copies of the standard are available for £2.00 (including postage) from BSI Sales Department, 101 Pentonville Rd., London N1 9ND, England.
Trends Toward International Standardization of Bibliographic Elements: German Cataloging Reform

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Efforts toward the international realignment of German cataloging rules in accordance with the provisions of the “Paris Principles” of 1961 are reviewed. The two-dimensional approach of the “Prussian Instructions,” which specifies entering all published materials either under the personal name of a known author or—in the case of the ever-growing class of “anonyma”—as title entry, no longer suffices for the characterization and identification of the publishing output of a technologically oriented corporate society. The acceptance of the principle of corporate authorship by German librarians has led to the formulation of the new German code, Regeln für die alphabetische Katalogisierung. The code attempts to provide decision rules for the generation of bibliographic access elements that may be unambiguously identified by man or machine within German-speaking countries and eventually lead to universal bibliographic control.

Our time is characterized by somewhat turbulent developments in the theory and practice of information transfer. Great strides are being made in the international exchange of pertinent scientific and technical information among the industrial giants of the global society and in the provision of scientific and technical information to the economically developing nations as well.

Libraries are an important link in the overall system of scientific and technical information storage and retrieval and, therefore, must participate in innovative activities designed to make available the stores of knowledge to their clientele by assembling relevant collections and bib-
liographic access tools on location. To expedite international use of re-
search literature universally acceptable sets of codes must be developed.
Such codes would specify bibliographic representation of books and
documents in terms of standard descriptive elements. Countless meetings
of librarians and information specialists have dealt with this subject for
years. Recommendations, guides, revisions of old codes, and blueprints
for new cataloging rules, etc., have been issued by various national bod-
ies proposing uniform practices for bibliographic control of the rapidly
growing and diversifying literature.2-6 It is hoped that this review of cat-
ologing reform and trends in bibliographic standardization in Germany
will contribute in some measure to an understanding of the complexity
of problems connected with international standardization.

Historical Overview

In principle, catalogers worldwide agree on the two main functions
of the catalog: (1) a finding list for publications known by their author
or title, and (2) a bibliographic authority list on literary units.7-9 In oth-
er words, the alphabetic author/title catalog must provide entries which
make it possible to:

1. locate a given document or work
2. collocate the works of an author
3. assemble literary units.

The assessment of the relative importance of these objectives causes
much discord among catalogers nationally and internationally.10-14 Cata-
log Rules: Author and Title Entries (published in 1908 as an Anglo-
American code), frequently revised, and Instruktionen für die alpha-
etischen Kataloge der Preussischen Bibliotheken (known to the Eng-
lish-speaking world as the “Prussian Instructions” and subsequently des-
ignated here as Instruktionen),15 essentially unrevised since 1909, have
represented the two major Western cataloging traditions and have influ-
enced cataloging code development in other countries. A hybrid of these
traditions is seen in the structure of the Edinye Pravila Opisaniia Proiz-
vedenii Pechati dlia Bibliotechnykh Katalogov in the USSR.16-19

In the United States Jewett and Cutter introduced the concept of
corporate authorship as applicable to literary units by expanding on the
theoretical premises underlying the principle of intellectual responsibili-
ity by a named person.20, 21 In Prussia (Germany) the codification of the
Instruktionen was influenced by pragmatic considerations in connection
with the realization of the Deutscher Gesamtkatalog. The existing “Ber-
lin rules” (Berliner Regeln) for entry and Dziatzko’s filing rules were
reworked to suit the cataloging needs of the major Prussian scholarly li-
braries by a commission of Prussian librarians under Milkau’s direc-
tion.22-24 The final format was strongly influenced by bibliographic con-
ventions of the book publishers.25, 26 The Instruktionen recognizes au-
thored publications and “anonyma,” which do not bear the name of a
personal author on the title page and are, therefore, entered under
title.27, 28
The cataloging code reform movement gained impetus after World War II. Research libraries in a number of European countries, as well as in the United States, were faced with a flood of printed materials which introduced new styles of authorship, new formats of publication, and increased proportions of technical material in foreign languages. In trying to cope with the growing backlogs of uncataloged publications, catalogers found the existing codes pitifully antiquated, if not inadequate. The codes failed to provide guiding principles for effective bibliographic control of modern research material.\[^{29-32}\]

Dissatisfaction with the existing codes was felt strongly in Germany.\[^{33-36}\] The reconstruction of German libraries, particularly in the areas of collection development and processing, faced serious problems owing to the ravages of war and the subsequent division of the country into two distinct political entities: the Federal Republic of Germany in the west and the German Democratic Republic in the east. Two independent cataloging commissions were established to rebuild Germany's scholarly libraries and their bibliographic apparatus: the Westphalian Cataloging Commission (Katalog-Ausschuss der Verband der Bibliotheken des Landes Nordrhein-Westfalen) under the direction of Herman Fuchs in 1949 and the Berlin-Leipzig Commission (Bibliothekskommission für das Katalogwesen beim Staatssenat für Hochschulwesen der DDR) under Joris Vorstius in 1952.\[^{36-38}\] Both commissions essentially set out to revise the scholarly *Instruktionen*. From the beginning, a certain amount of cooperation was observed by the exchange of drafts between the two bodies.

The Alphabetic Author/Title Catalog: Revision or Reform?

The German literature relating to cataloging is quite voluminous: a historical overview with extensive documentation is provided by Roloff.\[^{39}\] Reflecting a felt need for an explication of the *Instruktionen*, a series of guides and introductions to the code began to appear in the 1920s, attempting to interpret the terse scholarly language in more modern terms. Bernhardi and Sass produced the most popular works of the era, and Vorstius contributed another sorely needed aid, a cataloging sample collection, to amplify the applicability of the code.\[^{40-42}\] Fuchs, the author and editor of many works on cataloging, drew on his extensive experience in the compilation of the *Deutscher Gesamtkatalog* in the 1930s in preparing the most authoritative commentary, *Kommentar zu den Instruktionen* \ldots\, accepted by German catalogers as the standard, classic cataloging aid for the interpretation of the rules of entry of the *Instruktionen*.\[^{43,44}\] He strongly believed in the merits of the scholarly approach and the logical structure of the *Instruktionen* and attributed the prevailing state of relative order in German research libraries to the strict application of its rules for half a century. In analyzing the ultimate purpose of the catalog, Fuchs listed the following desiderata: (1) the catalog should provide a permanent listing of works in a library,
ordered in such a way that a given work is entered once as a main entry—at a location clearly designated by explicit filing rules; (2) the catalog should be useful to users of different educational levels, backgrounds, and ages; and (3) the catalog should be hospitable to thousands of titles covering all areas of knowledge during all time periods and in many languages.45

The Instruktionen has in general provided entries which meet Fuchs' requirements; it observes the literary units principles, while the filing rules for entry under the substantivum regens provide access to the collection under an inherent catchword system, thus fulfilling the demands of the finding list principle.46 However, the treatment of "anonyma," i.e., works including publications originated by corporate bodies, and the complicated "grammatical" filing principle represented two problem areas which in an era of cooperative and shared cataloging and international collaboration required reform if international alignment of rules of entry was to be sought.47,48 The question presenting itself to the Verein Deutscher Bibliothekare (VDB, the German Library Association) and to the Deutscher Bibliothekverband (in East Germany) was: reform the existing code or formulate a completely new code for the alphabetical author/title catalog? Fuchs pleaded for the revision of the Instruktionen, which he saw as a time-tested instrument.49 In East Germany Vorsstius termed the Instruktionen an outstanding example of scientific attitude in the area of cataloging. The Berlin-Leipzig Commission proceeded to work on the revision of the code, and early drafts appeared in 1952 and 1954 under the title Regeln für die alphabetische Katalogisierung an wissenschaftlichen Bibliotheken.50-53 However, the subsequent international developments in cataloging precluded further work on the code. More recent efforts in cataloging revision are reviewed by Höhne, who points out the need for international compatibility, particularly with the research libraries of the Soviet Union.54

It is interesting to note that in East Germany a new printing of the Instruktionen has been issued as recently as 1965, bearing the additional title Regeln für die alphabetische Katalogisierung in wissenschaftlichen Bibliotheken. The most recent introduction to the Instruktionen, together with an updated collection of cataloging examples, was published by Rusch in the same year and reprinted four times since then, most recently in 1972.55 In West Germany the Instruktionen has been reprinted in 1966 as a paperback edition with no textual changes. Fuchs' Kommentar appeared in the same year in its fourth unchanged edition. The work of both Rusch and Fuchs shows a realization of the need for cataloging reform, while recognizing the pressing immediate needs of German scholarly libraries. In East Germany the need for cataloging reform was felt even more keenly, as closer cooperation with the great research libraries of the Soviet Union had been proclaimed by government decree. In the Soviet Union corporate entry and the "mechanical" filing principle for title entry have been in use since the 1920s, when the Soviet code, the
Edinye Pravila . . . , was first formulated.

For the English-language reader, trends and developments in cataloging code revision in the postwar era have been briefly reviewed by Braun on the occasion of the West German Library Conference in 1954. He points out the intensifying controversy concerning the treatment of corporate bodies as “anonyma” by the *Instruktionen*, and the subsequent entry under title according to the “grammatical” word order as opposed to the Anglo-American practice of entry according to “mechanical” word order.

In the West German literature Bauhuis discussed progress to 1954, emphasized the need for concerted effort in cataloging reform and the need for a continued dialogue across political boundaries, and advocated simplified and/or differentiated cataloging, citing limited cataloging practice and the successful application of the “no-conflict” policy at the Library of Congress. Actually, simplified cataloging had been written into the second edition of the *Instruktionen* as an alternate choice for certain materials (§23). In response to the obviously limited cataloging requirements of the departmental libraries (Instituts- und Seminarbibliotheken) at German universities, Fuchs compiled *Kurzgefasste Verwaltungslehre für Institutsbibliotheken* in 1957. This popular guide appeared in its third edition in 1968. It introduces departmental librarians to alphabetic author/title cataloging by means of a concisely formulated appendix which includes alternative rules for entry of corporate bodies (with pertinent examples) and the “mechanical” filing rules for title entry.

International Aspects of Cataloging Reform

In 1956 the International Federation of Library Associations (IFLA) called for an international conference on cataloging, and as a result cataloging code revision efforts in Europe and the United States were accelerated. The West German cataloging commission agreed to broaden the scope of its work and prepared a new draft, the *Kölner Entwurf* (1958). Representatives of the Verein Deutscher Bibliothekare actively participated in organizational sessions for the IFLA conference, and Ludwig Sickmann was appointed to the organizing committee in 1956. The *Kölner Entwurf* served as the national basis of discussion for the German representatives at the preliminary IFLA meeting in London in 1959. Subsequently, at the Bibliothekartag in Trier in 1960, Braun and Blum were elected as the official German delegates to the International Conference on Cataloguing Principles (ICCP). The main item on the agenda was the formulation of the German position paper concerning the proposed conference topics for the ICCP. The vulnerable problem of “anonyma” and the role of corporate bodies as bibliographical access elements, title entry according to the “mechanical” word order, the concept of added entry, and the introduction of the unit card were the pressing problems in need of clarification and codification in German.
The problems are aptly stated and analyzed in a composite work of Baader, Poggendorf, and Weber.

**International Realignment in Cataloging Reform**

The International Conference on Cataloguing Principles, held in Paris in 1961, has been termed a milestone of modern cooperative endeavors to unify the thinking of the international cataloging community along principle guidelines and to point out the areas of possible agreement on the basis of such broad principles as embodied in the *Statement of Principles* (known as the “Paris Principles”). A preliminary annotated edition was published by Chaplin and Anderson in 1963. The primary outcome of the ICCP was the acceptance by a majority of the delegates of the principle that corporate bodies could be regarded as authors of their publications. This acceptance signified reconciliation of cataloging philosophy between the Anglo-American cataloging tradition and that of the *Instruktionen*. Braun was authorized to vote for the acceptance of the concept of corporate name entry in the interest of international cooperation. However, the debate pro and contra corporate authorship per se continued in German cataloging circles. The Germans coined a new term, borrowed from patent law: “der Urheber,” i.e., the originator of a work. The concept of the originator in reference to a corporate body is broader than the concept of authorship, that is to say, it encompasses corporate responsibility reaching out beyond “intellectual responsibility” for the contents. The originator is the corporate body that is responsible for the work in toto, both by commissioning its preparation and by acting as its publisher. In his recent review Kaltwasser explicitly defines this new concept of “Urheber,” comparing it with the concept of corporate main entry as set forth in the North American and British texts of the *Anglo-American Cataloging Rules*. It should be noted, however, that in current German practice corporate names usually appear as added entries, quite frequently in the form of a series added entry, as illustrated in the *Deutsche Bibliographie*, series A and B, since 1972. In a modern computerized information retrieval system, however, the importance of access elements is determined by the users, and the arbitrary distinction between main and added entries is no longer valid; by design, all bibliographic elements are equally accessible.

There has been little criticism of the “Paris Principles” internationally. Domanovszky of Hungary published a concept paper on principles of cataloging just a few months before the ICCP, urging that the use of corporate name headings be relegated to added entries. He also attacked the vagueness, if not ambiguity, of the statements which left too much to the cataloger’s interpretation. In this respect, Verona’s recent annotated edition of the “Paris Principles,” which analyzed and coordinated the interpretations taken by the various national codes since 1961, has provided an example of clear analytical thinking.
Post-ICGP Problems

In post-ICGP seminars, colloquia, and various discussions held in the 1960s in the United States, Canada, and the United Kingdom, as well as in Germany and the USSR, the following major problem areas have been isolated in regard to the applicability of the principle of corporate authorship:

- definition of the scope of corporate main entry
- form of the corporate name entry: linguistic and structural aspects
- form of entry for conferences and other unnamed bodies
- form of entry for government publications
- form of entry for ecclesiastical publications
- main entry elements of technical reports
- use of title main entry
- designation and use of alternative access elements.

In Germany catalog revision efforts were reviewed at the Darmstadt conference in 1962 in the light of the "Paris Principles." The VDB charged its Kommission für Alphabetische Katalogisierung with the formulation of rules of entry for corporate bodies and a new filing scheme according to the given "mechanical" word order in titles; a draft edition was published in 1965: Regeln für die alphabetische Katalogisierung. Teilentwurf. The draft was to serve as a recommended cataloging guide for research libraries using corporate name entry while revision of the other sections of the rules was in progress. Lais has provided a thorough analysis of the draft, pointing to the areas of strength and weaknesses in the treatment of the corporate complex. The entry format for territorial authorities (government bodies and their subordinate departments) and choice and form of entry for ecclesiastical publications required in Lais' opinion reconceptualization and more precise delineation of the scope of corporate responsibility.

Initial tests of the applicability of the new rules for entry under a corporate body were conducted at the university libraries in Saarbrucken and Mainz. However, the tests, conducted after normal hours, were too limited in scope and not generalizable to a normal cataloging situation in research libraries. At this point the Deutsche Bibliothek in Frankfurt am Main was ready to initiate computerization of the Deutsche Bibliographie and decided to accept entry under the corporate name and the "mechanical" filing order of the Teilentwurf into its reorganized cataloging routine, thus providing a large-scale test of two concepts unprecedented in German cataloging. In 1969 Budach and Pflug reviewed the progress made in the formulation of the new code and discussed the code structure and organization as it was shaped in combined meetings of the German-speaking national commissions (i.e., those of West Germany, East Germany, and Austria) and with the participation of representatives from Switzerland and Luxembourg. The objectives of the
Kommission für alphabetische Katalogisierung are (1) to provide German libraries with clear and simple cataloging rules, (2) to take into consideration the needs of catalog users, (3) to find solutions to existing cataloging problems in consonance with the approaches of other major codes, and (4) to formulate the rules with due consideration of the requirements posed by the automation of cataloging procedures in new university libraries. East German support of German catalog code reform and expression of agreement with progress made to date by the various national commissions of the German-speaking countries was voiced by Kunze.

The Kommission für alphabetische Katalogisierung of the Verein Deutscher Bibliothekare reports that agreement (with the exception of entry of works known under different titles) on the formulation of the composite rules of the draft code has been reached by representatives of the German-speaking countries. Publication of the draft code was expected to commence in 1973; a final edition of the complete code will take place at a later date. Kaltwasser has provided a useful summary of the recent history of German catalog code revision.

Toward Standard Bibliographic Description

More significant still are the movements toward international standardization of bibliographic description which have taken place since the historic conference in Paris. At the IFLA meeting held in Frankfurt am Main in 1968, Kaltwasser very critically appraised the Shared Cataloging Program of the Library of Congress (LC), expressing grave reservations concerning the benefits accruing in the form of LC cataloging copy for the participating national libraries or bibliographies in countries outside the Anglo-American cataloging tradition. He warned of uncritical agreements concerning exchange of bibliographical data, and of the pitfalls that were bound to occur when incompatible cataloging copy from LC had to be converted into format prescribed by the two prevailing German codes (the *Instruktionen* and the *Regeln*), which also were incompatible with each other.

