

LIBRARY RESOURCES & TECHNICAL SERVICES

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Our Thanks to Wes . . .

*William A. Gosling
President, RTSD*

Wesley Simonton, known as Wes to his many friends, assumed responsibility for the editing of *Library Resources & Technical Services (LRTS)* from Bob Wedgeworth beginning with the Spring 1973 issue. Wes enjoyed this work so much that he accepted appointment for a second three-year term, which ends with this issue. In all he edited twenty-five issues of *LRTS* for RTSD. Wes has stated that he found this assignment a rewarding experience, not the least because of the pleasure of working with devoted RTSD members. The feeling is certainly a mutual one. His dedication and cooperative spirit will not soon be forgotten especially in light of his willingness to remain until the new editor was named and on board.

The division and the profession are indebted to Wes for the editorial expertise he brought to this work to produce a truly professional journal each quarter. He saw to it that the RTSD membership was kept informed of the activities of the division and the latest happenings within the field of technical services. It is a pleasure, on behalf of the RTSD membership, to have this opportunity to express our appreciation to Wes for the outstanding job he has done as editor of *LRTS* during the past six years.

A Note from the New Editor

Elizabeth L. Tate

The new editor of *Library Resources & Technical Services* wholeheartedly joins in the tribute that RTSD has paid to the former editor and wishes to add her own special note of thanks to Wes Simonton for his kind cooperation and helpful assistance as the editorship has changed hands. She wishes also to thank the RTSD Board of Directors for the honor they have conferred upon her by this appointment.

As an ex-serials cataloger, the new editor promises that she will not voluntarily (1) change the title of this journal; (2) confuse the title by introducing an initialism or logo; (3) change the volume numbering.

As one who has spent the better (or sometimes the worse) part of the past three decades reading professional literature, your new editor believes that scholarly writing need not be dull and that "it is better to light one candle than curse the darkness." She will welcome articles that further the solution of problems confronting technical services librarians. Wish her luck and send her manuscripts! Instructions for authors can be found on page 444.

Initially, We Need Some Definitions: The Problems of Initialisms in Periodical Titles

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Initialisms that abbreviate full periodical titles create problems for both serial librarians and users because of the different alternatives that they present for entry and filing. One proposed method for alleviating the problems is the codification and acceptance by the library community of definitions for the terms title page, caption, masthead, and logo. In addition, a recommendation for consistent entry under full form is presented, with supporting evidence from a survey of periodical publishers.

BOTH SERIAL LIBRARIANS AND SERIAL USERS have had difficulty for some time with initialisms in periodical titles, owing to the various choices available for cataloging entries and shelving locations.¹ In this context, initialisms occur in two types of situations: (1) titles composed of the abbreviation of the name of their corporate author plus one or more generic or descriptive terms (for example, *AAPG Bulletin*, where AAPG is the abbreviation of the American Association of Petroleum Geologists), and (2) titles that combine an abbreviation for a full title and the full title itself (for example, *GQ Gentlemen's Quarterly* and *Pacific Islands Monthly PIM*). The present discussion is limited to the second type, since it has the greater number of variations and causes the greater number of problems. The first type of situation, where the initialism is an integral part of the title, causes problems of a different nature, which are more adequately handled by current practices.

In this discussion, the full title, without the initialism, is referred to as the *full form*. The term *expanded title* or *expanded form* used by the Library of Congress and ISBD(S) is equivalent to the term *full form*,

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but is avoided because it implies the "full form" is secondary or subsidiary to the initialism.

As an illustration of the problem, the periodical whose cover reads *The Journal of General Education* JGE presents on its title page and with its editorial information the title *JGE: The Journal of General Education*, and uses as its running head and in its address the title *The Journal of General Education*. For a more complicated example, the *Journal of Bank Research* gives the full form followed by its initialism (JBR) on the cover and at the head of the contents, the initialism followed by the full form on the spine, the initialism alone with the editorial information, and the full form alone in the publisher statement. The running head consists of both the full form and the initialism in alternating positions on facing pages. As can be seen from these examples, the question of the serial cataloger as to what to choose as the main entry, and of the user as to where to find the periodical in an alphabetical shelf arrangement, is a legitimate one. Should the periodical whose cover reads *see Studies in Educational Evaluation* be cataloged and filed under *Studies, see* as a word or *S.E.E.* as initials?

In order to understand the scope of the problem better, 135 periodicals using initialisms on their covers or spine were examined. The initialism and its relationship to the full form of the title were noted for eight locations: cover, title page, head of the contents, caption, editorial information, publisher statement (or masthead), running heads, and spine. In numerous instances, a number of these were combined on one page, the most common combination being contents, editorial information, and publisher statement, with the title at the top of the page and in the publisher statement.

The results of this survey bear out the previous observation that consistency is not a common characteristic of periodicals that use initialisms (indeed, the same might be said of serials in general). Of the periodicals examined, only two were consistent in the use of the initialism throughout the publication, and in both of these cases all reference to the full form had been dropped. In thirty other periodicals, some degree of consistency was noted where the initialism was present only on the cover with all other locations using only the full form. This would seem to imply that the cover is frequently used as a place for graphic experimentation. In all the other periodicals, little or no consistency was noted.

Title Page

This lack of consistency is reflected in the cataloging records accessible in large cooperative data bases such as OCLC. Part of the reason for this situation is the lack of a standard definition of *title page* as applied to periodicals. Most catalogers recognize a monographic-style title page as one containing the title, the author statement, the edition statement if appropriate, and some or all of the imprint. In the case of the periodicals examined in this study, only 19 of the 135 had a

monographic-style title page as defined above. The Library of Congress appears to interpret this common definition as being exclusive; that is, if any other elements are present, the page may not be considered the title page. This causes the cataloger to refer to AACR 12.0B1: "The title page substitute for an item lacking a title page is (in this order of preference) the cover, caption, masthead, editorial pages, colophon, other pages."² This results in most periodicals' being cataloged under the cover title, a perhaps misleading practice considering the number of periodicals that appear to use the cover as a place for graphic experimentation as noted above.

