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An Extended Review of PRECIS

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The PRECIS system of subject headings was designed for use with a computer-produced subject index. Accordingly, the routines of subject heading work are clearly differentiated into clerical procedures and those that require judgment. The clerical procedures can be accomplished largely through the use of computer programs. The subject headings represent a unique combination of several different characteristics. As a result the system permits several extensive forms of a subject name for each work. The allowable forms of subject name are restricted somewhat by the constraints of the system but the final choice amongst the various alternatives is made by the subject analyst. Often, this choice reflects his or her usage rather than any attempt to realize an explicit code for subject names. There is some evidence that this judgment varies in individual cases. Moreover, there is no empirical evidence that the alternatives permitted do reflect user convenience—although, in fact, this may be true.

The acronym PRECIS refers to a system of subject indexing called the PREserved Context Index System. It was developed as an alphabetical index to the British National Bibliography (BNB) and can be used for defining subject headings on any topic. The system consists of a set of procedures for utilizing controlled vocabulary in order to prepare specific subject entries. Accordingly, the most interesting characteristics of the system are those that differentiate it from other systems of controlled vocabulary for specific subjects. However, two additional features of this system are interesting to note. The first is that the system was designed for a publication that is derived from machine-readable data files and, accordingly, the procedures for preparing entries are defined in such a way that the indexer makes those decisions requiring judgment and/or analysis of the text while many of the repetitive tasks are accomplished algorithmically by means of computer programs. Most of these various procedures have been used or described elsewhere, but in PRECIS they are combined into a
single comprehensive working system. Another characteristic of PRECIS is that some combinatorial (or syntactic) rules of the system are phrased in terms borrowed from the field of linguistic analysis of natural languages. Accordingly, there is an implicit suggestion that, since PRECIS headings bear some sort of analogous or metaphorical relation to natural language, a study of such headings may contribute to current research in the area of linguistic analysis. In fact, no such claims are actually made within this manual, and there is no evidence within the manual that could be regarded as relevant to such claims. In any event, let us look more closely at these various characteristics of PRECIS.

In addition to PRECIS, two other important types of system also define specific subject names. They are certain indexes and alphabetical specific subject lists. Chain indexes are usually defined in relation to a faceted classification, but they can be defined in relation to any classification system. The previous index to the BNB was a form of chain index, and some characteristics of PRECIS are explicitly defined as differences from this earlier index. (Incidentally, the entries in BNB are arranged according to the Dewey Decimal Classification, and the subject index is an alphabetical key to this arrangement.) Library of Congress Subject Headings (LCSH) is a typical example of an alphabetical specific list. Normally, this list is used for defining subject added entries in either a dictionary or a divided catalog.

Although these three types of systems differ, they all have some characteristics in common and, in some respects, PRECIS is clearly a logical development from chain indexing. The first two steps of subject indexing are identical in all systems—at least at a high level of generalization. The subject analyst first examines the publication in hand in order to identify the subject of the work as a whole. Next, the subject analyst consults the authority file in order to see whether the appropriate heading(s) has (have) already been established. However, when the procedures for establishing a new subject name are examined it is clear that the PRECIS entries are significantly different from other systems of subject entry. Four characteristics are important to note. First, each PRECIS entry is coextensive with the subject of the text as a whole—or rather with the indexer's statement of the topic as a whole. Second, PRECIS entries are derived from an underlying formalized description of the subject called a string. Third, PRECIS includes an explicit set of rules for preparing multiple entries representing different sequences of terms and words for the same subject name. The word shunting is used to distinguish these procedures for rearrangement of subject names from other more obvious forms of permutation. Fourth, the authority file is in two sections: one section controls the forms of name for each entry and the other section controls the use of “see” and “see also” cross-references in the index. Because of these differences the user is required to follow a different form of search pattern, and there is no empirical evidence that this
new pattern is or is not an improvement over other search patterns.

All three systems require that the subject names be specific, but the exact character of the requirement varies. In LCSH each subject name assigned to a text must be specific to the work as a whole, but the subject headings need not be (and often are not) coextensive with the work as a whole. In chain indexing one term is defined as specific and coextensive with the work as a whole and then, at the same time, specific terms are defined that are coextensive with each of the including categories of that subject. In PRECIS a number of separate entries are (or at least may be) defined for each subject name and each of these entries is coextensive with the subject of the work. PRECIS is called a PReserved Context Indexing System because, instead of listing including categories as did the previous BNB index, it files the entire specific subject name under several different terms within the subject name.

Suppose, for an example, that the title of Robert L. Major’s *The Energy Crisis and Its Potential Impact on the Illinois Clay Products Industry* reflects adequately the topic of the work as a whole. The headings assigned by LC to this work are 1) Clay industries—Illinois and 2) Energy conservation—Illinois. Neither of these headings is coextensive with the work as a whole, but both headings name specific topics appropriate to the work as a whole.

In contrast, in both PRECIS and a typical chain index there is a requirement that the subject name for a work be both specific and coextensive. Usually, there is only one subject name for each work in a chain index, but, in PRECIS, the indexer may assign several subject names to a work. Thus, in a chain index the entry for this work would be


In addition, the indexer would assign headings for the chain of superordinate categories that include this topic in the classification system being indexed, but these headings refer to the including categories rather than to the specific category that names the subject of the work in question. With PRECIS, the indexer may choose to assign one, two, or several subject names to a single work, but each name must be both specific and coextensive with the work. Thus, the indexer could have chosen to assign any or all of the following four subject names to the work:

Illinois
Clay industries. Effects of energy consumption
Industries. Illinois
Clay industries. Effects of energy consumption
Clay industries. Illinois
Effects of energy consumption
Energy consumption. Illinois
Effects on clay industries
These differences in specificity and coextensiveness of subjects impose clearly definable variations in the search patterns of the user. The LCSH entries are used to assemble lists of works on a specific topic, but the user must then browse through these entries (or the works they represent) in order to determine the various subdivisions of the topic. Those users who find the above chain index entry or any of the above PRECIS entries will be led directly to the list of works on this topic within the classified array. The user of the chain index who begins with an including topic, e.g., “Clay industries. Illinois,” will be led to the location of the including topic in the classified list and from there may make a generic search for more specific works by reading through the classified list.

Because PRECIS uses multiple entries for each topic and because each entry is coextensive with the topic, the user who began a search under “Clay industries” could have read through all of the subject names beginning with that term until the entry

Clay industries. Illinois

Effect of energy consumption

was found. This entry would refer to the same list of works as the previous PRECIS entry. This is quite different from other systems of subject names. With both LCSH and chain indexing it is assumed that the user often scans the names of publications as a part of the search strategy. With PRECIS, the user is required to read through the subject names until the exact topic is found. Only then is the user referred to a list of publications. This pattern saves time for the user who knows exactly what is sought, but there is no evidence that such a system is helpful for the user who needs to refine the topic during the search.

In all systems of subject analysis, subject names are assigned so as to correspond with the subject analyst’s description of the topic of the work. In both chain indexing and PRECIS, however, there is an intermediate step. The analyst constructs an underlying statement of the topic in such a way that the index entries are derived from the statement in a more or less algorithmic manner. This statement is called a citation in a chain index and a string in PRECIS. Both the citation and the string list terms in a sequence such that their relationship to each other is defined in terms of an underlying set of categories. These categories are called fundamental categories in faceted classifications and conceptual types in PRECIS.

The form of a citation is embedded in the structure of a faceted classification. Such systems consist generally of a list of one or more disciplines and a facet (or citation) formula for each discipline. Such a formula does three things. It names specific lists of terms that can be used to define the categories of that discipline; it defines the sequence of terms in the citation in terms of the facet from which each term is selected; and it defines the function of each term as an expression of
an underlying fundamental category. Although the fundamental categories are defined differently in each faceted system and although the citation formulae specify different lists of terms for each discipline included within a single system, the general sequence of fundamental categories is usually something like the following:

- an entity, e.g., a loaf of bread or clay industries
- a series of properties that characterize the entity, e.g., color, material, age, weight, etc.
- operations performed on or within an entity, e.g., grinding, migration, baking, manufacturing, etc.
- agents or instruments used to accomplish the operation, e.g., an electric oven as the instrument used to bake bread.

The final three elements of a citation formula are usually place, time, and form of publication. The alphabetical entry in the chain index is usually a modified reversal of the terms representing all but the last three elements of the above categories. Thus, in order to construct the above example, it was assumed that "Illinois" was the place, the agent of operation was the "consumption of energy" (which is itself an operation performed upon an entity), the operation was the "effect," and "clay industries" was the entity.

In the PRECIS manual, the strings are presented in the form of lists of terms with each term and some words within terms introduced by symbols (called operators) representing conceptual types. Incidentally, there are two completely different and equivalent sets of symbols identifying PRECIS conceptual types. They are called operators and manipulation codes. The manipulation codes are the actual symbols keypunched into the records for machine consumption, while the operators are the codes more conventionally used for exposition of the system and, probably, for preparing the initial coding sheets as well. There is no obvious reason why two sets of codes are needed or why, if they are needed, the manipulation codes could not be introduced into the records by means of program manipulation rather than by means of human activity.

The names given to the conceptual types, e.g.:

- (0) Location
- (1) Key system
- (2) Action / Effect
- (3) Agent of transitive action; aspects; factors.

suggest that conceptual types are comparable to fundamental categories; but there are two significant differences between a string and a citation. First, the operators are assigned to terms in order to achieve appropriate arrangements of words in the entry. It happens that this assignment usually correlates with the function (or conceptual type) of the term in the subject name, and in these uses the string is comparable to a citation. When the position of a term in a subject
name does not correlate with its function, the position of the term in the subject name takes precedence over the function of the term in the subject name. This point is discussed further below, in connection with the description of the multiple entries of a PRECIS subject name. Second, although there is an authority list for terms in PRECIS, the terms in this list are not organized either as subdivisions of the various disciplines or as lists of terms that realize each of the conceptual types. Similar terms may be coded differently because the terms fulfill different functions in different strings. Thus the term students is coded as the key system in the subject “Influence of maternal expectation on the academic achievement of students” (p.175) but it is coded as a part of the key system “Secondary schools” in the subject “Academic achievement of students in secondary schools . . .” (p.208).

There are seven operators in the form of arabic numerals 0 through 6 and nineteen operators in the form of letters from the Latin alphabet. Some of the letter codes are preceded by a dollar sign. The terms introduced by numbers are arranged in a sequence that reflects the subject analysis of the work rather than a numerical sequence, and terms or words introduced by the other operators are arranged in such a way as to define their relation to the terms identified numerically. Four such operators were listed above as examples. When these operators are assigned to terms in a manner that reflects the function of the term in the subject name, the interpretation of the operator is comparable to the fundamental categories of a chain index. The key system and action operators are probably the most important, for every PRECIS string must include terms encoded with a (1) and/or a (2) operator. The key system is used for a variety of purposes. Most obviously, it designates the object of an action (e.g., “buses” in the subject “scheduling of buses”). It is also used to designate any entity when no action is named (e.g., “children” in the subject “height and weight of children”) or the agent of the action when there is no object of the action (e.g., “Population” in the subject “Population growth” or “children” in the subject “academic achievement of children”). Thus, the key system appears equivalent to the “entity” in a generalized facet formula.

Usually, the operator 2 is assigned to the term naming an activity and operator 3 is assigned to the term designating the agent of a transitive action. The operator p introduces a term that names a part or property of a preceding term. Such operators as $h, $i, $k, $m, . . . , etc., introduce words within a term, and such modifying words within a term usually designate parts or properties.

Thus, all of these operators appear to designate conceptual types that are comparable to the fundamental categories of a chain index and faceted system. Yet, they differ. In PRECIS the lists of terms are not associated with their corresponding conceptual types and the subject names are not defined as categories of a coherent system of knowledge. It is claimed that for this reason PRECIS can be used to
prepare an alphabetical index to any system but it is also true that for this reason the users of the index have few guidelines that lead them to related topics. Similarly, although indexers are free to construct subject names that are truly coextensive with their works, there is no overall system that would help them to combine the best possible terms into the best possible underlying string. We are told, for example, that if indexers find a string already established for their topic, they should use it—unless it is not well constructed:

... when a later string sets a more useful precedent for indexers to follow, the file should be corrected with a minimum of delay, using the procedures described below. [P.395]

Since such corrections are always expensive, one question that should be investigated is the extent to which such corrections are required on the various implementations of PRECIS.

The third characteristic of PRECIS is that the words of an entry can be shunted so as to define a number of separate headings or entries that will both file under different words within the description and provide different sequences of the remaining words of the subject name.

In order to define a set of PRECIS entries (such as the sample set given above), the indexer must both prepare a list of terms that is coextensive with the topic of the work in hand and make two different types of decisions about these terms. The first decision is to identify each term and each word within a term under which to file the subject entry in the alphabetical file. The second decision is to identify the sequences of terms within the description that should appear in the various subject entries. Undoubtedly, in practice these two decisions are made as part of a single thought process, but it is convenient for purposes of discussion to separate them. Once these decisions have been made and encoded in a string, the computer program operates on the data (i.e., the string) and produces the actual entries.

The use of multiple entries for the same subject name is a unique feature of PRECIS. In principle there can be as many entries for each subject as there are words in the subject name—but there need not be. The indexer decides for each subject name what terms and what words will be used as filing mediums (i.e., as lead terms). The string that was used to produce the sample entries given earlier was in the form:

(0) Illinois

(1) industries $i clay

(s) effects $v of $w on

(3) energy consumption

The filing mediums are indicated in the above string by the use of checkmarks and the operator $i.
There are at least two problems that arise from the use of such multiple entries. First, the use of multiple entries for different words within a term sometimes has the effect of producing alphabetical classed subject entries, i.e., subject headings where the initial term names an including class and the subsequent term or terms name a specific subdivision of the class.

For example, the string (p.99)

\[(1) \text{ engines} \text{ internal combustion}\]

defines the two entries

Engines

  Internal combustion engines

Internal combustion engines

The first entry is clearly an alphabetical classed entry and could have been avoided if there had been a “see also” reference from “Engines” to “Internal combustion engines.”

Second, the use of multiple entries could add greatly to the bulk of a manual file. In all other systems of controlled vocabulary there is a far greater emphasis upon economy in the number of entries. Undoubtedly this is because older systems were developed for manual files where such duplication of entries could be both costly and confusing.

In this manual, the author suggests (p.400–403) that, for subject headings, the simplest procedure would be to prepare one heading in the format defined by the first lead term in the string. Presumably “see” references would be traced from other forms of the subject name. Since the string often begins with a place name, this could lead to a large number of headings under place name rather than under topic. Such a pattern is contrary to present practice. However, since we know very little about the most useful forms of subject name, it is difficult to say whether a change in present practice would be an improvement or not.

Having decided upon the various filing mediums, the indexer must also decide on the sequence of terms for each of the multiple entries. Entries are written out under program control in one of three formats. The operators for the various lead terms determine the choice of format for each entry. As with other indexing systems, there is no evidence herein that these forms of entry are more useful than other possible sequences of terms, but the three formats together with their varying typefaces are attractive.

In principle there are two ways in which the indexer can determine the format of an entry. First, since the various combinations of operators define three different formats for entries, the terms in the subject names can sometimes be variously analyzed so as to produce a desired form of subject name. Second, there are a number of “coding options” or “strategems” that can be used to alter the form of an index entry.

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The three possible formats for an entry are called standard format, predicate transformation (or nonstandard format), and inverted format. The positions of the terms from the string for those various formats are defined in terms of three locations distributed on two lines, thus:

[Lead] [Qualifier] [Display]

When the lead term is appropriately associated with any of the operators (3), (s), or (t), the entry is written in the predicate transformation format. When the lead term is appropriately associated with any of the operators (4), (5), or (6) the entry is written in an inverted format. In all other cases the entry is written in standard format. The standard format might well be called the “boustrophedon format,” for the words in the string are arranged on the top line from right to left in such a way that the lead term is leftmost on the line and then the remaining words are arranged from left to right on the second line. Thus, the entry

Clay industries. Illinois
Effects of energy consumption

is in standard format. If the lead term is introduced by operator (3) and follows a term introduced by operator (2), or if the lead term follows a term with either operator (s) or (t), then the entry is written in predicate transformation format. In this format the term preceding the lead term in the string (together with any postnominal prepositional modifiers) introduces the display rather than the qualifier. Thus, the entry

Energy consumption. Illinois
Effects on clay industries.

is written in the predicate transformation format. When the lead term is dependent on a term coded (4), (5), or (6), then the entry is written in inverted format. In inverted format the term coded (4), (5), or (6) and terms dependent on it are written in the lead and qualifier locations. All other terms of the string are written from left to right in the display.

Thus, the string (p.216)

(1) Lancashire
(p) Blackburn
(6) atlases $i street

defines one entry in standard format:

Blackburn. Lancashire.
— Street atlases

and two entries in inverted format:

Atlases
Lancashire. Blackburn — Street atlases

Street atlases
Lancashire. Blackburn.

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Langridge has already pointed out several examples in the PRECIS manual of terms that were coded so as to produce an appropriate form of entry rather than to identify the conceptual type of the term. One response to this review has called several examples ill chosen, and one example is described as an exceptional situation. In fact there are many examples throughout the manual of similar phrases differently coded. The phrases “passenger transport,” “book trade,” and “bacteria culture” might all be thought of as phrases in which the first word designates the object of action and the second word designates an action, but each of these phrases is coded differently in different strings within this manual.

Thus, on p. 175:

1. bacteria
2. culture

(sub 2)

3. bacteria culture
4. use $v$ of $w$ in
5. swabs

p. 206:

1. book trade
2. management
5. study regions
q. Germany

and p. 400:

2. passenger transport
3. air services
6. directories

There does not appear to be any reason for this variation other than the fact that these varying codes will lead to somewhat different forms of entry.

Perhaps the more common procedure for altering the form of an index entry is to employ some form of coding option. The number of such devices is seemingly endless. A term can be coded to appear only in the lead, only in the display, or only in the qualifier. Terms can be linked together with prepositions in some entries, but not all. Terms may be substituted for other terms in some entries but not in others. In short, the indexer can alter the form of an entry in almost any way. A few examples should illustrate the indexer’s great flexibility in this regard. Thus, in the string (p. 378)

1. Great Britain (NU)
2. Victoria $f$ Queen of Great Britain $d$ 1865–1871

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the symbol (NU) is used to prevent the term so marked from appearing in the qualifier. It does appear, however, as a lead term, e.g.:

Great Britain
Victoria, Queen of Great Britain, 1865–1871 — Biographies

In the string (p.523)

(1) mineral deposits
(2) {
(3) government contractors

the operator $v$ introduces a word that connects the term prospecting with the term below in the string when the two terms occur in a single position and $w$ introduces a word that connects the word prospecting with the term above when those two terms occur in the same position. Thus,

Mineral deposits
Prospecting by government contractors
Government contractors
Prospecting for mineral deposits

In the string (p.175)

(1) bacteria
(2) culture
(sub 2) (2) bacteria culture
(s) use $v$ of $w$ in
(3) swabs

the operator "(sub 2)" identifies a term that is to substitute for the above two terms whenever a term below the term so marked is in the lead. Thus, because of the use of this operator, the PRECIS subject heading becomes

Swabs
Use in bacteria culture

rather than

Swabs. Bacteria
Use in culture.

as would be the case were this operator not included. A blank field can be encoded with the instruction to substitute for terms, thus eliminating these terms from the subject name and even, in some cases, blocking the effect of a predicate transformation. For example, the string (p.258)
would define alphabetical classed entries in the form

United States
Librarianship, American Library Association, 1900–1941.
Librarianship, United States.
American Library Association, 1900–1941.

and a specific entry,

American Library Association, 1900–1941.

These are merely a few of the simpler examples of devices that the indexer can employ in order to alter the format of index entries as defined by the conceptual types coded into the string. Clearly, conceptual types are identified by appropriate operators only when the indexer is satisfied with the resultant form of entry. In other cases the indexer is expected to take steps to alter the form of the entry. Incidentally, indexers are given no guidance other than their own judgment concerning the definition of an appropriate form of entry.