Accelerated computerization of library technical processes in the 1960s and, particularly, the MARC Project of the Library of Congress made standardization urgent. The choice and form of descriptive bibliographic elements and their sequencing within the bibliographic record present a special problem which was not dealt with at the ICCP in 1961. Neither did ICCP deliberations touch on the impact of electronic data processing on cataloging processes, a topic that would have implied standardization of data elements and procedures, even though Gull had contributed a paper on the subject. All these unresolved problems were addressed at the International Meeting of Cataloging Experts (IMCE) in Copenhagen, 1969. Kaltwasser presented the official German report of the IMCE proceedings to the Verein Deutscher Bibliothekare. He analyzed the degree of standardization desirable in order to
achieve compatibility of data transfer. Not only must bibliographical information be made available in the national bibliographies as completely and as quickly as possible, but relevant data must also be standardized to ensure smooth information exchange. Standardization should be considered at three levels: (1) technical standardization, i.e., standardization of data carriers such as tapes; (2) organization of bibliographical elements on data carriers (use of compatible schemes for content identification); (3) standardization of the bibliographical elements: the choice and form of “key” elements which determine the file order, as well as the degree of completeness of the descriptive record and its organization.92, 93

The main outcome of the IMCE was the acceptance, by a majority, of the concept of standard bibliographic description, which after further study by the IFLA Committee on Cataloguing has been formulated as an international standard: ISBD(M)—International Standard Bibliographic Description for Single Volume and Multi-Volume Monographic Publications.94, 96 First published in 1971, ISBD(M) is presently being studied by the national standards institutions and the International Organization for Standardization before its final adoption as an official international standard.96 One should take note of the purpose of the standard as stated by A. H. Chaplin, the chairman of the IFLA Committee on Cataloguing:

The purpose of the ISBD(M) is to provide an internationally accepted framework for the representation of descriptive information in bibliographic records of monographic—i.e. non-serial—publications. It is designed to meet three requirements for the efficient international use of such records: first, that records produced in one country or by the users of one language can be easily understood in other countries and by the users of other languages; secondly, that the records produced in each country can be integrated into files or lists of various kinds containing also records from other countries; and thirdly, that records in written or printed form can be converted into machine-readable form with the minimum of editing.97

The ISBD(M) has been accepted by national libraries in Europe, North America, and Australia. Official translations exist in French, Russian, and Spanish.98 Deutsche Bibliographie, the computerized German national bibliography, has adopted the ISBD(M) format for its “shared cataloging” output to the Wiesbaden office of LC’s National Program for Acquisition and Cataloging.99 The ISBD(M) is also being incorporated as the official format for descriptive cataloging in the Regeln.100-102

In 1971 the International Standard Book Number (ISBN) system was introduced in West Germany. The national agency for German book numbers is now located within the Deutsche Bibliothek in Frankfurt am Main, while the international agency has been installed in the Staatsbibliothek Preussischer Kulturbesitz in West Berlin.103, 104 The ISBN will bring advantages of unique identification and simplification of labeling to libraries and book publishers alike.

Volume 18, Number 4, Fall 1974
Computerization: The Machine-Readable Record

Computerization of library technical processes is steadily spreading in German academic and large public libraries. The Arbeitsstelle für Bibliothekstechnik (Office for Library Technology), situated within the Staatsbibliothek Preussischer Kulturbesitz in West Berlin, has assumed the role of a centralized planning and coordination agency for the utilization of electronic data processing, standardization, and interlibrary cooperation in developing new technology. After cosponsoring the Unesco Seminar on Electronic Data Processing in Regensburg in 1970, which gave a bird’s-eye view of automation in German research libraries in the 1960s, the Arbeitsstelle (Walter Lingenberg, director) convoked an international conference on machine-readable cataloging in Berlin in 1971.

The founding of new universities has provided an opportunity for experimentation with book catalogs and Bochum and Regensburg have made notable progress: their work has been based on local rules deriving from the Instruktionen. More recently, Stolzenburg in Konstanz, Lingenberg in Berlin, and Kohl at the Bayerische Staatsbibliothek in Munich set out independently to develop a standard scheme (Schema) for a German machine-readable communication format based on the new Regeln. Kaltwasser reports that such a German bibliographic communication format (Deutsches Austauschformat—MABI) has been successfully developed and that the Deutsche Bibliographie has adopted it and is ready to utilize it for its bibliographic information exchange; he urges all research libraries contemplating computerization of bibliographic activity seriously to consider adopting the format for reasons of compatibility and standardization within the German-speaking countries.

Library automation in East Germany has been developing with an eye toward compatibility with the Soviet research libraries. Recent developments have been described by Schwarz and Bell.

Outlook: Toward Universal Bibliographic Control

Currently German librarians and information specialists are as active as their American colleagues in attempting to devise theoretical foundations for national, international, ultimately universal bibliographic control and information transfer. Emphasis is on uniform methodology in selecting, entering, formatting, and coding of bibliographic records to render them capable of multiple access and multipurpose processing by libraries, information centers, and the book trade, for the production of bibliographic copy and catalog entry according to national preference and norms.

The need is for a standardized bibliographic record which will provide a concise and unique address to any bibliographic unit, as well as sufficient access points for the assembly of a desired literary unit on demand. Such a bibliographic record should be acceptable to its interna-
REFERENCES


4. Developments in the reform of the alphabetic cataloging code for the German speaking countries are reported regularly by the Kommission für alphabetische Katalogisierung of the Verein Deutscher Bibliothekare at its annual meeting (Deutscher Bibliothekartag): the reports are published in Zeitschrift für Bibliothekswesen und Bibliographie, section "Aus der Vereinsarbeit." See also "News" section in International Cataloguing.


12. M. Nabil Hamdy, The Concept of Main Entry as Represented in the Anglo-American Cataloging Rules; A Critical Appraisal with Some Suggestions: Author Main Entry vs. Title Main Entry (Research Studies in Library Science, no. 10 [Littleton, Colo.: Libraries Unlimited, 1973]), 106p., advocates title main entry as a solution favoring the finding list principle on pragmatic grounds. (Originally presented as author's thesis, University of Pittsburgh.)
20. Tait, *Authors and Titles*, p.34, 44-47, analyzes Jewett’s and Cutter’s contributions to the theory of author cataloging by extending the principle of intellectual responsibility to corporate bodies.

* Library Resources & Technical Services
37. Fuchs, Bibliothekswerkverwaltung, p.143.
40. Luise Bernhardi, Lehr- und Handbuch der Titelaufnahme (Schriften der Zentralschule für Volksbibliotheken, [Berlin: Weidmann, 1923]).
45. Fuchs, Bibliothekswerkverwaltung, p.139-40.
61. Hellmut Braun, "Bericht über die Vorbereitende Tagung zur Internationalen...


79. P. Baader and R. Lais, "Umarbeitungsversuche nach dem Teilentwurf 1965 der
87. One experimental series sets out to determine to what extent LC bibliographic information must be changed to provide cataloging copy compatible with the new Regeln für die alphabetische Katalogisierung. Another series tests the applicability of LC card copy for acquisitions. K. W. Humphreys, "Utilization of the MARC Project in Libraries Outside the United States and Canada," "Libri" 20:134–85 (1970), reports further on these studies. Rudolph Lais, director of university libraries at Saarbrücken, reports (personal communication) that the studies were still in progress as of December 1972.
97. Reports of current developments may be found in International Cataloguing.
100. Edmond Applebaum (private communication, October 1972) reports that German cataloging copy in ISBD(M) format is incorporated without changes by the Na-
tional Program for Acquisitions and Cataloging office in Wiesbaden; main and added entries are assigned according to the Anglo-American Cataloging Rules. For differences from LC practice see U.S. Library of Congress. Processing Dept., Cataloging Service 105:1-14 (Nov. 1972) .

105. W. Lingenberg, "Computereinsatz in Bibliotheken der Bundesrepublik Deutschland," Zeitschrift für Bibliothekswesen und Bibliographie 16:1-23 (1969) , presents an overview of library automation in German libraries; literature references to German libraries are on p.16-23.

**APPENDIX**

Recent Publications of Interest

The following major publications issued after the writing of this article are pertinent to German cataloging reform:

- 370 -

*Library Resources & Technical Services*
DIRECTORY OF LIBRARY REPROGRAPHIC SERVICES

The publication of the sixth edition of the Directory of Library Reprographic Services is tentatively scheduled for January 1976. The primary objective of this publication is to provide current information about copying, duplicating, and loan services offered by the institutions listed in the Directory. The data-gathering questionnaire is now ready and will be forwarded automatically to all the institutions listed in the fifth edition of the Directory. Any other institutions offering reprographic and loan services are urged to request the questionnaire from the editor of the publication: Mr. Joseph Z. Nitecki, Associate Director for Technical Services, Temple University Libraries, Philadelphia, PA 19122.

The publication of the Directory is sponsored by the Reproduction of Library Materials Section of the Resources and Technical Services Division, American Library Association.

To assure the inclusion of your institution in the next edition of the Directory please ask for the questionnaire now.


The classification for curricular materials developed by and used at the University of Iowa Curriculum Laboratory is described. The classification is designed (1) to cover all curricular areas, (2) to be simple, logical, and recognizable, (3) to be adaptable to a wide variety of materials in all media, and (4) to provide ready accessibility to all materials through complete cataloging. Portions of the classification and examples of its application are included.

The problems of organizing a curriculum collection have plagued curriculum librarians for years. With no standardized organizational guidelines available, each curriculum librarian has had to invent his own system. Some unusual and frustrating fabrications have resulted from this necessity to innovate in isolation. In certain centers, one may have to find the American history textbooks by first locating the books with the red, white, and blue tape on the spine. To find a given textbook in another center, one may be given only a shelf number. Many centers have little or no access to the materials through a card catalog.

A few organizational systems have been developed which show validity. The University of Washington library uses a system which organizes curriculum materials under a modified Dewey system. Though the system appears well developed, the Dewey system, even with modifications, cannot coincide with the structure of the school curriculum, which is the logical structure for organizing a curriculum collection.

Manuscript received June 1973; accepted for publication November 1973. Prepared while Grace Songolo was associated with the Curriculum Laboratory.
The scheme devised in a master's dissertation by Lois Watt is built around the curriculum as taught, using letters to signify general subject disciplines (e.g., "N" is used for art materials, "J" is used for science materials). Unfortunately, the lack of a mnemonic basis for the symbols may make this scheme difficult for the patron to use.

The aim of this article is to present a system of organizing and classifying a curriculum materials collection in a way which will best serve education specialists.

The curriculum collection will include materials of all types for preschool through high school. Children's and young people's trade books should be a part of the curriculum center and can be classified by the Dewey system with a separate card catalog correlating with like collections in school libraries. These materials present no special problems.

It is the curriculum materials, such as textbooks, curriculum guides, and nonprint media, which present the problem. Through trial and error (and error and error), a classification and organizational system has been developing in the University of Iowa Curriculum Laboratory over the past ten years. This system (presented here with further refinements) has proved workable for the laboratory and is being used in the Curriculum Center of the Iowa City Community School District.

The following criteria are used as the basis for the system. The first aspect is that the system be based on the curricular areas generally taught in the school. Therefore, materials should be organized around broad disciplines of the curriculum such as social studies and language arts. El-Hi Textbooks in Print serves as a guide for formulating the disciplines and their subdivisions and reflects trends and changes in curriculum offerings. By using Textbooks in Print to verify additions and changes to the system, undue proliferation can be avoided.

The second requirement is that the system be simple, logical, and recognizable. Abbreviation-based codings can aid new users to adjust quickly to the system (e.g., "S" used for science materials). Organizing the materials in subject area centers (language arts, mathematics, science, social studies, and early childhood), instead of by type of medium, can also aid the user in locating related material.

A third consideration is that the scheme be adaptable to a wide variety of materials in all media. The importance of nonprint media in classroom teaching and the changing format of print materials (e.g., the unit text) must be reflected in the system by making provision for the inclusion of such materials.

A fourth concern is that the system provide ready accessibility to all materials through complete cataloging. Sufficient catalog entries should allow a person to locate materials on a specific aspect of a subject or from a cross-disciplinary viewpoint.

The primary consideration in classifying materials is designating the curriculum discipline to which the material belongs. This discipline coding then becomes the first entity of the call number. Subdivisions of
that discipline can be added to the coding to bring together all materials in a specific area:

S  Science
Sb  Biology and Physiology (Science, Biology)
Sc  Environmental Studies (Science, Environmental Studies)

The basic list of codings appears as the Appendix at the end of this paper. El-Hi Textbooks in Print should be used for a complete listing of curricular disciplines and subdivisions.

Placing the discipline coding first in the call number indicates that shelving is determined first by that subject. Within the discipline, the materials are shelved by the type or form of the material. Therefore, following the subject coding and separated from it by a period is the symbol for the form of the material:

.TX  Textbook
.C   Curriculum Guide
.FS  Filmstrip

The first line of a call number would then appear as:

S.TX  Science textbook
SO.C  Social studies curriculum guide
Ma.FS Mathematics, algebra, filmstrip

The second line of the call number is a two-place Cutter number for the main entry. For print materials, the publisher is considered to be the main entry. For curriculum guides, since the publisher is most often a school from a given state, the Cutter number consists of two parts: (1) a Cutter for the state, and (2) a Cutter for the school system. Cutter numbers for print materials are followed by a work mark for the title of the material. Nonprint media are cataloged according to the Association of Educational Communications and Technology standards, which specify the title as main entry. Thus, nonprint items are Cuttered by title. A work mark is used for these materials only when it is needed to distinguish materials:

S.TX  Science textbook
S58p  Silver Burdett, Probing the Natural World
SO.C  Social studies curriculum guide
I64   Iowa
C36y  Cedar Rapids Schools, You Are Unique
Ma.FS Mathematics, algebra, filmstrip
F14   Factors and Factoring

In the case of textbooks, additional information is necessary in the call number to insure that all components of a series are shelved as a...
unit by grade level or volume. A symbol can indicate grade level or volume as line three of the call number. A fourth line can identify individual components such as teacher's edition (TE) or workbook (W). Thus a textbook series could have the following sequence of call numbers:

```
S.TX  S.TX  S.TX  S.TX  S.TX  S.TX
Gr.K  Gr.K  Gr.1  Gr.1  Gr.1  Gr.2
TE    TE    TE    TE    TE    W
```

This simple scheme is adaptable for special problem situations such as multitext materials. In such cases, the materials can be numbered in parentheses. Therefore, a series of multitexts with teaching editions would appear as follows:

```
Gr.1  Gr.1  Gr.1  Gr.1  Gr.2  Gr.2
(1)   (1)TE (2)   (2)TE (1)   (1)TE
```

It is also desirable to identify materials according to level or ability. A preprinted label indicating “Elementary,” “Secondary,” “Adult Education,” or “Special Education” can be affixed to the front cover and/or spine of the materials for recognition or separation of these materials. If adult education or special education materials are to be located together instead of with the discipline centers, codings like “AD” and “S.ED” can be used as the first line in the call number:

```
S.ED  Special education
Soc.TX Social studies civics textbook
F66c  Follett, Civics
```

An organizational scheme is only one component of a functional curriculum center. As stated in the fourth criterion above, access to the contents of the materials through the card catalog is also imperative. It is well worth the time expended to catalog materials completely if the patron is more likely to become independent in the use of the center. Basic entries for materials include the following:

1. Shelf card;
2. Publisher card;
3. Title card (omitted for curriculum guides which do not have distinctive titles in most cases);
4. Subject cards (omitted for textbooks because they most often cover the whole of a general curricular area with similar topics in similar texts, and because they are frequently revised and outdated, making cataloging prohibitive). Sears List of Subject Headings is used for subjects with adapations for special curriculum topics, such as “Community helpers,” and “Movement exploration.”

*Volume 18, Number 4, Fall 1974*
An additional entry is made under project name if the material is the product of a curriculum project.

In conclusion, the primary goal of a workable organizational system should be to make possible an easy and quick access to the materials. Developing such a system is a difficult task, and individuals should not need to devise their system in isolation. Until there is a standard method for organizing a curriculum center, librarians will need to draw on the experience of others. It is the hope that the present system may serve as a guide from which librarians can incorporate and adapt those aspects which may prove most useful.

REFERENCES


APPENDIX

*Discipline Codes (Based on divisions in El-Hi Textbooks in Print)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Discipline</th>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>Art</td>
<td>Art Appreciation and Criticism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ba</td>
<td>Business</td>
<td>Accounting and Bookkeeping</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Be</td>
<td>Business English</td>
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<td>Br</td>
<td>Retailing, Marketing, and Salesmanship</td>
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<td>Gc</td>
<td>Career Guidance</td>
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<td>Health and Physical Education</td>
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<td>Driver Education</td>
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<td>Hh</td>
<td>Health and Hygiene</td>
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<td>Physical Education</td>
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<td>Sex Education</td>
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<td>Home Economics</td>
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<td>Child Care and Development</td>
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<td>HOCl</td>
<td>Clothing and Fabrics</td>
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<td>Consumer Problems</td>
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<td>Composition and Creative Writing</td>
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<td>English as a Second Language</td>
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<td>Handwriting</td>
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<td>Lj</td>
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<td>Ll</td>
<td>Library Skills and Organization</td>
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<td>Speech</td>
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<td>Lsp</td>
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<td>Algebra</td>
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<tr>
<td>Mg</td>
<td>Geometry</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mt</td>
<td>Trigonometry</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MU</td>
<td>Music</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>Nursery and Kindergarten Education</td>
<td></td>
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<td>R</td>
<td>Reading</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RE</td>
<td>Religious Education</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S</td>
<td>Science</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sa</td>
<td>Aeronautics and Space Study</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sas</td>
<td>Astronomy</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
LIST OF SUBSCRIPTION AGENTS AVAILABLE

The American Library Association has announced publication of


This updated guide was compiled from reports by research libraries and from replies of agents to questionnaires and is a proven tool for the acquisition of foreign periodicals by United States libraries.

Listed alphabetically in this edition are 177 agents. Information provided for each includes full address, area of specialization, types of materials supplied, discounts, special services, and library recommendations. Agents in the newly developing countries in Africa and Asia are included, as is general information on foreign acquisition procedures.

An updated version of the 1969 edition, this directory may be ordered from: Order Department, American Library Association, 50 E. Huron St., Chicago, IL 60611.
Centered Headings in the Dewey Decimal Classification

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The centered heading is a typographical device used in the Dewey Decimal Classification (DDC) schedules to signal a breakdown in the relationship between the system's inner structure and its notation. It usually identifies a class for which no single class number is provided in the schedules. It cannot be justified on any theoretical grounds, but has served the practical functions of (1) shortening class numbers and (2) permitting the system to expand internally with a minimum of major notational changes. With the present state of research in the use of DDC, the criteria needed to evaluate the practical consequences of the device are lacking.