Title page is defined in AACR 2 as "a page at the beginning of an item bearing the title proper and usually, though not necessarily, the statement of responsibility and the data relating to publication."³ The ISBD(S) defines *title page* as "the page normally at the beginning of an issue of a serial usually bearing the fullest title information and the whole or part of the imprint."⁴ In addition, ANSI standard Z39.1-1977 defines the *issue title-page* as "the opening page of a periodical carrying the title and other bibliographic data such as the date, volume and issue number."⁵ In none of these cases is there any indication that the definition is exclusive; indeed, the wording of several implies that other elements may be present. Obviously, there is no common agreement as to what constitutes a title page for periodicals.

It would appear that a more flexible definition of the title page is needed. Expansion of the ISBD(S) definition to include a portion of the ANSI definition leads to the following definition of a periodical (or serial) title page:

The page normally near the beginning of an issue of a serial usually bearing the fullest title information, the volume numbering and/or the date of the issue, and the data relating to publication. Other elements (such as the editorial information or contents of the issue) may also be present. If there is more than one page listing these elements, the title-page is that which gives the fullest information.

Even if this definition is accepted, questions of interpretation will still arise, and in some situations the choice between the different pages, especially the contents and editorial information pages, may be difficult. Since AACR 12.0B1 does not specifically mention the contents page, the interpretation of this rule becomes easier using this new definition.

Caption Title

The second alternative given by AACR 12.0B1 for the source of the title is the caption. The definition of *caption title* is given by AACR 2 as "the title of a work given at the beginning of the first page of the text"⁶ and by the *Librarians' Glossary* as "the title printed at the beginning of a chapter or section or at the top of a page."⁷ A more adequate definition might be obtained by the combination of the two:

The title of a work given at the beginning of the first page of the text or at the beginning of each chapter or section.

In the periodicals studied, fewer than one-third (41) of the periodicals examined had what might by any definition be considered caption titles, and about one-third (13) of these were actually given at the bottom of the first page of each section or article. Also, two used a unique abbreviation rather than either the full form or the initialism. If the word *beginning* is interpreted as the top of the page, not to be confused with the running title, and the two abbreviations are ignored, only 26 of the 135 periodicals had a caption title. Whereas the situation may be different with other types of serials, it would appear that the caption title is of little value in attempting to clarify the problem of initialisms in periodical titles.

Masthead

Although *masthead* is adequately defined in a number of publications, the definition has not been fully accepted and has been subject to some interpretation. For example, the Library of Congress does not appear to recognize the existence of the masthead for serials other than newspapers. The *Librarians' Glossary* defines *masthead* as "the statement of the name, ownership, address and frequency of publication, printer's name and address, and sometimes postage and subscription rates of a periodical publication. It is usually on the last or the editorial page of a newspaper, and on the editorial or contents page of a magazine."⁸ If one does not interpret this definition as requiring inclusion of all the items indicated in all cases (for example, printer's name and address are frequently omitted), the meaning of *masthead* is quite clear. ANSI standard Z39.1-1977 supports this interpretation by its definition of *masthead* as "a section of a periodical containing a statement of the name, ownership, and other characteristics of the publication, usually found on the editorial or contents page."⁹ The AACR 2 definition is substantially the same. In most cases, the masthead appears near the bottom of the contents page and states: "(Title) is published by . . ." and/or "Address subscription inquiries to . . .," or the like.

The most frequent secondary source in the 135 periodicals was the masthead, which was found in 102 of these periodicals. Reference to the masthead is occasionally necessary for clarification of the intent of the publisher. In some cases the cataloger may be uncertain as to whether the initialism is a logo, while in other cases the order of the elements in the title may be uncertain due to irregular or confusing graphic techniques.

Logo

The problem of initialisms is further complicated by the existence and use of logos. *Logo* is an ill-defined but common term, generally

meaning a printer's device used as an abbreviation or identification symbol. Familiar examples of logos are the "AAA" within an oval of the American Automobile Association and the interlocked "IH" of the International Harvester Company. Logos may also consist of complete words, such as the "Ford" script of the Ford Motor Company, or of completely pictorial devices, such as the Bell System symbol. These latter two types of logos do not cause any problems with periodicals; rather, the problem is one of differentiating between initialisms and logos comprised of initials. The necessity for distinguishing logos from initialisms arises as a result of a number of factors. The Library of Congress in a rule interpretation states that "initialisms or acronyms which appear on the title page as seals or logos are not to be considered part of the title."¹⁰ Also, the National Serials Data Program office in assigning the key title follows the guideline: "When a title is distinctive but a seal or logo is added for editorial or decorative reasons, these seals and logos should generally be ignored."¹¹

The term *logo* is not defined in major dictionaries; it is generally equated with *logotype* and sometimes with *logogram*. *Logotype* is defined as "a single piece of type faced with two or more separate letters or figures"¹² and refers to *ligature*, one definition of which is "two or more letters printed together as an identifying symbol."¹³ *Logogram* is defined as "a letter or character or symbol or sign used to represent an entire word."¹⁴ From the viewpoint of periodical titles, these definitions leave something to be desired.

To help resolve this confusion, approximately fifty periodical titles using initialisms that might be considered as logos were examined to determine the characteristics that distinguish them from other initialisms, and a few guidelines for the identification of logos were developed. Excluding those logos that are complete words or purely pictorial devices, *logo* can be defined as:

A printer's device whereby one or more letters are presented in such a fashion that they are: 1. linked, incomplete and/or highly stylized; 2. incorporated within a decorative device such as a block, circle or outline map; or, 3. incorporated with other pictorial devices or symbols.

Examples of these types are given in figure 1. Undoubtedly, questions of interpretation will still arise, especially in regard to those logos comprised of highly stylized initials, but the gray area of confusion should be reduced by use of this definition.