The fourth characteristic of PRECIS is the fact that there are two different authority files. (Incidentally, these two files are each maintained in both a manual and machine-readable form. I assume that this is an interim device to compensate for the fact that the indexers do not yet have on-line access to the machine-readable file.)

The two different authority files correspond to the two traditional functions of the authority file. The one file controls the form of each entry (or subject name) in the index. The records in this file consist of the strings defined by the indexer (but with manipulation codes rather than operators) together with a set of corresponding classification symbols for the Dewey Decimal and Library of Congress classifications and a list of corresponding headings from LCSH. The various forms of multiple entry for each subject name in an index are generated from this file.

The second file controls the existence of see and see also references in the index. The records in this file consist of the terms from which the various subject names are composed and the tracings defining cross-references between these terms. These references are similar in form to those of other systems of alphabetical subject names but, because they connect terms rather than subject names, they define a different form of search pattern for the user. The “see” references define synonymy and near synonymy. The “see also” references define, for the most part, generic and part-whole relations. Some associated terms are also linked by cross-references, e.g. (p.280),
but, apparently, these links have not yet been defined in a systematic manner.

However, because these references link terms rather than subject names, they link terms that are members of a selection class (i.e., a facet) rather than define the paths a user might follow for a generic search of specific topics. Thus, as the file grows, it will, in effect, define a series of facets and could, perhaps, be used as a data file for a universal faceted classification system. For generic searches, however, users will have to follow the cross-references in order to identify the best term for their purpose and then read through those subject names that have this term defined as a lead term.

One of the chief reasons for developing PRECIS and discarding the older chain index to BNB was the need for a system of machine-generated subject headings. Although chain indexes are produced in an almost algorithmic manner, it has so far proven impossible to define a computable algorithm for this purpose. Immroth has investigated this problem (see reference 2) and has defined some procedures that reduced the problem of noncomputability, but his suggestions were not a complete solution.

With PRECIS the two authority files are used instead of the classification system in order to generate both subject names and links between terms. The computer programs operate on these data files in a batch processing mode in order to produce the necessary alphabetical indexes. The program algorithms are quite similar to the ones previously described by Malinconico in connection with the LCSH headings used by the New York Public Library for its computer-produced book catalogs. However, there are some significant differences. First, the multiple entries so characteristic of PRECIS are all computer-produced in accord with the shunting routines of the system. Second, in the PRECIS programs, the references from all including terms are printed, and they lead directly to the subject terms used in that particular index rather than to the next lower term in a hierarchy. Thus, for example (p.303), if the only term included in the index in the hierarchy for Living systems is Penguins, the “see also” references to that term might be

| Living systems rather than Living systems see also | Penguins Animals see also Animals see also Penguins Vertebrates see also Vertebrates see also Penguins Birds |

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This pattern of references contradicts the traditional pattern, but whether it is an improvement is difficult to say. The manual proves that alternative patterns can be defined but it presents no evidence from which to infer the most useful patterns.

Actually, PRECIS would be better suited to an on-line data file than it is to a printed index—or at least it would be if the strings could be defined in a consistent manner. In an on-line file, users could follow the links between terms until they had constructed an appropriate string or partial string and then call up the corresponding lists of texts in the data file without having to shuffle through the pages of an index and then the pages of the classified list. The chief difficulty, of course, with such a procedure, is the fact that the users' and indexers' strings would not match in those instances where different operators or different coding options were employed to achieve the same effect.

The relation of PRECIS entries to natural language is alluded to, but vaguely defined. We are told on page 13 that the context-dependent order of terms in a PRECIS string

... bears an obvious resemblance to the ways in which sentences are constructed in natural language...

... terms in this system are organized into strings according to their syntactical roles, not their relative significance. ... [P.13]

However, the information in the manual is not organized in such a way as to provide explanatory insights into the nature of language. It is possible that the authority files for PRECIS will provide data for such insights, just as it could be argued that the collection of data for the *Oxford English Dictionary* was a useful impetus to further research on the etymology of words or that Jespersen’s massive normative grammar of English was a necessary prerequisite to modern linguistic research. It is even possible for those familiar with such studies of noun phrases as Lees’ “Grammar of English Nominalizations” to find some strings that exemplify action nominalizations as well as some strings that do not; but there is no explicitly stated hypothesis that English noun phrases correlate in any meaningful way with the three PRECIS formats. There is not even any explanation of why these formats were chosen. Moreover, as we have seen, indexers can easily alter the format of the PRECIS entry and the indexer is given no formal guidelines other than usage for deciding when to alter the form of these entries.

As a system of alphabetical subject names, PRECIS embodies some obvious advantages and disadvantages. The advantages include the fact that cumulations are computer-produced from machine-readable files and the fact that the subject names are quite specific and coextensive with the text. The disadvantages include problems with generic
searches and problems in predicting the form of a subject name. There are no links between subject names in PRECIS because it is not derived from a unified system of knowledge. Accordingly, the user must consult the accompanying classified list for generic searches. Furthermore, the users cannot predict the exact forms of subject names for the same reasons that the indexers cannot define consistent forms of strings; there is no internally consistent set of guidelines within PRECIS that would unambiguously guarantee a single form of underlying string for each specific subject. This fact is clear from the contradictory examples and coding options that recur throughout the manual. Still, it is doubtful that PRECIS is worse than any other system in this respect. The real difficulty in evaluating this or any system of alphabetical subject names is the lack of empirical evidence. We do not know the most appropriate categories of lead terms or the most appropriate forms of subject names because we do not know how users formulate their queries. Perhaps, since PRECIS strings are appropriate for an on-line data file, it might be possible to use it to develop an on-line system that would function in such a way that records were kept of the users' initial terms and their steps in developing appropriate query strings, and then we could learn from such data more than we presently know concerning the appropriate lead terms and forms of subject names.

References

1. The most complete description of this system that is currently available appears in Derek Austin's PRECIS: Manual of Concept Analysis and Subject Indexing (London: Council of the British National Bibliography, 1974).
The End of Specificity

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Recently announced subject cataloging practices at the Library of Congress, calling for systematic duplication of entries at specific and generic levels, are in direct violation of the Rule of Exclusively Specific Entry, hitherto accepted by LC. It is argued that if the new practices are justified, consistency calls for their general application, which results in abandonment of the rule. But the new practices do not accomplish their ostensible goals, do not reveal more of the content of LC's collections, do introduce new inconveniences, do constitute a pointless enlargement of catalogs, and hence should be abandoned.

THE LIBRARY OF CONGRESS (LC) appears to be abandoning the Rule of Specific Entry in subject cataloging. Since LC dominates subject cataloging in the United States, and since the Rule of Specific Entry has been the most prominent general rule governing subject cataloging since the time of Cutter's rules of 1876, LC's actions deserve the closest examination.

Officially LC still adheres to the Rule of Specific Entry. A 1974 leaflet, entitled "Outline of Subject Cataloging," states briefly that "Current LC subject heading practice calls for specific entry, i.e., entry under a heading which expresses the topic of a work precisely rather than under a broader heading." The rule that was basic for Cutter, that was still basic for Haykin, was LC policy as recently as 1974, and no official renunciation of the rule has appeared. But new policies, recently announced, are in violation of the rule.

Before looking at the new policies, let us reflect on the meaning of the rule. Clearly the rule does not mean that a work is to be assigned only a single subject heading. If no single heading is available that accurately and specifically describes the topic of a work, then, as Haykin says, "rather than use a broader heading, the cataloger should use two specific headings which will approximately cover it." If a work has not a single topic but two or three, then it is to be assigned terms

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specifically describing those two or three topics (if specific terms are available, and otherwise, presumably, best-fitting pairs of terms). Specific entry does not mean single entry. But one thing it does mean: it means exclusively specific entry. The rule as hitherto understood has meant: Enter a work under a heading that describes its topic specifically, and not also under a broader, generic heading. The subject heading assigned to a work “must not be any broader than the subject matter of the books to which the heading is assigned.” The rule should really be called the Rule of Exclusively Specific Entry.

In the past few years, a series of surprising changes in LC practice have been announced, many of which are in direct violation of this rule. The most startling is the change in treatment of biographical material. Under new procedures announced in fall 1976, a biography of a single individual is to be assigned headings not only for the name of the individual but also for the “class of persons” to which the subject belongs, if the subject belongs to a “field or discipline.” So the biography of a contemporary American author is to be assigned the heading, Authors, American—20th Century—Biography, in addition to an entry for the personal name. A biography of a person with a “multifaceted career” is to have headings corresponding to “those careers described in the work in hand,” or rather to the “best known” of them. For biographies of individuals not identified with a specific “field or discipline,” the cataloger is to assign headings for the names of any “pertinent organization, ethnic group, place, event or war, i.e., [to] bring out any and all important associations by which the person could be identified.” As a special case, the biography of a woman without a career of her own is to be assigned headings for her husband and the “class of persons” to which the husband belongs, as well as a group heading for the wife: for instance, a biography of Eva Braun is listed not only under that name but also under Hitler, Adolf, under Heads of state—Germany—Biography, and under Mistresses—Germany—Biography.

The new rules for biographical works are the most spectacular, but not the only, direct violations of the Rule of Exclusively Specific Entry. Works dealing with “an animal of a particular place” are to have two headings—one for the specific name of the animal, with local subdivision (if possible) and also a broader (taxonomically higher) term with local subdivision—so, Beetles—Austria and Insects—Austria for a work on Austrian beetles. The result is the same for works on animals that require topical rather than geographical subdivision. Works on particular Indian tribes that call for topical subdivision are to be assigned both a specific heading (with topical subdivision) and a generic heading (also with topical subdivision): so, Hopi Indians—Pottery and Indians of North America—Pottery for a work on Hopi pottery. It is easy to reconstruct the steps leading to this new practice. Formerly, topical and geographical subdivisions were not allowed under specific headings for Indian tribes and zoological species; accu-
rate representation of the topic of a work was in many cases possible only by joint assignment of two headings; for instance, Hopi Indians and Indians of North America—Pottery. Practice was changed to allow assignment of topical and geographical subdivisions where they had previously been forbidden; thereupon the need for a generic heading with subdivision vanished since accurate specific entry was now possible. In accordance with the Rule of Exclusively Specific Entry, the practice of assignment of generic headings would have been abandoned; but it was not. Rather, the practice of systematic duplication of headings, at specific and generic levels, was introduced. The Rule of Exclusively Specific Entry was set aside.

The result of these policy changes is, of course, a large increase in the number of subject headings assigned. Consistent duplication at the generic level only doubles the number of subject headings, but special treatment of biographies of women, of people with "multifaceted careers," and of people without identification with any particular "field or discipline" leads to more than double the number of subject headings called for by the old rule. Thus, for example, the autobiography of Mrs. Oral Roberts receives six subject headings: her name; her husband's name; Clergymen's wives—Oklahoma—Tulsa—Biography, her "group" heading; Tulsa, Okla.—Biography, a heading called for by the policy requiring place entry for works of local historical interest; Methodist Church—Clergy—Biography, the husband's "group" heading; and Clergy—Oklahoma—Tulsa—Biography, another "group" heading for the husband, or perhaps for the pair.8 Cutter noted long ago that the "dictionary principle" did not forbid duplicate entry at specific and generic levels, but nonetheless argued against the practice on the ground that it would enormously increase the bulk of the catalog.9 Such an argument still has face validity for card and book-form catalogs, though it may seem to be irrelevant to the case of a computer-based catalog. As we shall see, however, there is reason for thinking the new practice an embarrassment even for computer-based catalogs. But first we must ask why the large departure from past practice is being made and whether we should think it an improvement.

Official explanations of the new policies are meager. The reason given for the change of practice for biographical material is that it will "enable the catalog user to retrieve by form those biographies owned by a library in his particular field of interest"10 Duplication of entry for animals of a place is justified by the need to "make it possible for catalog users to carry out area surveys" and of entry under animal names with topical subheading as "for purposes of gathering."11 No reason is given for change of practice concerning Indian tribes, but similar reasons are obviously available.

If these are sufficient reasons for the new practices, it must be obvious that they are sufficient reasons for much wider changes. Why provide duplicate entry for works about individual people but not for
works about individual places, events, objects of all sorts? Why not enter works on particular forests, lakes, rivers, mountains, cities, counties, ships, railways, and so on under appropriate generic headings? Area surveys are not conducted only for works on animals, and if "gathering" is desirable for works on animals (with topical subheadings), why is it not desirable for works on other things? If it is desirable to allow catalog users to retrieve individual biographies of people, why should it not be desirable to allow them to retrieve individual "biographies" of other sorts of things? Consistency would seem to require general extension of the practice of duplicate entry at specific and generic levels.

The same considerations argue in favor of assignment of multiple generic headings. If the change in practice is intended to enable the user to retrieve biographies in a particular field of interest, then, for instance, biographies of the wives of Tulsa clergymen should also be listed under United States—Biography, under Women—Oklahoma, and so on, since these may well be users' fields of interest. It might be argued that multiple generic headings are unnecessary because of the existence of a syndetic structure. But if that argument were valid for some generic entries, would it not be valid for all duplicate generic entries? When one begins climbing the steps of a hierarchy of headings, there is no obvious reason for stopping at any particular point; and when various sets of steps are available, it is not obvious how one justifies climbing one set rather than another. The official reasons for the new practices do not solve either problem. But they do clearly justify, if not require, extensive multiple assignment of generic headings.

Should we welcome a consistent application, and extension, of the new policies? Should we be glad that the Rule of Exclusively Specific Entry is to be given up? At first glance, it seems reasonable to provide for the "gathering" of related materials, specifically materials on members of a species, or species of a genus. But a moment's reflection will remind us that this goal was long ago renounced when the alphabetical subject catalog with specific entry was first adopted, and we must ask why what was then rejected should now be accepted. The alphabetical catalog, as Haykin says and Cutter knew, "obviously lacks the advantage of the classed catalog in bringing all of the material on a given subject together and arranging it on the basis of its logical interrelationships. The alphabetical catalog can make up for this lack in part by its syndetic apparatus...."12

Has the new practice of duplication any advantage over reliance on the syndetic apparatus? Clearly it cannot be claimed that systematic duplication reveals anything more about the content of a collection than does specific entry supplemented by appropriate see also references. Listing biographies of Hitler under the proper name and under Statesmen—Germany—Biography (or, as LC also does, inconsistently, under Heads of state—Germany—Biography) reveals nothing about a collection that would not be revealed by specific entry plus
see also references. As far as explicit identification of the contents of a collection goes, the devices are equivalent.

It is true that see also references have not been systematically made, at least in the Library of Congress List of Subject Headings; in some cases (e.g., Indian tribes, and some groups of languages), see also references to all subordinate members of a larger group are provided, in other cases only a "general reference" like "See also names of automobiles, e.g., Chevrolet automobile..." Such general references do defeat the purpose of the syndetic apparatus of the alphabetical subject catalog, despite Haykin's argument to the contrary.13

Systematic duplication is a way of making up for a defect of the syndetic structure. In a card- or book-form catalog, it is an absurdly wasteful way of doing so. And it is a way that introduces new inconveniences that are not found in a catalog with an adequate cross-reference structure. Unlike the classed catalog, in which material on subtopics of a large topic is collocated yet still subarranged by subtopic, systematic duplication results in random intermingling of general and specific works. One who was searching for general works on German statesmen or works of collective biography, rather than works on Hitler or Bismarck, would have to wade through a mass of entries mostly of the wrong sort. The same subject heading that is specific in relation to one sort of work is generic in relation to other sorts of works; systematic duplication results in random intermingling of specific and generic descriptions of works, contrary to the basic principle of the alphabetico-specific form of subject index. In a small file this may be a small inconvenience, but in a very large file it is bound to be a very large inconvenience. This is obvious for card and book-form catalogs, but is true also of computer-based catalogs.

The search statement that would be needed in a computer-based catalog to identify the subfile of collective biographies of German statesmen would have to list the proper names of individuals that were not wanted as subject entries (e.g., "Statesmen-Germany and not Hitler, Adolf, and not Bismarck, Otto Fuerst von and not ..."). That is, to formulate the correct search statement, one would need the equivalent of a complete list of downward see also references. But if one had such a list, systematic duplication of headings would be unnecessary. Duplication of headings reveals nothing new and is a wasteful way of repairing the deficiencies of the syndetic structure, one that introduces new inconveniences.

The new inconveniences could be avoided by subdividing the generic heading by the specific heading and filing accordingly (or filing as if the headings were subdivided); this would make the alphabetical catalog into an alphabetico-classed catalog, with headings like Statesmen-Germany-Hitler. Or, in a computer-based catalog, subject headings might be tagged as being the "collective" form or the "distributive" form, e.g., Statesmen-Germany [C] applied only to works of collective biography, and Statesmen-Germany [D] applied...
to works of individual biography. Both solutions result in new complexity, introduced to repair a needless inconvenience.

It might be claimed that such an inconvenience is trivial by comparison to the convenience of not having to go from place to place following trails of cross-references. This is unpersuasive in the case of a computer-based catalog, which can be set up to allow automatic expansion (or "explosion") of searches along cross-reference trails. It is hardly more persuasive in the case of card or book-form catalogs; for the new practices do not by themselves promise an end to walking from place to place. Complete recataloging of a collection would first be necessary. Assurance would be required, not merely that every work was assigned some duplicate generic heading, but that every work was assigned every applicable duplicate generic heading. No one can suppose that complete recataloging or such enormous expansion of multiple duplicate generic heading assignments is going to take place, at LC or elsewhere. In practice, the need for walking will not be eliminated.

The Rule of Specific Entry has its critics, and there is no reason for a superstitious reverence for the custom it represents. And it can plausibly be argued that LC has assigned too few subject headings in the past, either to meet the needs of its users or to reveal much of the contents of its collection. It can be argued that an increase of the depth or exhaustivity of indexing would be a useful improvement in subject access. But it has to be remembered that one can add headings without increasing the depth of indexing or revealing more of a collection; systematic duplication of headings adds index entries but does not add information about the content of the collection. LC's change of practice will produce a useless increase in the numbers of headings assigned. If more headings are to be assigned, they should not be predictable in advance; they should add information. The Library of Congress recently invited the library community to help determine "what kind of indexing system would best answer the needs of American libraries after 1980." As the first part of its response to this invitation, the library community should tell LC that, whatever it does need, it does not need the sort of change represented by the recent LC policy announcements relating to specific entry.

References

3. Haykin, p.11.
The problem of organizing materials in career counseling information centers is an old one. A system for organizing such materials was devised for the Curricular/Career Information Service at Florida State University that has shown considerable improvement in meeting the needs of both counselors and clientele. The three-year-old system is described in detail, and a critical appraisal is given.

At Florida State University, the Curricular/Career Information Service (CCIS) serves as the information dissemination agency of the Office of Undergraduate Advisement and Counseling. Typical of career information centers on many college and university campuses, CCIS has a limited staff to serve thousands of students in need of guidance in choosing from among the many academic programs that lead to a wide variety of careers. As occupations and training programs become more specialized, the process of determining and achieving career goals likewise becomes more complex and the need for counseling more acute.

To maximize its service to students in the determination of career goals, CCIS has sought to acquire all available resources it can identify in any medium—books, tapes, slides, briefs, pamphlets, brochures, etc.—to increase its capability of meeting a wide variety of needs. The acquisitions policy stresses currency and breadth. The result has been the establishment of an extensive collection of resources relating to jobs, job opportunities, and training programs.

Resources collected fall into one of two basic categories: (1) career planning information (i.e., financial aid sources, college guides, interview techniques, etc.) and (2) occupational information (i.e., data relating to specific jobs). It is the purpose of this paper to describe the
development of a subject access system for the latter category of materials maintained in CCIS. A detailed description of the system is presented. The concluding section reviews critical observations for those wanting to develop a similar system at their institutions.