The Sixteenth Edition of the Dewey Decimal Classification (DDC) identified and explained a structural feature called the centered heading. The term "centered heading" serves a useful purpose, but has no meaning in general classification theory and is descriptive of only the most superficial aspect of a series of extremely complex phenomena peculiar to DDC. A centered heading, as explained in introductions to recent editions of DDC, consists of a range of numbers and a heading which are centered on the page, instead of having the numbers in the usual number column. The purpose of this typographical device is to "show the spread of a sequence of numbers which is spelled out in detail immediately following." The glossary in the eighteenth edition explains that a centered heading is "a heading representing a concept for which there is no specific number in the hierarchy of notation, and which, therefore, covers a span of numbers." A few centered headings were used in the fourteenth edition. With the fifteenth edition, the number had risen to 69. Even in 1958, with the sixteenth edition, the device was used quite sparingly. Of the approximately 320 centered headings found in the sixteenth edition, more than

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half are found in the geographical tables built into the 900s. Seven years later, however, the seventeenth edition appeared with more than 1,050 centered headings. Some doubts must have begun to surface at the DDC editorial office about this time, for with the eighteenth edition the total number of centered headings in the main body of the schedules was reduced to around 820, a reduction of 25 percent. Although it removed many centered headings, the eighteenth edition also introduced some new ones in unexpected places, and indications are that the device will remain a part of DDC for a long time to come.

The inner process which creates problems that have been addressed by centered headings existed in the system long before the device was identified, labeled, and indicated in the schedules. Despite its long use, the centered heading has found few friends, and it is doubtful that even the most enthusiastic advocates of DDC favor the device. In any case, most students and many librarians remain baffled by this strange intrusion into an otherwise fairly orderly notational system. The purpose of this paper is to explain why centered headings have been introduced, to show what happens when they are introduced, and to give some examples of what happens to the system when they are made unnecessary by adjustments in the notation.

Inner and Outer Structure

A centered heading is used to identify a class for which no single class number is provided in the schedules; or, if a single class number is provided, it is not in a logical hierarchical relationship with the classes which form its subdivisions. To understand the necessity for a centered heading, one has to differentiate between two basic aspects of the system: the inner structure (the substantive content of the schedules, which is presented in natural language terms) and the outer form (the system of notation). Insofar as is possible and reasonable, the inner structure of DDC is hierarchical, and its notation is “expressive” to the extent that it accurately reflects this inner structure. A centered heading results from an inability of the outer form to reflect the inner structure. It represents an ellipsis in the hierarchical notation.

The Notational Effects of Centered Headings

As an example, let us look at one type of centered heading. In the eighteenth edition, the class “Aerospace engineering” (629.1) is divided into a series of subclasses, one of which is “Aircraft types” (629.133). The expansion of this subclass includes a centered heading (indicated by an asterisk).

629.133 Aircraft types
629.133 1 Models
629.133 2 Lighter-than-air aircraft
629.133 22 Free and captive balloons
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>629.133 24</td>
<td>Airships (Dirigible balloons)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*629.133 25-629.133 27</td>
<td>Specific types of dirigibles</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>629.133 25</td>
<td>Rigid dirigibles</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>629.133 26</td>
<td>Semirigid dirigibles</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>629.133 27</td>
<td>Nonrigid dirigibles</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The inner structure in this case clearly requires that the block of subclasses “Specific types of dirigibles” have a notational system which indicates that “specific types” are subclasses of “Airships (Dirigible balloons).” However, the notation of these subclasses has been moved up one level in the notational hierarchy. The practical result of this is that the subclasses are coordinate with, rather than subordinate to, 629.13324. The centered heading does nothing more than identify this fracture in the notational system. In a hierarchical notation, the three subclasses of 629.13324 must include the code digit for “Airships (Dirigible balloons),” i.e., the final “4,” and each subclass must be identified by a further notational extension of one digit.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>629.13324</td>
<td>Airships (Dirigible balloons)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>629.133241</td>
<td>Rigid dirigibles</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>629.133242</td>
<td>Semirigid dirigibles</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>629.133243</td>
<td>Nonrigid dirigibles</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Doubtless most librarians who work daily with the system in some public service capacity are willing to forgo logic in cases like this in order to have the shorter notation which results from the use of a centered heading.

It is difficult to understand completely the reason for any specific centered heading without diagramming its structure, both with and without the notational ellipsis. All centered headings are variations (sometimes extremely complicated) of the diagram shown in Figure 1. Since, in the normal notation of DDC, at each level of the hierarchy the class number is extended by one digit, it can be seen that by using a centered heading to move a block of coordinates upward in the hierarchy, the notation is shortened one digit.

The numerous and drastic notational changes which would be required if all centered headings were removed and a completely hierarchical notation adopted become evident when we restructure the notation of a centered heading at a more general level of a hierarchy. Consider, for example, the centered heading “Communication services” (383-384) from the eighteenth edition. The missing class in the hierarchical notation is for general material on “Communication services,” for this topic is notationally defined only by its two major subdivisions: “Postal communication” (383) and “Other systems of communication [and] Telecommunication” (384). The classifier is instructed to “class comprehensive works in 380.3.” If we remove the centered heading and

* 380 *

*Library Resources & Technical Services*
239 Apologetics and polemics
239.1 In apostolic times
239.11 Against Jews . . .
239.12 Against pagans . . .
239.13 Against Neoplatonists . . .
239.2 In post-apostolic times

The diagram and notation to the left show the inner structure and a corresponding hierarchical notation. To the right is a diagram of the nonhierarchical notation used in the DDC schedules and identified by the centered heading "239.2-239.4 Against doctrines of specific groups in apostolic times." (From the eighteenth edition.)

Figure 1
Example of Centered Heading

allot the class number 383 to "Communication services," then at the next level of division we have three subclasses: "Postal communication" (383.1), "Telecommunication" (383.2), and "Other systems" (383.3). A change to hierarchical notation at this level would change the notation of somewhere between fifty and sixty subclasses of the topic "Communication services."

Centered Headings within Centered Headings

Centered headings may be found at any level of the notational hierarchy. Furthermore, in following the systematic division of any specific hierarchical chain, it is not uncommon to find more than one centered heading, each at a different level of division. The following excerpt, from the seventeenth edition, is a case in point. The descriptive terms are indented to show their subordinate and coordinate relationships, and the hierarchical notation which corresponds to the inner structure is given in the first column. The third column contains the notations used in the DDC schedules as a result of the two centered headings identified by asterisks.

Volume 18, Number 4, Fall 1974

* 381 *
To the centered headings shown in the excerpt must be added another centered heading found at another level in the hierarchy: “Transportation services” (383-388). This example, then, illustrates a centered heading within a centered heading within a centered heading. If hierarchical notation were used at all levels of division, the notation for subclasses at the level of “Carts” would include at least nine digits, rather than the six digits used in DDC. Occasionally, centered headings are eliminated when the internal structure of the system is reworked: in the eighteenth edition, 388.3 is presented with a different internal structure and a system of notation that does not use centered headings.

**Are Centered Headings Inevitable?**

The comments in the introductory material in editions sixteen through eighteen imply that centered headings are inevitable, that the editors had no recourse but to use them. We read that centered headings are introduced when “a unique position in the lengthening digital notation is not available,” and when “a broad comprehensive number does not exist and cannot be inserted.” As the above examples have demonstrated, centered headings, though useful and expedient, are by no means inevitable. Additional digits and broad comprehensive class numbers can be provided in most cases. The one obvious case where digital expansion is not possible is when more than ten coordinates are needed.

Centered headings were introduced, not because they were inevitable, but because in moving from one edition to the next the system had to expand internally. For the most part, centered headings represent an explicit recognition of nonhierarchical notations that had existed in the system for a long time. The growth of knowledge does not proceed by amoebalike divisions of ten at the far reaches of DDC’s hierarchies; rather, new subjects emerge in unfortunate places for classification makers of all persuasions, and old subjects regroup in new ways or exhibit

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th>Subject Hierarchy</th>
<th>DDC Notation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>388.</td>
<td>Ground transportation</td>
<td>388.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>388.3</td>
<td>Vehicular transportation</td>
<td>388.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>388.31</td>
<td>Traffic flow</td>
<td>388.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>388.32</td>
<td>Other activities</td>
<td>388.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>388.321</td>
<td>Passenger services</td>
<td>388.321</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>388.322</td>
<td>Freight services</td>
<td>388.324</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>388.323</td>
<td>Free services</td>
<td>388.329</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>388.33</td>
<td>Facilities</td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>388.331</td>
<td>Stationary</td>
<td>388.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>388.332</td>
<td>Vehicular</td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>388.3321</td>
<td>Conventional</td>
<td>388.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>388.33211</td>
<td>Carts</td>
<td>388.341</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>388.33212</td>
<td>Gasoline-powered</td>
<td>388.342</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
new dimensions and relationships. Centered headings proved to be a convenient way of permitting internal expansion in specific areas without causing notational havoc in contiguous classes. Just as often, however, centered headings seem to have been used for the sole purpose of providing shorter class numbers than would have resulted from a strictly hierarchical notation.

The Phoenix Schedules: 510 and 340

One way to understand why a given centered heading was introduced is to examine the alternative solutions to whatever problem the editors were dealing with in that specific case. A detailed study would also involve comparisons between different editions. Especially instructive would be a study of what happened to centered headings in the transition from the seventeenth edition to the eighteenth. Which were retained from the earlier edition, what circumstances made it possible to drop so many, and what happened when they were dropped? Is there a consistently applied general policy regarding the use of centered headings?

The assumption that centered headings represent a compromise in expanding schedules into new editions is not supported by the two phoenix schedules of the eighteenth edition. With new schedules for law and mathematics, the editors were not bound by any previous notational decisions beyond the first two digits. The whole array of class numbers was at their disposal. The 510s are completely devoid of centered headings. On the other hand, the new 340 schedule contains thirty-six centered headings (as opposed to twelve in the seventeenth edition). Obviously, there was a compromise between some residue from the sixteenth edition (i.e., the use of .3-.9 for “Specific jurisdictions” in classes 342 through 348) and the new inner structure. In any case, in the 340s between 342 and 348, standard subdivisions are introduced by “.00,” the series of classes following the decimal point is used for “Specific jurisdictions,” leaving only the digital expansion of “.0” for all other nonspecific material (and this is where the centered headings are found).

Conclusions

How one reacts to the introduction and use of centered headings depends entirely on how one feels about certain aspects of the structure and use of library classification in general and DDC in particular. Answers are required to such questions as: what is the function of classification notation and how should it relate to the inner structure of a system? Is there a need for “integrity of numbers” in successive editions of DDC? Is the length of class numbers an important consideration? Is there a use for a classified catalog based on DDC? If the relationship between inner structure and outer symbolic representation should be logical, exact, and consistent, then there is no doubt that centered headings must go. If one is interested in keeping class numbers as short as possi-
ble, then one will be more inclined to accept centered headings. If it is important that changes in successive editions of DDC be kept to a minimum as the system makes room for new knowledge, then the centered heading is a remarkably ingenious device to this end.

In considering the future of general library classification systems in relation to the potential of the computer, we are talking about the classified catalog and little else. If one is interested in the classified catalog (as are most of the overseas users of DDC), then centered headings need to be examined in terms of the limitations they might place on the development of the full subject retrieval efficiency of a computerized DDC system.

The real dilemma is that we seem to have no objective way of answering most of these questions. My own view is that centered headings are of very doubtful value and may be destructive to aspects of the system which are integral to its very nature. In a system like DDC, however, theoretical concerns must count for little when the aim is—as it should be—to provide a practical working tool for subject organization and access. What, then, are the practical consequences of centered headings for the shelving of books in libraries? With the present state of knowledge about the use of DDC, I do not see how we can answer this question precisely, if by “use” we mean the process which takes place when the user of a library collection interacts with the shelving system. This question (and many other important questions about the present and future utility of DDC) is related more to research in human behavior than to abstract principles of library classification. If we agree that the mnemonic efficiency of a DDC class number begins to deteriorate rapidly at least after the sixth digit, then centered headings at lower levels of the hierarchy (which is where most of them are found) will not seriously affect the efficiency of the system, except to the extent that more-or-less general material is shelved in a specific class.

The future of the classified catalog is a different matter. It simply has no future in the United States as a general library access tool until someone demonstrates that it can give us enough new subject approaches to justify its revival. If we were to provide for a given book as many class numbers as are necessary to express its contents, as we presently do with subject headings, then MARC tapes might provide for an alphabetical subject approach and a classified catalog from the same database, i.e., an interesting combination of the dictionary catalog and the classified catalog. This potential should be rather exciting to the DDC people. One can conceive of a system in which the class numbers on the tapes borrow some of the features of the notation of the Universal Decimal Classification to permit computer manipulation, while at the same time providing a conventional DDC number for shelving systems. As DDC moves toward its nineteenth edition, the two areas of needed research are use studies and machine application. From such research we may establish sound criteria for evaluating the efficiency of centered headings and other structural features of the system.
ADDENDUM: Current Status of Centered Headings

In March 1973 the Dewey Decimal Classification Sub-Committee of the Library Association (Great Britain) recommended that certain changes be made in the policy regarding centered headings. These proposed changes were endorsed by the DDC Editorial Policy Committee at its April meeting and recommended to the Forest Press for implementation. The publisher is currently (i.e., December 1973) considering the recommendation. The following memo, from Benjamin A. Custer, editor of the DDC, indicates that the policy changes, if adopted, will largely preclude the introduction of any new centered headings in future editions of the DDC and in time will result in the removal of many of those now in the schedules.

Centered headings . . . are of two kinds: (1) those that indicate and relate structurally a span of numbers that together form a single concept for which there is no specific number available, e.g., 350.143–350.145 Personnel placement; and (2) those that are set up merely to indicate various properties of and instructions governing a set of subdivisions, e.g., 350.7–350.8 Specific administrative activities.

[The policy under consideration is] that in the future centered headings of the first kind should not be introduced into new schedules and expansions, and should be eliminated when feasible from existing schedules.

As the introduction to Edition 18 states in section 3.43 (p. 39), every centered heading is followed by a note stating what single number the classifier should use for comprehensive works on the concept expressed in the heading. . . . The basis for the editors' choice of number varies, since each case is dependent on the schedule structure for the particular subject. The classifier will observe that the comprehensive number specified may be: (1) the next higher number, e.g., Dental surgery (617.64–617.67) in 617.6; England ("Areas" notation 421–428) in notation 42; (2) a general special subdivision of the next higher number, e.g., Transportation services (385–388) in 380.5; Visible light (535.2–535.6) in 535.013; (3) a preceding specific number, e.g., Old Testament (specific parts 222–224) in 221; (4) the first or one of the other numbers subordinate to the centered heading, e.g., Libraries for educational institutions (027.7–027.8) in 027.7; Psychoses (157.1–157.2) in 157.2.

It is the [proposed] policy of the DDC that in the future new instances of the first kind [of the four listed above] should not be created when the base number of the span represents a concept markedly broader than the sum of the concepts represented by the span, and especially when the base number is separated from the span, as is now the case in "Areas" notation 472–479 from Table 2, where parts of USSR are separated from comprehensive works on USSR by notation 471 for Finland. The [proposed] policy further states that new instances of the second kind should not be created under any circumstances. For both kinds, those instances now in the schedules or tables will be retained unless or until the text is revised for other reasons.

Obviously, a few details have to be clarified before a firm policy is established for the nineteenth edition of DDC. In any case, it should be noted that:

1. The type of centered heading referred to in paragraph one and identified as type two is not discussed in the present study. This is because of my assumption that this type of centered heading does not emerge from a disjunction of the inner structure and its notation. I am no longer convinced that this is indeed the case, but have not pursued the problem further.

2. Given the present state of our knowledge of the use of DDC, which is quite limited, the chief practical issue involved with the use of centered headings seems to be the location (i.e., the class number) assigned to the "missing"
class which the centered heading has eliminated. I do not like to identify these as "missing" classes, but we do not have a term to describe and identify them—perhaps "orphans" might be a better term. As Custer points out in his third paragraph, these classes have been assigned to various numbers in the immediate vicinity of the centered heading. Because of the nature of the problem, no single system can automatically be used with all centered headings. Each is a special case, and Custer has identified four possible ways of finding a home for his orphans.

The Library Association's Dewey Decimal Classification Sub-Committee based its categorizations of, and objections to, centered headings on Custer's four methods. If I have interpreted the subcommittee's recommendations correctly, it is not particularly enthusiastic about any centered headings. It is, however, willing to accept those types which provide a reasonably logical location for the comprehensive material (i.e., the orphan class). On the other hand, certain types (i.e., type two of Custer's four) are vigorously rejected.

REFERENCES


CATALOGING WORKSHOP

The Cataloging and Classification Section of the ALA Resources and Technical Services Division will sponsor a workshop on national and international standards in cataloging on Sunday, 29 June 1975, at the American Library Association Conference in San Francisco, California. The list of participants has not been determined, but it is anticipated that the Library of Congress will be represented. There may also be representation from the international level. The workshop is intended primarily for practicing catalogers and cataloging administrators. The enrollment will be limited to 200, and will be restricted to one person per institution if the enrollment exceeds its limit. The deadline for registration will be 15 May 1975. Further information regarding registration will appear in the Winter 1975 issue of *Library Resources & Technical Services*. 
Music Subject Headings: A Comparison

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Serials Department
University Libraries
State University of New York at Buffalo

Subject heading theory as exemplified in the practice of two leading American music libraries, the New York Public Library and the Library of Congress is discussed from the point of view of Cutter's basic principles, identifying significant differences in terminology and structure of headings for music monographs. Variations from Library of Congress practice, particularly in regard to subdivision and inversion, result in more specific and direct subject entry. The desirability of adopting Library of Congress subject headings for use with automated cataloging procedures is contrasted with the value of specialized subject access for the music research library.