The Rules and a Proposed Change

The definitions proposed above are required, first by the use of initialisms as part of the title of periodical publications, and second by the existence of certain rules and guidelines. AACR 2 mentions initialisms in rule 12.1E1: "Treat the full form of an acronym or initialism that is, or is part of, the title proper as other title information if it is given in the chief source of information."¹⁵ The Library of

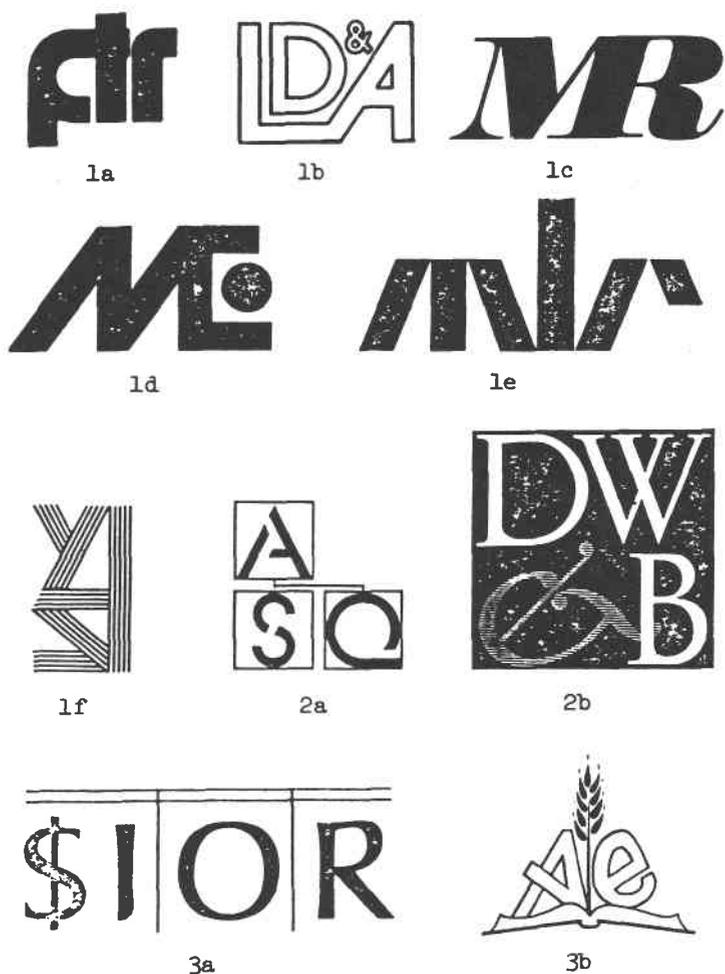


Figure 1

Examples of logos: (1a) *Public Telecommunications Review*; (1b) *Lighting Design & Application*; (1c) *Modern Railroads Rail Transit*; (1d) *Mondo Economico*; (1e) *Monthly Labor Review*; (1f) *Yale Italian Studies*; (2a) *Administrative Science Quarterly*; (2b) *Dietsche Warande & Belfort*; (3a) *Industrial Organization Review*; (3b) *Agricultural Education*.

Congress rule interpretation mentioned above states that "if the title consists of a set of initials or acronyms prominently displayed and the expanded form is also present, both are considered to be part of the title proper and are to be separated by a comma."¹⁶ The ISDS states that "if the title consists of a set of initials prominently displayed, and the expanded form is also present, the key-title will begin with the ac-

ronym, followed by a full stop and its expanded form."¹⁷ Lastly, the ISBD(S) states that "when the title consists of a set of initials or an acronym, prominently displayed on the title-page or title-page substitute where the expanded form is also present, the initials or acronym are given as the title proper and the expanded form is given as other title information."¹⁸

Whereas the definitions proposed in the preceding sections are necessary and, it is to be hoped, helpful to the serial cataloger, initialisms in periodical titles remain a problem for the reader. To add to the problem, a number of periodicals have dropped the initialisms they added relatively recently. Application of the rules and guidelines already mentioned together with the rules for successive entry has the result that a periodical that temporarily adds an initialism will have three separate but linked records for what is essentially the same title. In such cases, the regular reader will have been confused twice by the shifting of the periodical in an alphabetically arranged collection. A familiar example of this is that of *Library Journal*, which added the abbreviation *LJ* before the title some while ago. When the publisher realized that this minor addition was being interpreted as a title change, the initialism was dropped, and the publisher explained that no change of title was intended.

To a large extent, this problem can be solved by the relatively simple method of consistently entering these periodicals under the full form of the title, with secondary entries under the initialism. The secondary entries should be provided whether or not the initialism is a logo. Exceptions to this practice would be required for those few periodicals that have dropped all mention of the former full form of the title. This method has the advantage of being simple to interpret and apply and of avoiding unnecessary title changes caused by the addition or deletion of initialisms.

A Survey of the Publishers

The relatively common use of the full form of the title alone in the masthead seems to imply that the publishers of these periodicals consider the initialisms to be abbreviations of the full form of the title, much as nicknames are used instead of people's full names. Indeed, of the 135 periodicals examined, the masthead contained only the full form in 77.5 percent of the cases.

In order to test this hypothesis, eighty-eight publishers were asked what they consider to be the true, official titles of their periodicals (for the letter used in this survey, see the appendix). The publishers contacted were all the U.S. publishers of the original 135 periodicals (in order to minimize postal problems), with the exception of the two whose periodicals currently use only the initialism and two whose periodicals have ceased publication. Of the eighty-eight queries sent, one was returned by the Postal Service as "moved, left no address," and eighty-four were returned by the publishers. One reply stated that the

periodical had ceased publication and four replies were unclear; seventy-nine were finally tabulated.

The replies indicate that sixty-nine (or 87.3 percent) of the publishers consider the full form to be the official title, nine (or 11.4 percent) prefer the initialism followed by the full form, and one prefers the full form followed by the initialism in parentheses.

These results support the hypothesis stated above, and, in fact, a number of publishers appended notes specifically stating that the initialism is "just an abbreviation often used." Other comments include:

"Ptr is simply the acronym (and the logo)."

"(But we do refer to it unofficially as *CL*)."

"However, it is also known as LD&A and registered for copyright both ways."

"FI is an abbreviation used in the bibliographies such as MLA, etc."

In summary, these replies do indicate general agreement that the actual title of these periodicals is the full form, and the initialism is an "abbreviation only."