The subject access system at CCIS was created by applying the basic principles of chain indexing to a vocabulary selected from the Dictionary of Occupational Titles (DOT), a major career guidance tool. The result is a "self-help" retrieval system that is compatible with the needs, experiences, vocabulary, and ability of either the most inexperienced or the most sophisticated user.

Like other centers on university or college campuses, CCIS was faced with the problem of an organizational methodology for the collection that would permit the identification and retrieval of information about specific job titles with the least effort on the part of the user and the least cost to the center. The problem is one that has concerned career counselors for years. It has been recognized by many but adequately dealt with by few. Kirk and Michels identified the problem as being a serious deterrent to successful career counseling. They note that

Occupational libraries have suffered from such haphazard or complex filing systems that neither clients nor counselors could readily locate pertinent materials.2

Circle, Clemens, Kroll, and Overholt further identified the need for a system of organization that would easily accommodate numerous accessions. Writing about the classification and storage problem, they state:

This element is usually the "Achilles' heel" of any career information service. A system is only as effective as are the procedures for classifying, filing, and retrieving materials. Once a library is underway, materials come in so rapidly that the staff is inundated unless they have a well-developed plan for accessioning materials.3

As occupational titles become more numerous, more specialized, and more widely publicized, the number of people seeking relevant information likewise increases. Previously dormant information centers are being refurbished and new ones are being created as the results of this demand. Many counselors and librarians are finding themselves unprepared to cope with the ever-increasing tide of materials and demands. The problem was especially acute at Florida State University because of the constant change in staff, consisting primarily of graduate student assistants. The continual process of training and retraining staff occupied much of the time of the professional staff. It was apparent that since there could be little change in the composition and/or stability of the staff, a new system was needed to minimize problems resulting from changes of personnel and to accommodate the growing demands for service.

A search of the literature revealed a poverty in documentation of
prescriptive measures to relieve the situation. The decision to rely on standard subject headings lists, such as the Library of Congress Subject Headings or Sears List of Subject Headings, was soon discarded because of their lack of specificity in relation to occupational terminology and their dependence on the identification of a specific lead term in searching. Following a study of the needs of CCIS, it was concluded that a functional system must be developed that would (1) identify group-related and specific occupations, (2) be self-servicing, (3) be hospitable to new occupational titles, and (4) be amenable to changing occupational titles. These considerations led to the decision to modify library indexing theory to accommodate unique counseling needs.

The System

The system consists of three components: (1) an alphabetical author/title file of materials available in the center, (2) an alphabetical list of job titles and their corresponding DOT classification numbers, and (3) a classified catalog, arranged by DOT classification numbers, of all materials indexed and added to the collection.

Each piece of material received by the CCIS is cataloged and descriptive entries are maintained in an author/title file to accommodate known author/title searches. Cataloging policy provides for generous use of analyticals to permit the identification of specific occupational titles that may be included in a collection or a work treating different job titles.

Since the vast majority of requests are for information "about" a given occupational title, emphasis is placed on the creation of an effective subject access system to complement the author/title catalog. Several factors were considered in the selection of DOT as the source for indexing vocabulary. First, it lists nearly all jobs in the United States economy. The counselors were already familiar with its organization and structure. Federal documents constitute a large percent of the career materials acquired by career counselors to assist them in their work. These materials arrived with DOT classification numbers preassigned. Likewise, a large percentage of the commercially prepared career materials acquired by CCIS arrived with DOT classification numbers preassigned. Also, the DOT classification system does an excellent job of grouping related occupations.

The Process

The procedure for indexing materials for the subject access system used in the CCIS resource center is one that can be quickly learned by personnel unfamiliar with the technique. An alphabetical index of occupational titles serves as a guide to the classified catalog, which collocates like materials by DOT classification number. The specific career position must first be identified in the alphabetical section of the DOT, then in the classified section.

Once located in the classified section, the job description may iden-
tify alternate titles for the position (i.e., synonyms and near synonyms) and/or more specific job titles. These terms become index vocabulary. For example, in searching the alphabetical list for careers in dancing, one finds:

Dancer (amuse. & rec.) 151.048.

From the classified list, one also finds the following specialties: Acrobatic dancer, Ballet dancer, Ballroom dancer, Chorus dancer, Interpretative dancer, Tap dancer.

To maximize the searchability of the index, job titles are transcribed both in direct and inverted form where possible. Example: Acrobatic dancing becomes Dancing, Acrobatic. Coordinated terms such as Entertainment and recreation also appear in reverse order such as Recreation and entertainment. Nonsearchable “lead” terms are deleted. Thus, “Occupations in dancing” becomes Dancing.

In addition to the specific occupational titles and alternate titles, DOT also provides general titles of occupational groups, such as Professional occupations, Managerial occupations, Sales occupations, etc.; the major categories, such as Printing occupations, Textile occupations, etc.; the specific divisions, such as Typesetters and composers, Printing press occupations, etc.

The alphabetical listing of the hundreds of terms (including the corresponding classification numbers) becomes the contextual index to the classified catalog. Sample:

- Acrobatic dancer
  151.048.A2
- Amusement and recreation
  15
- Ballet dancer
  151.048.B3
- Ballroom dancer
  151.048.B34
- Chorus dancer
  151.048.C4
- Dancer, Acrobatic
  151.048.A2
- Dancer: Amusement and recreation
  151.048
- Dancer, Ballet
  151.048.B3
- Dancer, Ballroom
  151.048.B34
- Dancer, Interpretative
  151.048.I5
- Dancer, Tap
  151.048.T3
- Dancing
  151
- Interpretative dancer
  151.048.I5
- Recreation and entertainment
  151
- Tap dancer
  151.048.T3

The classified catalog is arranged in the order of the DOT classification. It is, however, reflective only of the holdings of the CCIS and includes a catalog entry for each occupational resource in the collection. Example:

- 15 Amusement and recreation
- 151 Occupations in dancing
- 151.048 Dancer

Library of Congress cutter numbers have been used to sort out the different occupational titles where DOT has grouped them under a
single classification number. As shown in the example above, 151.048 is used in DOT for a variety of different dancing specialties. Cutter numbers also collocate materials on the same specialty. Example:

152.048.C4  Choirmaster
152.048.C6  Concert singer
152.048.D4  Director, Choral
152.048.D45 Director, Music

Some Observations

Anyone considering the development of a subject access system such as the one used at CCIS should be aware of some potential problem areas. The fourth edition of the Dictionary of Occupational Titles may be difficult to use with the previous edition because of the extension of the classification numbers from six to nine digits. CCIS continues to use a six-digit number and a cutter number where appropriate. No problems have resulted.

The DOT may not include some of the alternate titles by which an occupation is known by local searchers. The system is hospitable to synonyms and near synonyms. In such cases the indexer improvises by adding new terms and referencing them to the appropriate occupational title listed in DOT.

In the few instances that a needed occupational title may not appear in the DOT list, it is added and assigned the classification number of the job to which it is most closely related. A record of all such added terms is maintained. CCIS has had no difficulties in updating the list in this manner.

Conclusion

The primary goal of a workable organizational system for career information should be to provide easy and quick access to materials at the least cost in time to the user and the staff. At the CCIS, the system employed is one that makes use of the reference tool with which career counselors are most familiar. Its search terms are in the working vocabulary of its users. It is the result of many hours of study, work, and experimentation and is a marked improvement over the previous system used.

Although there are some shortcomings, it has successfully accomplished its purpose. It has freed the personnel at CCIS from the burden of attempting to remember all of the material available, enabling them to work more personally with students on other career concerns. CCIS personnel conclude that the development of its new subject access system is well worth the time, effort, and expense it took to bring it into being.

References


**CORRECTION**

In the article by Donald J. Morton, "The Use of a Subscription Agent's Computer Facilities in Creating and Maintaining a Library's Subscription Profile" (*Library & Technical Resources* 22:386–89, Fall 1978), the paragraph beginning on the second line of page 389 should begin: "A total of 1,456 titles was requested—756 (51.9 percent) by one, 274 (18.8 percent) by two, 163 (11.2 percent) by three, ..."
Interfacing a Local System with OCLC: The Documentation Process

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An analysis of the procedures used at Indiana University's Regional Campus Libraries Technical Services Center is presented to document a complex interface between the center's automated acquisitions/cataloging system and the OCLC system. Four kinds of diagrams were conceptualized and executed in this process: a general flow diagram, block models, detailed flow diagrams, and activity line diagrams. The documentation provided by these diagrams played a significant role in planning and development, staff orientation, and implementation of the interface.

IN MAKING a transition from one processing system to another the process of creating documentation is critical, not only as support for the new system, but as a part of its design and implementation. The object of this paper is to analyze the procedures used at Indiana University's Regional Campus Libraries Technical Services Center to document an interface between its automated acquisitions/cataloging system and the OCLC cataloging support system.

The Regional Campus Libraries Technical Services Center, located on the Bloomington campus, serves Indiana University's six regional campus libraries at South Bend, Fort Wayne, Kokomo, Gary, New Albany, and Richmond. The center buys, catalogs, processes, and does the accounting for materials acquired by these libraries. These functions have been performed with the aid of a unique computer-assisted data processing system since the establishment of the center in 1965.

The center's pre-OCLC acquisitions/cataloging system consisted of a machine-readable data base manipulated by job streams at the university's administrative computing center, Data Systems and Services. Bib-
liographic records (based on Library of Congress copy if available) were edited to a maximum of 556 characters, coded and keyed into punched cards at the center, and added to the data base. A record was used to generate a purchase order and to perform associated accounting, and after receipt of the item, the same record was used to generate catalog cards (uppercase only) and to update the accounting. All in-house catalogs produced by the center since 1975 have been in COM (computer output microfiche) format. The Microfiche Union Catalog (MUNC) was the center’s record of its data base, listing in main entry order all bibliographic records and associated holdings. In addition to records used for cataloging, the MUNC included preorder records, some of which were created without supporting catalog copy (i.e., Library of Congress catalog copy) and consisted only of information available on the purchase request: main entry and/or title, and imprint.

OCLC offers at present a cataloging support system only, and it was determined quite early by center faculty that the use of OCLC for cataloging and card production, maintaining the pre-OCLC RCL system for acquisitions and holdings, would not prove cost-effective because of the duplication of effort.

A task force consisting of three support staff persons and five librarians was appointed by the center’s director to design, document, and implement a plan for the use of OCLC. The result of the planning and analysis was the RCL/OCLC interface, designed by the center’s assistant director for technical services, Carl Hays, to link the two systems. The interface used the core programs of the old system for production of purchase orders, accounting, the holdings system, and production of COM catalogs, and incorporated OCLC as a searching tool, the source of the machine-readable data base for the MUNC and the acquisitions system, and for catalog card production. This was accomplished by transcribing data—either full bibliographic records retrieved from the OCLC data base or RCL records keyed directly onto the screen—from the terminal to magnetic tape. Data stored on the tape was transmitted at a later time to the computing center, where it was integrated into the center’s pre-OCLC data base for use in the job streams. Programming of the design, which proved to be quite complex, was undertaken by Data Systems and Services.

Immediate, detailed, and easily retrievable documentation was needed before implementation of the interface to record decisions about procedures, to provide for training and implementation, and to support a more reasoned and carefully constructed procedures manual which was to be written after implementation. The task force created this documentation through a process involving the conceptualization and execution of four kinds of diagrams:

1. A general flow diagram—a visual representation of the entirety of the center’s procedures.
2. Block models—three-dimensional models, one each for the three

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complex process blocks," each of which referred to a multiplicity of "predefined processes." The concept of "predefined process," important to the understanding of the diagrams, was defined as: one or more steps in a logical order in which a particular task is performed on a particular record type for a particular system function.

3. Detailed flow diagrams—visual representations of each predefined process referenced by the three complex process blocks and for single predefined processes represented by blocks in the general flow diagram.

4. Activity line diagrams—visual representations linking the detailed flow diagrams of predefined processes into logical sequences required to perform purchase, cataloging, or accounting activities.

The result of the documentation process was a double documentary hierarchy through which any staff member could proceed from the general flow diagram of the system to the detail of each specifically predefined process and then back to generalized lines of activity flow.

The General Flow Diagram

At the beginning of the discussions on how to incorporate OCLC into the center's automated acquisitions/cataloging system, a general flow diagram of the current system was drawn. The system was then reviewed in light of OCLC capabilities, and crucial decisions for change were made; for example, the center's Library of Congress proof slip subscription was canceled because of the availability of LC copy in the OCLC data base. A general flow diagram of the proposed system, extending to eight pages, was drawn to record the policies and procedures decided upon. (Figure 1 reproduces the third page, which includes the first use of OCLC in the system. The first and second pages are related to preliminary acquisitions procedures.)

The Block Models

Completion of the general flow diagram revealed three complex process blocks relating to the use of OCLC, the use of MUNC, and the creation of original cataloging. These were labeled "Use OCLC," "Use MUNC," and "Generate Original Cataloging," respectively. Each of the three blocks was further analyzed and represented in a three-dimensional model which accounted for all possible unique predefined processes involved in that location in the general flow diagram.

The "Use OCLC" block (figure 2) was the first one to be drawn and the most complex. The three dimensions of the block were labeled:

1. Task (keying, proofreading, etc.);
2. Record type (including all the kinds of records the center would key at the terminal);
3. System function (purchasing, cataloging, or recording holdings).

The intersection of any combination of task, record type, and system function represented a predefined process. For example, coordi-
Figure 1
The General Flow Diagram. (This is page 3 of the original 8-page diagram.)
nates 7,1,1 in the “Use OCLC” process block represented “display—i.e., search (task), an OCLC bibliographic record (record type), for purchasing (system function).” Similarly, coordinates 1,1,2 represented “key—i.e., input, an OCLC bibliographic record, for cataloging”; coordinates 12,1,2 represented “save, an OCLC bibliographic record, for cataloging”; and coordinates 5,5,1 represented “proofread for keying accuracy, an RCL activity record, for purchasing.”

The “Use OCLC” process block ultimately identified twelve tasks, seven record types, and three system functions. As a 12x7x3 model, “Use OCLC” contained 252 intersections. Many of these intersections proved to be invalid because they did not represent actual predefined processes; for example, since RCL CW records were pre-order records, by definition used only to generate purchase orders, the predefined process 1,2,2 representing “key, an RCL CW record, for cataloging” was invalid. Other predefined processes were duplicates, for example 11,1,1 (transcribe onto tape, an OCLC bibliographic record, for purchasing) and 11,1,2 (transcribe onto tape, an OCLC bibliographic record, for cataloging). Of the possible 252 predefined processes, 37 proved to be both valid and unique.

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The "Use MUNC" and "Generate Original Cataloging" process blocks (figures 3 and 4) were analyzed in the same way as "Use OCLC." The valid and unique predefined processes from all three process blocks were assigned to task force members to draw as detailed flow diagrams.

The Detailed Flow Diagrams

Detailed flow diagrams to annotate the general flow diagram were drawn for predefined processes identified within the three complex process blocks and for other process blocks in the general flow diagram which represented single predefined processes. For example, coordinates 7,1,1 from the "Use OCLC" Process Block Model (figure 2) represents a predefined process which needed to be diagrammed. The detailed diagram is shown in figure 5. Each diagram, describing a single predefined process, specified document names, document sources, and destinations, and all changes to all documents during the predefined process.

The detailed flow diagrams were constructed over an extended period of time while the computer programming for the interface was completed. Procedural decisions about the new system were made almost faster than they could be recorded. Many changes had to be incorporated into the general flow diagram and completed detailed flow diagrams, and with each redrawing, more needed changes were discovered and more decisions made.

Figure 3
The "Use MUNC" Process Block Model.

Library Resources & Technical Services
Figure 4
The "Generate Original Cataloging" Process Block Model.
Figure 5
A Detailed Flow Diagram for Coordinates 7/1/1 from the "Use OCLC" Process Block Model.
Figure 6
An Activity Line Diagram for Purchase Request Processing.
The Activity Line Diagrams

When the detailed flow diagrams were as complete as possible, the predefined processes were ordered into process sets. Each set of predefined processes represented a complete activity line as it was to occur within the center. For example, all predefined processes used to generate purchase orders from the purchase requests received from the campuses were ordered into an activity line labeled “Processing of Purchase Requests” (figure 6).

Ultimately, seven process sets were isolated and diagrammed for the following activity lines: (1) processing purchase requests; (2) processing purchased items; (3) processing items received as gifts; (4) cataloging from exact match Library of Congress copy in lieu of an item retained on the regional campus; (5) cataloging from CIP copy; (6) producing an additional set of cards from a bibliographic record already in the data base; and (7) updating the center’s holdings records on the basis of new information received from a regional campus. Some processes requiring intuitive or subjective thought processes, e.g., resolving holdings problems, involved so many alternatives as to be impractical to diagram.

The final step in the documentation process was distribution. All diagrams—the general flow diagram, block models, detailed flow diagrams, and activity line diagrams—were reproduced, collated, and distributed to staff members for training purposes. Several days were devoted to orientation during which the activity line diagrams played a key role as programmed documentation; staff studied all the diagrams and experimented with the activity line and following it through the predefined processes from beginning to end. Examination of the documentation on the part of staff members not previously involved in the process led to needed changes, and an addendum to the flow diagrams was published daily for the first several days. A one-day practice run using the interface provided experience for the staff and data for systems tests.

If the objectives of creating documentation for a new system are to provide a means for recording decisions and procedures and to provide a means for disseminating the information recorded, the method of creating documentation that has been described in this paper meets those objectives. It provides for analysis of the current operating system and a logical approach to decisions for change to a new system. The process of creating the documentation by drawing a hierarchical system of flow diagrams isolates conditions that require decision making and thus plays a significant role in the planning and development of the system as well as serving as a means of recording and disseminating information about it.
In early 1975, the research library community was surveyed to determine its acceptance, application, and assessment of the provisions of the Anglo-American Cataloging Rules, North American Text (AACR) that are concerned with the cataloging of serials—rule 6 and chapter 7. Responses reveal a wide degree of intentional variation from this standard. To a large extent, this deviation reflects dissatisfaction with AACR practice of entering many serials under the heading for the corporate bodies that issue them as well as preference for a more simplified bibliographic description for serials than results from fully following AACR.

In early 1975, a project, sponsored by the Council on Library Resources through its Fellowship Program, to determine the current application of the Anglo-American Cataloging Rules (AACR) by large research libraries as well as catalogers’ suggestions for code improvement resulted in the distribution of questionnaires to the eighty-one members of the Association of Research Libraries (ARL) which had agreed to participate in the study.1 Of the institutions that received questionnaires, 75 returned them, constituting a response of 92.6 percent.

One of the objectives of this undertaking was to yield specific data about decisions taken by participating libraries with regard to AACR provisions for the cataloging of serials—rule 6 and chapter 7. The report that follows represents an effort to share this information with those interested in following developments that concern the bibliographic control and description of library materials.

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Sixteen of the responding libraries specified one or more rules of AACR chapter 1 (Entry) that they have not applied in local cataloging. Among them, the rule that governs choice of main entry for serial publications represents the major source of deviation—and, indeed, the only departure from the “general rules” of this chapter. “Serials are much more often entered under title than the rules allow,” stated one national library about its practices. A second national library has partially disregarded the “exception” to rule 6B (Serials issued by a corporate body) by mandating main entry of serials under title “if [the title] contains [an] abbreviation of [the] corporate issuing body.” Comments of three university libraries suggest that their cataloging policies also have resulted more frequently in title main entry of serials than would have been the case if they were strictly following AACR. In apparent disregard of rule 6B2, one of them has based choice of entry entirely on linguistic considerations: “All [serials] with distinctive titles are entered under title with added entry for issuing agency.” This approach is similar to the practice of a large special library which accesses serial holdings in an annual printed list, not in its public catalog. Finally, one university library, which otherwise adheres to rule 6, has not accepted that part which calls for entry of a serial by a personal author under that person’s name (6C); this cataloging agency has decided to accord all such publications title main entry instead.