Introduction

Music subject headings present important points both of similarity and difference in comparison with subject headings in the catalogs of general libraries and of special libraries other than music libraries. Like the general library, the music library serves a public of varied educational levels. General libraries provide service to adults at various educational levels as well as to specialists. Music libraries parallel this service in attempting to meet the needs both of the musically uneducated and of the specialist. In this aspect of service, the music library differs from other special libraries, which are intended primarily, if not exclusively, for the specialist.¹

The purpose of this study is to compare subject heading usage for music monographs as practiced by an independent music research library, the New York Public Library (NYPL), with that of a music division integrated into a general library catalog, as exemplified in the Library of Congress (LC).

The New York Public Library contains two separate music collections, one in the Research Libraries and one in the Public Collection,

¹ Manuscript received August 1973; accepted for publication December 1973.

Volume 18, Number 4, Fall 1974
each with its own separate catalog and subject heading list. The Research Libraries, which were established in 1895 by the combination of the Astor, Lenox, and Tilden Foundations with John Shaw Billings as director, encompass twenty subject divisions, including the Music Division, now housed in the Library and Museum of the Performing Arts at Lincoln Center. The Music Division of the Research Libraries has long been recognized as a research source of inestimable value to the music scholar, and the publication in 1964 of the catalog of the Music Division has made this tool available to all music librarians.

The initiation in 1971 of an automated book catalog system for the Research Libraries brought about several important changes in NYPL cataloging and classification procedures for all new acquisitions as a result of the decision to make the system compatible with the MARC II format. Specifically, this has required the Music Division to eliminate use of the Billings classification scheme, to conform to the Anglo-American Cataloging Rules, and to adopt LC subject headings. Although the necessity of uniform subject headings for cooperative cataloging procedures is indisputable, when one considers the loss of many of the unique headings used by NYPL, the decision may be questioned. The desire to discover some of these unique qualities led to this comparative study.

History

Subject headings may be considered essentially an American contribution to librarianship, because European catalogs until recently provided subject access only through the subject index to the classed catalog or through the catchword title entry. The alphabetical subject heading, though derived from these two predecessors, was codified by Cutter in 1876 in his Rules for a Dictionary Catalog, and the principles which he enunciated still form the basis for American library subject heading practice. Although there have been many writers on subject headings since Cutter, there has been no major change in subject heading theory since his time. David Haykin, former chief of the Subject Cataloging Division of the Library of Congress, was engaged in work on a subject heading code at the time of his death in 1958, but his only major published work, Subject Headings: A Practical Guide, is limited primarily to an explanation and analysis of LC application of Cutter's principles.

The recent development of computer applications to cataloging and indexing has forced a new look at subject headings. Harris has taken a systems approach to this complex field, attempting to analyze current subject heading practice in order to formulate headings suitable for computer arrangement. The summary of her findings points to some of the difficulties inherent in subject heading work:

The problems caused by the lack of a formal subject heading code, and the extreme need for, at a minimum, rationalization of subject headings, have been
evident throughout this study. Inconsistencies in heading of formation and arrangement, lack of useful cross references and existence of unneeded ones, the variation in actual practice from what is thought to be practiced, all could be eliminated or at least reduced in magnitude by a formal code.

The first major American subject heading list was a compilation of subject headings in use by a selected group of five libraries, compiled in 1895 by a committee of the American Library Association, with Cutter as chairman. The ALA List of Subject Headings reached a third edition in 1911, adding headings from ten more libraries. The first LC list, Subject Headings Used in the Dictionary Catalogs of the Library of Congress (LCSH), was published in 1910-1914; unlike the ALA list, it was a record of the headings in use by a single library and was not intended to reflect common American practice. The Sears List of Subject Headings, which appeared in 1923, was less comprehensive than either the ALA or LC lists, although based on the latter, since it was designed primarily for use in the smaller library. In addition, there are probably more than a hundred other special subject lists, not to mention the individual variations produced by local librarians. However, it is LCSH, now in its seventh edition, and the Sears list, in its tenth edition, which are presently in most common use throughout the United States.

Fundamental Concepts

Haykin’s phrasing of the basic principles of subject heading theory is as follows:

1. The reader is the primary focus of all cataloging principles and practice. The heading should be what the reader will seek in the catalog; all other considerations are secondary.
2. The heading chosen must represent common usage, or, at least, common usage of the particular clientele of the library.
3. The heading chosen must be applied uniformly to all books on the same subject, regardless of what other synonyms might be used in the book.
4. The heading should be as specific as the topic it is intended to cover.

When one begins to compare the NYPL list with the LC list on the basis of these four principles, several fundamental differences are readily apparent. First, the principle of user convenience points up a basic contrast in orientation, since the LC list was designed for inclusion either in a general dictionary or in a subject catalog, while the NYPL list was intended for use only within the Music Division, not in the general catalogs of the library. Since the LC list has a dual purpose, its headings must of necessity compromise some distinctly musical features, the most obvious of which is the retention of Music and Musical as entry words and qualifiers. In addition, since the presumed clientele of a library utilizing the LC list is so diverse, there is a proliferation of see also ref-
erences (e.g., seventy-three under Music) to allow for a variety of approaches to the catalog.

The second principle, common usage, identifies points of similarity as well as difference between the two lists with relation to the use of technical, rather than popular, and foreign-language, as opposed to English-language, headings. Since the musically informed layman is already familiar with such theoretical terms as “Counterpoint,” “Modulation,” and “Transposition,” and the many foreign words which have been incorporated into English, such as “Cantata,” “Concerto,” and “Sonata,” there is a high proportion of such terminology in both subject heading lists. The main point of difference between the NYPL list and the LC list is the greater utilization by the NYPL of more highly specialized terms such as “Conductus,” “Fauxbourdons,” and “Hocket.”

Both subject heading lists are equally dedicated to the third principle, uniformity of terminology, through the provision of see references, although the NYPL list seems to provide for multiple forms of access to specialized areas. For example, likely terms for a search for information on the history and theory of music in twelfth-century France include Ars antiqua, Measured *rrrl., and Medieval music. The first of these does not appear in the LC list, but in the NYPL list it is given as a reference to seven headings including France, 12th century; the second is used by both lists; the third appears as a reference in both lists, with two headings suggested in the LC list and twelve in NYPL.

It is the fourth principle, that of specific entry, which causes the most concern and discussion in the literature. Cutter’s Rules were developed for a dictionary catalog, and he emphasized that specific entry was the main difference between the dictionary catalog and the alphabetically-classed catalog (i.e., broad classes arranged in alphabetical order, subdivided alphabetically into their component parts and subjects). Although the Library of Congress catalog is specified as a dictionary catalog, modelled on the basis provided by Cutter, it is clear that LC has only partially followed his principles. In fact, as early as 1909 it was pointed out that LC practice appeared to be a compromise between the dictionary catalog and the alphabetically-classed catalog, because of its heavy use of subdivided and inverted headings, as well as compound forms.

Harris even goes so far as to state that “... it appears that the LC subject headings may be the best example of an informal faceted classification scheme in existence.” Her description of this informal, flexible, and inconsistent application of faceting is taken from the Art subject area, but it is equally applicable to Music, with its subarrangement of the broad term by means of punctuation marks: the dash and the comma (see Appendix IV). She also points out that equivalent facets are not treated in the same way, as in the rather arbitrary differentiation between the geographic subdivision, Music—France, and the linguis-
tic or ethnic adjective, Music, French, adding that "... there is nothing inherent in the structure of language or of subject headings to require this distinction." On this issue, NYPL takes a more practical view, with entries directly under the name of the country (e.g., France) with a reference from the adjectival form (e.g., French music See France). Harris also refers to a study which indicates that the NYPL has made use of the alphabetico-classed arrangement in the area of English literature, and it appears that this statement holds true for the music subject headings as well, since there are many broad class headings in the list (Chamber music, Choral music, Church music); however, several more important differences from LC practice, discussed in the next section, tend to diminish the effect of this kind of arrangement on the rule of specific entry.

The Special Library

The basic principles underlying the choice of terms and the form of subject headings in the catalog of a general library are, broadly speaking, equally applicable to the special library. ... Since, however, the collections of special libraries are usually limited to a single subject, ... the approach of the reader to the subject catalog differs in some respects from that of the general public, hence, makes deviation from these principles desirable in certain respects.

Haykin identifies five common points of variation from the accepted form and structure of subject headings, demonstrated by the following contrasting examples of NYPL and LC usage (NYPL usage given first):

1. Omission of the initial noun designating the subject:
   - e.g., Bibliography, not Music—Bibliography,
   - Printing, not Music printing.

2. Omission of subject qualifiers:
   - e.g., Impressionism, not Impressionism (Music).

3. Direct, rather than inverted, order:
   - e.g., Popular music, not Music, Popular.

4. Reversal of terms in compound headings:
   - e.g., Literature and music, not Music and literature.

5. Use of geographic subdivisions as main headings:
   - e.g., United States, not Music—United States.

In addition to the above, which Haykin indicates may be accommodated into a given library's use of the LC subject headings, several other significant points of variation should be noted. Proper names, although not listed individually in the LC list, are frequently used as subject headings by libraries employing LC subject headings, evolving according to the individual library's need, although the pattern for subdivision is expected to follow that given for Richard Wagner. In contrast, the NYPL has developed unique subdivisions for the specific composers included in its list, taking into account variations in each composer's life and work.
It should also be noted that, due to NYPL’s use of geographic places as subject headings, it is possible to apply a chronological subdivision (as an adjective, preceded by a comma) directly to the designated country, resulting in a specific entry such as referred to earlier, France, 12th century. Another consequence of NYPL’s individual approach to each heading is that the chronological adjective can vary from one heading to another, allowing such a comprehensive term as History and criticism to be subdivided according to the commonly accepted historical periods (e.g., to 1000, 1000-1450, 1450-1600, 1600-1750, 1750-1800), rather than the less specialized designation by century, as is employed by LC.

The most obvious point of comparison between NYPL and LC subject heading practice is seen in their use of form headings and form subdivisions, respectively. The LC list identifies approximately 180 terms which may be used as subdivisions of main headings, some of which are true form subdivisions (e.g., Addresses, essays, lectures; Dictionaries), in which a given topic is presented in a particular literary form or form of publication, others of which are really aspect subdivisions (e.g., History and criticism). Because NYPL virtually eliminates the initial subject word “Music” from its catalog, the various aspects of the subject assume entry word position. Furthermore, this type of treatment is not limited to aspects of the subject, but extends to form of publication as well, producing subject entries such as Bibliography, Directories, Manuscripts, and Periodicals. Other terms, treated by LC as form or aspect subdivisions and by NYPL as subject headings, are not, strictly speaking, form headings, but may more properly be considered as “events” or “institutions” (e.g., Congresses, Exhibitions, Libraries, Museums).

The area of form headings is a confusing one, particularly in the fields of literature and music, for the term is used not only to refer to the general form entries as discussed above, but also to differentiate between works describing a particular musical or literary form and works which are examples of that form. Bush and Haykin distinguish between the two by using the word in the singular as a subject form heading (e.g., Sonata) and the word in the plural as a musical form heading (e.g., Sonatas). Although it is not always possible to utilize a plural form to separate music literature from examples of music (e.g., Orchestra and Orchestral music, Motet and Part-songs), scope notes in the LC list aid in clarifying the distinction.

There are other means of separating music monographs from music scores, the most obvious of which is to use two catalogs, thereby eliminating the problem of subject versus musical form headings. NYPL takes a different approach, using a single subject heading to cover both fields (e.g., Cantatas, Operas, Symphonies) and identifying scores and other works containing music by adding a green top on the card, and librettos, song texts, and other works containing only words by a yellow top (works about music have uncolored, i.e., white, tops).
Both lists differ from present ALA alphabetical filing methods, as presented in the 1968 edition of *ALA Rules for Filing Catalog Cards*. Appendix IV outlines LC filing order for the broad class *Music*, as given in the LC list, a detailed example of how a subject heading may be subdivided and extended into five distinct alphabetical groups. Each of these groups may be further subdivided as appropriate by use of the standard subdivisions, and there are two instances of chronological subdivision, under *Theory* and *History and criticism*. This pattern is constant throughout the general LC list. Appendix V presents three extracts from the NYPL catalog, illustrating a somewhat similar grouping of headings. It will be noted in the “France” example that chronological subdivisions preceed form subdivisions, with both of these preceding place subdivisions. The “Music” example illustrates particularly the disregarding of articles, prepositions, and conjunctions within phrases. The “Musicians” example illustrates three groups: (1) phrase and subject subdivisions, (2) inverted headings with national adjectives, and (3) inverted headings with adjectives other than national.

**Summary**

The following list of criteria for analysis and evaluation of subject heading lists, based on the work of Bolef16 may be useful in summarizing some of the differences between LC and NYPL practice:

1. *There should be an introduction to the subject heading list, defining the scope and purpose and orienting the user.*

   The “Introduction” to the LC *Music Subject Heading List*, which was written by Haykin, appears to satisfy this standard adequately, while the “Foreword” to the NYPL list provides minimal definition and orientation.

2. *New headings should be added as rapidly as the need is recognized.*

   The first edition of the NYPL list, published in 1959, provided eight headings as see also references from *History and criticism, 1900-*. In 1966 LC listed only two for the same historical period. Since that time, LC has added four more headings relating to twentieth-century music, none of which appear as see also references for that subject. Two of these headings, *Musique concrète* and *Twelve-tone music*, had already been included in NYPL’s 1959 list, which leads one to conjecture that LC is somewhat slower than NYPL in meeting this criterion; however, a lack of regular supplements to the NYPL list makes this impossible to verify.

3. *Headings should be defined and delimited by the use of scope notes.*

   While LC uses scope notes, particularly to separate music literature from music scores, NYPL provides much more detailed notes (e.g., eleven authority cards to define *Harpischord music*), as well as signed explanations for the derivation and choice of certain headings. Such copious notes appear in the published list.
since it is an unedited reproduction of the catalogers' working file.

4. *Popular, rather than scientific, terms should be used.*

NYPL's greater use of scientific terms is due to the fact that it is primarily a research library, while the LC list is intended for both general and special libraries. The nature of the subject field, however, results in a high proportion of terms in both lists which have no popular or English synonyms (e.g., *Leitmotiv*, *Neumes*, *Singspiel*).

5. *There should be minimal use of inverted and subdivided headings.*

The NYPL list seems to satisfy this criterion, while LC usage is clearly dominated by subdivision and inversion.

6. *Cross-references should serve a specific function.*

This study tends to indicate that NYPL's reference structure was designed with more specific functions in mind than was LC's, but it would require a more exhaustive analysis for conclusive documentation. Two specific instances of LC's use or lack of use of see also references may be noted: the very large number (seventy-three) of see also references from *Music*, and the failure to include *Chance composition*, *Serial composition*, and *Musique concrète* as references from *History and criticism—20th century*, leaving *Jazz music* as the only see also reference.

7. *Subdivisions should be standardized.*

As part of its introduction, LC lists standard subdivisions which are intended to be applied uniformly throughout the list, while NYPL provides no standardized list and does not always treat subdivided entries in a uniform manner.

8. *Large blocks of headings should not begin with the chief subject noun.*

It is clear that this criterion identifies the most serious drawback to user convenience in the LC list, since *Music* headings occupy a sizable portion of the catalog. In general, this study appears to support the conclusion that the NYPL list offers more specific, direct, and specialized access to music subject entries.

**APPENDIX I**

Form of LC Subject Headings

A. Single common noun.
   1. Singular, e.g., *Music*.
   2. Plural, e.g., *Composers*.

B. Common noun with modifier.
   1. Preceded by noun adjunct, e.g., *Music libraries*.
   2. Preceded by adjective.
      a. Common adjective, e.g., *Musical notation*.
      b. Proper adjective, e.g., *English ballads and songs*.
   3. Followed by inverted modifier.

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*394*  
*Library Resources & Technical Services*
a. Adjective, e.g., Style, Musical.
b. Noun, e.g., Musicians, Women.
4. Qualified term (noun followed by definition in parenthesis), e.g., Impressionism (Music).

C. Compound forms.
1. Combined term (two nouns joined by conjunction), e.g., Music and literature.
2. Prepositional phrase (two nouns joined by preposition).
   a. Relational, e.g., Music as recreation.
   b. Geographic, e.g., Music in universities and colleges.

APPENDIX II

LC Subject Subdivisions

A. Form.
1. Literary form, e.g., Music—Addresses, essays, lectures.
2. Form of publication, e.g., Music—Dictionaries.

B. Place.
1. Geographic.
   a. Direct, e.g., Music trade—Chicago.
   b. Indirect, e.g., Music—Illinois—Chicago.
2. Linguistic/ethnic/cultural, e.g., Music, German.

C. Time, e.g., Music—History and criticism—20th century.

D. Aspect, e.g., Music—Instruction and study.

APPENDIX III

LC Reference Structure

A. See references (terminology).
   1. From synonyms, e.g., Film music See Moving-picture music.
   2. From second part of compound heading, e.g., Architecture and music See Music and architecture.
   3. From second part of inverted heading, e.g., Popular music See Music, Popular.
   4. From second part of parenthetical expression, e.g., Music, Impressionism in See Impressionism (Music).
   5. From an inverted heading to normal order, e.g., Music, Choral See Choral music.
   6. From variant spellings, e.g., Through bass See Thorough bass.
   7. From opposites, e.g., Atonality See Tonality.

B. See also references (related subjects).
   1. Specific.
      a. From general to specific, e.g., Music—Theory See also Composition (Music), Counterpoint, Harmony, Melody, Musical intervals and scales, Musical meter and rhythm, etc.
      b. To related headings on same level of comprehensiveness, e.g., Piano See also Clavicord, Harpsichord, Player-piano, Spinet, Virginal.
   2. General.
      a. To groups or classes, e.g., Musical instruments See also groups of instruments, e.g., Wind instruments; names of individual instruments, e.g. Flute, Horn, Trumpet.
      b. To authors, anonymous classics, societies, institutions, class numbers in shelf-list, e.g., Societies See also Choral societies, etc. and names of individual societies, e.g. International Musical Society.