Postscript

The initial survey of 135 periodicals led to the recommendation that the cataloging rules should be amended to enter periodicals using initialisms of this type under the full form of the title, with a note and added entry for the initialism. This recommendation was approved by the Committee to Study Serials Cataloging of the American Library Association at the Midwinter Meeting on 7 January 1979. In order to answer some of the points discussed, it was suggested by the author that the phrase *Initialism title* be adopted to describe the initialism in a note. In addition, in the MARC Serials format, the second indicator value of 9 in the 246 field could be redefined as *Initialism title*, since the phrase *Other title* (second indicator value 3) is already valid and could be used for the other unspecified titles to which the value of 9 currently refers.

The survey of publishers was conducted after the January 1979 meeting, and the results of the survey give additional weight to the recommendation. It is hoped that when further changes to the cataloging rules are undertaken, this recommendation and the proposed definitions will be given serious consideration.

References

1. For an earlier discussion of this problem, see Huibert Paul, "Serials: Chaos and Standardization," *Library Resources & Technical Services* 14:21-22 (Winter 1970).
2. *Anglo-American Cataloguing Rules*, 2d ed. (Chicago: American Library Assn., 1978), p.249.
3. *Ibid.*, p.571.
4. *ISBD(S): International Standard Bibliographic Description for Serials* (London: IFLA International Office for UBC, 1977), p.5.
5. *American National Standard for Periodicals: Format and Arrangement* (New York: American National Standards Institute, 1977), p.11.

6. *Anglo-American Cataloguing Rules*, p.564.
7. Leonard Montague Harrod, comp., *Librarians' Glossary of Terms Used in Librarianship, and the Book Crafts, and Reference Book*, 3d rev. ed. (New York: Seminar Press, 1971), p.123.
8. *Ibid.*, p.414-15.
9. *American National Standard for Periodicals*, p.10.
10. "Serials—Rule Interpretations," *Cataloging Service* 112:11 (Winter 1975).
11. *UNISIST Guidelines for ISDS* (Paris: UNESCO, 1973, updated May 1978), p.25.
12. *Webster's Third New International Dictionary of the English Language* (Springfield, Mass.: Merriam, 1961), p.1331.
13. *Ibid.*, p.1308.
14. *Ibid.*, p.1331.
15. *Anglo-American Cataloguing Rules*, p.252.
16. "Serials—Rule Interpretations," p.12.
17. *UNISIST Guidelines for ISDS*, p.25.
18. *ISBD(S)*, p.14.

APPENDIX

The Pennsylvania State University
The University Libraries
University Park, Pennsylvania 16802

Date: 25 January 1979

From: Frank E. Sadowski Jr., Senior Assistant Librarian
Serials Department
W210 Pattee Library
University Park, PA 16802

To: *****

Upon examining your periodical for processing for our library, we find that the title appears in different forms in different locations within the publication. Would you please indicate, by checking the appropriate line below, which title you consider to be the true official title of your periodical, and return this query in the enclosed prestamped, preaddressed envelope. Your cooperation is greatly appreciated.

- _____ ***** [initialism]
 _____ ***** [full form]
 _____ ***** [initialism, full form]
 _____ Other; please indicate title:

Sincerely,

Frank E. Sadowski Jr.

Volume 23, Number 4, Fall 1979

Treatment of People and Peoples in Subject Analysis

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Parallel investigations of Library of Congress subject analysis of minority groups were carried out at St. John's University and Florida State University. Titles were randomly or systematically selected from bibliographies on ethnic groups, the handicapped, age groups, women, gays, and alternative life-styles. The subject headings and the LC and Dewey classification numbers applied by LC were examined to determine: (1) if the subject analysis is prejudiced, (2) if the vocabulary is objective, (3) if the analysis is offensive to the affected group, and (4) if the analysis provides access via the terms likely to be used by the intended audience. The updating performed on subject headings in recent years was found to have corrected many problems; recommendations are made for further updating and for changes in application policies. The Dewey classification, with a few minor problems, was found to be quite unbiased, but the Library of Congress classification was found to be quite outdated, at least in the versions available for public use.

Background

Until recently it was almost an article of faith in librarianship that subject analysis was objective; that is, the subject cataloger, on the basis of literary warrant and usage, devised subject terms and classification notations to fit the works being cataloged. S/he refrained from making judgments; e.g., the heading "Superstitions" was reserved for works stated by their authors to be about superstitions. Books about palmistry, divination, or other such arts were to be analyzed as legiti-

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mate subjects of study in their own right, because the cataloger was not the one to decide which practices were superstitious and which not.

The credit for bringing the profession to the realization that, at least so far as it pertained to peoples, this "objectivity" was anything but, goes to one person, Sanford Berman, whose numerous writings, especially his *Prejudices and Antipathies*,¹ forced the library world to recognize that many of the terms used in subject analysis, particularly subject headings, reflected judgments that were highly subjective.

The terms in use, at the time they were established, did, by and large, reflect both literary warrant and the usage at least of the authors of the works being analyzed. The issue thus seemed at first to be primarily one of currency; all sorts of terms, not just those relating to people, had not been updated when usage changed. Later, other issues arose when it was suggested that the subject catalog, as an educational tool, should use the "correct" term, the one used by group members to apply to themselves, whether or not the term was popular with the users of the catalog.² This need was particularly emphasized when the catalog term had invidious connotations, whether or not catalog users were aware of them.

Beginning about 1975, the Library of Congress began to acknowledge the need for the updating of subject headings in general and particularly of those relating to groups of people. From that time to this a large number of such headings have been changed. The Sears list, while attempting to remain compatible with LC, has been updated faster, and this has been reflected in the changes in headings referring to people. However, LC was slow to move on some of the largest groups, such as blacks and women, and in 1975 and 1976 Joan K. Marshall made a study of subject headings applied to women; the results of her work are embodied in *On Equal Terms*.³ In this work she stated six "principles for establishing subject headings relating to people and peoples." Since these principles were accepted by the ALA RTSD CCS Subject Analysis Committee and serve as guides for this work, they are quoted below.

1. The authentic name of ethnic, national, religious, social, or sexual groups should be established if such a name is determinable. If a group does not have an authentic name, the name preferred by the group should be established. The determination of the authentic or preferred name should be based upon the literature of the people themselves (not upon outside sources or experts), upon organizational self-identification, and/or upon group member experts.
2. In establishing subdivisions for use with the names of people or peoples, consider the connotation, in addition to the denotation, of the wording and structure of the subdivision. Avoid words that connote inferiority or peculiarity. In establishing subdivisions for concepts applicable to all classes of people, avoid variations in the structure of the subdivision under certain people or peoples. Avoid American/Western European ethnocentrism. Avoid value-loaded words; aim for neutrality.