Several commentators also drew attention to the fact that “corporate entries are not standardized for monographs and serials.” In terms of changing the situation, users of the code were consistent in their desire to reduce the number of publications, both monographs and serials, which would qualify for main entry under corporate bodies. Especially strong were the respondents’ feelings that AACR should be modified to yield more title entries for serials, as reactions to the two following proposals reveal:

1. AACR 6 should be revised to require main entry for serial publications uniformly under title unless the title consists of a generic term. Favored by 59.2 percent of seventy-one responses.

2. AACR 6 should be revised to require main entry for any serial issued by or bearing the authority of a corporate body under the body. Disapproved by 94.3 percent of seventy responses.

Clearly, those participating would favor more serial entries under title and fewer under corporate body or personal author.

Indeed, some respondents were prepared to carry this approach to an extreme and would require title main entry for all serials. The advantages perceived by those who favored this change in cataloging rules mostly related to increased standardization for purposes of automated processing and exchange of serial data. According to one participant, “the future for serial records lies in computerized
machine input, storage and retrieval, and title entry is more compatible with the serial union lists being set up all over the country." Another commentator cited the recent emergence of the Guidelines for ISDS (International Serials Data System) and the International Standard Bibliographic Description for Serials (ISBD(S)) "which rely on distinctive title as the main entry point" as evidence that "entry by title is probably the best means of standardization of cataloging." In the view of a third respondent, the Guidelines for ISDS and the ISBD(S) have paved the way for widespread sharing of serial information by providing "the tools for entering all serials under title"—specifically, "the addition of issuing body to generic titles and the use of full, untruncated titles."

Not all participating libraries, however, were ready to endorse revision of AACR rule 6 to require title entry for all serial publications. Indeed, slightly more than two-thirds of the seventy respondents who spoke to this issue opposed such a sweeping change. They were mostly disturbed because they felt this approach to be inadequate to deal with the problems of providing access in the catalog and on the shelves to the many serials whose titles comprise nondistinctive or generic words. "Too many titles are simply: Report; Transactions; Proceedings" and the like, noted one commentator. Nor to these respondents was the ISDS practice of constructing unique title—usually by adding the names of issuing organizations to the generic word or term—an acceptable solution to the problem. "Files of title entries under generic terms coupled with the author statement... will be difficult to use," argued a respondent; "under such titles relatively slight changes in the wording can create grave difficulties in matching, especially in a one entry file." In addition, "putting generic titles under title will not cut down on the number of successive entries since the author statement is an integral part of the title," noted another reactor. The implications for libraries that shelve serials alphabetically by title—that they "could end up by having things far apart which should be together"—distressed several of those who would prefer to continue arranging serials with generic titles under the names of the organizations which issue them. For all of these reasons, the overwhelming majority would not agree with the respondent who projected rather optimistically: "The inconvenience caused by the long files under generic terms would be more than compensated for, I hope, by the improved access through added entries and the fuller descriptions available to the user."

It seems, then, that the libraries that have modified rules 6A-6C as well as most of those that have applied them as written would welcome a revision to produce more title main entries for serials, preferably all whose titles are distinctive in nature; however, only a minority of respondents would appear to favor a wholesale change to enter them all in this manner.

Several participating libraries admitted rejection of rule 6D, which
prescribes separate entry cataloging for serials that undergo a change of title, author, or name of issuing body. As one of them explained:

[This provision] is extremely inadequate to handle the many complicated situations involving frequent changes in the names of agencies, subunits of agencies, and titles, particularly for government documents. There are many cases when unnecessarily complicated and misleading records result from successive cataloging, particularly when one is dealing with a great variety of changes that occur in a short time and when titles vary back and forth. Also, it often happens that changes aren’t caught until several of them have occurred, and then it is much more efficient to recatalog the whole publication at once.

However, the libraries that did not accept rule 6D in 1975 are considerably fewer in number than in 1968 when it was discovered that only seventeen of forty libraries queried had abandoned the method of cataloging every serial as a single bibliographic entity under latest title or latest issuing body. Indeed, the preponderance of research libraries were now following rule 6D; in addition, more than 80 percent expressed the view that they would oppose deletion of this provision. With the passage of time it had become apparent, as one university library’s respondent indicated, that “the constant recataloging required by [single entry cataloging] is a nicety libraries cannot afford.” The comments of those who have come to support AACR in this matter reveal a belief that rule 6D articulates an approach that is perceived as far more economical, consistent with bibliographic citation practices, likely to promote automated serials control, and in keeping with requirements of programs aimed at exchange of serials data than the alternative convention of single entry cataloging. In short, as one institution that did not make the switch to rule 6D until 1973 has concluded: “Having had experience with cataloging done both ways, the successive title form of entry is highly preferable.”

Description

The survey asked respondents to indicate the extent to which the provisions of AACR chapter 7 concerning bibliographic description of serial publications are followed in the original cataloging performed by their staffs. Of the seventy-four libraries which reported a formal practice, only eighteen (24.3 percent) have fully applied the rules of chapter 7. Fifty-four (73 percent) have generally accepted these rules, disregarding some provisions and modifying others in their application. Two libraries have rejected chapter 7 altogether. One of them has continued to follow the A.L.A. Cataloging Rules for Author and Title Entries, although indicating plans to switch to AACR in the future. The other has relied on entries in a book catalog as the primary means of access and was not clear about what rules it has used to develop them.

In commenting on specific provisions of chapter 7, which they have either disregarded or recommended for revision, seven respondents reported that they have not applied the provision of 160A that specifies: “A serial that changes its title or that is entered under a corpo-
rate body that changes its names during the course of publication is normally cataloged with a separate entry for each new title or new name of a corporate body.” Consistent with their rejection of rule 6D (see above), these libraries have observed the alternative practice—stated in footnote 1—of cataloging the various publications produced by such changes as a single serial that is entered under the latest title or name of corporate body. In addition, another six participating libraries indicated that they have applied either of these techniques, depending on which better meets the needs of particular circumstances. For example, “some older serials, especially reprints of dead periodicals are cataloged [as an entity] with title varies notes,” reported one respondent whose general practice has been otherwise in accordance with the principle of successive entry cataloging.

As for the other practices recommended by the provisions of 160, one respondent challenged the policy whereby “subtitle [information] is frequently omitted or presented in a supplementary note,” arguing that “all too frequently citations to serials include the subtitle” (see comment below on 162A). For reasons that were not specified, another cataloger has not observed the advice that “the catalog entry for a serial publication should show which parts of it are in the library’s collection or refer to another catalog . . . or a special record of serials” (see comment below on 163).

Representatives of the participating libraries expressed little disagreement with the contents of rule 161 (Body of the entry: organization and source of data), although in an apparent effort to simplify the catalog record one of them has rejected that part of it that requires specification of the source of the bibliographic description whenever it is not the title page, cover, caption, or masthead.

More controversial are the provisions of 162, which cover title transcription. In particular, the decision to delete subrule 162B—permitting under specified circumstances the omission of a corporate body name contained within a serial title—has engendered criticism. As one respondent commented, “We object to the author statement being transcribed as it appears on the publication (the title page) for often it puts us at the mercy of the typography . . . which may vary greatly from issue to issue. It would be better to ignore the prepositions (of the, for the, etc.) and in all cases connect the generic title with the author by space hyphen space.” It is worth noting that subrule 162A seems to have contributed to a lack of standardization with regard to the treatment of any subtitle that may be included in the bibliographic description; because the provision does not precisely indicate their placement, differing local practices have sprung up.

Rule 163, which provides instructions for supplying statements “of the volumes ‘held’ by the library,” represents another area of controversy in chapter 7. While application of AACR in this case produces an indication of holdings as an integral part of the catalog entry, fourteen respondents made clear their preference for recording such data
on control records usually maintained separately from the catalog by the library's organizational unit responsible for serials receipt and check in. In some cases, where the volumes held are revealed by the catalog entry, however, the holdings statements have been placed between the collation and notes—in contravention of the directive to give this information immediately after the title or subtitle. On the other hand, at least one commentator objected to that part of the rule that reads, “if the library does not have the first issue, the holdings statement is omitted and a note is added,” in the belief that “the beginning publication date of serials is of such paramount importance it should always be displayed in the most conspicuous place, i.e., the holdings statement in the catalog entry.” Finally, in respect to rule 163, it is worth noting that five of the participating libraries have retained the use of the hyphen when recording the date of a report that covers two or more calendar years, as prescribed in rule 7:5C of the Rules for Descriptive Cataloging; this practice varies from AACR that requires, instead, the use of the diagonal slash.

Several respondents reported local decisions to modify provisions of rule 164 (Imprint). In one library, the catalogers have consistently recorded dates of publication in imprint position even when they have already been shown in the statement of holdings. At a second library, such dates have been supplied only if they differ by more than five years from the dates appearing in the statement of holdings. The catalog entries for serials prepared by another library have not begun the imprint on a new line in the catalog entry, even when the record of the final volume is not included in the statement of holdings in violation of subrule 164A2. A comment concerning changes in the place of publication reveals that one library has retained the earliest place without use of “etc.” as stipulated by 164B. Respondents also noted local practices to simplify the recording of publisher information: One library reported that its bibliographic descriptions have never stated the name of publishers. A second has not indicated publisher “unless of importance” sufficient to require a tracing. At another library, the cataloger has named the earliest publisher in the imprint and noted any that were subsequent. Finally, the use “etc.” to indicate minor changes of publisher (164C2) has been disregarded by another library.

Many of the observations regarding rule 165 reflect respondents’ desires for a more simplified collation statement. Five participants have decided to omit entirely such data from descriptions for serials in progress. In addition, one library has not recorded information about volumes; two have omitted numbers; two have not described illustrations; and nine have disregarded size.

Two respondents reported variations from the practices set forth in rule 166, which covers series statements. At one library it has been the policy always to include volume numbering in a series statement for a serial issued as part of a larger serial, while catalogers at another in-
stitution have been instructed to record the beginning volume number (if known).

Chapter 7 devotes more than a third of its sixteen pages to rules on "supplementary notes necessary to the cataloging of serial publications." Comments on the application of these provisions suggest that much of the information to be conveyed by notes and judged to be "essential" has not in fact proved cost-effective in the view of many respondents. Thus, eighteen of the reporting libraries have modified or disregarded the instruction to note and trace the "editors, compilers, directors or founders who are important to the identification or characterization of the work" (167N). In general, twelve libraries have not specified the frequency of publication in describing serials (167B), and nine have ignored the directive to note duration of publication (167D). Eleven have not permitted notes on variation in imprint (167P). Subrules concerning notes that have been less frequently rejected by local policy include: 167C (Report year), 167L (Issues with special titles), 167R ("No more published?"), and 167S (Contents). Five institutions have disregarded 167G (Connection with preceding publication), and two are ignoring 167Q (Connection with later publication). In addition, two have not applied 167H (Publication absorbed). Also, one respondent each cited exceptions to the rules on notes concerning irregularities in numbering (167F), organ (167J), and minor variations in title (167K). In contrast to this general tendency toward simplification of the description for serials has been the practice of a single library whose catalogers have referred to both volume designation and dates of the volume when noting bibliographic changes. Also worth noting in relation to chapter 7's rules for notes is one respondent's suggestion that the statement that reads "At times unnecessary repetition can be avoided ... by combining two or more conventions or other notes" should be revised "to call for separate notes so as to facilitate tagging of types of information."7

Rule 168A covers the disposition of supplements to serial publications that are monographic or are themselves serials. This provision stipulates that supplements not treated as independent entries should be made part of the cataloging of the works to which they are related as a "dash" entry. Six of the participating libraries have consistently disregarded the dash-entry technique, and another only occasionally has used it. As one respondent remarked: "Dash-on entries are increasingly less useful and seem to let information get lost. Since the use of such entries is subject to doubt, and older records with such entries are being split, could this rule be adjusted or deleted?" Presumably, other libraries surveyed that have engaged in or now contemplate computer-assisted processing of bibliographic data will follow suit, since the U.S. MARC format does not accommodate the practice detailed in this rule.8

Handling of "special numbers" is the topic of rule 169; only a single respondent specified this provision as one not applied in local catalog-

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ing. Three participants, however, have decided to disregard rule 170, concerning treatment of indexes. In addition, six libraries have modified the method for recording indexes. Generally, they have preferred separate form or contents cards on which to record information about indexes and do not always file such cards in their public catalogs. Finally, one participating library has rarely used analytical entries, the subject of rule 172 which concludes chapter 7, while another has omitted them entirely, and a third has adapted the rule to insert a collation before the "analytical note."

The application of chapter 7 by large research libraries therefore may be said to constitute considerable variation from the standard set forth by the Anglo-American Cataloging Rules for the bibliographic description of serials. One is left wondering about the consequences of this deviation, generally aimed at simplification of catalog entries in order to produce more stable records—especially the extent to which it may have an adverse impact on the exchange of bibliographic data in the context of cooperative on-line catalogs.

References

1. Thirteen or 13.8 percent of the ninety-four libraries then constituting the ARL membership did not choose to participate.
2. Three national libraries, not including the Library of Congress, participated in the study.
4. The prescripts of both the International Standard Bibliographic Description for Serials (ISBD(S)) and the Guidelines for ISDS presume separate entries for serials that undergo changes in their "distinctive" or "key" titles.
5. Cataloging Service 110:3 (Summer 1974).
7. In winter 1975, the Library of Congress indicated that in order to facilitate the use of MARC tags it would no longer combine various types of information in a single note. Cf. Cataloging Service 112:12-13 (Winter 1975).
8. In summer 1975, the Library of Congress announced a change of policy for handling dash entries as related to serials, as follows: "Cards for monographic works will not include 'dash' entries for serials. Cards for serial publications may carry as 'dash' entries only issues and photoreproductions of the particular serial itself but not supplementary works or indexes, whether they are serial or monographic in nature. Most indexes to serials are added to serial cards in tabular form, but when a fuller description is required they are cataloged separately. . . . Similarly, supplements to serials that are themselves serials are separately cataloged as serials." Cataloging Service 114:4-5 (Summer 1975).
Use of Alternative Class Numbers for Bibliography in the Library of Congress Classification System

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The Library of Congress now provides a general works number for most of the bibliographies it catalogs, in addition to assigning a complete call number in Class Z. The alternative class number for bibliographies suggests the possibility of more representative classification of bibliographies and may enhance retrieval and increase use. After a brief historical and theoretical introduction, several options for employing an alternative class number are explored, and some problems that will arise are outlined.

The announcement by the Library of Congress (LC) that it would provide subject class numbers for bibliographies as an alternative to classification in Z raises the question of how bibliographies are to be classified. According to LC, this provision is offered at the request of libraries preferring to classify bibliographies according to subject and does not mean a change of practice at the Library of Congress itself. In this sense, the alternative class number is provided in the same way that alternative numbers are given for classifying a work separately where LC classifies as a set. Nevertheless, the option suggests rethinking the question posed above in terms of whether the alternative classification will increase retrieval and use of a library’s resources and whether the new practice is theoretically sound and practically workable.

Why does the Library of Congress classify bibliographies in a separate class Z (separate from subjects) and in an alphabetical listing? In the preface to the fourth edition of the Class Z schedule, it is noted that the Z classification for Bibliography originated in part with the provisions of Cutter’s Seventh Expansive Classification (1898) and, it is

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suggested, that because "[a] strong collection in Bibliography has al-
ways been an objective of the Library,"8 the format of the class has
never been significantly revised.

In fact, the scheme for Bibliography was adapted before the de-
velopment of what would become the Library of Congress Classifica-
tion. Practical considerations forced the hasty decision to organize the
Library's bibliographies as soon as possible, since space for expanding
subject collections was needed. "Furthermore, since Bibliography
would constitute a basic reference collection separate from the general
collections, the new classification devised for it would not preclude the
choice of an existing system for the rest of the Library."9 As it turned
out, the classification system chosen was the Cutter Expansive, modi-
ified and developed, with its separate alphabetical-classed arrangement
for bibliographies.

But there was already precedence for separating bibliographies
from subject classes. At the Library Company of Philadelphia, George
Campbell (1783–1855) had already introduced a separate Bibliogra-
phy class during his tenure as librarian, and his successor, Lloyd
Smith (1822–1886), moved the class from the beginning of the classi-
fication scheme to the end. Thus, the practical necessities realized by
the nascent Library of Congress coincided with an accepted treatment
of bibliographies.

Over and above the precedence of practice, a theoretical argument
is implicit in any treatment of bibliographies. Bibliography (in the
classical sense) and bibliographies are intimately related as theory and
application, activity and product, idea and object. Bibliographies are
expressions of a systematic and enumerative art (or science) and are in
fact subjects themselves insofar as they are based on principles inde-
pendent of content. Exhaustive or universal bibliographies attempt to
encompass all aspects of knowledge or a field of knowledge, setting
books in a philosophic or comprehensible order.4 True bibliography is
classification as well as description.

Whether or not the theoretical relationship between Bibliography
and bibliographies entered into LC's decision to separate subject bib-
liographies into a unique class is unclear. The practical exigencies can
probably be taken at face value. At any rate, the alphabetical-classed
scheme for bibliographies, while originally a practical step in view of
the above considerations, "has made Z the most unsatisfactory of the
Library of Congress schedules."5 The question of this insufficiency
reemerges now some eight decades later in LC's provision of alterna-
tive class numbers for bibliographies.

Before attempting to examine a rationale for subject classification of
bibliographies and its attendant difficulties, it is necessary to consider
what LC has done to attempt to integrate bibliographies with subject
classes.

In the first place, it must be recalled that the classed catalog had
been a seriously considered option in determining the character of fu-
ture library catalogs. Indeed, LC maintained a classed catalog until about 1940, reflecting the views of J. C. M. Hanson and Charles Martel, successive chiefs of the Cataloging Division, that a classed catalog was, as LaMontagne puts it, “essential to a scholarly library to supplement the dictionary catalog.”6 The classed catalog would function as a shelflist, with a system of cross-references and information notes, to be used in conjunction with the class schedules and other finding lists. In this manner, the arrangement by form would be understood from perusal of the schedules.

In the classed catalog of the Library of Congress, references from appropriate locations in subject classes led directly to the collection of bibliographies in class Z, which is intended not as an aid to browsing but simply as a location for a particular type of work. Such references were to be scattered about the schedules, for example, in Class P:

P  Philology. Linguistic.
  29  Encyclopedias. Dictionaries.
   (30) Bibliography. Bio-bibliography, see Z7001-7005.
     Make reference here.
501-769 Indo-European (Indo-Germanic) Philology.
  518  Encyclopedias. Dictionaries.
   (519) Bibliography. Bio-bibliography, see Z7001-7005.
     Make reference here.
PA  Classical Philology.
  27  Collected works, papers, etc., by individual authors.
     Make reference here.

But an example of recent LC cataloging of a bibliography of classical philology (M. Pinnoy’s Didactische bibliografie oude talen en antieke cultuur, published 1975, LC card 75-546730) shows that the alternative subject class number provided is not the original number, with its reference to Z (PA29), but, rather, the general works number for classical philology (PA91).

In introducing bibliographies into subject classes, LC will employ the general works number or “the number which corresponds most closely to the topic of the bibliography,”7 evidently making no effort to utilize older provisions scattered throughout the schedules nor, in effect, attempting to interweave the Z arrangement it retains with the subject class numbers it provides.

It is interesting to note that in the latest schedule—Class K, Law, still being developed—bibliographies are classified within the subject class and not in Z. Again, there are theoretical and practical reasons for this fact. On the theoretical side must be considered the longstanding debate (in library circles, anyway) about whether Law represents a distinct body of knowledge or rather an aspect of every other compartment of knowledge. Melvil Dewey was the first major classificationist to advocate dispersal, and Charles Martel concurred,
though both accepted the necessity of developing detailed schedules, presumably including shelflist references similar to those of a classed catalog. As LaMontagne shows, postponement of K was due in great part to these theoretical reservations. On the other hand, legal bibliographies would not readily fit the fully developed Z schedule without considerable disruption. In the end, LC chose to consider legal bibliographies a particular form of literature on a subject, creating a section for general bibliographies and including subject bibliographies in a set of tables along with the plethora of other “forms” of legal literature.