Volume 18, Number 4, Fall 1974
APPENDIX IV

LC Filing Order

A. Subject without subdivision.
   Music.

B. Subdivisions (dash).
   1. Form and aspect, in one alphabet.
      Music—Almanacs, yearbooks, etc.
      Music—Instruction and study.
   a. Period, in chronological order under subdivision.
      Music—History and criticism—Ancient.
      —Medieval.
      —16th cent.

2. Geographic, in one alphabet.
   Music—Africa.
   Music—Wales.

C. Inverted headings (comma).
   1. Aspect, in one alphabet.
      Music, Baroque.
      Music, Primitive.
   2. Linguistic/ethnic, in one alphabet.
      Music, African.
      Music, Polynesian.

D. Compound headings and noun adjuncts in one alphabet.
   Music and architecture.
   Music festivals.
   Music rooms and equipment.

APPENDIX V

NYPL Filing Order

A. France, 12th century
   France, 20th century
   France—Bibliography see . . .
   France—Discography see . . .
   France—Aix
   France—Avignon

B. Music and art see . . .
   Music boxes
   Music centers
   Music in cities see . . .
   Music halls
   Music for instruments
   Music in nature see . . .
   Music as a profession
   Music and race see . . .
   Music of the spheres

C. Musicians
   Musicians as authors
   Musicians—Chronology
   Musicians—Economic status
   Musicians in literature see . . .
   Musicians—Occupations
   Musicians, Argentine
   Musicians, British
   Musicians, British—Iconography
   Musicians, German
   Musicians, German—Bavaria
   Musicians, Blind
   Musicians, Itinerant
   Musicians, Itinerant—France

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   396

   Library Resources & Technical Services
9. Harris, Subject Analysis, p.229.
10. Harris, Subject Analysis, p.84.
12. Haykin, Subject Headings, p.73.
13. Haykin, Subject Headings, p.73-74.
14. Cf. filing order used by the Music Department of the Boston Public Library, which retains the word “Music,” but files under the subdivision “Bibliography.”

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Contains an excellent bibliography, p.49-57.
Resources and Technical Services
Division—Highlights of the 1974 Annual Conference

CAROL R. KELM
Executive Secretary
Resources and Technical Services Division

THE RTSD PROGRAMS at the New York Conference on commercial processing services, preservation programs, technical services costs, ISBD(M), proposed changes in rules for entry of serials, paperbacks, and allocation of funds in support of collection development were well attended and stimulating. The tours of the book trade and of conservation operations in the New York City area were also well attended and received favorable comments from participants.

The RTSD Board of Directors discussed division membership promotion and appointed a committee chaired by Billie Salter to coordinate the RTSD membership drive with the ALA Public Information Office membership promotion, giving due consideration to the report of the task force on membership presented to the RTSD Board at the New York Conference. Authorization was given to the committee to take action before the 1975 Midwinter Meeting. A final report including a recommendation relating to the need for an RTSD standing committee on membership will be given at the San Francisco Conference.

The RTSD Board discussed and adopted a policy statement relating to the RTSD division and section discussion groups. This statement interprets the restraints placed on discussion groups by the RTSD division and section bylaws, and makes recommendations about the size of groups and how to resolve problems of membership criteria. At present there are ten discussion groups affiliated with the division and two more considering affiliation. These groups express the wish of the division and section membership to discuss technical services topics with colleagues from libraries of similar size or from functional units of like nature.

The organization and conduct of business of the RTSD Board was considered at length by the Board. The incoming RTSD president, Doralyn Hickey, expressed the desire to develop mechanisms for allowing Board discussion and action on current issues in technical services

Library Resources & Technical Services
and to spend less time hearing reports and conducting "housekeeping" business.

John Byrum, chairman of the RTSD Catalog Code Revision Committee (CCRC), reported on that newly appointed committee. He explained the expectation of the appointment of a North American editor and a British associate editor by the Joint Steering Committee for Revision of AACR (JSCRAACR) by January 1975, and the projected publication of a new edition of the Anglo-American Cataloging Rules (AACR) in 1977. He mentioned the appointment to the CCRC of non-voting representatives by other ALA divisions and the mechanisms being developed to involve RTSD sections and non-ALA organizations in the catalog code revision process. The revised AACR is expected to include the provisions of revised Chapter 6 (already in print) and a revision of Chapter 12 (now under development).

The RTSD Planning Committee, Richard Johnson, chairman, agreed to identify ALA representatives to other organizations within the purview of RTSD and establish reporting mechanisms between representatives and relevant RTSD units.

The RTSD Nonbook Committee chairman, Suzanne Massonneau, reported that the committee is reviewing the draft of AACR Chapter 12 which has been developed by the Library of Congress. She also reported to the RTSD Board that the committee urges the revision of the ALA Glossary.

The Subject Analysis Committee (SAC), Nancy Williamson, chairman, reported to the CCS Executive Committee that SAC has gone on record in expressing the belief that the term "Negroes" is no longer adequate for use in subject headings and it should be replaced by an appropriate term or terms as soon as possible. SAC also urged the Library of Congress to further correctional action on the problems of sexism in LC subject headings. The Library of Congress has asked a Social Responsibilities Roundtable committee to supply a list of priorities for change.

The CCS Executive Committee discussed mechanisms for two-way communication with CONSER (Cooperative Conversion of Serial Records) project personnel.

The Reproduction of Library Materials Section (RLMS) established a Publication Committee to develop and coordinate publications covering the field of concern to the membership of RLMS. The committee will have responsibilities relating to the Directory of Library Reprographic Services and to the development of handouts of instructional material on reprography for distribution at ALA conferences. The section has approved a revision of the library photoduplication order form. The newly approved form will be submitted to commercial producers as soon as possible.

The Resources Section (RS) Bookdealer-Library Relations Committee continues to develop guidelines. Those under consideration now deal with antiquarian materials and microform materials. The serial guide-
lines will be published by ALA in the near future. A revised "Lending
to Reprinting and Microform Publishers: A Policy Statement" has been
developed by the RS Reprinting Committee, Henry James, chairman,
and was approved for publication at the New York Conference meeting
of the RS Executive Committee.

The Serials Section (SS) has appointed an ad hoc committee to study
the feasibility of sponsoring or cosponsoring regional serials workshops.
The RTSD Technical Services Costs Committee also suggested the need
for regional workshops on topics in its area of concern. The SS Dupli-
cates Exchange Union Committee is revising the brochure describing the
Duplicates Exchange Union (DEU) and responsibilities of membership
in it. The committee will sponsor a program on exchanges for DEU
members and others at the 1975 Annual Conference.

**REVISION OF AACR**

Revision of the 1967 *Anglo-American Cataloging Rules (AACR)* was
discussed at a meeting held at the American Library Association head-
quarters in Chicago, Illinois on 29 March 1974. At the meeting the Joint
Steering Committee for Revision of *AACR* was formed. Members of the
committee are: John Byrum (Princeton University Libraries), represent-
ing the American Library Association as chairman of the Resources and
Technical Services Division Catalog Code Revision Committee; Peter
Lewis (University of Sussex Library, England), representing the British
Library; Jean Lunn (National Library of Canada), representing the
Canadian Committee on Cataloguing as its chairman; and C. Sumner
Spalding (Library of Congress), representing the Library of Congress.
The Library Association (Great Britain) representative to the committee
has not yet been named. Deputy representatives will be appointed by each
of the organizations mentioned above. Deputies will have discussion rights
but will vote only if the organization's representative is absent.

The committee defined the objectives of the revision as the follow-
ing:

1. To reconcile in a single text the present North American text and
the British text of the *AACR*.
2. To incorporate in the single text all amendments and changes since
1967 that have already been agreed upon and implemented by the
authors under procedures following from the 1966 "Memorandum of
Agreement on Catalog Code Revision between the American Library
Association and the Library Association."
3. To consider for inclusion in the revision all work currently in
process and all proposals for amendments by the authors of the re-
vised text and national committees of other countries that use Eng-
lish versions of the *AACR* texts, that have been put forward by a

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date not later than seven months after the commencement of editorial work on the revision.

4. To provide for international interests in AACR as are made known to the Joint Steering Committee for Revision of AACR by the date mentioned in 3 above.

The committee has appointed an editor from the U.S., Paul Winkler, and an associate editor from Britain, Michael Gorman, who will begin work on the revision in January 1975. The target date for publication of the revised AACR is 1977. The committee will determine questions of policy for the editors; consider all proposals in relation to the timetable above; ensure adequate communications between all persons and bodies concerned with the revision; assess for approval the rules framed by the editors in accordance with agreed policies; and present for publication the revised text and index. The committee expects to meet at least four times and maybe as many as eight times during the two-year period of revision of AACR.

It was agreed at the 29 March 1974 meeting that the copyright for the revised AACR will be held jointly by the American Library Association, the Library Association, and the Canadian Library Association. Questions of publication, marketing, and translation rights will be determined by the copyright holder while the manuscript is being prepared.

Persons or organizations wishing to make suggestions for revision of specific rules in the AACR are urged to communicate with their national representative on the Joint Steering Committee. This should be done no later than July 1975.
Margaret Mann Citation, 1974:
Frederick G. Kilgour

The Margaret Mann Citation in Cataloging and Classification is awarded in 1974 to Frederick G. Kilgour for his success in organizing and putting into operation the first practical centralized computer bibliographic center. He has been the principal influence behind an emerging trend toward cooperation in technical services. As director of the Ohio College Library Center he has made the Library of Congress MARC data base a practical and useful product, stimulating interest throughout the country and the profession. The hoped-for replication of OCLC in the Northeast, the Southeast, in Texas and New York, indicates clearly that this system will be adopted either in its entirety or in part in many sections of the country. His tireless efforts represent an outstanding contribution to the technical improvements of cataloging and classification and the introduction of new techniques of recognized importance.

Frederick G. Kilgour

David L. Weisbrod
Yale University Library
New Haven, Connecticut

Frederick Gridley Kilgour entered Harvard College in 1931 intending to pursue a career in medicine. Then, “Having enjoyed working in Widener my senior year, I stayed on after graduation.”\(^1\) In a sense, he has never really left librarianship.

In 1943 Fred moved to Washington, where his work in the Office of Strategic Services earned him the rank of lieutenant, junior grade, in the USNR, and the Legion of Merit. There then followed three years as deputy director of the Office of Intelligence Collection and Dissemination in the Department of State, after which in 1948 he became librarian at the Yale University School of Medicine. Here we witness the first of a pair of important syntheses of Fred’s interests: medicine and librarianship. The second synthesis was to follow in a little more than a decade.

\(^1\) Library Resources & Technical Services
During the next seventeen years as medical librarian he continued a postgraduate interest in history, especially the histories of science, medicine, and technology. Fred pursued this interest as writer, as editor, as consultant, and as lecturer in Yale’s Department of the History of Science and Medicine. This work resulted in the occasional publication of what he called “esoteric papers in little-known journals” (his “Vitruvius and the Early History of Wave Theory” may be one of these). Other publications were not, however, so little known. In 1956 the National Book Council of the American Library Association cited Engineering in History (of which Fred was one of four joint authors) among the forty-two “notable books” of the year. This interest in science figured in Fred’s second important synthesis of interests: technology and libraries.

By 1961 Fred had developed a serious interest in the employment of computers in library activities, and he and his counterparts at Columbia and Harvard, Thomas P. Fleming and Ralph T. Esterquest, organized the Columbia-Harvard-Yale Medical Libraries Computerization Project. The ultimate goal of this project was to provide the library clientele direct, interactive query access to a data base comprising the catalogs of the three libraries plus an index of the current medical journal literature—a service not unlike today’s MEDLINE. Although the Columbia-Harvard-Yale project proceeded only as far as phase one (the routine production by computer of catalog cards and of monthly lists of new acquisitions, plus a prototype book-form catalog), it did serve as one “parent”
of several generations of more famous "children," including MARC and OCLC.

In 1965 Fred was appointed Yale's first associate librarian for research and development. The new library office for research and development pursued notable research in the area of catalog use studies and further developed the use of computers in Yale's libraries. A machine-aided technical processing system was implemented, and the Yale Bibliographic System extended and generalized the capabilities of the Columbia-Harvard-Yale project's phase one, as well as serving as the basis for Yale's participation in the MARC Pilot Project of the Library of Congress.

During this period as associate librarian for research and development Fred continued lecturing, writing, and consulting. One particular consulting effort, undertaken jointly with Ralph Parker, resulted in the establishment by the Ohio College Association of the Ohio College Library Center (OCLC) and in the appointment of Frederick G. Kilgour as its director in September 1967.

One might end here with a flippant "and the rest is history," but that would fail to give full credit to Fred's direction of OCLC through its critical early years. Here he was able to call upon a wealth of experience, both organizational and technical. First, the organization itself was structured in such a way as to give the director a free developmental hand. Second, OCLC used to full advantage the technique of evolutionary system development. With the evolutionary (i.e., staged or iterative) approach, the final perfected product does not emerge full-blown as the result of a single creative effort, but rather a first small operating nucleus is built, with features then being added, reworked, or deleted over time until a final product emerges. The first, batch-oriented OCLC catalog card production system was an enhancement of the Yale Bibliographic System. This was the right step with which to begin for at least two reasons: it familiarized a new technical staff with "library-type" electronic data processing with a minimum of trauma, and it brought a functioning service to the OCLC membership in the shortest time possible, thereby allowing more time for the development of OCLC's phase two, the on-line shared cataloging system.

Fred Kilgour married Eleanor Margaret Beach in 1940, and they have four children. They worked together on the first four volumes of the Journal of Library Automation, of which Fred was editor and Eleanor, assistant editor.

Fred enjoys his work and applies himself to it with energy and direction. His expectations are high not only for himself but also for his associates, whom he stimulates and encourages. Complementing these qualities is a genuine interest in the personal well being and professional development of those with whom he works. Fred is interested in individuals, in the phenomenon of human consciousness, and in making every moment of life count. This interest turns occasionally to classical categories and philosophy: one is not surprised to find his twenty-fifth
anniversary report to the Harvard Class of ’35 punctuated with a quotation from Tacitus.4

Fred seems to flourish on a certain amount of difficulty, owing at least in part to his willingness to pitch in and involve himself in the dirty work (literally, as well as figuratively). He is rarely hampered by convention and has employed to advantage on occasion the approach (paraphrased): "If you’re going to circumvent the system, make your detour a big one."

In 1967, when Fred left New Haven for Columbus and OCLC, James Tanis, then Yale University librarian, wrote of Fred’s concern with . . . those aspects of library development which are frequently subsumed under the catch-all term of “automation.” Fred’s interest in automation, however, like his interest in medicine and science generally, was predicated upon humanistic presuppositions rather than primarily upon operational efficiencies. Not the saving of dollars and cents but the serving of faculty and scholars gave direction to Fred’s investigations. This aspect of his work made him the ideal associate for me as we began the implementation of the new technology in the university library. Unfortunately for me and for Yale, it was also, no doubt, one of the reasons why Fred was wooed away to Ohio. In his new job he will have the challenge of creating networks which will contribute so critically to the next phase of interlibrary cooperation.5

Fred Kilgour’s success in meeting that challenge has yielded important benefits of a fundamental nature to the entire world of librarianship, through which he has justly earned the Margaret Mann Citation for 1974.

REFERENCES

4. Harvard College Class of 1935, 25th Anniversary Report (Cambridge, Mass.: 1960), p.733–35. The final paragraph of Fred’s autobiographical report reads, “Tacitus was probably right when he wrote: ‘The desire for fame is the last desire that is laid aside even by the wise,’ but I found that I had to do so long ago.”

NOMINATIONS FOR 1975 MARGARET MANN CITATION

Nominations for the 1975 Margaret Mann Citation are invited and should be submitted by 16 December 1974 to

Marguerite C. Soroka
Chairman, Margaret Mann Citation Committee
Engineering Societies Library
345 East 47th Street
New York, NY 10017.

Names of persons previously nominated but not chosen may be resubmitted, and

Volume 18, Number 4, Fall 1974 · 405
letters of nomination should include a résumé of the nominee’s achievement.

The Margaret Mann Citation is awarded annually for outstanding achievement in cataloging or classification through (1) publication of significant professional literature, (2) contributions to activities of professional cataloging organizations, (3) technical improvements and/or introduction of new techniques of recognized importance, or (4) distinguished work in the area of teaching.

The citation has been awarded annually since 1951 by the Cataloging and Classification Section, Resources and Technical Services Division of the American Library Association, and its predecessors, in honor of Margaret Mann. Miss Mann served as head of the catalog departments of the Carnegie Library in Pittsburgh, the Engineering Societies Library in New York, and the University of Illinois, and also from 1926 to 1938 in the University of Michigan School of Library Science. Her Introduction to Cataloging and the Classification of Books is a classic in the field.

NOMINATIONS FOR ESTHER J. PIERCY AWARD

Nominations for the 1975 Esther J. Piercy Award are invited and should be submitted by 15 December 1974 to:

Barbara Gates  
Chairman, Esther J. Piercy Award Committee  
Interuniversity Council of the North Texas Area  
P.O. Box 688  
Richardson, TX 75080.

Renominations of non-recipients are acceptable; letters of nomination should include a résumé of the nominee’s achievements.

The Esther J. Piercy Award has been given since 1969 by the American Library Association’s Resources and Technical Services Division. The purpose of the award is to recognize contribution to librarianship in the field of technical services by a younger librarian who has not more than ten years of professional experience and who has shown outstanding promise for continuing contributions and leadership. The award may be granted for leadership in professional associations at local, state, regional, or national level; contributions to the development, application, or utilization of new or improved methods, techniques, and routines; a significant contribution to professional literature; or conduct of studies or research in the technical services.