3. The wording and structure of headings for minority or other groups should not differ from headings for the majority. Avoid all "as" and "in" constructions to describe practitioners of an activity.
4. Be specific and current. Do not use previously established terms to cover new topics.
5. Do not use subsuming terminology. Do not establish headings for some, but not all, classes of people or peoples.
6. Do not allow huge files of undifferentiated cards to accumulate under a heading. One inch of cards represents approximately 100 titles; it takes quite some time and patience on the part of a user to examine that many titles in order to select those wanted.⁴

Meanwhile, there has been less discussion of classifications. The editors of the *Dewey Decimal Classification* have worked for many years to increase its international usefulness; this effort has included the use of current terminology and care in the placement of subjects in the classification.

Less attention has been paid to the updating of the Library of Congress Classification (LCC). One can only speculate about the reasons, but they might be that the meaning of a classification notation is not immediately obvious to the user, and that LCC is used almost exclusively in the United States and more heavily in academic than in public libraries.

In 1976 the ALA Resolution on Racism and Sexism Awareness was passed. This resolution singled out subject cataloging for specific mention. The Resources and Technical Services Division (RTSD) delegated the responsibility to the Cataloging and Classification Section (CCS) Subject Analysis Committee, which formed an ad hoc Subcommittee on Racism and Sexism in Subject Analysis with the following charge:

To identify areas of classification systems and subject headings which require change pursuant to the July 1976 ALA Resolution on Racism and Sexism Awareness; to establish priority ranking for making these changes; and to report these findings to the Subject Analysis Committee for transmittal via the RTSD Executive Board to the appropriate change-making organizations.

Members of the subcommittee are: Elizabeth Dickinson, chairperson; Betty Brown; Jessica L. Milstead Harris; Joan K. Marshall; and Desretta McAllister.

The subcommittee decided to widen the scope of its investigation to include the handicapped and persons with alternative life-styles, since both are now included in the ALA equal employment opportunity guidelines. It also recognized that hard data on the extent of the problem in subject analysis tools today were lacking. Library of Congress subject headings (LCSH), the system the failings of which were best documented, was undergoing rapid change. The situation in other systems was not at all well known. The study reported below was undertaken in order to provide at least some of the needed data, but its design, conclusions, and recommendations are the sole respon-

sibility of the authors and do not necessarily reflect the position of any part of ALA.

Methodology

In view of the significance and scope of the problem, the authors decided to undertake a two-part study, using students to gather data and undertake the preliminary analysis. The rationale for this procedure was that if the findings of both parts of the study confirmed each other, the conclusions would be more firmly supported than by a smaller study. Therefore, parallel studies were undertaken at the Graduate School of Library and Information Science, University of California, Los Angeles (UCLA), where the first author then held a visiting appointment, and at the School of Library Science, Florida State University, Tallahassee (FSU). Small differences in the methodologies followed are described below.

The concern was to locate cataloging records that met four criteria:

1. The cataloging was authoritative (i.e., done by LC).
2. The record was for a work published in 1970 or later.
3. The published work was in book form.
4. The documents dealt with a specific subject or group that has received inadequate subject analysis in the past.

A random or systematic sample of titles for each group being analyzed was selected from a current bibliography. Appendix 2 lists the groups studied at UCLA and FSU, together with the bibliographies used for each.

A note should be made here on the omission of blacks and women from this study. Women were omitted because Marshall's *On Equal Terms*⁵ thoroughly covers subject headings (but not classification) in this area. Clack⁶ has thoroughly documented the treatment of Afro-Americans in subject analysis. The authors chose to pay greater attention to groups not already studied.

The two groups of students followed slightly different, but comparable, procedures. At UCLA, eighteen students in a class in subject cataloging each selected a group and searched the sample titles in the LC or National Union catalogs, recording subject headings and LC and DC class numbers if LC cataloging was found. If it was not found, the work was discarded from the sample; when necessary (if too many were discarded), a new sample was drawn to compensate for the discards.

At FSU, the twenty-one students in the intermediate and advanced cataloging classes formed teams of three—two intermediate and one advanced student—to study each group. They searched each title in the OCLC data base via computer terminals and made printouts of Library of Congress entries to facilitate the analysis.

The assigned subject headings and classification numbers were analyzed to determine: (1) if the subject analysis is prejudiced; i.e., if its slant is negative; (2) if the vocabulary is objective; i.e., are terms

still in use that today are considered pejorative? (3) if the subject analysis is, to the best of the observer's ability to determine from available literature, offensive to the affected group; and (4) if the subject analysis provides access via the terms the searchers at whom the work is directed would be likely to use; specifically, whether books obviously aimed at improving understanding of a group could be accessed through the name of the group or another term associated with it.

Clearly the application of these criteria is subjective to some extent, but the findings have been carefully examined and the conclusions kept conservative to eliminate possible bias. The books or annotations in the bibliographies were examined when the wording of the title did not make the subject clear.

To ensure the use of the latest vocabulary, the subject headings and class numbers found were checked in new editions and updates of the subject heading list and classification schedules to see if they had been changed. All conclusions are based on what the analysis would be if the work were cataloged at the time of the study.

Findings: Subject Headings

In the past few years the Library of Congress has undertaken a great deal of updating of its subject headings, and the results were evident in this study. Many of the objectionable headings found would not have been used if the work were being cataloged today. However, problems in terminology and application remain.

Objectification. Four groups of people are denoted in the LCSH by adjectival forms used as nouns, a form of labeling that seems to deny humanity to them. These are "Aged," "Blind," "Deaf," and "Handicapped." These headings could easily be modified by attaching the word "people" to the end of each.