LAW (GENERAL) K

Bibliography

For bibliography of special topics, see the topic . . .
37 Bibliography of bibliography.
38 General bibliography.
40 Library catalogs. Union lists.
42 Sales catalogs.
44 Indexes to society publications and collections.

LAW OF THE UNITED STATES (KF)

[Same bibliography categories for Law of Canada, KE]

Bibliography.
1 General.
2 Checklists of statutes.
3 Checklists of law reports.
4 Library catalogs. Union lists.
8 Indexes to periodical literature, society publications, collections.

In the tables of K, KD, KE and KF, the first position is allocated to bibliography.

Can it not be said, therefore, that the Library of Congress itself has introduced a model for subject classification of bibliographies? If Law is excepted because of its many unique forms or its recent formulation as a schedule, the theoretical considerations remain, as well as the question of retrieval and use. The argument shifts from the justification of Z to a rationale for subject classification.

Why subject classification at all? Ernest Richardson provided the basic reason in his Classification: Theoretical and Practical:

If we come down to the real fact why we put books or cards [entries] together according to subjects in a library, we find that it is to get together those books or cards which will be most used together . . . . The books are collected for use; they are administered for use; they are arranged for use; and it is use which is the motive for classification.9

If use is the most persuasive argument for classification today, we do not have much research on the use of bibliographies in libraries. But surely the alphabetical-classed arrangement of Z, “unbrowsable” in comparison to the other classes and based on a now outdated
organization of the subject disciplines, suggests irretreivability of some bibliographies. Retrieval of bibliographies through the subject catalog is often complicated by the ambiguous definition and assignment of the form subdivisions Bibliography, Index, and Catalog. These tools, as well as abstracts, have been customarily classified by LC in Z without distinction of form in the schedule.

A theoretical argument against dispersal of bibliographies, the relationship between Bibliography and bibliographies, was apparently not the sole rationale for Z at the Library of Congress, as seen above. To a large degree it is no longer true that the motive for compiling bibliographies stems from the studied application of principles of bibliography or involves the descriptive detail characterizing bibliography. Though a scholarly view does not countenance a theoretical divorce and the historical relationship is undeniable, it is nevertheless true that most bibliographies published in the recent past are intended to be practical tools based on principles of subject retrieval, not bibliography.

Thus, contemporary bibliographies are more akin to abstracts, indexes, and other finding tools than to the great works of classification of knowledge of past centuries or of modern bibliography. Periodicals, bibliographies, abstracts, indexes, encyclopedias, dictionaries, etc., are complementary tools, distinct from general monographs but less distinct from one another as to form, content, and use. Their classification should reflect these similarities. Their location in most libraries, in a reference or other collection separate from general monographs, already reflects a working distinction.

In using the general works number provided by LC for national (with topical focus), subject, and personal bibliographies, libraries have three basic options:

1. Assign the general works number with a conventional author cutter.
2. Assign the general works number with a conventional author cutter but house in a separate section of the library, e.g., with prefix Z before the call number.
3. Assign the general works number with an "official" cutter.

Thus, for the Pinnjoy work cited earlier, the three options would be (1) PA91, (2) ZPA91 and, perhaps, (3) PA91.A1.

In exercising any of the options, a bibliography on a subject would be retained in the same class number assigned by LC as alternative, so that the mechanics of the cutter would seem to present the basic point of decision. This is misleading, however, for on further examination, the alternative number provided by LC may prove to be inadequate. This suggests another, more complex, way of treating subject classification of bibliographies, discussed below.

In the first option, bibliographies would be indistinguishable from general works. Although many bibliographies would be physically separated from general works if housed in a reference collection, not
all bibliographies would be retained separately in all libraries. This practical note indicates that the complete call number should be based on the form as well as the subject of the work, independent of where the individual library chooses to house the work. Theoretical consistency suggests that bibliographies should have complete class numbers.

In the second option, the Z prefixed to the general works number would separate the bibliography through an improvised classification rather than simply a designated collection. The chief advantage of this provision is the retention of the mnemonic Z and the utilization of the subject classes, resulting in a “readable” and “browsable” Z. Use of a special cutter is thereby avoided, conserving (for practical purposes especially) the continuity of a separate bibliography section. This option is a significant improvement and the most economic use of the LC-provided number, though still theoretically weak.

The option of formulating an official Cutter for a bibliography is an acceptable alternative and an important precedent for any library. It should follow the examples already provided in Class K, because LC has satisfactorily reconciled theoretical and practical demands in its tables of cutters for this class. The decision to place legal bibliographies at the head of their subject classes before all (or most) other types of legal literature recognizes the comprehensive ends of bibliography, regardless of whether a particular bibliography is or intends to be exhaustive.

However, without a system of tables in all the other subject classes of the LC Classification system, bibliographies will not automatically be entered at the head of a subject class or even be integrated into a collection of other special forms already at the head: periodicals, dictionaries, congresses, etc. Except in Class K, the general works number always follows rather than precedes these particular forms in the schedules. This is the basic weakness of the three options for treating bibliographies outlined above. There is no theoretical advantage to uncritically consigning bibliographies to a general works number.

Examples of several types of problems will illustrate the difficulties of evaluating the general works number for subject bibliographies. In each case, the cataloger should consider the collection and shelving practices of the individual library.

Example 1. For P. M. Reilly’s bibliography Nepal (1974, LC card number 75-328899) the general works number provided is DS493.4, which follows the several general form subdivisions:

Nepal.

493 Periodicals. Societies.
.2 Sources and documents. Collections.
.3 Gazetteers. Dictionaries, etc. Guidebooks.
.4 General works.

It may be deemed acceptable to place such bibliographies in general works with a bibliography cutter: DS493.4.A1. On the other hand,
numbers such as DS493.A1 (with periodicals at DS493.A2) and DS493.1 would place bibliographies at the head of periodicals and the entire class or immediately following, while sufficiently distinguishing the work as a bibliography.

Example 2. For Marilyn Jacobs' *An Annotated Bibliography with Index for Technology Policy Studies* (1975, LC card number 76-355801), the general works number provided by LC (T49.5) is in fact "specific." In the schedule, General Works is a heading for the subject (Technology) treated as a whole, where T49.5 is General Special. In this case, bibliographies so assigned can be retained in the number provided and further cuttered, e.g., T49.5.A1.

Technology—General

<table>
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<th>General works</th>
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<td>44</td>
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<td>47</td>
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<td>48</td>
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<td>49</td>
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<td>.5</td>
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</tbody>
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More complex are cases where the general works number to which the LC would assign a bibliography is separated from the beginning of the subject class by several detailed categories other than the usually designated forms. For example:

Folklore (GR)

| 1            | Periodicals. Societies. Serials |
| 10           | Congresses |
| 15           | Collected works (nonserial) |
| 20           | Several authors |
| 35           | Individual authors |
| 37           | Dictionaries. Encyclopedias |
| 40           | Philosophy. Relation to other topics. Methodology |
| 42           | Relation to psychology |
| 43           | Relation to special classes of persons, A-Z |
| .C4          | Children |
| 44           | Special methods, A-Z |
| .C3          | Cartography |
| .S7          | Structural analysis |
| Study and teaching, Research |
| 45           | General works |
| .5           | Fieldwork |
| By region or country |
| 46           | United States |
| 47           | Other regions or countries, A-Z |
| Museums. Exhibitions, see GN35+ |

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In such cases, bibliographies absorbed into the general works category (here called General works, treatises, and textbooks) would stand far removed from related works, so as to greatly diminish practical retrievability, even in a separate collection. The theoretical incongruity is obvious. As in the case of Example 1, it seems advisable to introduce a new position for bibliographies.

Example 3. To Jan Brunvand’s *Folklore, a Study and Research Guide* (1976, LC card number 75-38016) LC assigns a General works number according to the date of publication as provided for in the schedule (GR66). In this case, it is desirable to retain the period distinctions. Rather than attempt to apply the Class K tables at GR1, a better alternative is use of an entirely new position for bibliography at GR5. The Class K tables may now be applied to the new number. For example:

```
GR5.A1 Early through 1800
  .A2 1800–1974
  .A3 1975–
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or

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GR5.A1 Early through 1800
  .A12 1800–1974
  .A13 1975–
```

The inability of the General works number to resolve the problem of integrating bibliographies with similar forms is radically exemplified in the recent Class BQ, Buddhism. The outline for BQ (not reproduced here) shows the General works number placed at BQ 4000, four thousand digits from the beginning of the class. A note between BQ99 and 100, like the older references provided in Class P above, shows where Bibliography would have been placed—still quite distant from BQ1. Is this practical or useful? Is it theoretically sound?

It may be argued, not unwisely, that each class and schedule in the Library of Congress Classification system is different, with particular provisions having been made according to the type of literature represented. But this argument is not so much a reply to unnecessary change as it is an argument for careful revision based on the particulars of each subject and discipline. Like subject headings, the schedules are not static because research and knowledge do not re-
main fixed. The need to revise should always be distinguished from
the size or complexity of the task.

Indeed, the decision to shift subject bibliographies from a General
works category and/or to utilize a number of cuttering options—let
alone to renounce Z class for bibliographies—is a weighty step for any
library to make, involving much imagination and original work. But
we do need to rethink our treatment of bibliographies and to explore
some possibilities for their enhanced use. If alternative class numbers
for bibliographies can be made to function practically and consistent
with the theoretical standards applied in justifying all the LC
schedules, then we will “more adequately reflect today’s thinking [and
research needs] and the experience gained in a half century of
classifying and classification making.”

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1. Cataloging Service 113:5-6 (Spring 1975).
2. U.S. Library of Congress. Subject Cataloging Division, Classification, Class Z: Bibli-
3. LaMontagne, Leo E., American Library Classification, with Special Reference to the Li-
4. Thus, a bibliography of bibliographies, e.g., Besterman’s A World Bibliography of Bib-
liographies, is rightly classed as “General Bibliography,” as well as a purely theoretical
work such as his The Beginnings of Systematic Bibliography.
5. LaMontagne, American Library Classification, p.225-26.
6. LaMontagne, American Library Classification, p.315–16. Cf. Shera’s and Egan’s state-
ment: “The classed catalog may form a bridge between bibliothecal arrangement
and the classification of knowledge itself.” Jesse H. Shera and Margaret E. Egan,
The Classified Catalog, Basic Principles and Practices (Chicago, American Library Assn.,
8. Ernest C. Richardson, Classification: Theoretical and Practical (3d ed.; New York,
10. In his Classification and Indexing Practice (London, Clive Bingley; Hamden, Conn.,
Shoe String Pr., 1978), p.72. K. G. B. Bakewell reports that the Library of the Uni-
versity of Lagos, Nigeria, classifies bibliographies in subject classes using the
mnemonic 5 whenever possible (e.g., TA5 for Z5815+ and D5 for Z6201+).
11. LaMontagne, American Library Classification, p.341.
This article presents a view of the close relation between libraries and Near East area studies programs. It emphasizes the point that the development of Islamic libraries is an intellectual task that requires both technical skill in librarianship and an authentic understanding of the Islamic world. Current national bibliographies from the Near East are examined as tools for building an adequate collection to serve Islamic studies, which, like other area programs, is in the process of growth. Certain improvements are suggested in order to make current bibliographies from the Near East more efficient collection development tools. For the purpose of this article the term "Near East" is limited only to the Islamic Near East.

The last three decades have witnessed the beginning of Near East area studies programs in a number of American institutions of higher learning. Up to World War II the field was practically barren: "The Near East," Robert Hall wrote in 1947, "is completely neglected and there are few scholars in the country who know anything about the area."1

Today there are more than ninety active Near East programs in the country.2 This change can be attributed largely to the National Defense Education Act (NDEA), enacted in 1958, which has been especially important in expanding and improving the language instruction component of area programs, and also to America's increasing interest in the Near East. In addition to economic, scientific, and technical interaction, there are also important educational and cultural exchanges between the United States and the Near East. These exchanges are providing mutual opportunities for exposure to new concepts and
ideas. Different peoples are beginning to encounter each other's unique cultural values, and this interaction promotes the belief that: "The serious study of each other's cultures is no longer an ivory tower luxury. It is a practical necessity in order to coexist."3

Because of this growing relationship between the two cultures, it is important to focus on the library's function as the center of information vis-à-vis the new academic interest in the Near East. The stronger the program becomes in an educational institution, the more prominent the role of the library becomes. The librarians have to fulfill the task of building an efficient, well-organized, well-balanced, up-to-date special collection to meet the needs of the students and scholars in the area. In the words of Charles Harvey Brown, "A special collection must aim at reasonable completeness. Otherwise, scholars must journey from one library to another, even from one country to another, to obtain necessary materials."4

Accordingly, the development of a special collection adequate to support an area studies program imposes certain difficulties on acquisitions because it requires diverse and specialized current materials. Fortunately, for areas such as the Near East, national bibliographies have been established. The importance of these bibliographies has been evaluated in terms of their contribution to better bibliographical services, but little attention has been given to their value as a tool for selection and acquisition.

Almost every country in the Near East possesses some form of current national bibliography, based upon a system of legal deposit. Though the national bibliographies are developing along comparable lines, each country adopts its own principles for frequency, arrangement, entry style, degree of comprehensiveness, and the publishing body. In some countries there is an agreement between publishers and the agent publishing the national bibliography. The former are responsible for depositing publications voluntarily. The number of copies and the types of materials to be included differ from one country to another. In spite of the considerable variation in the structure of each national bibliography, and in the requirements of the legal deposit legislation, certain common features are apparent. All the Near Eastern countries are displaying a greater willingness to participate in the programs drawn up and proposed by Unesco and to contribute to international bibliographical services.5

No attempt has been made here to study all the current bibliographies from the Near East. Only the Turkish national bibliography, Türkiye Bibliyografyası, will be examined in order to provide a specific and practical example as a basis for this discussion. In addition to an exploration of the bibliography's origin, development, and content, it will be evaluated in terms of its usefulness as a collection development tool with particular reference to its use in the Research Library at the University of California, Los Angeles (UCLA).6

In order to see the modern development of the national bibliogra-
phy in Turkey in perspective, it is helpful to consider Turkey’s historical background. In the 1920s one of the significant reforms that Mustafa Kemal, the first president of the Turkish Republic, introduced was the adoption of the Latin alphabet to replace the Arabic. The consequent reform of the Turkish language, the adoption of the Gregorian calendar, and the introduction of the surname enabled the Turkish scholars to compile bibliographies compatible with Western bibliographical standards. Since 1928 the Turkish national bibliography has attempted to list all materials published in Turkey.

Although it is hard to assess Unesco’s impact on the development of the Turkish bibliography, there is an observable connection between Turkey’s and Unesco’s bibliographical activities. After the 1950 Unesco conference in Paris on the improvement of bibliographical services, Henry F. Raux, then librarian at the National Library in Paris, went to Ankara at the request of the Turkish government to advise on the creation of a Turkish Institute of Bibliography, which would be attached to the national library. This institution, officially founded in 1955, took over the preparation of the current national bibliography, created a new bibliography of articles appearing in Turkish periodicals, and began the compilation of a series of union catalogs.

Within the framework of these considerations, the Turkish national bibliography has been part of the effort to compile and reorganize a bibliographical tool that conforms to Western standards. Today’s Türkiye Bibliyografyası, edited by the National Library at Ankara, is a quarterly, designed to present a “comprehensive record of all books, pamphlets, documents, and other materials published in Turkey.” The improvement since 1955 is remarkable. Major changes have been made in the frequency, arrangement, format, scope, and content. Since 1955 a cumulative annual index has been included. The introduction is informative and greatly facilitates use of the work.

In attempting to evaluate the bibliography, the crucial question involved is: How current, accurate, and complete is it? Like most national bibliographies, it is based on the practice of legal depository. Therefore, it is vital that the books be received immediately after publication or, if possible, before the publication date, so that the national bibliography may be compiled and issued with no delay. Unfortunately, in Turkey, as in many developing countries, the general absence of efficient book trade organizations results in late receipt of books, causing a delayed listing, of up to several years in some cases. The latest issue received by the UCLA Research Library, in June 1978, is that for the works of 1975–76, issued as the July–Sept. issue of 1976. By examination of the work, it is safe to conclude that the bibliography appears some time after the publication date of the books it records.

The important question of the comprehensiveness of Türkiye Bibliyografyası is answered by a comparison with Yeni Yayınlar (New Publications), the Turkish trade list published as a monthly in Ankara since
1956. It includes a selective list of recent publications; the entries are classified in more than thirty subject fields, with full data of imprint, collation, and price. Its scope is narrower than that of the national bibliography in that the official publications are omitted. Each issue, in addition to the book list, carries news and literary notes, and advertisements of booksellers and publishers. The works listed are not limited by the monthly format; the frequency makes it useful for current information on publications in Turkey and provides a valuable reference guide for book purchasers. At the present time, Yeni Yayınlar is the only blanket order selection tool used at UCLA for current Turkish publications and, in the absence of a readily accessible, comprehensive, and current bibliography, it takes on an importance as an acquisitions aid beyond its limited scope.

In order to gather some data on the coverage of current Turkish book production by the Türkiye Bibliyografyası, one hundred titles, selected at random from the 2,840 entries in Yeni Yayınlar of 1975, were checked against the 6,290 entries of the Türkiye Bibliyografyası for the same year. Of the one hundred titles, seventy-five were listed in the Türkiye Bibliyografyası. The twenty-five titles that were not listed came from a variety of subject fields; all of them were substantial monographic items of more than one hundred pages. These were searched in UCLA’s card catalog and in its processing file, to determine if at least one important research library had considered them of sufficient value to acquire. Only four of the titles had been purchased by the UCLA Library.

Although items missing in 1975 issues of the Türkiye Bibliyografyası could appear in the following year, delayed information presents special problems for libraries. One must bear in mind that in Turkey, as in many developing countries, most titles go out of print very soon. After a year, libraries may find that some items have become excessively costly if not completely unobtainable. Another problem is that a patron seeking a recently released volume would be unable to find it at a research library that relied solely on the Türkiye Bibliyografyası. For example, a reviewer of A Bibliography of the Foreign Relations of the Republic of Turkey 1919–1967 . . . by Metin Tamkoc (Ankara, 1968) in the 1968 autumn issue of the Middle East Journal commented, “This important bibliographic item should be welcomed by all engaged in Middle Eastern scholarship.” Had UCLA relied on the Türkiye Bibliyografyası, this book would have been overlooked, since the last issue of the Türkiye Bibliyografyası then available at UCLA (first quarter 1968) did not list it.

The picture that emerges from the data presented above reveals that the Türkiye Bibliyografyası is incomplete as a source of information about new publications in the given year. The key question is: How well does it achieve the objectives of a national bibliography? The editor does not set any definite objective in its preface. However, the objectives given by Larsen in his manual for the national bibliography...
are to meet the needs of librarians, scholars, booksellers, and publishers. "The current bibliography," Larsen wrote, "is their [librarians'] principal means of ensuring that no book escapes their attention . . . the national bibliography, if not the only, is certainly the first source to which the scholar will turn for information on foreign literature."

To determine the usefulness of the Türkiye Bibliyografyası and other national bibliographies from the Near East both as collection development tools and also as scholarly aids, a series of interviews were conducted at UCLA with the Near East bibliographers and professors and graduate students in Islamic studies.

The Near East bibliographers believe that a national bibliography can be useful as an aid in book selection and to verify bibliographical data. At the UCLA Library, national bibliographies from the Near East have not been used for the former purpose. For current materials the library uses a blanket order, depending on one dealer in Turkey. That dealer uses the Turkish trade list, Yeni Yayina, which he forwards to UCLA after marking the titles he has selected. At UCLA the titles are reviewed and additional selections are made by the Near East bibliographer and faculty members. For countries in which a Library of Congress Book Procurement Office is located, the accessions list provided by that office can serve for selection purposes.