The recipients of the Piercy award to date are

1969 Richard M. Dougherty  
1970 John B. Corbin  
1971 John Phillip Immroth  
1972 Carol A. Nemeyer  
1973 Glen A. Zimmerman  
1974 (no award presented)

Esther J. Piercy, in whose honor this award is given, was active in ALA and several of its divisions. The author of Commonsense Cataloging and numerous articles in the field of librarianship, Miss Piercy was from 1950 until her death the editor of the divisional journal, Journal of Cataloging and Classification, and its successor for Resources and Technical Services Division, Library Resources & Technical Services.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Date/Day</th>
<th>Hour</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>RTSD Board of Directors</td>
<td>Jan 20, Mon</td>
<td>2-4 p.m.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RTSD Luncheon</td>
<td>Jan 22, Wed</td>
<td>10-12 noon</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RTSD LRTS Editorial Board</td>
<td>Jan 23, Thurs</td>
<td>10-12 noon</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RTSD/AAP Joint Committee</td>
<td>†Jan 21, Tues</td>
<td>12:15 p.m.</td>
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<tr>
<td>RTSD Bylaws Committee</td>
<td>Jan 20, Mon</td>
<td>10-12 noon</td>
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<td>RTSD Catalog Code Revision Committee</td>
<td>Jan 19, Sun</td>
<td>8:30-10:30 p.m.</td>
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<td>RTSD Committee on Education for Resources and Technical Services</td>
<td>Jan 20, Mon</td>
<td>4:30-6 p.m.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RTSD Committee on Interlibrary Networks</td>
<td>Jan 17, Fri</td>
<td>9-5 p.m.</td>
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<tr>
<td>RTSD Committee on Interlibrary Networks</td>
<td>Jan 18, Sat</td>
<td>9-5 p.m.</td>
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<tr>
<td>RTSD Conference Program Committee</td>
<td>†Jan 19, Sun</td>
<td>8:30-10:30 p.m.</td>
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<td>RTSD ad hoc Standard Library Typewriter Keyboard Committee</td>
<td>Jan 21, Tues</td>
<td>4:30-7 p.m.</td>
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<td>RTSD Nonbook Committee</td>
<td>Jan 20, Mon</td>
<td>10-12 noon</td>
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<td>RTSD Organization Committee</td>
<td>Jan 20, Mon</td>
<td>2-4 p.m.</td>
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<td>RTSD Organization Study Committee</td>
<td>Jan 20, Mon</td>
<td>10-12 noon</td>
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<td>Jan 20, Mon</td>
<td>2-4 p.m.</td>
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<td>RTSD Conference Program Committee</td>
<td>Jan 23, Thurs</td>
<td>10-12 noon</td>
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<td>Jan 22, Wed</td>
<td>12:15 p.m.</td>
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<td>Jan 20, Mon</td>
<td>10-12 noon</td>
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<td>Jan 22, Wed</td>
<td>8-9:30 a.m.</td>
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<td>4:30-6 p.m.</td>
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<td>RTSD conference Program Committee</td>
<td>Jan 21, Tues</td>
<td>2-4 p.m.</td>
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<tr>
<td>RTSD Preservation of Library Materials Committee</td>
<td>Jan 22, Wed</td>
<td>10-12 noon</td>
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<tr>
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<td>January 18, Sat</td>
<td>10-4 p.m.</td>
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<td>January 19, Sun</td>
<td>8:30-10:30 p.m.</td>
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<td>January 22, Wed</td>
<td>10-12 noon</td>
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<td>RTSD Preservation of Library Materials Committee</td>
<td>*Jan 21, Tues</td>
<td>4:30-6 p.m.</td>
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* closed meeting
† Open to all RTSD members; tickets on sale at Midwinter.
‡ Topic to be discussed: main entry for serial publications.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Date/Day</th>
<th>Hour</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>RTSD Technical Service Administrators of Medium-Sized Research Libraries Discussion Group</td>
<td>Jan 21, Tues</td>
<td>4:30-6 p.m.</td>
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<tr>
<td>RTSD Technical Services Administrators of Small Research Libraries Discussion Group</td>
<td>Jan 21, Tues</td>
<td>2-4 p.m.</td>
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<tr>
<td>RTSD Technical Services Directors of Large Research Libraries Discussion Group</td>
<td>Jan 19, Sun</td>
<td>9-12 noon</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RTSD Chief Collection Development Officers of Large Research Libraries Discussion Group</td>
<td>Jan 19, Sun</td>
<td>1-4 p.m.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Jan 18, Sat</td>
<td>7-9 p.m.</td>
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**CATALOGING AND CLASSIFICATION SECTION**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Committee</th>
<th>Date/Day</th>
<th>Hour</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CCS Executive Committee</td>
<td>Jan 21, Tues</td>
<td>2-4 p.m.</td>
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<tr>
<td>CCS Cataloging of Children's Materials Committee</td>
<td>Jan 22, Wed</td>
<td>8-9:30 a.m.</td>
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<td>CCS Cataloging of Children's Materials Committee</td>
<td>Jan 20, Mon</td>
<td>2-4 p.m.</td>
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<tr>
<td>CCS Conference Program Committee</td>
<td>* Jan 20, Mon</td>
<td>10-12 noon</td>
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<tr>
<td>CCS Descriptive Cataloging Committee</td>
<td>Jan 20, Mon</td>
<td>8-9:30 a.m.</td>
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<td>CCS Descriptive Cataloging Committee</td>
<td>Jan 21, Tues</td>
<td>8-9:30 a.m.</td>
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<td>CCS Margaret Mann Citation Committee</td>
<td>* Jan 20, Mon</td>
<td>2-4 p.m.</td>
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<tr>
<td>CCS Policy and Research Committee</td>
<td>Jan 20, Mon</td>
<td>2-4 p.m.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CCS Subject Analysis Committee</td>
<td>Jan 21, Tues</td>
<td>4:30-6 p.m.</td>
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<td>CCS Subject Analysis Committee</td>
<td>Jan 20, Mon</td>
<td>10-12 noon</td>
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<tr>
<td>Subcommitte on Subject Headings for Correctional Materials</td>
<td>Jan 21, Tues</td>
<td>8-9:30 a.m.</td>
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**REPRODUCTION OF LIBRARY MATERIALS SECTION**

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<tr>
<th>Committee</th>
<th>Date/Day</th>
<th>Hour</th>
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<tr>
<td>RLMS Executive Committee</td>
<td>Jan 21, Tues</td>
<td>8:30-10:30 p.m.</td>
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<td>RLMS Policy &amp; Research Committee</td>
<td>Jan 22, Wed</td>
<td>4:30-6 p.m.</td>
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<td>RLMS Policy &amp; Research Committee</td>
<td>Jan 21, Tues</td>
<td>8-9:30 a.m.</td>
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<tr>
<td>RLMS Standards Committee</td>
<td>Jan 19, Sun</td>
<td>8-10:30 p.m.</td>
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<tr>
<td>RLMS Telefacsimile Committee</td>
<td>Jan 20, Mon</td>
<td>10-12 noon</td>
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<tr>
<td>RLMS Discussion Group</td>
<td>Jan 21, Tues</td>
<td>4:30-6 p.m.</td>
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**RESOURCES SECTION**

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<th>Date/Day</th>
<th>Hour</th>
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<td>Jan 20, Mon</td>
<td>8:30-10:30 p.m.</td>
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<td>RS Executive Committee</td>
<td>Jan 21, Tues</td>
<td>2-4 p.m.</td>
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<tr>
<td>RS Executive Committee</td>
<td>*Jan 20, Mon</td>
<td>12:15 p.m.</td>
</tr>
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<td>RS Bookdealer–Library Relations Committee</td>
<td>Jan 21, Tues</td>
<td>4:30-6 p.m.</td>
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<tr>
<td>RS Collection Development Committee</td>
<td>Jan 19, Sun</td>
<td>10-12 noon</td>
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<tr>
<td>RS Collection Development Committee</td>
<td>Jan 19, Sun</td>
<td>2-4 p.m.</td>
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<tr>
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<td>Jan 19, Sun</td>
<td>4:30-6 p.m.</td>
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<td>RS Library Materials Price Index Committee</td>
<td>Jan 20, Mon</td>
<td>10-12 noon</td>
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<td>RS Micropublishing Projects Committee</td>
<td>Jan 20, Mon</td>
<td>10-12 noon</td>
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<tr>
<td>RS Policy &amp; Research Committee</td>
<td>Jan 21, Tues</td>
<td>8-9:30 a.m.</td>
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<tr>
<td>RS Reprinting Committee</td>
<td>Jan 19, Sun</td>
<td>4:30-6 p.m.</td>
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<td>RS Reprinting Committee</td>
<td>Jan 20, Mon</td>
<td>2-4 p.m.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

* closed meeting

408  
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Library Resources & Technical Services
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Date/Day</th>
<th>Hour</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>RS Collection Development Officers of Medium-Sized Research Libraries Discussion Group</td>
<td>Jan 19, Sun</td>
<td>2-4 p.m.</td>
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</tbody>
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SERIALS SECTION

<table>
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<th>Group</th>
<th>Date/Day</th>
<th>Hour</th>
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</thead>
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<tr>
<td>SS Executive Committee</td>
<td>Jan 21, Tues</td>
<td>8-9:30 a.m.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SS AACR Revision Study Committee (ad hoc)</td>
<td>Jan 22, Wed</td>
<td>4:30-6 p.m.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SS Ad hoc Committee to Study Manually-Maintained Serial Records</td>
<td>Jan 21, Tues</td>
<td>2-4 p.m.</td>
</tr>
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<td>SS Duplicates Exchange Union Committee</td>
<td>Jan 20, Mon</td>
<td>8-9:30 a.m.</td>
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<tr>
<td>SS Policy &amp; Research Committee</td>
<td>Jan 20, Mon</td>
<td>10-12 noon</td>
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<tr>
<td>SS Regional Serials Workshop Committee</td>
<td>Jan 20, Mon</td>
<td>10-12 noon</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SS Union Lists Committee (ad hoc)</td>
<td>Jan 20, Mon</td>
<td>10-12 noon</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SS Discussion Group for Large Research Libraries</td>
<td>Jan 21, Tues</td>
<td>4:30-6 p.m.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SS Medium-Sized Libraries Serials Discussion Group</td>
<td>Jan 22, Wed</td>
<td>10-12 noon</td>
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MISCELLANEOUS

| Library of Congress Foreign Acquisitions Program Participants | Jan 22, Wed  | 10-12 noon  |

*Volume 18, Number 4, Fall 1974*

This collection of thirty-eight papers, from the two-week Institute on the Acquisition of Foreign Materials funded by Title II of the Higher Education Act of 1965, presents the two sides of the process: that of the librarian and that of the bookseller.

The foreword by the editor (also assistant director of the institute) lists four objectives of the institute and defines its basic purpose as being "to familiarize the participants with both traditional and newly developed procedures and methods for the acquisition of library materials from foreign countries . . ." (p.iii). Samore's introduction discusses the ideal of complete bibliographic control of the world's output of media and explains the four-part plan of his compilation.

Part I consists of five papers on cooperative and federal acquisition programs. They include descriptions of various cooperative arrangements such as the National Program for Acquisitions and Cataloging, the Public Law 480 Program, and the Farmington Plan. Part II, the largest section, entitled "Sources of Foreign Materials," contains seventeen papers by booksellers. Among those firms are Blackwell, Harrassowitz, Slatkine, R and D Books, and The Cellar Book Shop. Richard Blackwell's "Acquisition of Current Materials from Europe: A View from Blackwell" (p.53-63) is the most concise and explicit. The acquiring of materials by auction is well covered by three papers concluding this section.

Part III, with eleven papers by librarians, details the many problems of the acquisition departments in purchasing materials from various areas of the world. The concluding Part IV, with five papers, discusses acquisition of special materials: ephemera, manuscripts, rare books, maps, and microforms. Stevens Rice of University Microfilms on microform development gives material and points useful to library personnel in areas outside of acquisitions.

An appendix of twenty-four pages concludes this section.

An index of nine pages covers subjects, including names of foreign countries and authors.

The volume is well bound in green buckram. The format is good, with adequate margins and legible type, giving the page a pleasing appearance. The title is recommended for all personnel, both the newly qualified in their first positions and librarians with years of experience, who are concerned with the acquisition of foreign materials.—Evelyn S. Scott, University of Dallas, Irving, Texas.

The Dewey Decimal Classification and its offspring, the Universal Decimal Classification (UDC) have often been declared to be as dead as door-nails, yet both can point out, with Mark Twain, that these reports are grossly exaggerated. Indeed, both systems are alive and well in libraries and documentation centres in many countries and show no signs of imminent demise.

If modern classification theory and adequate methods of management will be applied to its development in the future, there is no reason why UDC should not become a universally applicable retrieval scheme for all types of literature in all languages and countries, forming an essential link in what is now becoming known as Universal Bibliographic Control (UBC). This, essentially, is the thesis of A. C. Foskett, who is singularly well prepared to explore the subject because of his wide experience as a librarian, classifier, teacher of classification and indexing, and an author of textbooks.

After a short exposition of the need and justification for general classification schemes as such, Foskett examines in some detail the origins and the present status of the UDC, pointing out the shortcomings of the scheme as well as its advantages when compared to the two other commonly used general schemes, viz., Dewey (the parent scheme on whose framework the UDC is still largely built, although UDC developed quite differently in detail and theoretical conception), and the Library of Congress (LC) classification. Although this ground has been covered by previous writers in various textbooks, surveys, and reports, the author summarizes the arguments in a lucid manner and adds his own observations, based on long-standing experience with the UDC.

The main part of the work, however, is devoted to the elaboration of detailed and well-documented suggestions for the future development of the UDC: its theoretical framework, its notational structure, its management and updating, and also its adaptation for use in computerized retrieval (for which the scheme has already shown itself to be quite useful, but still in need of some considerable streamlining to take full advantage of the capabilities of machine retrieval). Here, the author draws not only on published reports, studies, and comments, but also on internal and semipublished material to which, as a long-standing contributor to the UDC, he has access. Some of this material is very recent, making his recommendations and conclusions the more relevant and topical.

Foskett also considers the work done during the last two decades by the British Classification Research Group (CRG), which contributed most of what is now considered to be the modern theory of classification and which has also laid the foundation for the British National Bibliography's PRECIS subject indexing system; the implications of this system for UDC are clearly pointed out.

The question "Has the UDC a future?" is answered in the affirmative, not out of starry-eyed idealism, but on the strength of the arguments discussed and on the assumption that the recommendations for a thorough revision of the scheme, its structure, and its management will be adopted. One of Foskett's most constructive suggestions is that the British Library (the recently instituted amalgamation of the British Museum Library, the former Patent Office Library, the National Lending Library, and the
British National Bibliography) should become the responsible agency for the English edition of the UDC, while leaving overall responsibility for UDC with its parent body, the International Federation of Documentation (FID). The analogy to the Dewey organization, where the Library of Congress Decimal Classification Office is largely responsible for updating and revision, while the Forest Press holds the copyright and has overall managerial and editorial responsibility, is obvious. Such an arrangement would probably do more for the propagation and adoption of UDC throughout the English-speaking world than any other measure, particularly because UDC numbers would then appear on British MARC tapes, representing an alternative to Dewey and LC numbers. But this is still in the future. One would hope, however, that those responsible for the UDC in FID as well as those now planning the details of the British Library will give thorough consideration to Foskett's work. In view of the well-deserved popularity of the author's earlier textbook on classification, which has already become a classic in schools of librarianship, it is to be hoped that the present work will become one of the important sources for the serious study of classification and its theoretical problems which are here demonstrated on the example of UDC in a manner which makes this book a valuable teaching and study aid far beyond its seemingly narrow subject. I have only two minor gripes. One is about the index, which might have been more extensive, particularly regarding names of authors which are indexed only to citations in the bibliography (149 items) but not to the text itself. The other concerns the Cataloging in Publication data, duly printed on the verso of the title page, which give the title as “The universal decimal classification” (no capitals). Isn't it time for LC to take notice, after almost ninety years, that this is the proper name of a classification system, not just any old universal classification system? How would LC react to a citation of “The library of congress classification”?—Hans Wellisch, College of Library and Information Services, University of Maryland, College Park.


This is a syllabus for a course “designed to provide present or future library administrators with sufficient understanding of the issues and techniques [my emphasis] involved that they can approach library automation with equanimity and good sense. They will acquire a solid background upon which to build the future. . . .” (p.vi).

Eight units of study are presented which reflect the needs in library automation of middle and upper level library personnel (according to a survey reported by the Catholic University of America's Continuing Library Education Project). These eight units are: Bridging the Gap: Librarians and Automation; Computer Technology; Systems Analysis and Implementation; MARC Program; Library Clerical Processes; Reference Services; Related Technologies; and Library Networks.

As a syllabus, the book does little more than outline the topics in each unit, but this is done in prose style as well, with footnotes providing guidance to those specific readings which are most pertinent to the particular topic. Besides these readings at the
end of each unit, there is a list of basic sources of information (handbooks and encyclopedias, newsletters, journals, and annual reviews, bibliographies, etc.) and a separate list of additional references. Unfortunately there is not a subject or author index for all these references or for the topics discussed in each of the units. If the reader, for instance, wants to learn something about the Ohio College Library Center (OCLC), he will have to hunt to find some mention of it in the outline for some unit (in this case, Unit 8), with relevant references footnoted at that point. He is completely on his own to locate additional references to OCLC in the twenty-two-page bibliography at the end of the book. This is a serious shortcoming when the principal purpose of the text is to provide the reader “a solid background.”