Individuals as Group Members. Repeatedly it was found that when a work—such as an individual biography, autobiography, personal reminiscences, or personal narrative—was assigned a personal name as a subject heading, no complementary topical heading was used, even when the major focus of the work was the association of the individual with an ethnic group, class of persons, or disabling condition. Thus users must know the names of such individuals in order to ascertain relevant materials. On the other hand, collective biographies of individuals so associated with a special class of persons, ethnic group and condition were assigned a pertinent topical subject heading, e.g., **Afro-Americans—Biography, Jews—Biography, Blind—Biography.**

The Library of Congress has recently begun assigning additional topical subject headings for individual biographies. Additional headings are assigned, however, only when the biography emphasizes a particular topic or field of activity to which the person is related and when the personal subject heading assigned is subdivided by a topical subdivision prescribed by the model heading for the particular cate-

gory to which the biography belongs, e.g., 1. **Lincoln, Abraham, Pres. U.S., 1809-1865—Relations with Jews.** 2. **Jews in the United States.** Complementary topical subject headings are also assigned for the career, profession, or special pursuit to complement personal-name subject headings. This policy of adding certain topical subject headings to identify the career, profession, or special pursuit of an individual should be extended to include ethnic groups and disabling conditions in instances where the ethnicity or the disabling condition is a factor in the evolution and advancement of the central theme. Works about individuals so identified may be the only source of such information. Library users would be better served if some attempt were made to provide topical access to materials of this nature.

Singling Out of Specific Groups. Four groups, **Mexican Americans, Jews, Indians of [place], and Afro-Americans** were singled out for study because their treatment in subdivisions and headings seems questionable. **Jews** appears as a subdivision under **Sex customs and Banks and banking.** It is possible that literary warrant requires this particular distinction, since Jews are one of the few ethnic groups significantly broader than a single country. An examination of the 1970-74 *Library of Congress Catalog—Books: Subjects* under **Sex customs—United States** and **Banks and banking—United States** revealed no works limited to other specific ethnic groups. Four subdivisions, —**Health and hygiene,** —**Economic conditions,** —**Housing,** and —**Books and reading,** which are listed in the introduction to the LCSH as applicable to ethnic or minority groups, appear only under **Mexican Americans** and **Afro-Americans.** Since no ethnic group has been listed as a pattern heading, picking out these groups may be questioned. Until 1977, when **Italian American criminals** was added to the list, **Jewish criminals, Afro-American criminals, and Indians of North America—Crime** shared the dubious distinction of being the only ethnic groups recognized by LC as having a crime problem.

When use of a particular group is intended only as an example, care should be taken also to include groups that have not been heavily discriminated against in the past.

Synthesis. As Clack⁷ and Marshall⁸ have pointed out, much more synthesis is needed in headings. So long as catalogs are searched manually by many people, the use of two broad headings instead of their specific intersection is simply not helpful to the user. Some examples of the groups of two or three terms found in this study are listed below. Note that specific synthesis via subdivision was available but not used for some, such as the first.

Heart—Diseases—Personal narratives

Coronary heart disease

Afro-Americans—Employment

Coal-mines—United States

Old Age

Income

Discrimination—United States
Minorities—United States
Mexican Americans—United States
Women—United States

Homosexuality—United States
Civil rights—United States

Agricultural Laborers—Southwestern States
Mexican Americans—Economic conditions—Southwestern States

This list indicates types of headings for which further study is needed to determine if the number of titles is sufficient to warrant synthesis.

There is one instance where the need can be stated quite positively, however: **Afro-Americans—Employment**, plus a second heading for type of employment. The one example given is representative of five works on Afro-Americans in various occupations (out of thirty-four references on minorities in the economy).

Ethnic Groups in America. Until recently the only headings available for these groups were of the form [name of group] **in the United States**, implying that nothing, including being born here, would make such people Americans. With the exception of Puerto Ricans, the heading [name of group] **Americans**, is now available and used for each group surveyed. The old heading is kept for immigrants, while the new one refers to those living in America permanently. Certain subdivisions have been used inappropriately. Examples are —**Foreign population** and —**Foreign influences** when referring to U.S. natives of foreign extraction. Such misuse could probably be prevented by scope notes.

In the works in the sample, there appears, at least in the case of Italian Americans, to be a trend away from use of **Acculturation** to use of **Americanization** for the process of adapting to the United States. Since acculturation has a connotation of primitiveness in the culture doing the adapting, this move is a good one.

Eleven individual groups showed some specific problems:

1. *Puerto Ricans.* The terminology for this group presents a special problem, inasmuch as *all* Puerto Ricans are Americans, even in the narrow meaning of citizens of the U.S. While people of Puerto Rican extraction but mainland birth may be distinguished in the literature from those born in Puerto Rico, there is no term which makes the distinction.
2. *Chinese Americans and Japanese Americans.* A number of topics dealing with mistreatment of people of Chinese and Japanese ancestry have never been made subject headings, despite the existence of a great deal of literature. Works on Chinese exclusion and the anti-Chinese movement have received such headings as **Chinese in [place]—History**. Today this would be **Chinese Americans—History**, which is still inadequate.

In 1974, **Japanese Americans—Evacuation and relocation, 1942–1945** replaced **World War, 1939–1945—Evacuation of civilians** and **Concentration camps—United States** for internment of Japanese Americans during World War II. Even this new term is a bit euphemistic, since people are usually evacuated for their own protection and that was not the case in this instance.

3. *Mexican Americans*. The most obvious issue here is whether or not the heading **Mexican American** should be replaced by *Chicano*, and it appears the issue may not yet be resolved. Twenty-five of the twenty-nine titles in the UCLA sample contained one of the terms, fourteen using *Mexican American* (or in one case *American Mexican*), while eleven used *Chicano* in the title, with no solid evidence that there has been a trend in either direction in the years between 1970 and 1975 covered by the sample. The FSU findings were similar. In accord with Marshall's principle that the usage of the group in question should determine the heading, a breakdown by Hispanic- and non-Hispanic-surnamed authors was made. Hispanic-surnamed authors used *Mexican American* over *Chicano* in a ratio of three to two (twelve to eight), while non-Hispanic authors were almost evenly divided (six *Mexican American*, seven *Chicano*). Further study is needed to determine if literary warrant requires a change in terminology.

Mexico—History was used in one case for a historical work about Mexican Americans. One hopes this was an error.