UCLA receives one copy of each item listed in the Accessions List for the Middle East, the bimonthly record of publications acquired by the U.S. Library of Congress Office in Cairo. Since 1975, the Cairo office has made increasing efforts to acquire current publications from throughout the Arab world. One of the reference tools consulted at UCLA is Dalil al-Kitat al-Misri (English section: Egyptian Books in Print) published by the General Egyptian Book Organization. It is an annual listing of Egyptian publications. The Bulletin of Arab Publications, an annual issued by the Arab League, is also in use. For Iranian publications there is no regular trade list. According to Dunning Wilson, Near East bibliographer at UCLA, the Iranian national bibliography, Kitabshinasi-i Milli-i Iran, is well organized but is incomplete and late in its publishing pattern. In addition to selection tools, UCLA relies on Near Eastern dealers, most of whom are very experienced, competent, and helpful. UCLA also maintains direct subscriptions to serial publications and has gift and exchange programs with national libraries, research institutes, and universities in Egypt, Iran, Iraq, Turkey, etc.

One of the professors interviewed feels that the Türkiye Bibliyografyası is not as useful a bibliographical tool as it should be. From his point of view it is neither prompt nor comprehensive. He believes problems such as the absence of an efficient book trade organization, negligence of the publishers in sending their publications to the legal depository, and reluctance of the government agencies to supply their material for inclusion contribute to the weakness of the bibliography. In his opinion, there is no adequate bibliography in Turkish. For scholars, the only possibility of keeping up to date is to follow the cur-
rent bibliographies of the journals that are concerned with Near East studies. This criticism of the *Türkiye Bibliyografyasi* is applicable to all bibliographies from the Near East.\(^{11}\)

In conclusion it may be said that, though current national bibliographies from the Near East are not used as selection tools at UCLA, they constitute important reference tools and with further improvement could better serve the needs of users.

In the Near East, as in many areas, a well-planned and useful national bibliography can be prepared, provided there is a willingness among libraries, publishers, and government agencies to cooperate. The task presents a number of obvious problems in those countries where the book trade is unorganized, financial support is inadequate, and competent librarians are lacking. However, it is encouraging to know that these countries have moved beyond the stage of drawing up objectives and are on the way to achieving them. It is to be hoped that the Near Eastern countries will soon adopt the recommendations of the International Congress on National Bibliographies, organized by Unesco in collaboration with IFLA, held at Paris, 12–15 September, 1977.\(^{12}\)

Certain steps can be taken to resolve the problems raised in the preceding pages. Countries that have deposit legislation should examine and revise their laws. Countries that have none should investigate the possibilities of introducing deposit law as a means of strengthening and improving their national bibliographic control. All Near Eastern countries should undertake further studies to define the categories of materials and set priorities for their inclusion. Above all, more countries should participate in the Unesco/IFLA-sponsored seminars and training workshops in order to develop adequate and prompt current national bibliographies. By implementing these measures current national bibliographies from the Near East could become comprehensive bibliographic records as well as collection development tools of genuine usefulness. American research libraries, because of increasing interest in Near East area studies programs, are actively seeking such tools to meet the scholarly demands for research materials in the vernacular language.

References


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6. UCLA has both a Middle East Program and one of the NDEA language and area centers. It offers a B.A. in Near Eastern studies and an M.A. and Ph.D. in Islamic studies. The Near Eastern publications, a significant part of the University Research Library, have been systematically acquired, and holdings are now quite substantial. The collection is comprehensive and well organized and adequately meets the needs of interdisciplinary programs of teaching and research.


8. Among Unesco’s recommendations was the proposal that every country should establish a national planning body to promote the development of bibliographical and information services. K. W. Humphreys, “National Library Functions,” Unesco Bulletin for Libraries 20:158–169 (July 1966).


11. It is interesting to note the disparity between two interviews conducted in 1969 and 1978 concerning student opinion and use of the bibliography. In 1969, only two out of six graduate students working in the Ph.D. program in Islamic studies were aware of its existence. In 1978 all six students interviewed were familiar with it, having been referred to it by their professors.

A System for Processing and Shelving Works of Mixed Media Format

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In the processing of works of mixed media format, a system based on physical aspects of the material will enable librarians to determine efficiently whether the various formats should stay together or not, and where they should be shelved. The advantage of the system lies in its ability to make value judgments reflecting the author's intention of which format is primary, and at the same time to eliminate subjective interpretations of this criterion. Factors reflecting an awareness of security needs for some materials, of storage space problems, and of the desirability of maintaining browsing capabilities are also incorporated into the system.

The proliferation of works in mixed media format, such as books with illustrations on separate microfiche, or cassette tapes accompanied by explanatory booklets, is a growing problem for catalogers. At the heart of the problem is a lack of objective criteria that would enable such works to be treated systematically.

The question of where to store these materials is a problem because of the widespread tendency of libraries to segregate materials by form, in Listening or Audio rooms, Microform rooms, or combination Audio-Visual areas. The expense and security needs of the hardware involved argue for centralization of equipment in supervised areas; easily damaged forms such as phonorecords also require segregation.

Microforms present somewhat different problems. It is sometimes argued that separation of these materials unjustifiably violates the principle of classified arrangement, which calls for works on similar subjects to be shelved together. An argument in favor of distributing microforms throughout the regular collection would assert, for example, that it is logical for reproductions of works by and about Yeats, Pound, and Eliot to be found right in with all of the library's other works by and about these authors.
There are several opposing considerations, however:

1. The purpose of a classified arrangement is to facilitate browsing, i.e., to enable patrons to find relevant works when they have only a general idea in mind, or to enable them to scan a variety of related works possibly relevant to a specific purpose. But microforms do not serve this purpose well—they can be readily scanned only for author and title information, and not for their contents.

2. If each microform were to be placed in its logical position in the classified arrangement, then a separate folder would have to be prepared for each work on fiche or micro-opaque in order that it not be lost on the shelves. The cost of preparing thousands of such binders would, in the total library system, undercut the cost advantage of having microforms in the first place.

3. The need to prepare such folders would also negate microforms' space-saving advantages—another prime consideration in their initial purchase.

4. Breakup of collections purchased as units would negate the easy entry into grouped material provided by accompanying hard-copy indexes.

5. Microforms are much more easily misplaced than print format items, and a closed cabinet area serviced by a library attendant provides the greater security they need.

6. Microforms attain their greatest user acceptance only when hard-copy reproduction is easily available. They should therefore be within close distance of printers.

The combination of these reasons must impel large libraries to keep such forms separated from the classified arrangement of the rest of their collections.

Given the need to segregate materials by form, then, inevitable problems arise with mixed format works. Should the micro material be separated from the print? Or if the two forms are to stay together as a unit, should they be stored on the open shelves or in the microforms area? Similar problems arise with works mixing print and audio format.

The following scheme for processing and shelving such material is the one in use at the Louisiana State University Library. In general it strives to minimize the need for abstract, subjective, and disputable judgments of an author's intention in such matters as whether the audio/visual or the printed text part of a combined format is primary or supplemental to the other part. There will always be works that are not easily classified by such a nebulous criterion as "intention," and a processing system will not be workable if it involves endless subjective debates on the relative importance of different format-sections within individual titles. The scheme outlined below is an attempt to present clean-cut, objective criteria for processing these titles, and to eliminate the need for nonsystematic value judgments of individual works.
The system is based on physical features of the audio/visual and printed text items. These features are specified in such a way that, in effect, they still reflect value judgments about whether the A/V or text section of a title is primary or supplemental; the use of concrete rather than “intent” criteria, however, eliminates the subjective or disputable elements in such judgments. The rules as specified below may therefore be automatically applied to deal systematically with new materials. The virtue of the system is that it solves a problem created by physical form precisely by appealing to physical form as a solution—no other approach will so exactly or neatly match the parameters of the original problem itself.

A major guiding principle in these rules is that, whenever anticipated storage-space problems are not controlling, complementary A/V materials and printed texts should be stored together. (For reasons of space, it is not deemed desirable to store in the A/V rooms bulky hard-copy materials that are not essential to the use of the A/V forms.) A further principle is that, whenever security is not deemed paramount, A/V materials accompanying printed texts should be made available to patrons in appropriate classification areas of the open stacks. Printed texts or guides do allow for browsing, and it is desirable to retain this capability where feasible. A possibly overriding consideration, however, is that printed indexes should be stored with the A/V works they accompany, and in many cases these A/V works should not be on the open shelves. For reasons of security, formats that are easily damaged (e.g., reel tapes and nonflexible phonorecords, as opposed to cassette tapes) should be shelved in the appropriate A/V room.

The rules for processing A/V and mixed format works, then, are as follows:*

I. Nonserial items or collections with A/V materials:
A. Involving visual format (microform, slides, videotapes, films, etc.):
   1. Visual formats alone, with no accompanying printed text, shall be cataloged and sent to the Microforms room.
   2. Mixed format works:
      a) Printed texts with nonprint visual/micro format complements, or visual/micro material with printed complement: if storable as self-contained units (i.e., in the same box, folder, binder, or slipcase), shall be cataloged and sent as a unit to the open stacks.
      b) Visual formats with separate complementary printed material, or printed material with separate complementary visual material (i.e., printed material and visual

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*I wish to thank members of the L.S.U. Library's Audio-Visual Committee, particularly Barbara Meades, Anna Perrault, and Sandra Mooney, for suggested modifications to my original scheme.
format material not storable in the same slipcase, box, or binder):
(1) Visual format section: shall be cataloged and sent to the Microforms room.
(2) Printed material:
   (a) if issued simultaneously with visual/micro format material, shall be cataloged and sent to the Microforms room.
   (b) if not issued simultaneously with the visual/micro format material, shall be cataloged and sent to the stacks.†

B. Involving audio format (reel-to-reel tapes, phonodiscs, cassette tapes):
1. Audio formats alone (reel-to-reel tapes, phonodiscs, and cassette tapes) unaccompanied by printed material shall be cataloged and sent to the Audio room.

2. Mixed format works:
   a) Audio format material joined to complementary printed material, or printed material joined to complementary audio material, and storable in the same container, box, slipcase, or binder:
      (1) Having reel-to-reel tape(s): shall be cataloged and sent as a unit to the Audio room. (For security reasons, works of this format should not be on the open shelves.)
      (2) Having phonodisc(s): shall be cataloged and sent as a unit to the stacks—except for units containing nonflexible, 12-inch, 33-1/3 rpm disc(s), which units shall be cataloged and sent to the Audio room. (The latter are easily damaged and should be segregated for security reasons. Flexible plastic records can be sent to the open shelves.)
      (3) Having cassette tape(s): shall be cataloged and sent as a unit to the shelves. (Security is not deemed to be the controlling factor with this format of material; so it may be shelved on the open stacks.) Note: When cassettes and printed material are received together but are not physically in the same box, slipcase, etc., they shall be cataloged and sent as a unit to the stacks if a binder to house them together can be easily prepared. If such a binder cannot easily be prepared, then the rules under b), immediately following, shall obtain.

   b) Audio format material with separate complementary printed material, or printed material with separate com-

†Examples: Evans' American Bibliography and the Wing and Pollard-Redgrave Short Title Catalogues, which can now serve as guides to separate microform collections.
plementary audio material (i.e., printed and audio sections not storable in the same container, binder, or slipcase):

(1) Audio format section (whether reel-to-reel, phonodisc, or cassette tape): shall be cataloged and sent to the Audio room.

(2) Printed format section:

(a) if softcover and having fewer than 100 pages, shall accompany the audio material uncataloged to the Audio room.

(b) if softcover and having 100 or more pages, shall be bound, cataloged, and sent to the stacks. (Anticipated storage space problems in the Audio room are the controlling factors here.)

(c) if hardcover, shall be cataloged and sent to the stacks (again, for reasons of storage space in the Audio room).

C. Multimedia works (combining audio, visual, and print formats): shall be cataloged and sent as a unit to the Microforms room.

II. Printed periodicals or serials with A/V supplements: A/V material shall be housed in a pocket or envelope attached to the inside rear cover of the bound volume in which the particular supplemented issue appears.

Notes: 1) “Tear-out” type A/V material shall be torn out and placed in the pocket or envelope before the volume is shelved.

2) A/V materials shall be stored in one envelope or pocket per bound volume; separate pockets shall not be created on the inside cover of each of several journal issues within one bound volume.

Further notes:

1) Works that do not fit any of the preceding categories, or are otherwise a problem, shall have their disposition determined by collection development personnel after consultation with Reference department, Audio room, or Microforms room personnel (whichever is concerned).

2) In those cases that call for separation of A/V and printed materials—1-A-2-b)-(2)-(b); 1-B-2-b)-(2)-(b) and (c)—the separated parts shall be marked in some way to reflect the fact that complementary material is available, and the appropriate call number(s) shall be provided. This notation may take the form of tagging (much like errata slips), or writing information on title pages of printed works, or affixing labels to drawers or individual cases containing A/V formats.

‡An example would be a recording of a play accompanied by a text in pamphlet form. Such non-bulky pamphlets could be stored in a pam box in the Audio room.
A System for Cataloging and Classifying Visual Resources

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State University of New York at Stony Brook
(formerly Assistant Archivist, State University of New York at Buffalo)

The system for cataloging and classifying photographs and other visual materials developed for the University Archives of the State University of New York at Buffalo incorporates the principles and guidelines of the Anglo-American Cataloging Rules, offers degrees of access depending on the size and complexity of the collection, permits implementation by nonprofessional staff, and provides inventory control. It is readily adaptable to a variety of collections, such as photographs of local towns in public libraries, pictures of musicians and musical instruments in music libraries, and artifacts in historical societies.

In 1973 THE UNIVERSITY ARCHIVES of the State University of New York at Buffalo (SUNYAB) had a growing collection of approximately 1,000 photographs of people, places, and events depicting the history of the University. The photographs ranged in size from 2 square inches to 20 inches by 26 inches. Most were housed in a file cabinet drawer, in file folders labeled with the names of buildings, people, etc. Larger photographs were stored in a cardboard box labeled “oversize photographs” and still larger framed photographs were stored in a closet. It was a photograph collection typical of many found in libraries that collect primarily printed materials but nevertheless acquire, often accidentally, photographs, paintings, and other visual materials related to their subject area or to their local or institutional history.

Organizing the photographs to make them easily accessible was becoming increasingly difficult. Photographs portraying more than one person or building were hard to file and even harder to retrieve. The
quantity of photographs of students was growing so large that it was taking longer and longer to satisfy a request such as “a photograph of a biology class of the 1930s.” The staff often forgot to look in the various oversize locations, thus neglecting some of the most interesting photographs. It became clear that a more sophisticated classification and cataloging scheme was needed for the growing collection of photographs.

At the same time, the University Archives had a very limited staff, none with formal training in cataloging, and it was located a mile from the main university library with its central technical processing department. Therefore, a system of access was needed that would: (1) enable any staff member to quickly identify and retrieve photographs for patron requests; (2) permit implementation by nonprofessional staff; (3) facilitate refiling; (4) provide inventory control; (5) indicate various size categories without identifying specific locations; (6) avoid extensive duplication of catalog cards.

In response to those needs, the following system for the cataloging and classification of photographs was developed.

**Classification System**

Each photograph is assigned a notation consisting of three parts: classification number, classification letter, and accession number, as shown in Figure 1.

**Classification Number.** The photographs are divided into fifteen broad classes, such as “Buildings,” “Faculty and staff,” “Commencements,” “Students and student activities,” etc., each of which is assigned a two-digit number. Regular-size photographs are assigned to classes 10–99. A single zero is added for oversize photographs and two zeros for double oversize, which are filed separately.

- 20 BUILDINGS, regular-size photographs
- 200 BUILDINGS, oversize photographs
- 2000 BUILDINGS, double oversize photographs

**Classification Letter.** The classification letter designates a subgroup within the classification number, such as “Capen Hall,” “Medical

\[ \text{class. letter} \]
\[ \text{class. number} \rightarrow 20A:12 \rightarrow \text{accession number} \]
\[ (2) \rightarrow \text{subaccession number} \]

Figure 1
Example of Class Number
school faculty." "Commencement 1959," "Students in military programs." A through Z is followed by AA–ZZ, AAA–ZZZ, etc.; therefore, an infinite number of subgroups can be accommodated.

Accession Number. An accession number is assigned to each photograph within a classification letter.

In addition, subaccession numbers are assigned to photographs under the following circumstances: (1) if there are multiple copies of the same photograph, the subaccession number functions as a copy number; (2) if a collection of photographs is best treated as a single unit, then the entire collection is assigned an accession number and the individual photographs are assigned subaccession numbers. This occurs when a group of photographs should not be divided because of donor stipulations, historical reasons, aesthetic considerations, etc. An example can be seen in class 90B (a sampling of the classification scheme is reproduced in the appendix).

The classification system alone would have been sufficient if the collection contained only photographs portraying singly the items described by the classification numbers. However, the classification system used alone was insufficient for access to the following: (1) pictures of more than one building, person, etc.; (2) pictures classed under an event that also portray persons, buildings, etc., that would otherwise be found in another class; (3) pictures in a collection that are classed as one unit. Moreover, as the list of buildings grew, especially as a new campus was built and names of old buildings were reassigned to new ones, the subgroups for classes 20 (Buildings) and 85 (Students in classes and laboratories) became long and complex enough to need indexing and cross-referencing. For these reasons, it was necessary to supplement the classification scheme with a simple card catalog.

Cataloging System

A cataloging system was designed to meet the needs of the University Archives as simply as possible and also to incorporate the principles and guidelines of the Anglo-American Cataloging Rules (AARC).

Main Entry. Each photograph, or collection of photographs, is entered under a title supplied by the cataloger, "describing as briefly as possible the nature, scope or theme of the picture" (AARC, Rule 265C). (AARC instructs that supplied titles be put in brackets. Since all our titles are supplied, however, no brackets are used.) The card catalog is searched first for titles of photographs of the same subject in order that the supplied title be consistent with one already used. Because of this consistency, it helps to think of the supplied title as a "uniform title."

Photographs of buildings are entered under the name of the building, with interiors and annexes treated as subdivisions following a period. Ceremonies for buildings are treated as extensions of the building name, with no intervening punctuation.
Hayes Hall.
Hayes Hall. Annex B.
Hayes Hall. Library.
Hayes Hall dedication.

A building is entered under its original name. If the name has been changed, "(Old)/[new name]" is added to the original name and a "see" reference is provided from the new name to the old.

Harriman Library
see Norton Hall (Old)

Norton Hall.
Norton Hall (Old)/Harriman Library.

A photograph of a person is entered under his or her name with the last name first. Birthdates and death dates are added when known.

Added Entries. Added entries are made for:
1. Persons, buildings, etc., portrayed in the photograph that are not in the supplied title;
2. An important photographer, especially for a collection;
3. Any other person or corporate body, such as donor, collector, etc., by which the photograph might need to be accessed.

(Most of the photographs have not required any added entries. The few that have usually require only one or two; so very little card duplication has been necessary.)

Date. The year in which the original photograph was taken follows immediately after the supplied title. If the photograph in hand is not the original, this is stated in a note (see Supplementary Notes, below).

Hayes Hall. n.d.
Hayes Hall. ca. 1900.

Physical Description. The number of photographs (within the accession number) is noted, followed by the height and width in inches. The size is not given if there is more than one photograph.

photo. 11" x 14"
3 photos.

Supplementary Notes. “Further information about the picture not normally or readily recorded in the heading [title] or description may be added in notes, as briefly as clarity and grammatical usage permit. Notes should be factual and unbiased, not stating critical judgments” (AACR, Rule 272A).

The most commonly used notes are (and should be listed in this order):
1. Further description of the contents of the photograph;
2. Further description of the physical item. Rule 269Alc of AACR
provides a list of terms describing the medium of production of a photograph.

Sample catalog cards are shown in figures 2 and 3. Figure 3 presents a catalog card for a 1973 print made from a copy negative of a 1923 photograph.