A commendable feature of this course syllabus is that for each unit behavioral objectives are specified. In the foreword, Elizabeth W. Stone itemizes the other five features of such a course planned using the systems approach: assessment of student repertories, development of instructional strategies, testing, revising instructional units, and packaging of courses. Unfortunately we are not shown how this course syllabus was used in a class setting, how student repertories were assessed, how other instructional strategies were developed besides the reading strategy which this book displays quite well, and other matters. This work, which Stone hopes will “prove useful to individual librarians as well as to organized study groups” (p.iii), falls short as a guide of study for a group which has the capacity for instructional strategies other than reading and discussion. As an instructor, I would have appreciated some descriptions of laboratory or hands-on assignments, some problems designed to show how MARC records are created, some suggested field trips to libraries engaged in automation efforts, and more attention to the impact on reference services via the use of data bases available commercially and in consortia and the emergence of contracting automated services outside the library. The complete lack of any illustrations in the text points up how dependent the reader is on additional readings and experiences for “a solid background.” If only the book came with a pocket of microfiche containing the texts of readings cited!

Even though these shortcomings force the reader to use this book only as a guide to the relevant literature of the sixties and very early seventies which is to be found elsewhere, we should not overlook its value as a synopticon of the themes and ideas which must be understood by all those having to make decisions about automation in libraries. We could not have a better team to prepare these outlines for that purpose: a world famous authority on the subject and a practicing librarian who has experienced the trials and tribulations (and early successes) of using computers to control bibliographic records. To sift through all the literature of the sixties and cull from it those items most pertinent to the important themes to build the future was a noble exercise in judgment. This reviewer trusts the authors’ judgment, found few items omitted which would be essential, and found very few which appeared extraneous. It is, nevertheless, sad to see in a typewriter-composed page, published in 1973, references which are not updated (e.g., references to the proceedings of the September 1970 Conference on Interlibrary Communication and Information Networks listed as “to be published”). Last-minute in-

* 413 *
serts were not made for very important publications such as the MARC User Survey, the MARC map and serial formats, etc. These are serious faults in a book which is primarily a pathfinder to the literature. Nevertheless, it does what no traditional bibliography or annual review does: it provides perspective and an organized array of suggested readings. For this reason, I recommend its purchase by those in the intended audience and by library school faculty and students here and abroad.—Pauline Atherton, School of Library Science, Syracuse University, Syracuse, New York.


The literature of librarianship is frequently characterized as superficial and ill-conceived, and often the charge is justified. And yet, we assert that the last few years have witnessed a marked up-turn in the quality of library literature. Indeed, where we once observed a frustrating lack of quality work, we are now faced with an embarrassment of riches. For instance, where Pierce Butler's little Introduction to Library Science (1930) once stood as the only serious and influential analysis of the social and theoretical foundations of librarianship, we suddenly have Shera's monumental Foundations of Education for Librarianship (1972) and Wasserman's provocative and activist The New Librarianship (1972). And now, in 1973, we find before us two impressive, and vastly different, new books on the selection and acquisition of library materials.

Robert Broadus, professor in the Library School at Northern Illinois University and a frequent contributor to library literature, had perhaps the more formidable task, for his book, Selecting Materials for Libraries, is concerned primarily with the aesthetic, subjective, and very difficult process librarians refer to as "selection," and as a result runs the risk of being compared to Helen Haines' very popular Living with Books (2d ed., 1950). However, Broadus' book must be considered the winner in such a competition, and the advocates of selection as the very heart of librarianship clearly have a new champion.

Broadus is both literate and humane, and is dedicated to the ideal that "intelligent selection involves a lifetime of studying people and materials." He views announcements of the "death of book selection" as absurd and argues forcefully and articulately for his belief that selection is the most challenging and significant task the librarian can engage in.

While Selecting Materials for Libraries is intended as a general work of use to all librarians, the author has chosen the mid-sized public library as a frequent reference point because its "selection problems are especially acute." At the same time, readers should note that this work is focused on the "selection" process in libraries, and the author devotes considerable space to such matters as general principles of selection, value versus demand, intellectual freedom versus censorship, the background of selection, how to judge a book, and selection by subject fields. Throughout the book, Broadus has taken aggressive and generally convincing stands on these and many other aspects of his topic, and his book must now be considered the best work available on the
Equally impressive, but with a decidedly different focus, is Stephen Ford's *The Acquisition of Library Materials*. The book is a response to a request made by a 1969 Ad Hoc Committee of the Acquisitions Section of RTSD and the Library Education Division that the American Library Association publish a book designed to serve as a text for library school students, as well as a handbook for the practicing librarian. Ford achieves remarkable success in meeting these requirements and his book should prove very useful to students and practitioners alike. Since the book is directed heavily toward students, the author stresses his intent to treat topics of "concern to all libraries regardless of size." In spite of the difficult task this approach implies, Ford does an outstanding job of isolating and examining the various acquisitions procedures and in providing extensive and carefully chosen lists of additional sources for each aspect covered.

Ford's approach is logical and well organized. He begins by examining organizational and planning problems, budgeting concerns, and selection policies for all types of acquisitions units. Then he turns to a discussion of each function carried out in the acquisitions process, always noting variations for different sizes and kinds of libraries. In addition, wherever applicable, Ford notes standard abbreviations and carefully explains jargon. Throughout the author stresses the advantages of standardization.

The many thorny problems faced by acquisitions librarians, such as domestic and foreign in-print book orders, the use of blanket order and approval plans, out-of-print ordering, serial publications, nonprint materials, and gift and exchange, are all discussed with skill and clarity. Permeating the work is Ford's conviction that the acquisitions librarian must know his collection, be aware of the needs of his clientele, and be familiar with the world of books.

The last two chapters of the book depart from the theme of the others in that they summarize the state of the art in centralized processing and the automation of order routines. These chapters serve to introduce students and practitioners to automation and centralization and are not meant to be manuals of practice. All in all, Ford's book represents an unusually successful mix of superior textbook for the uninitiated and useful handbook for the practicing librarian.

Taken together these two books represent a major contribution to the literature of library science, and the authors are to be complimented for contributing to our understanding of this very complex aspect of librarianship, and for making the topic ever so much more interesting to library school students.—Michael H. Harris, College of Library Science, University of Kentucky, and Deanna Hudson, Acquisitions Department, M. I. King Library, University of Kentucky.


*Library Trends* previously looked at bibliographies in 1967 when they were examined in fairly broad terms. The present issue looks specifically at the transmission and recording of scholarly information as it is revealed through bibliographic analysis. The term "bibliographies" has been interpreted in the broadest sense as including abstracting and indexing services. Of the five contributors, one is drawn from the field of zoological science, three from information science, and
the fifth from classical studies.

The opening paper, by H. R. Simon, editor for this issue, points out the necessity of analyzing bibliographies, one important reason being that bibliographies enable the development of "model formulations which may ultimately give rise to a comprehensive theory of information."

In considering secondary services and the "rising tide of paper," J. Martyn brings to the fore such problems as overlap in bibliographic services, the high repetition rate of information, particularly in books, and, perhaps even more serious, the difficulty of locating and identifying material not reported by secondary services at all. One illuminating fact which does emerge is the author's skepticism concerning international cooperation as it is presently practiced.

An interesting description of the application of numerical methods of analysis to bibliographies comes next. Librarians who are unaccustomed to these methods, described in a later paper as "bibliometric studies," will naturally approach them with some trepidation. However, they are not to be avoided, for much valuable data can be gained from them which are useful in such areas as information systems design, the prediction of publishing trends, and the measurement of obsolescence.

Lawrence Thompson deals specifically with the humanities and stresses the current state and future trends of humanistic bibliography rather than its analysis. Particular attention is drawn to the impact of the reprint trade upon bibliographic services: many bibliographies, previously out-of-print, are now available, while many of the older titles that they record are also back in print.

By contrast, the next contribution, by R. T. Bottle, continues the theme of bibliometric analysis, which the author sees as, among other things, the means of predicting the future of a subject and, by extension, the future of its bibliographic services. Here, also, can be found some useful comments on the serious problem of "transmission losses" in the transfer of information, brought about by either exclusion of material from a bibliographic service (total loss), or by the omission of vital pieces of information by the abstracting or indexing service (partial loss). Further uses for the data generated by analysis are also discussed.

The final paper, by Simon, examines briefly the outlook for analyses of bibliographies and predicts a future in which the computer will play a large part.

It seems obvious from this well-written and cohesive collection of papers that bibliographic services in general, and enumerative bibliography in particular, need to be scrutinized in some detail with a view to their eventual rationalization. To choose a particular example from the field of library science, would it not be appropriate for that field's principal abstracting and indexing services, namely, Library and Information Science Abstracts and Library Literature, to lead the way?—John A. Wiseman, Trent University, Peterborough, Ontario.


This second edition is an improvement. Typographically the text is much more legible and attractive. Computerized photo composition is more appealing than the typewritten
style and could be accommodated on less pages.

However, the text editing program—Magnuscript—as described in the production note on the last page is imperfect. Spelling mistakes appear on pages 1, 2, and 9. On page 36, under author entries, a line-and-one-half is missing, which would surely confuse the neophyte studying the author entry. On page 61 in the tenth last line, a part of a sentence has been omitted. It should read “Then and only then can he report with certainty that the library does not have the book and has not ordered it.” On page 72 the Cutter number J63 is missing. One page 73, in the middle of the page, the spacing was omitted between “is desired,” and the boldface heading LIBRARY OF CONGRESS AUTHOR NUMBERS. In the first line under that heading the letter “S” is missing after the words “After the initial letter.” Two sections down, the wording reads “After other initial vowels:”; but it should read “After initial vowels:” since there is no exception as for the initial letter S. On the last page “Vertical File Index” is alphabetically out of order.

The second edition augments fittingly. The preface is entirely new, with valuable parts of the first edition preface incorporated in the first chapter. Consistent with the new material, the questions at the end of each chapter have been brought up-to-date. However, question six on page 51, now meaningless, should be deleted.

Most of the new material in the second edition pertains to the type of unit entry, especially the change from the main entry to the title unit entry and the advantages thereof. Other important additions concern Cataloging in Publication, reference to Forthcoming Books and the Classified

List of Library of Congress Subject Headings, a couple of new insertions in Appendix I, etc.

References are made to the 1908 and 1967 cataloging codes, as if these were the only two ever published. However, later in the book, mention of the 1949 edition occurs. On page 76 reference is made to the ALA Rules for Filing Catalog Cards (1942). The second edition (1968) should be quoted, particularly since an abridged volume is available.

The purpose for which this book exists is really worthwhile and necessary. This reviewer tried to read the text as if he were a library technical assistant. He felt that the language was such that a person, with the educational requirements of such a position, would be able to understand the text or could ask intelligent questions concerning certain items if they were not perfectly clear. The fact that this work appears in a second edition indicates that it has served a purpose and is meeting a need. Despite the slight errors pointed out, which take a minimum of correction, it should be available in any library which employs library technical assistants. With library education as it is today, those with master’s degrees who will never do such work should read this book so that they know what the people working under them are expected to do.—(Rev.) Jovian P. Lang, O.F.M., Department of Library Science-IV, University of South Florida, Tampa.

LARC Institute, Stateline, Nevada.

The LARC Institute on Acquisi-
tions Systems and Subsystems was held at the Playboy Resort Hotel in Lake Geneva, Wisconsin, on 25–26 May 1972. The institute’s program, which follows the title page of these proceedings, offered presentations on computer systems hardware and university financial systems the first morning, and on acquisitions systems and the Library Acquisitions Information System (LAIS) that afternoon. The second day’s agenda was devoted to morning presentations by two representatives of commercial, automated acquisitions systems and an afternoon discussion session.

The published proceedings vary somewhat from this program. After an introduction, Dennis Klinger (coordinator of library systems at Florida International University) provides two elementary discussions, one on computer systems hardware and another on the systems approach. Klinger’s remarks, aimed at the librarian who is without previous computer acquaintance, were supplemented by handouts and slides of such things as computer consoles and tape drives. The proceedings reproduce neither the handouts nor the pictures. Though his discussions offer acquisitions examples, the information imparted is available from other and more comprehensive sources. His second topic, university financial systems, seems to have disappeared between the program and the proceedings.

Bruce Alper (director of data processing at Arizona State University) follows Klinger in the proceedings. Instead of the program’s topics of acquisitions systems and the Library Acquisitions Information System, the proceedings provide the substance of Alper’s description of LAIS as previously reported in the LARC Reports (Volume 4, Issue 2), since his presentation paralleled that earlier offering. Instead of an overview of alternatives among acquisitions systems, then, the institute focuses upon one unique system.

LAIS, currently in operation at three different universities (Florida Atlantic, Florida International, and Arizona State), “doesn’t do anything, but it is a powerful management tool,” to quote Alper. The system is called an acquisitions information system because it provides management and accounting information rather than such things as purchase orders, which are produced manually. Title is the only bibliographic element entered into the system. No use seems to be made of MARC records at present.

The second morning saw presentations by Lloyd Olsen (Baker & Taylor) and by Don Chvatal (Richard Abel) of the automated acquisitions support which their firms offer. The information provided is the same as contained in the brochures of these companies.

This very slim volume, less than a quarter of which is text, does not constitute a new contribution to the literature presently available about acquisitions systems. Only one system (and that one rather limited) is discussed. Very little discussion among the institute’s participants is included in the proceedings. If this title has any value, it may be in the sixty-odd pages of exhibits, flow charts, and examples of LAIS output. This information is, of course, already available in the LARC Reports.—Peter H. Stevens, Acquisitions Department, University of Calgary Library.


The effect of reading Vickery is somewhat similar to that of reading
C. D. Broad. Broad, you remember, used to analyze philosophical concepts into basic definitions and then build, step by step, until he made his point. He would do a magnificent job, but the reader was left with a "what now?" attitude because after following through distinction after distinction the reader did not know what to do afterwards. Vickery affects the reader similarly. He defines and analyzes. He presents copious charts and diagrams. Yet he stops suddenly and goes to another topic. That last sentence is perhaps the critical point. Either Vickery intended this book as a textbook, or he attempted à la Broad to entrap so much that he overwhelms the reader. Vickery, once more like Broad, requires a careful and faithful reader, not one who picks up a book just for off moments' browsing or relaxation. Vickery is important and he demands rigid attention. Perhaps he demands more of the reader than most librarians are able to give.

Nevertheless, he does write on a topic that all librarians should not only be excited about but also anxious to learn. The transference or transformation of information, after all, is what we are about. The types of information systems on which Vickery concentrates, namely, the transference of information between specialists, referencing their work and being based on documents, are the types with which we all are concerned whether we call ourselves "librarians," "information specialists," "documentalists," "archivists," "bibliographers," or "records managers."

Vickery's basic point is that man is a social animal who, as a social animal, communicates. Hence systems of informative communication come into existence. Yet he does not wish to spend time analyzing luncheon menus, which, mind you, do represent transference of information, but rather wishes to analyze the transference of information between specialists. The early chapters develop the concepts that are used in information systems. Should the reader get untangled from the arrows and lines of the figures and diagrams of chapter one, he is likely to begin to understand Vickery's technique and to appreciate the complexity of the subject. For most readers, chapters five through seven will be the most rewarding. It is in these chapters that unification occurs, when the defining and analyzing has brought together an object for the reader to see. Yet here, too, particularly in chapter seven, it will take a reader with a degree of sophistication or specialized education to understand point by point Vickery's commentary. Nevertheless, it is perhaps the subjects of chapter seven which provide library managers with the access to the future.

The major question, however, is "what has Vickery accomplished with this volume?" Certainly he has analyzed the various concepts and procedures that as a group indicate information systems. For that we all should be grateful. Nevertheless, it is not clear who Vickery intended to be his reader-recipients. The "reader" cannot be a beginner in this subject because the development of the formulae could not be followed. The "reader," on the other hand, cannot be the sophisticate because then the book is a teaser, and the items in the bibliography are more to the point. It appears that Vickery's style perhaps will reduce the potential reading public. That result would be a shame for he presents information that it would be well for all of us at some time in our careers to understand.—G. A. Rudolph, Director of Libraries, Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University, Blacksburg.

This first edition represents a second effort of the authors to codify cataloging procedures for nonbook materials. Like the earlier preliminary edition published in 1970, it sets forth cataloging rules structured to conform to the principles contained in parts I and II of the *Anglo-American Cataloging Rules*, with the express aim of facilitating the creation of an integrated, omnimedia catalog. While there are some substantive changes, particularly in the areas of entry and terminology, there is the more immediate recognition of enlargement in the case of some sections, notably maps and recordings (audiorecords), and expansion to include newer media and more examples, as well as a consideration of media storage and handling requirements. The result is a considerably lengthier code, almost doubled in pagination, with increased possibility for practical application. Whereas the preliminary edition was written specifically for school libraries, the new edition has been written for all types of libraries and media centers. In line with this wider orientation, the rules provide for the inclusion of more detailed descriptive statements, particularly with respect to imprint, collation, and notes, and the indication of audience level, if desired. Where more extensive detail is desired, reference is made to chapters in the *Anglo-American Cataloging Rules*. For those desiring less descriptive information, optional elements are often noted. In face of the variety of cataloging needs and life-styles, adaptability is underscored.

Although the authors reiterate their entry procedures, they acknowledge the use of alternate approaches in the case of some media where cataloging practice, user orientation, or specialized collections have been focal issues. For instance, in the case of recordings, a constructive and welcoming alternate approach uses the performer as the main entry for collections of works by more than one author or composer with or without a collective title. This contrasts with the practice of the *Anglo-American Cataloging Rules* and the authors' first ruling of using title main entry for such works with a collective title and separate entries for individual works in such collections without a collective title. Recognizing the performer as a main entry choice undoubtedly advances user orientation and, more critically, strengthens the structure of an integrated catalog. Catalogers, however, might question the authors' disregard of the established practice of entering works of shared responsibility under title when there are more than three authors, none of whom is the principal author. Regardless of the number of performers who share equally in responsibility for the artistic interpretation, the authors call for an author main entry, invariably the first-named performer.

An alternate approach, constructive if considerably limited in application, involves motion pictures where exception to entry under title may be made in adherence to the auteur theory or when it is desirable that the book and the motion picture be cited together in the catalog. The authors cite Sir Kenneth Clark's *Civilisation*, but provide no examples. The exception would also seem applicable in the case of writers, artists, etc., reading or explaining the record-
ed works of others; in such cases, these individuals would function by analogy like a compiler in the case of collections of written works—or the performer in the case of collections of music. While instances of clearly attributed authorship in this medium will be minimal, a stronger case for its recognition is needed.