4. *Jews*. Headings relating to Jews were acceptable except for the heading **Holocaust, 1939–1945**, whose starting date is questionable. The heading **Jewish question** has been discussed elsewhere;⁹ it did not appear in this sample, but it has not been deleted from LCSH and was still applied to books in mid-1978.
5. *Native Americans*. The most obvious issue with this group is the continued use of the term *Indians*. Running a close second is the use of political boundaries for the geographic breakdowns, as **Indians of North America—California**. Below the broadest level, these boundaries bear little relation to the original territories.

The subject headings assigned to the works were coextensive with the subjects treated; however, one subject heading raised a problem: **Indians of North America—Captivities**. The use of the subdivision requires clarification. As displayed it is not clear whether the Indians are being held captive or if they are holding other groups captive. The references do not provide the necessary clarification. Otherwise, Library of Congress subject headings provide quite extensive subject coverage for this group. The following subject headings are objectionable or pejorative:

- Indians of North America as seamen**
- Indians of North America as soldiers**
- Indians of North America—Crime**
- Indians of North America—Liquor problem**

These subjects are not unique to Indian culture and therefore should not be so displayed. They should either be applied to other groups as well or dropped here. The subject heading **Indians of North America, Treatment of** actually means mistreatment by the majority race. Perhaps —**Relations with** [government, etc.] would remove the ambiguity.

No attempt was made to determine the extent to which the names applied to specific groups were in accord with Marshall's principles (though it is well known that many are not). The determination requires study of each individual case. It is recommended that such a study be undertaken.

6. *Third World Peoples*. Only one sample, of Africans in general, was used, so this discussion is not definitive. It does indicate the kinds of problems that arise. Despite some modernizing of the headings, problems remain. **South Africa—Race relations** really means apartheid, while **Native races** as both heading and subdivision is ethnocentric. Berman's proposal of "Colonized peoples" is just as judgmental; his proposed "Peoples" (as a subdivision) is more appropriate.¹⁰ The subdivision —**Discovery and exploration** applied to any continent except Antarctica is decidedly Western in bias; applied to Africa, where humankind may have originated, it is almost ludicrous. If discovery and exploration by Europeans is intended, this should be made explicit.
7. *Gays*. **Homosexuals; Homosexuals, Male; and Lesbians** are the present subject headings for this group. A count showed that forms of *homosexual* and *gay* were used equally in the UCLA sample—seven each, with two more titles using both, and no evidence of a trend over the period from 1971 to 1977 covered by the titles. The FSU sample did show literary warrant for use of the term *gays*. Further research is needed, particularly to determine the preference of the group—information not available with the methodology used.

A review of subject headings used with this material showed that many of the objectionable linkages to and from the main heading **Homosexuality** that existed in prior editions of the Library of Congress subject headings list have been rectified; thus, most of the objections to the syndetic structure have been removed.

8. *Teenagers*. Here again the first problem is in the term to refer to the group as a whole. Only in subject headings are teenagers called *youth* today. *Young adult, youth, kids, grown children, adolescent, and boys* each appeared in one title in the sample, while *young woman (young women)* and *teenage(r)* each appeared in two titles. Literary warrant is of no use whatever in this sample, nor can Marshall's principle of using the name preferred by the group be applied to these findings, since few or none of these books were written by teenagers.

Since no other kind of work is distinguished by intellectual

level in the subject catalog, the subdivision —**Juvenile literature** is questionable. It tells adults that this material is not for them—not always the case. **Children—Management** turned up, and it is to be hoped that something like Berman's “—Guidance and development” will be adopted in its stead. Also found were some extremely awkward headings: **Slow learning children, Books for; Mentally handicapped children, Books for; and Libraries, Young people's.**

9. *Senior Citizens.* The number of times each of these words or phrases appeared in the UCLA sample is as follows: *aged* (1), *aging* (5), *elderly* (4), *geriatric* (1), *gerontological* (1), *old age* (1), and *older adults, Americans, population or workers* (4). Oddly, *senior(s)* did not appear at all. Literary warrant offers little guidance here. A survey at FSU of a representative group of senior citizens involved in the Senior Community Service Employment Program showed that, of the terms normally used to refer to the group, *senior citizen* was the preferred term.

Aged, aging, and **Old age** are the most often used LCSH terms, with **Aging** treated as the narrowest of the three. Unfortunately, books about aging as a process, rather than “the aging” as a group, are not necessarily assigned this heading and are, therefore, lost to the searcher, without even *see also* references to the other terms. Aging should be treated, both in the syndetic structure and in the assignment of headings, as a process that involves us all.

What does **Old age** mean as a subject heading, especially as distinguished from **Aged**? Application of the terms shows no clear distinction, and there are no scope notes for guidance.

The need for more synthesis and for improvements in the syndetic structure is particularly clear with this group. Under **Aged** the only *see also* references to forms of income are to **Retirement income** and **Old age assistance**; and there are also no cross-references to death-related headings. Meanwhile, works on jobs for this group are entered under **Age and employment**. There is no access to materials on the general well-being of aged people who are under institutional care, and works on their activities appear only under the heading **Aged—Recreation**. The heading **Aged—Care and hygiene** appears to be applied only to nursing situations, and not, for instance, to visiting housekeepers.

10. *Handicapped and Disabled Persons.* The works in the various samples were nearly all about specific conditions, and general words such as *disability* and *handicap* tended not to appear in their titles. The nature of the sources was such that the samples were heavily biased toward biography, limiting the range of headings found.

A review of the subject headings used shows that some could be judged objectionable. **Education of the mentally retarded**

would be less objectionable were the heading **Mentally handicapped—Education**, or **Education of the mentally handicapped. Mental deficiency** would be less objectionable were it **Mentally handicapped**.

Mongolism today could perfectly well be replaced by “Down’s syndrome,” and **Idiot**, while keeping a precise technical meaning, has also acquired a much-debased popular one.

Many of the titles in this group were biographies for which no topical subject heading was given. Biographies that dwell on the handicap should be assigned subject headings; however, if the biography of a handicapped individual does not discuss the handicap, no subject heading should be used to call attention to it.