The cataloging system as described above need not be applied in full to each and every photograph. Indeed, the entire classification and cataloging system can be applied to whatever extent the collection requires. This flexibility allows for the following range of possibilities:

50D:1 Chancellor’s medal. 1942.

3 photos.

Medal given to Thomas Lockwood by Samuel P. Capen.

II. Capen, Samuel Paul, 1878-1956.

Figure 2
Sample Catalog Card

20F:3 Foster Hall. Classroom. 1923.

photo. 8” x 11”.

With a biology class in progress.

Figure 3
Sample Catalog Card
1. The classification scheme may be used alone. For a small collection with a very small staff, this might be sufficient.

2. All photographs may be classified, but only some cataloged. This is the policy followed by the SUNYAB University Archives. Photographs in certain classes are not cataloged at all, because it is doubtful that access beyond that provided by the classification scheme would ever be required. These classes are indicated by an asterisk in the classification scheme and there is an entry in the card catalog under the classification name only (figure 4). The photographs in these uncataloged classes are arranged alphabetically or chronologically in their appropriate folders. When known, contents and physical descriptions are written on the back of the photograph.

3. All photographs may be classified and cataloged. This might be necessary for a large collection of photographs with a heavy patron demand.

This system for the cataloging and classification of photographs has been used successfully by the University Archives since 1973. The staff finds it easy to apply and to use. Moreover, the system is now used to catalog and to classify visual materials other than photographs. Negatives are given the same call numbers as their matching photographs, although stored in a separate location. Architectural plans and paintings are cataloged and classified just like the photographs, with the physical description statement indicating the medium and the classification number indicating the location.

It is clear that this system could be easily adapted to a variety of collections, including public libraries' photographs of local towns and villages, music libraries' pictures of musicians and musical instruments, and historical societies' artifacts.
### APPENDIX

**THE CLASSIFICATION SCHEME**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Classification Number</th>
<th>Classification Letter</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>AERIAL VIEWS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
<td>Main Street Campus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Amherst Campus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>BUILDINGS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>K</td>
<td>Capen Hall (Old)/Farber Hall</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>AA</td>
<td>Hayes Hall</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>KK</td>
<td>Baird Hall</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Capen Hall</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30</td>
<td></td>
<td>CHANCELLORS AND PRESIDENTS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>FACULTY AND STAFF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
<td>Medical School</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Dental School</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40</td>
<td></td>
<td>UNIVERSITY OF BUFFALO COUNCIL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>UNIVERSITY EVENTS, GENERAL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>E</td>
<td>Endowment Fund Campaign, 1920</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Centennial Celebration, 1946</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51</td>
<td></td>
<td>UNIVERSITY EVENTS: GROUND BREAKINGS, CORNERSTONE LAYINGS, DEDICATIONS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>52</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>UNIVERSITY EVENTS: INAUGURATIONS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Capen, Samuel Paul, Oct. 28, 1922</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>53</td>
<td></td>
<td>UNIVERSITY EVENTS: COMMENCEMENTS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60</td>
<td>†C</td>
<td>ALUMNI AND ALUMNI EVENTS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>†D</td>
<td>Alumni events, 1950–1960</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Class reunions</td>
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<tr>
<td>70</td>
<td></td>
<td>VISITING SPEAKERS AND PERFORMERS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>80</td>
<td>†A</td>
<td>STUDENTS AND STUDENT ACTIVITIES</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>†B</td>
<td>Music and theater, performances and groups</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>†D</td>
<td>Students in military programs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>†E</td>
<td>Students, 1800s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>†K</td>
<td>Students in athletics and physical education programs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>85</td>
<td></td>
<td>STUDENTS IN CLASSES AND LABORATORIES</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(same categories as class 20)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>90</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>CAMPUS UNREST</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>95</td>
<td></td>
<td>NON-UNIVERSITY PLACES AND PEOPLE</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*All classification numbers are included here, but only a sampling of classification letters.

†Photographs in asterisked classes are not individually cataloged.

Library Resources & Technical Services
The Resources and Technical Services Division of the American Library Association is responsible for matters concerning the acquisition, bibliographic description, subject analysis, preservation, and reproduction of library materials and for those aspects of the selection and evaluation of the library materials relating to their acquisition and to the development of library resources. The goals of the division are:

1. To implement the goals of the American Library Association.
2. To advance the professional interests of librarians engaged in the development of library resources and technical services.
3. To promote research and publication in areas of divisional interest.
4. To provide forums for the discussion of issues in the development of library resources and in technical services.
5. To cooperate with other units of the American Library Association and with other national and international organizations in areas of mutual interest.

Areas in which the division will take action include, but are not restricted to, the following:

Cataloging: by encouraging, promoting, and supporting effective bibliographic access by means of the cataloging and classification of all types of materials in all types of institutions; and by participating actively in the development of standards in the fields of bibliographic description and subject analysis on national and international levels.

Education: by promoting library education programs in areas of resources and technical services; by supporting staff development and providing directions for in-service education programs; and by providing information and support for personnel through educational programs at divisional meetings.

Interpretation: by representing and interpreting technical services and the development of library resources to the library world and to nonlibrarians through appropriate means of communication, in order to develop adequate support for these activities and to assure the satisfaction of the library user.

Involvement of a large constituency: by directing attention to library resources and technical services in all types of libraries; by enlisting a broad membership base; by promoting divisional leadership in relevant national and international library issues and associations; and by sponsoring and promoting programs in areas of divisional interest.

Preservation of library materials: by advising and assisting librarians in solving preservation problems; by recommending and encouraging research programs; and by cooperating with other organizations in achieving solutions to preservation problems.

*Approved 11 January 1979 by RTSD Board of Directors

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Reproduction of library materials: by discussing problems in and disseminating information about the production, storage, and use of reproductions; by fostering studies and research; and by promoting uniform policies and practices.

Resources: by encouraging and promoting those activities of the division relating to collection development, including selection, acquisition, and evaluation of library materials in all types in institutions.

Standards: by providing leadership and expertise in the development of standards in areas of divisional interest.

Technological developments: by investigating applications of technological advances as they apply to areas of divisional responsibility; and by collaborating with other groups in the study of mechanization and automation and in facilitating education in these techniques.

Because these goals will not always be appropriate for the Resources and Technical Services Division, they will be reviewed and revised at least once every five years with reference to changing library and social conditions, divisional membership surveys, and the goals of the American Library Association.
Introduction

This Checklist for Commercial Processing Services, prepared by the Commercial Processing Services Committee, Resources and Technical Services Division, American Library Association, is intended to raise many of the questions that need to be answered in the dialogue between the library contracting for commercial processing services and the prospective and the finally selected commercial processor. It is best regarded as the purposeful agenda for the one-to-one encounter between prospective vendor and the buyer (library). Supplying the standards is up to the library, and the vendor should be required to meet them. We hope the checklist will help the parties involved to think systematically about all of these relationships.

In using this checklist, librarians should set their thinking on each point (item to be considered) in this way:
1. Library needs (current policy/use)

2. Processing firm will meet requirement
   a) No extra cost
   b) Extra cost

3. Library decision re requirement
   a) Unacceptable
   b) Change policy
   c) Acceptable

For invaluable help in developing the checklist and in testing its validity, the committee is especially grateful to these commercial processing firms: Baker & Taylor; Blackwell North America; Brodart, Inc.; Ember Associates; Josten’s Library Services; and Science Press. We know that no checklist can answer all questions or needs but believe that this one can assist the library and the vendor in developing a good marketing strategy for processing services.

The RTSD Commercial Processing Services Committee welcomes comments regarding this checklist. This ALA committee has become
an open forum for the commercial processors and the librarians at the Annual Conferences and the Midwinter Meetings. We welcome your attendance at these sessions and your suggestions of additional topics for study and examination by the committee.

Please address all correspondence to Dallas Shawkey, chairperson of the committee, at Brooklyn Public Library, 109 Montgomery Street, Brooklyn, NY 11225. A limited number of copies of the checklist, with space for noting response to each point, are available from the RTSD office.

**ALA CHECKLIST FOR COMMERCIAL PROCESSING SERVICES**

I. Acquisitions
   A. Scope
      1. Types of materials
         a) Current trade monographs
         b) Nontrade publications (i.e., society, institutional, & governmental)
         c) Out-of-print materials (excluding serials)
         d) Audiovisual materials
         e) Serials
            (1) current
            (2) out of print
         f) Foreign-language materials
         g) Paperback books
         h) Other
   B. Ordering
      1. Special ordering regulations
         a) Library provisions
         b) Provisions of the processor
      2. Order forms
         a) Special forms supplied by processor
         b) Special forms supplied by library
         c) Continued use of current order form
         d) Sufficient quantity of multiple copies to meet needs of the processor and internal needs of the library
      3. Order information required
         a) Minimum order information (i.e., author, title, imprint) required
         b) The minimum plus additional order information (i.e., series, ISBN, LC card number, price, address of publisher) required
         c) Action taken if required data not supplied
            (1) data supplied by processor
            (2) order held
            (3) order returned
      4. Special provisions
         a) Rush orders
         b) Emergency ordering by telephone
         c) Special routing
         d) Cancellations
         e) Size of order
         f) Other
      5. Control data requirement (i.e., account number, vendor number, authorized signature, fund accounting, etc.)
   C. Shipping
      1. Packaging arrangement
2. Method of shipment
   a) UPS
   b) U.S. Postal Service
   c) Bulk handling
   d) Cheapest way
   e) Other

D. Receiving
1. Provisions for special liaison officer or representative to handle communications, inquiries, problems, etc.
   a) Library appointee
   b) Processing firm appointee
2. Procedures for basic routines
   a) Handling delivery forms
   b) Paying invoices
   c) Filing claims for missing items
3. Provisions for handling problems (e.g., errors in materials, cards, etc.)
   a) Returning items
   b) Exchanging items
   c) Crediting accounts
   d) Other

II. Cataloging
A. Special materials
   1. Foreign-language materials
   2. AV materials
   3. Serials
   4. Other

B. Descriptive cataloging
   1. Source of cataloging copy
      a) Original when not available from usual source
      b) MARC
      c) Network cooperative copy (e.g., OCLC)
      d) Other
   2. Quality of copy
      a) Full cataloging
      b) Near copy when copy for exact edition not available
      c) Simplified cataloging
   3. Special provisions
      a) Updated form of name headings
      b) Annotations
      c) Other

C. Subject cataloging
   1. Classification system
      a) LC
      b) Unabridged Dewey
      c) Abridged Dewey
   2. Subject headings list
      a) LC
      b) Sears
   3. Call numbers
      a) Choice of alternate classification numbers when available on MARC
      b) Provision of classification numbers when not available on MARC
      c) Choice in length of classification numbers
      d) Use of alternate symbols (e.g., B, 92, F, Fic, J, E)
      e) Choice in format of call number
      f) Choice of book number
         (1) cutter number
         (2) alphabets

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(3) no book numbers
g) Printing of prefixes (e.g., “Ref”)

4. Subject headings
   a) Updated subject headings
   b) Limitation on number of subject headings assigned
   c) Format (i.e., use of capital letters, abbreviations, spacing, indentions)
   d) Uniformity in use of form subdivisions

III. Processing
   A. Materials
      1. Handling of materials not ordered through processor
      2. Plastic jackets
      3. Pockets
         a) Printed
         b) Labels
         c) Plain
         d) Location on material
      4. Circulation cards
         a) Lined
         b) Labels
         c) Keypunched
         d) Printed
      5. Date due slips
      6. Spine labels
      7. Theft detection devices
      8. Binding for paperback titles
   B. Cards
      1. Number of cards in a set
      2. Extra sets of cards for multiple copies
      3. Overtyping of added entries ready for filing
      4. Procedure for correcting errors and omissions

IV. Individualized data base management*
   A. Information gathered before approaching vendors
      1. Form of present catalog
      2. Standards of present cataloging followed: LC/AACR, simplified AACR, etc.
      3. Number of titles represented in catalog currently
      4. Number of titles added annually
   B. Conversion to machine-readable form
      1. By processor
         a) Files of cataloging available from vendor MARC, OCLC/MARC, local MARC, other machine-readable files
         b) Professional/technical consultation available from vendor regarding conversion from present to future catalog system
      2. By library
         a) Input training, manuals, and other documentation provided by vendor
         b) Approaches available from the vendor
            (1) Optical character recognition (OCR)
            (2) Paper tape
            (3) Magnetic tape
            (4) Direct input to a data base
   C. Catalog production
      1. Forms available

*Unlike other sections of the checklist, section IV deals with not only the procurement of cataloging from outside vendors but also the shifting of catalog management from the library to an outside organization. The more carefully a library determines and documents its requirements, the better it may be served by catalog management contractors.
a) Book catalog
b) Computer Output Microform (COM)
   (1) Film
   (2) Fiche
c) COM viewing equipment
   (1) Magnification
2. Type fonts available
   a) Uppercase only
   b) Uppercase and lowercase
   c) Complete ALA character set
d) Graphics: quality images, proportional spacing, etc.
3. Publication schedule
   a) Frequency of updates
   b) Patterns of cumulation
4. Other products from library’s data base and/or vendor’s data bases
   a) Selected tape records
   b) Card output for temporary or long-term (shelflist) manual files
D. Bibliographic content of catalog
1. Fullness and flexibility of bibliographic display
   a) Register/Index type (full detail in Register; brief data in indexes)
   b) Full entry under Author, Title, or Subject; brief entry under other access points
c) Full entry under all access (entry) points
d) Brief entry under all access (entry) points
2. Arrangement and format of data elements within each entry
3. Arrangement of catalog entries in each part of the catalog (author/title section, subject section, title section, etc.)
   a) Dictionary arrangement
   b) Divided catalog:
      (1) Author/Title, Subject
      (2) Author, Title, Subject
c) Shelflist catalog
4. Subcatalogs
   a) Children’s collection
   b) Serials
c) Large print
d) Audiovisual materials
e) Special collections
f) Others
5. Catalog management (subject and names)
a) Authority control
   (1) At conversion time, “see” and “see also” references automatically generated by the vendor from standard LC sources
      (a) The library supplies its own
      (b) Ways library can receive references from vendor
   (2) Vendor automatically prevents blind entries by withdrawing cross-references when all holdings for that subject or name are deleted or when the subjects for an entry are changed
   (3) Library notified of new names of subheads entered to the data base. This report also lists any closely related subheads or names. Easy way provided for library to change all variant forms to single form in one update
   (4) Provision by vendor automatically to change subject headings with each LC supplement. Vendor offers other automatic subhead changes such as the Hennepin County Cataloging Bulletin
b) Updating bibliographic records
   (1) Method vendor employs for cataloging updates
(a) Print out
(b) On-line
(2) Possibility for library to update a single field within the record, or to
generate a new record
(3) Corrections or additions to existing records issued by LC: provision
by vendor to make these changes automatically
c) Holdings records (for monographs)
   (1) Provision for holdings records to be added from standard acquisitions
      records, such as those recommended by the Book Industry Systems
      Advisory Committee (BISAC)
      (a) Individual state standard
      (b) Register of additional locations (RAL) format
   (2) Space provided in the fields for holdings to display local call numbers
d) Holdings records (serials)
   (1) Provision for holdings field to be subdivided to change a single ele-
      ment of the field (or must the whole field be re-keyed?)
   (2) Sufficient location (bindery, reserve) information space available in
      the record?
E. Ownership of data base by library
   1. Ownership of records contributed or bought from vendor
   2. Use of library data base by vendor for other libraries
   3. Royalties from use of library data base (if applicable)
   4. Charges (if applicable) for providing a machine-readable copy of data base
      to library wishing to change vendors
F. Special services from vendor
   1. Vendor capability to search library’s and other data bases
   2. Charges and forms such special services take
G. Customers currently using vendor’s services in library’s area
   1. Vendor supplies name(s) of current libraries and staff contacts who can de-
      scribe their experience with the procurement and use of vendor’s services
H. Specifications
   1. Written ones resulting from discussions with vendors, other libraries, and li-
      brary staff
   2. Those with sample entries and pages covering all library requirements en-
      sure best communication of needs to potential suppliers
REVIEWS


Dowell’s book is what it says it is, “a decision-maker’s handbook,” a tool for those who must make decisions regarding the practices, standards, and staff for cataloging with outside copy. She has given careful thought to the problems that can arise and provides a detailed and very well written discussion of the implications of various solutions for a library. The issues raised here are real, and decisions made can have a major impact on staffing, processing time, service to users, and costs. As library budgets continue to be cut, the questions addressed by this book will become increasingly significant. There will, unfortunately, be a growing need to weigh financial and practical considerations against ideals of responsiveness to local user needs and the integrity of the local catalog.

Throughout, Dowell focuses on the often conflicting demands facing all libraries: to process materials and make them available quickly and to make the catalog responsive to local needs. She stresses the necessity of keeping one’s library’s goals and philosophy of cataloging in mind. For example, is the call number to be a location device only, as in a library with closed stacks, or is it meant to bring together materials on the same subject for the browser? Does the library wish to alter subject headings for its particular users, or will it adhere to a standard such as the Library of Congress Subject Headings? Do the library’s patrons require an exact bibliographic description of the piece owned by the library, or are slight discrepancies acceptable?

The problems that arise for the cataloger because of the dynamic nature of cataloging rules, subject headings lists, Library of Congress cataloging practices, etc., can adversely affect the cost and time savings a library hopes to achieve by using outside copy. Old and new cataloging must, somehow, be integrated into one catalog. This can require complex changes or cross-references that must be made by highly trained staff.

There are sections dealing with Library of Congress practice in the assignment of LC and Dewey call numbers, the special problems in using CIP (Cataloging in Publication) cataloging (filling in missing information and careful checking of subject headings and added entries since LC’s CIP catalogers do not work with the full text in hand), and the use of “near” (copy for a different edition of the same work) and “co-op” (copy from a source other than the one usually used by the library) copy.

Although Dowell deals almost entirely with manual card catalog systems, she does touch on automated catalogs and authority files and networks. The same problems exist for catalogers working with either type of system, except that some changes, which may be impractical or impossible in a manual system, may be relatively simple in an automated one. Considerations of adherence to established standards become more important, however, when a library is a
member of a bibliographic network and has a responsibility to other members' needs. A more thorough treatment of automation and networking as they relate to copy cataloging would have improved *Cataloging with Copy*, although, on the whole, it is satisfying. Dowell properly focuses on the importance of defining the service goals of the library and on the financial and time considerations, staffing implications, and great need for catalog user studies.

*Cataloging with Copy* contains a number of very useful special features. The appendices include lists of sources of cataloging copy and materials processing, a side-by-side comparison of ISBD and pre-ISBD punctuation, and the procedures manual for copy catalogers at Iowa State University, which can be used by any library as a model for its own manual. The index is good and unique in that it provides access to many subjects under more than one index entry, rather than being a series of endless see references. For example, page references for the Abridged Dewey Decimal Classification are found under that term, under “Classification schemes, Abridged Dewey Decimal,” and under “Dewey Decimal Classification, Abridged.” There are succinct summaries at the end of each chapter containing questions to consider in order to make the best decision for one's library regarding the acceptance or rejection of supplied subject headings, added entries, classification numbers, and description. The book is liberally illustrated with sample catalog cards for each issue discussed. And there is a chart showing knowledge required of personnel performing various tasks associated with copy cataloging.

Arlene Dowell has provided a very readable guide for catalogers and administrators who face the need to compromise between the extremes of merely getting the books out and of making them accessible to patrons through any conceivable approach and to find a “middle ground” where reasonable requirements for quality, service, and practicality can all be met.—Karla D. Petersen, Head Cataloger, Center for Research Libraries, Chicago, Illinois.


The publication in mid-1977 of the first standard edition of the ISBD(S): International Standard Bibliographic Description for Serials marked an event of considerable importance for librarians, bibliographers, and serialists. The ISBD(S) will play a major role in the international effort to achieve universal bibliographic control (UBC) for print and nonprint materials.