Perhaps the most disappointing approach presented by the authors is their reiteration of title main entry for maps. Alternate approaches include use of the map rules in the Anglo-American Cataloging Rules and those suggested by map librarians, which are presented in the appendices to this volume. Only the first two approaches dictating the prescribed author/title main entries are believed to accommodate integration in an omnimedia catalog. The last approach with main entry under geographical subject area is recommended only for specialized nonintegrated map collections and catalogs. However, of these, the authors’ approach must be considered the least viable. While few catalogers will agree that the Anglo-American Cataloging Rules’ principle of entry under map authors is helpful, the authors’ alternative principle of entry under map titles is meaningless, as the examples accompanying their rules clearly illustrate. It is unfortunate, given the research and cooperation of cataloging bodies and media and map specialists in the preparation of this edition, that progress in this area should remain so elusive.

However, this criticism should not obscure the achievements that the authors and these bodies, particularly the Joint Advisory Committee on Nonbook Materials which was formed to assist the authors, have accomplished. In addition to the code’s wider orientation and its representation, if not resolution, of differing cataloging philosophies and practices, the accomplishments include the proposal of a core of largely generic media designations which differ from the more specific designations in the authors’ preliminary edition. While the arguments that have been advanced against generic designations are well-taken, professional acceptance is seen to be on the side of the authors, generated by the Library of Congress for one which, with two exceptions, accepted the proposed list. The work that the authors have performed in bringing the profession closer to the formulation of internationally acceptable standards of cataloging nonbook media is perhaps their greatest achievement. Until such formulation this edition, like the preliminary edition, could well serve as an interim guide for the cataloging of this media.—Ann M. Fox, Catholic University of America, Washington, D.C.
INDEX

Volume 18, 1974

General Procedures Used in Compiling the Index

(1) The following types of entries are included:
   a. authors—of articles, of ERIC/CLIS abstracts, of letters, of reviews, and of books reviewed (the latter two categories identified by "(t)" following the name)
   b. subjects of articles and of books reviewed (the latter identified by "(s)"; subject entries for individuals and corporate agencies are provided sparingly and are identified by "(about)"
   c. titles of articles and of books reviewed (the latter identified by "(t)"

(2) Cross-references have been inserted sparingly; in most cases, multiple listings have been preferred to the use of syndetics.

(3) Corporate names have been indexed under the common form of the name as it normally appears in print (not in inverted form). Acronyms and initialisms are recorded as such, and they are filed as words, whether they are so pronounced or not.

Paging of the Volume

Pages 1–96: Number 1 (Winter 1974)
Pages 97–208: Number 2 (Spring 1974)
Pages 209–320: Number 3 (Summer 1974)
Pages 321–432: Number 4 (Fall 1974)

A

Acquisition of Foreign Materials for U.S. Libraries, 410 (r)
The Acquisition of Library Materials, 414–15 (r)
"Acquisitions in 1972," 171–81
"Acquisitions in 1973," 239–47
Acquisitions Systems and Subsystems: Proceedings, 417–18 (r)
"ALA Dues Structure Change," 64–66
Altman, Ellen, 78–86
American Library Association, 64–66, 79
American National Standard Guidelines for Format and Production of Scientific and Technical Reports, 354

"Analyses of Bibliographies," 415–16 (r)
Andersen, David C., 248–52
Anglo-American Cataloging Rules, 108–10, 146–47, 293–94 (r), 308–9 (r), 311–12 (r), 348–54, 400–401
Annual Review of Information Science and Technology, 1972 (v.7), 194–96 (r)
The Antiquarian Booktrade: An International Directory of Subject Specialists, 298–99 (r)
Application of Computer Technology to Library Processes: A Syllabus, 412–14 (r)
Approval plans, 35–50, 174
Argyres, Claudia White, 35–50
Atherton, Pauline, 412–14 (r)
Audiovisual media. See Nonbook materials

Library Resources & Technical Services
Axford, H. William, 417-18 (r)

Barnett, Judith B., 302-3 (r)
Becker, Joseph, 412-14 (r)
Benenfeld, Alan R., 194-96 (r), 196-97 (r), 307-8 (r)
Bentley, Jane F., 259-67
Berman, Sanford, 73-76 (r)
Bibliographic Control of Microforms, 305-7 (r)
Bibliographies, 415-16 (r)
Binding procedures, 307 (r)
Blum, Fred, 25-29, 325-35
Book catalogs, 106-7
"Book Discounts and Cost-Plus Pricing," 248-52
Book selection. See Acquisition procedures
Boston University libraries, 220-25 (about)
Brault, Nancy, 299-300 (r)
The British Library and AACR: Report of a Study Commissioned by Department of Education and Science, 308-9 (r)
British Standards Institution, 354
Broadus, Robert N., 414-15 (r)
Bruer, J. Michael, 171-81, 239-47
Buckland, Lawrence F., 78
Burns, Robert W., Jr., 253-58

C
California State University and Colleges, 84
California State University, Fullerton, library, 275-83 (about)
"Can the Problems of Corporate Authorship Be Solved?," 348-54
Canada. MARC Task Group, 76-77 (r)
Canadian MARC, 76-77 (r)
Card production, 18-24, 226-30, 231-38
Carpenter, Michael, 299-300 (r)
"Cataloger's Camera Chaos," 18-24
"The Cataloging and Classification of Music on Phonorecords—Some Considerations," 213-19
Cataloging for Library Technical Assistants, 2d ed., 416-17 (r)
Cataloging in Publication (CIP), 105-6

Volume 18, Number 4, Fall 1974
Cataloging procedures, 18-24, 101-17, 117-39, 146-48, 188, 297-98 (r), 416-17 (r)
Cataloging rules, 108-10, 146-47, 293-94 (r), 299-300 (r), 308-9 (r), 311-12 (r), 348-54, 555-71, 400-401, 416-17 (r)
"Cataloging Workshop," 386
Catalogs and catalog production, 106-7, 124-27, 220-25
Cazden, Robert E., 301-2 (r)
"Centered Headings in the Dewey Decimal Classification," 378-86
Cipolla, Wilma Reid, 387-97
Chan, Lois Mai, 101-17, 117-39, 311-12 (r)
Chinese literature, 51-60
Classification, 112-14, 135-39, 297-98 (r)
Curriculum materials, 372-77
Dewey Decimal, 378-86
Library of Congress, 51-60
Universal Decimal, 410-12 (r)
Classified catalog, 220-25
Classified Library of Congress Subject Headings, 302-3 (r)
Classified List of Periodicals for the College Library, 292-93 (r)
"The Closing of the Classified Catalog at Boston University," 220-25
Cole, John Y., 5-17
Collection evaluation, 268-74, 275-83
Computer Listing of a Reserve Collection, 307-8 (r)
Computer science, 294 (r), 300-301 (r), 412-14 (r)
Computers & Systems: An Introduction for Librarians, 300-301 (r)
Conaway, Charles Wm., 294-95 (r)
Conservation of Library Materials; A Manual and Bibliography on the Care, Repair, and Restoration of Library Materials, 304-5 (r)
Cooney, Leo J., 259-67
Cooperative and centralized processing, 102-6, 120-24, 309-10 (r)
Copy Cat camera, 231-38
Copyright, 149, 151-55, 173, 241, 341-42
Corporate authorship, 348-54, 355-71
Cost-plus pricing, 248-52
"Council of Regional Groups Activities," 189-90
Cuadra, Carlos A., 194-96 (r)
Cumulative Index to the Annual Review of Information Science and Technology, Volumes 1-7, 196-97 (r)
Cunha, Dorothy Grant, 304-5 (r)

423
Cunha, George Martin, 304-5 (r)
“Curriculum Laboratory Classification and Organization,” 372-77

Daily, Jay E., 302-3 (r), 303-4 (r), 416-17 (r)
“Developing a National Foreign Newspaper Microfilming Program,” 5-17
“Developments in Copying, Micrographics, and Graphic Communications, 1973,” 151-70
Dewey Decimal Classification, 378-86
“Draft Standard for the Advertising of Micropublications,” 284-87

Elrod, J. McRee, 293-94 (r)
“An Empirical Rationale for the Accumulation of Statistical Information,” 253-58

Enlarging LC Copy: A New System,” 226-30
“ERIC Clearinghouse on Information Resources,” 190
“ERIC/CLIS Abstracts,” 78-86
Estes, P. K., 293-94 (r)
Esther J. Piercy Award, nominations, 406
Evans, G. Edward, 35-50
Examples Illustrating Anglo-American Cataloguing Rules, British Text, 1967, 3rr-rr2 (r)
“An Explanation of Author Notations and Tables Used in Library of Congress Schedule for Chinese Literature,” 51-60
Evre, John, 500-301 (r)

Farber, Evan Ira, 292-93 (r)
Farris, Robert C., 18-24
Flexible work schedules, 336-40
Ford, Stephen, 414-15 (r)
Foreign materials, 5-17
Foskett, A. C., 410-12 (r)
Fox, Ann M., 79, 420-21 (r)

Gallivan, B., 307-8 (r)
German cataloging, 355-71

• 424 •

Golden, Barbara, 268-74
Golden, Susan U., 117-39
Government publications, 175-76, 243-44
The Great Debate on Panizzi’s Rules in 1847-1849: The Issues Discussed, 299-300 (r)
Grose, B. Donald, 298-99 (r)
A Guide to Computer Literature; An Introductory Survey of Sources of Information, 294 (r)

Harris, Jessica L., 192-93
Harris, Michael H., 311 (r), 414-15 (r)
Hazan, Margaret Hindle, 220-25
“Highlights of RTSD Activities During the 1974 Midwinter Meeting,” 61-63
Hudson, Deanna, 414-15 (r)
Hunter, Eric J., 311-12 (r)

Indexing languages, 111-12
Information science and technology, 194-96 (r), 196-97 (r), 418-19 (r)
Information Systems, 418-19 (r)
Institute on the Acquisition of Foreign Materials, 410 (r)
“Interlibrary Loan Analysis as a Collection Development Tool,” 275-83
International Federation of Library Associations (IFLA), 71-72
International Standard Bibliographic Description (ISBD), 107-8, 147
International Subscription Agents: An Annotated Directory, 377
Introduction to Cataloging and Classification, 297-98 (r)
Introduction to the Anglo-American Cataloguing Rules, 293-94 (r)

Jewish materials, 343-47

Kadman, Gedalia, 79-80
Kahle, Susanne Margulis, 292-93 (r)
Katz, Elizabeth, 294-95 (r)
Kelm, Carol R., 61-63, 64-66, 398-400

Library Resources & Technical Services
Kilgour, Frederick G., 402–5 (about)
King, Donald R., 294 (r)
Kniemeyer, Justin M., 80
Koehler, David W., 80
Koel, Ake I., 348–54
Koons, Sara, 303–4 (r)

L

Lakhanpal, S. K., 307 (r)
Lang, (Rev.) Jovian P., 297–98 (r), 416–17 (r)
LARC Institute, 417–18 (r)
Leisinger, Albert H., Jr., 80–81
Lewis, Shirley, 420–21 (r)
Library Binding Manual, 307 (r)
Library of Congress
Cataloging, 309–10 (r)
Classification, 51–60
Foreign Newspaper Microfilming, 5–17
MARC, 81, 104–5
National Serials Data Program, 81
RECON, 105
Subject headings, 111–12, 302–3 (r), 387–97
Library technical assistants, 416–17 (r)
Lubetski, Edith, 343–47

M

Macdonald, Janet, 420–21 (r)
Madden, Mary, 78
Manheimer, Martha L., 302–3 (r)
MARC, 76–77 (r), 104–5
“Margaret Mann Citation, 1974: Frederick G. Kilgour,” 402–5
Margaret Mann Citation, nominations, 405–6
Mechanization, 259–67, 412–14 (r), 417–18 (r)
Meir-Lubetski, 343–47
“A Method for Quantitatively Evaluating a University Library Collection,” 268–74
Meyer, Betty J., 189–90, 336–40
Microforms
  Bibliographical control, 305–7, (r)
  Catalogs, 106–7
  Equipment, 159–63
  Materials, 5–17, 155–59, 176, 244
  Publications, 163–70, 284–87
  Rate indexes, 30–34
  Serials, 142–43

Volume 18, Number 4, Fall 1974

Miles, Robert, 213–19
Moore, J. R., 73–76 (r)
Murphy, Ann M., 231–38
“Music Subject Headings: A Comparison,” 387–97
Myers, Mildred S., 416–17 (r)

N

National Library of Canada, 76–77 (r), 78–79
Nemeyer, Carol A., 300–301 (r)
“New Cataloging Publications,” 188
New, Doris E., 275–83
New York Public Library, 86, 387–97 (about)
“1972 Microfilm Rate Indexes,” 30–34
Nixon, Roberta, 288–91
Nonbook materials, 109–11, 215–19, 303–4 (r), 420–21 (r)
Nonbook Materials: The Organization of Integrated Collections, 420–21 (r)

O

Ohio College Library Center (OCLC), 102–3, 402–5
Ohio State University libraries, 336–40 (about)
Olevnik, Peter, 81–82
Oliver, M. Virginia, 82
On-line automated systems, 102–3, 259–67
Oregon State University library, 226–30 (about)
Ott, Retha Zane, 275–83
Out-of-print materials, 244–45, 298–99 (r)

P

Pan, Elizabeth, 300–301 (r)
Panizzi's Rules, 299–300 (r)
Perkins, John W., 82–83
Phonorecords, 213–19
Pope, S. Elspeth, 309–10 (r)
Prejudices and Antipathies: A Tract on the LC Subject Heads Concerning People, 73–76 (r)
Price indexes, 175
Princeton University library, 231–38 (about)
Pritchard, Alan, 294 (r)
Preservation, 170
Prywes, Noah S., 83
Pulsifer, Josephine S., 412-14 (r)

R
Ranganathan, S. R., 83-84
Rawski, Conrad H., 31 l (r)
Recommendations for Repair and Allied Processes for the Conservation of Documents, 354
Redstone Scientific Information Center (Alabama), 259-67 (about)
Reichmann, Felix, 305-7 (r)
Reprints, 143, 176-77, 301-2 (r)
Reprography, 151-70
Reserve collections, 307-8 (r)
Resources and Technical Services Division (ALA)
Annual Conference, 67-71, 150, 398-400
Bylaws, 182-85
Goals for Action, 186-88
Midwinter Meeting, 61-63, 407-9
Resources Section (RTSD)
Library Materials Price Index Committee, 30-34
Revolution Librarians, 264-65 (r)
Rice, Patricia Ohl, 298-99 (r)
Roberts, Matt T., 304-5 (r), 307 (r)
Rudolph, G. A., 418-19 (r)

S
Samore, Theodore, 410 (r)
Schneider, John H., 84
Scholarly Reprint Publishing in the United States, 301-2 (r)
Scholz, William H., 191-92
Scott, Evelyn S., 410 (r)
Selecting Materials for Libraries, 414-15 (r)
Serials, 140-50, 292-93 (r)
"Serials '73—Review and Trends," 140-50
Sharp, Pat, 372-77
Shawl, Janice H., 295-97 (r)
Shera, Jesse Hauk, 311 (about)
Sharre, Barry N., 87
Simon, H. R., 415-16 (r)
Snapp, Elizabeth, 308-9 (r)
Songolo, Grace, 372-77
"Sources of Current Acquisitions in the Jewish Field," 343-47
Spigai, Frances G., 85
Spreitzer, Francis F., 151-70
Spreyer-Duran, Peter, 85-86

426

Standardization, 284-87, 325-35, 354, 386
Statistics, 191-92, 253-58
Stevens, Peter H., 417-18 (r)
Stevenson, Gordon, 378-86
Stuart-Stubbbs, B., 85
Subject analysis, 73-76 (r), 111-12, 132-35, 192-93, 295-97 (r), 302-3 (r), 387-97
"Subject Retrieval in the Seventies: New Directions," 295-97 (r)
Sullivan, Robert C., 30-34
Symons, Ann K., 226-30

T
Talbot, Richard J., 76-77 (r)
Tamberg, Nora, 355-71
Technical services personnel, 336-40
Technical processes, 288-91
Tharpe, Josephine M., 305-7 (r)
"A 'Third Force' in Photocopying Dispute," 341-42
The Time-Lag in Cataloging, 309-10 (r)
Tonks, Peter, 300-301 (r)
Toward a Theory of Librarianship: Papers in Honor of Jesse Hauk Shera, 311 (r)
"Trends Toward International Standardization of Bibliographic Elements: German Cataloging Reform," 355-71

U
"UCLA Library Task Force," 288-91
The Universal Decimal Classification: The History, Present Status, and Future Prospects of a Large General Classification Scheme, 410-12 (r)
University of Iowa Curriculum Laboratory, 372-77 (about)
University of Nebraska at Omaha library, 268-74 (about)
"Use of the Copy Cat Camera in Card Production at Princeton University Library," 231-38

V
Vickery, B. C., 418-19 (r)

W
Wang, Sze-Tseng, 51-60

Library Resources & Technical Services
Weber, Hans H., 140-50
Weihs, Jean Riddle, 420-21 (r)
Weisbrod, David L., 402-5
Wellisch, Hans, 295-97 (r), 410-12 (r)
West, Celeste, 294-95 (r)
Wetmore, Rosamond, 86
Williams, James G., 302-3 (r)
Wilson, Thomas D., 295-97 (r)
Wiseman, John A., 415-16 (r)
Woods, R. G., 86
Wright, Christopher, 341-42
Wynar, Bohdan S., 297-98 (r)

Xerox System 1.2.3., 226-30

“Year’s Work in Cataloging and Classification 1973,” 101-17

Z39, 25-29, 284-87
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