A full historical account of the development of ISBD is available in a number of sources, but some aspects of the development of the ISBD(S) are relevant to an evaluation of the standard. From the late 1960s, meetings at various national and international levels and of several IFLA committees, now designated as IFLA sections, contributed to the first formulation of an ISBD(S). After much discussion, IFLA published a series of “recommendations” as the preliminary edition of the ISBD(S) in 1974.

IFLA's invitation for reactions to this document was coincidental with the start at several levels on the revision of the Anglo-American Cataloging
RULES. Each of the five bodies responsible for the second edition, now commonly called AACR 2, was asked to comment on the 1974 document. An idea developed that a joint position representing views from the American Library Association, the Canadians, and the Library of Congress would have more weight on the international scene than three separate and possibly differing views. As a result, an extensive North American position on the standard was developed in 1974 and 1975. It is of some significance that nearly every recommendation, and all the important ones, were accepted by IFLA and were incorporated in the newly emerging first standard edition of the ISBD(S).

One way to evaluate this standard is to compare it and the 1974 document on some major points. This comparison should demonstrate the strength and value of the ISBD(S) as an emerging international concept.

The 1974 document is divided into five broad parts: a foreword, introductory notes, the specification of elements, examples, and an index. The foreword details, in two pages, some of the historical background behind the ISBD(S). The "Introductory Notes" are subdivided into ten parts: scope and purpose, definitions, outline order of elements, punctuation, sources of information, language and script of the description, abbreviations, capitalization, a note on examples, and a note on misprints. All this is groundwork for the third and major part of the document, the elements of the description itself.

The 1974 text defines six areas for the specific description: title and statement of authorship, imprint, collation, series, notes, and ISSN and price area. The application of these areas to full descriptions is given in forty-nine French, Canadian, Swiss, British, and Dutch examples. Access to the text is provided through an index. Altogether, there are some forty-two pages of text.

The 1977 first standard edition ISBD(S) differs in a number of respects, some of considerable importance. The text covers some sixty-six pages, and that alone indicates change and greater elaboration. A line-by-line analysis isn't necessary here, but some of the major differences can be summarized.

The new edition has an "Introduction," not a foreword, and some detail has been omitted. Reprinting the older "Foreword" would have added depth to the newer text, and the historical information it contains would have added needed perspective.

The "Introductory Notes" are again divided into ten sections, but numerous changes are made. For example, "use" has been added to "scope and purpose," and the new edition includes thirty definitions whereas the 1974 text has only seventeen. Some of the older ones were dropped; new ones have been added; and several of the holdovers are modified. One significant change is that the definition of serial now begins, "A publication in print or in nonprint form . . . ." The nonprint stipulation was absent entirely from the 1974 edition, and its addition broadens the application of the ISBD(S) considerably.

An important change in the "Introductory Notes" section is that, while the 1974 edition included an "Outline Order of Elements" of the ISBD(S) in a little more than half a page, the 1977 edition includes a "Comparative outline order of areas and elements and their prescribed punctuation in the ISBD(G) and ISBD(S)," which covers nearly four pages. This treatment is not only fuller but also makes the interrelationship of the ISBD(S) with its parent ISBD(G) clear and precise. Combining the specific punctuation with the
outline of the elements will be helpful in the application of the standard.

The section covering “Specification of Elements” in the 1977 text is quite different from the 1974 text. The six areas within the earlier ISBD(S) have become nine, and terminology also differs. The first area is now “Title and statement of responsibility area,” reflecting an international change in the concept of authorship.

The 1974 areas for “Imprint” and “Collation” are now areas for “Edition,” “Numbering,” “Publication and distribution,” and “Physical description.” Each has its own importance, but special note should be made of a new area, number 3, called “Numbering area.” This is one of the more significant changes in the ISBD(S) as a whole. By following the 1974 edition’s instructions, North American practice in the description of serials would have changed dramatically to agree with the normal European practice of including numbering with the imprint and of cataloging always from the serial’s first issue. The 1977 ISBD(S) now supports the practice that American librarians, at least, prefer, namely, cataloging from any issue and, if the first, stating the numbering after the title.

The last three areas in the 1977 edition are for series, notes, and “ISSN and terms of availability” information. While the sequence and purpose of the three remain the same between the editions, the new standard is expanded and more detailed. A rather important difference in the 1977 edition is found at this point. A space is allowed for “Key Title” in this area. This provision establishes interaction with another international standard of major importance, the International Serials Data System (ISDS).

The 1977 text also includes an “area” that defines two levels of description for serials that include more than one section when these sections need differentiation.

The last section of the 1977 text includes more than eighty new examples of how the standard has been applied to publications from eight cataloging nations. British, Canadian, French, and Swiss examples are in both standards; the Dutch examples were dropped; and examples were added for American, Danish, German, and Hungarian publications. These examples are carefully constructed to reflect changes in the standard, but they should not be used instead of the specifics of the standard itself.

Unfortunately, the new 1977 standard contains no index, a sad omission. This should be corrected not only in future editions but also in future printings of the first standard edition.

Another evaluation of the ISBD(S) is a judgment of how well it relates to the chapter for the description of serials in the second edition of the Anglo-American Cataloguing Rules. The major difference is one of fullness, with the ISBD(S) being the fuller of the two, including considerably more detail than chapter 12 of AACR 2. But the ISBD(S) is designed for purposes in addition to descriptive cataloging, and greater detail is to be expected. A comparison of ISBD(S) and chapter 12 finds them in remarkable agreement, from the viewpoint of chapter 12, with any differences being minor and of little consequence.

On at least one count the ISBD(S) differs from the other ISBDs. The ISBD(S) is not restricted to description of the item in hand. The standard relates to other titles, usually former or succeeding titles, through linking notes. This is not a fault but a strength, since this difference supports the value and flexibility of the ISBD concept as the major device leading toward universal bibliographic control.
The first standard edition of ISBD(S) provides for at least two major advances in bibliographic control. First, it forms a substantial and workable standard for the description of serials on an international basis. This in turn will permit an easier exchange of information among bibliographic agencies, which heretofore used differing and at times contradictory standards; it will ease language barriers, because elements of description are now more clearly defined; and it will assist in providing information that can be translated into machine-readable formats. Taken together, these formulate a large step toward improved bibliographic control for serials.

The second major advance is that the ISBD(S) is in turn used as the basis in AACR 2 for the chapter defining the description of serials. While the ISBD(S) is not itself a cataloging code, it will be used as the basis for a part of a catalog code, the code that probably is the most widely used code in the world, AACR.

The impact of ISBD(S) will surely be great. Fortunately, the standard is sound, well-defined, logical, clearly constructed, and thoroughly reasonable. Many individuals will have to make compromises in order to make full use of the standard, but international agreements, like politics, are well founded on compromise. International agreements on both bibliographic and cataloging standards have been dreams for a very long time. The ISBD concept brings one dream closer to reality, and the second edition of AACR will bring the other closer as well.

The ISBD(S) is a major development for librarians, for catalogers, and for the world of serials. It deserves study because its full application in descriptive bibliography and cataloging is sure to come.—Neal Edgar, University Libraries, Kent State University, Kent, Ohio.

A Style Manual for Citing Microform and Nonprint Media
Eugene B. Fleischer
This manual provides, for the first time, a style for citations of all the nonprint media. It is designed to be a companion to such works as Campbell's Form and Style: Theses, Reports, Term Papers; The MLA Style Sheet for Reports and Theses; and Turabian's A Manual for Writers of Term Papers, Theses and Dissertations. It includes models and rules for citations of the full range of nonprint media—micropublications and nonprint periodicals, charts, filmstrips, globes, kits, maps, microscope slides, models, motion pictures, realia, sound recordings, and video recordings. Brief and complete forms are furnished with many examples arranged for convenient reference.

Order Department
American Library Association
50 East Huron Street
Chicago, Illinois 60611

Volume 23, Number 2, Spring 1979
### 1979 RTSD Annual Conference Meetings

**Dallas, Texas**

#### Dallas Programs

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<td>Thurs., June 21</td>
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<td>Fri., June 22</td>
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<td>Fri., June 22</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Sat., June 23</td>
<td>8:00 a.m.-12:30 p.m.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Subject Analysis Committee (&quot;Can Anyone Do It?&quot;)</td>
<td>Sun., June 24</td>
<td>9:30 a.m.-12:30 p.m.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Technical Services Cost Committee (&quot;Analyzing the Impact of Automation on Technical Services Costs&quot;)</td>
<td>Sun., June 24</td>
<td>9:30 a.m.-12:30 p.m.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Telefacsimile Committee (&quot;Federal Library Network Prototype Project: An Experiment in Document Delivery&quot;)</td>
<td>Sun., June 24</td>
<td>8:00-10:00 p.m.</td>
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<td>Serials Section (&quot;AACR 2 and Its Effect on Serials&quot;)</td>
<td>Mon., June 25</td>
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<tr>
<td>AAP/RTSD Joint Committee (&quot;Small, Regional, and Alternative Publishing&quot;)</td>
<td>Mon., June 25</td>
<td>8:00 a.m.-12:30 p.m.</td>
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<td>Collection Development Committee (&quot;Use and the User&quot;)</td>
<td>Tues., June 26</td>
<td>2:00-4:00 p.m.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Council of Regional Groups (CRG) (&quot;How to Plan a Workshop: Planning, Timing, Budgeting, &amp; Evaluation&quot;)</td>
<td>Mon., June 25</td>
<td>2:00-4:00 p.m.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Preservation of Library Materials Committee (&quot;Preservation Education&quot;)</td>
<td>Tues., June 26</td>
<td>2:00-4:00 p.m.</td>
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<tr>
<td>RLMS/RS (Cosponsored) (&quot;The Public Catalog: Microform Alternatives&quot;)</td>
<td>Tues., June 26</td>
<td>2:00-4:00 p.m.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cataloging of Children's Materials Committee (&quot;Marking It and Parking It—Road Map for the Cataloging of Print and Nonprint&quot;)</td>
<td>Wed., June 27</td>
<td>2:00-4:00 p.m.</td>
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#### RTSD Committees

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<tr>
<th>Committee</th>
<th>Day/Date</th>
<th>Hour</th>
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<td>RTSD Board of Directors</td>
<td>Sun., June 24</td>
<td>2:00-4:00 p.m.</td>
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<td>Tues., June 26</td>
<td>9:30 a.m.-12:30 p.m.</td>
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<td>9:30 a.m.-12:30 p.m.</td>
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<td>12:30-2:00 p.m.</td>
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<tr>
<td>RTSD Luncheon</td>
<td>Mon., June 25</td>
<td>9:30-11:00 a.m.</td>
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<td>Library Resources &amp; Technical Services Editorial Board</td>
<td>Mon., June 25</td>
<td>8:00-9:00 a.m.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Orientation with Section Vice-Chairs (Dallas)</td>
<td>Wed., June 27</td>
<td>2:00-4:00 p.m.</td>
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<tr>
<td>AAP/RTSD Joint Committee</td>
<td>Sun., June 24</td>
<td>8:00-10:00 p.m.</td>
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<tr>
<td>ANSI Z-39 Committee</td>
<td>Mon., June 25</td>
<td>2:00-4:00 p.m.</td>
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<tr>
<td>1980 Acquisitions Preconference Program Planning Committee</td>
<td>Sat., June 23</td>
<td>2:00-4:00 p.m.</td>
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<td>Audiovisual Committee</td>
<td>Sun., June 24</td>
<td>4:30-5:30 p.m.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Book Catalog Committee</td>
<td>Mon., June 25</td>
<td>8:00-9:00 a.m.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Bylaws Committee</td>
<td>Mon., June 25</td>
<td>2:00-4:00 p.m.</td>
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<td>Commercial Processing Services Committee</td>
<td>Sun., June 24</td>
<td>4:30-5:30 p.m.</td>
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<td>Tues., June 26</td>
<td>4:30-5:30 p.m.</td>
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<td>Conference Program Committee (New York)</td>
<td>Mon., June 25</td>
<td>8:00-9:00 a.m.</td>
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<td>Committee on Program and Evaluation Support (COPES)</td>
<td>Mon., June 25</td>
<td>8:00-9:00 a.m.</td>
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<td>Education Committee</td>
<td>Tues., June 26</td>
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<tr>
<td>Filing Committee</td>
<td>Sat., June 23</td>
<td>2:00–7:00 p.m.</td>
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<tr>
<td>International Cataloging Consultation Committee</td>
<td>Sun., June 24</td>
<td>8:00–10:00 p.m.</td>
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<td>Mon., June 25</td>
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<td>Mon., June 25</td>
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<td>Wed., June 27</td>
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<td>Tues., June 26</td>
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<tr>
<td>Planning Committee</td>
<td>Sun., June 24</td>
<td>8:00–10:00 p.m.</td>
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<td>Preservation of Library Materials Committee</td>
<td>Mon., June 25</td>
<td>4:30–5:30 p.m.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Subcomm. on Library Binders Relations</td>
<td>Mon., June 25</td>
<td>11:30 a.m.–12:30 p.m.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Sun., June 24</td>
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<td>Representation in Machine-Readable Form of Bibliographic Information Committee (MARBI)</td>
<td>Mon., June 25</td>
<td>2:00–5:30 p.m.</td>
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<tr>
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**DISCUSSION GROUPS**

- **Commercial Automation, Support of Technical Services in Medium-Sized Research Libraries (CASTS)**
  - Tues., June 26 | 2:00–4:00 p.m. |
- **Catalog Maintenance**
  - Sun., June 24 | 9:30–11:00 a.m. |
- **Heads of Cataloging Departments**
  - Tues., June 26 | 9:30 a.m.–12:30 p.m. |
- **Pre-Order and Pre-Cataloging Searching**
  - Tues., June 26 | 2:00–4:00 a.m. |
- **Preservation of Library Materials**
  - Mon., June 25 | 2:00–4:00 p.m. |
- **Role of the Professional in Academic Research Technical Services Department**
  - Wed., June 27 | 9:30–11:00 a.m. |
- **Technical Services Administrators of Medium-Sized Research Libraries**
  - Mon., June 25 | 2:00–4:00 p.m. |
- **Technical Services Administrators of Smaller Research Libraries**
  - Wed., June 27 | 9:30–11:00 a.m. |
- **Technical Services Directors of Processing Centers**
  - Mon., June 25 | 2:00–4:00 p.m. |
- **Technical Services Directors of Large Research Libraries**
  - Sun., June 24 | 9:00 a.m.–4:00 p.m. |

**CATALOGING AND CLASSIFICATION SECTION (CCS)**

- **CCS Executive Committee**
  - Sun., June 24 | 4:30–5:30 p.m. |
  - Mon., June 25 | 11:30 a.m.–12:30 p.m. |
  - Tues., June 26 | 8:00–10:00 p.m. |
- **Cataloging of Children’s Materials Committee**
  - Wed., June 27 | 4:30–5:30 p.m. |
- **Committee on Cataloging: Description and Access**
  - Mon., June 25 | 9:30–11:00 a.m. |
  - Tues., June 26 | 2:00–4:00 p.m. |
- **Margaret Mann Citation Committee**
  - Sun., June 24 | 2:00–4:00 p.m. |
- **Nominating Committee**
  - Mon., June 25 | 4:30–5:30 p.m. |
  - Mon., June 25 | 9:30–11:00 a.m. |
  - Mon., June 25 | 11:30 a.m.–12:30 p.m. |
  - Wed., June 27 | 11:30 a.m.–12:30 p.m. |
  - Wed., June 27 | 9:30–11:00 a.m. |
- **Subject Analysis Committee**
- **SAC/Subcommittee on Racism/Sexism in Subject Analysis**
- **Cataloging Norms Discussion Group**
### REPRODUCTION OF LIBRARY MATERIALS SECTION (RLMS)

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<tr>
<td>Conference Program Committee (New York)</td>
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<td>11:30 a.m.–12:30 p.m.</td>
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<tr>
<td>*Nominating Committee</td>
<td>Mon., June 25</td>
<td>4:30–5:30 p.m.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Policy and Research Committee</td>
<td>Mon., June 25</td>
<td>9:30–11:00 a.m.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Publications Committee</td>
<td>Mon., June 25</td>
<td>11:30 a.m.–12:30 p.m.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Standards Committee</td>
<td>Mon., June 25</td>
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<td>Tues., June 26</td>
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<td>4:30–5:30 p.m.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Standards Committee/RS-Micropublishing Committee</td>
<td>Mon., June 25</td>
<td>2:00–4:00 p.m.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Telefacsimile Committee</td>
<td>Sun., June 24</td>
<td>4:30–5:30 p.m.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Telefacsimile Committee Discussion Group</td>
<td>Tues., June 26</td>
<td>4:30–5:30 p.m.</td>
</tr>
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### RESOURCES SECTION (RS)

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<tr>
<th>Committee</th>
<th>Dates</th>
<th>Times</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Executive Committee</td>
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<td>11:30 a.m.–12:30 p.m.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Tues., June 26</td>
<td>8:00–10:00 p.m.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acquisition of Library Materials Discussion Group</td>
<td>Tues., June 26</td>
<td>9:30–11:00 a.m.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bookdealer–Library Relations Committee</td>
<td>Sun., June 24</td>
<td>11:30 a.m.–12:30 p.m.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*Sun., June 24</td>
<td></td>
<td>4:30–5:30 p.m.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Booksellers Discussion Group</td>
<td>Sun., June 24</td>
<td>2:00–4:00 p.m.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Collection Development Committee</td>
<td>Sun., June 24</td>
<td>9:30–11:00 a.m.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Tues., June 26</td>
<td>9:30–11:00 a.m.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chief Collection Development Officers of Large Research Libraries Discussion Group</td>
<td>Mon., June 25</td>
<td>7:00–10:30 p.m.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chief Collection Development Officers of Medium-Sized Research Libraries Discussion Group</td>
<td>Mon., June 25</td>
<td>9:30–11:00 a.m.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conference Program Committee (New York)</td>
<td>Tues., June 26</td>
<td>11:30 a.m.–12:30 p.m.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Library Materials Price Index Committee</td>
<td>Sun., June 24</td>
<td>2:00–4:00 p.m.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Tues., June 26</td>
<td>4:30–5:30 p.m.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nominating Committee</td>
<td>Mon., June 25</td>
<td>4:30–5:30 p.m.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Policy and Research Committee</td>
<td>Mon., June 25</td>
<td>9:30–11:00 a.m.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*RS Micropublishing Committee/RLMS Standards Committee</td>
<td>Mon., June 25</td>
<td>2:00–4:00 p.m.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*RS/National Library Services Scholarship Award Jury</td>
<td>Sun., June 24</td>
<td>2:00–4:00 p.m.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### SERIALS SECTION (SS)

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Committee</th>
<th>Dates</th>
<th>Times</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Executive Committee</td>
<td>Tues., June 26</td>
<td>2:00–4:00 p.m.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Tues., June 26</td>
<td>8:00–10:00 p.m.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Committee to Study Feasibility of Creating Core Lists of Serials (ad hoc)</td>
<td>Sun., June 24</td>
<td>11:30 a.m.–12:30 p.m.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Committee to Study Serials Cataloging</td>
<td>Sun., June 24</td>
<td>8:00–10:00 p.m.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Tues., June 26</td>
<td>9:30–11:00 a.m.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Committee to Study Serials Records</td>
<td>Sun., June 24</td>
<td>2:00–4:00 p.m.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Duplicates Exchange Union Committee</td>
<td>Tues., June 26</td>
<td>4:30–5:30 p.m.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Large Research Libraries Discussion Group Medium-Sized Academic Libraries Discussion Group</td>
<td>Mon., June 25</td>
<td>9:30–11:00 a.m.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*Nominating Committee</td>
<td>Mon., June 25</td>
<td>4:30–5:30 p.m.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Policy and Research Committee</td>
<td>Mon., June 25</td>
<td>4:30–5:30 p.m.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Tues., June 26</td>
<td>8:00–9:00 a.m.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Regional Serials Workshop Committee</td>
<td>Mon., June 25</td>
<td>11:30 a.m.–12:30 p.m.</td>
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*Closed meeting.

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