11. *Persons Special Because of Their Alternative Life-Styles*. Alternative life-styles have become increasingly more acceptable in society, and, consequently, more information is being produced on the topic. The term *alternative life-styles* can have many definitions. For this study it was limited to single parents, divorcees, widows, single people, cooperative houses, communes, and unmarried couples.

All subject headings assigned to the works seem suitable. The problems identified in this area were the results of application rather than the design of the system. Too few headings were assigned; thus the topic treated often was inadequately covered.

Findings: Dewey Decimal Classification

Ethnic Groups. The recent provision in Dewey for breakdowns for ethnic, racial, and national groups in many parts of the classification has made it possible to provide emphasis that was formerly not possible. The failure of the classification numbers for many older works in the samples to bring out the ethnic aspect shows that this provision is needed. In fact, its use should be extended.

The phrase *nondominant aggregates* as used in Dewey (301.45) means, approximately, ethnic minorities, and is, to say the least, awkward. Avoidance of the word *minority* is understandable, since such groups in some places form a majority, or at least a plurality. The location of the topic is reasonable and the patron is unlikely to see, let alone be offended by, this heading; s/he will simply find confirmed any latent ideas about the mysterious ways of librarians. Dewey 17 used *Non-dominant groups*; this wording would be preferable.

A deficiency was found for biographical material, in that the ethnic background of individual biographies was not brought out in the class number. To do so could, however, be construed as a form of labeling, unless the biography itself placed a strong emphasis on the ethnicity of the individual.

Ethnic literatures such as Jewish literature likewise are not identifiable through classification. In fact, access to works by and about Jews was found to be poor unless the subject was religion.

One unsuitable Dewey number and one incorrect application were

found. In Private law, 346, the subdivision —013 means "Capacity and status of persons." A note says: "Capacity: the attributes of persons which enable them to perform civil or juristic acts," and examples include women, minors, the aged, persons of unsound mind, slaves, and racial and ethnic groups. Thus, a book about the San Francisco Anti-Chinese Ordinances was classed in 346.79461013 (Private Law. San Francisco. Capacity and status of persons). The legal status and capacity, or lack of them, of a person of unsound mind is not the same thing as that of a Chinese American. Such grouping is inappropriate.

Four works about Chicanos were classed in 301.4516872073 (Sociology. Social structure. Nondominant aggregates of other origins [i.e., *other than* of general, mixed or *North American origin*]. Mexicans in the United States) (*italics ours*). Four titles indicate some kind of erroneous policy rather than a single accident; Mexico is part of North America.

Overall, two recommendations can be made: (1) find better terminology than *nondominant aggregates* for 301.45, and (2) separate racial and ethnic groups from other groups.

Disabled Persons. The Dewey heading that includes people with disabilities is still 362 (Social pathology and its alleviation, as part of social services). Most aspects of nonmedical services to such people, and their ways of coping with their problems, are located here. The placement is acceptable, but the terminology is not. "Social pathology" implies a disease of society, hardly appropriate for writing about a deaf or blind person today.

Other obsolete classifications and terminology are found in medicine at 616.8. Epilepsy, neurological language disorders (aphasia), and "mental deficiency" are all treated as psychoneuroses in this number. The individual searching the shelves for information on mental retardation might notice that the topic is located between compulsive lying and alcoholism. Mental deficiency is also an out-of-date term. Meanwhile, addiction is a psychoneurosis in 616.86 and a mental illness in 362.29; are these really the best categories available today?

Gays. In Dewey, homosexuality in 616.85834 is a character neurosis, one of the "sexual aberrations, manias, perversions," along with nymphomania and sadism. In sociology, the number for gays is 301.4157, under "abnormal sexual relations."

Age Groups. The analysis failed to turn up problems for either teenagers or seniors.

Alternative Life-Styles. These are either totally ignored or buried with topics designed for traditional life-styles.

Findings: LC Classification

Overall, the LC classification was found to be quite out of date in both terminology and placement of subjects. Some updating has been done in recent years, but it is extremely slow.

Ethnic Groups. Many of the works on ethnic groups in the population

tion were placed in E184 (United States. History. Elements in the population) and similar numbers under the states. This number does not provide adequately for the vast amount of literature existing today, and besides, it includes topics such as race problems that hardly belong here. E185 and its decimals are even worse. Everything to do with Afro-Americans, including even intermarriage and civil rights, is here; access to these materials is certainly hindered, and the remaking of this part of the schedules should be an urgent priority. An immediate change in terminology for E184–E185, from “Elements in the population” to “Constituents of the population” (or the equivalent), would be welcome.

Almost all books about native Americans are grouped in E51–99. (American history). The numbers in the range are chronological for the most part but are separated from the general chronology of American history as if this group did not exist after the “discovery” of America. Tribes are provided for with cutter numbers in E99, the most frequently used number. Also, E78 subdivides the subject by place, presenting a conflict in collation, separating books on various tribes. The system should be updated to make provisions for modern aspects of the society of native Americans and their role in the society of the United States as a whole.

The system consistently subsumes Jews under race or nationality, a misuse of the term, since *Jews* is inapplicable to either. In these situations *race* implies Euro-African/South Mediterranean/Semitic/Hebrew; nationality implies Israelite or Israeli. A Jew is a person descended, or regarded as descended, from the Hebrews or a person whose religion is Judaism.

It may improve the system to make a distinction throughout between Jews in Palestine or Israel and Jews in the Diaspora, or to add the term *Diaspora* to include works about Diaspora Jewry.

LC does provide class numbers for biography of some ethnic groups, such as Jews in BM755 and Indians of North America in E89–90, but, like Dewey, it does not provide for ethnic literature.

The internment of the Japanese Americans during World War II is placed in D769.8.A6 (World War II. Military operations. United States. Special topics. Alien enemies). There is really no excuse for such a placement in 1979. A terrible injustice was done to this group of mostly loyal citizens thirty-seven years ago; the invidious label should not be perpetuated in the classification.

Disabled People. Material about services to the disabled is found in HV, Social pathology. Blind and deaf people are located, along with the sick and infirm, in HV1551-3019 (Defectives). It is the heading that is defective here.

The sample on the mentally disadvantaged turned up several areas of bad terminology. Child culture, study, etc., is together with Eugenics in HQ750–799. *Eugenics* may once have meant any effort to improve the race, including improvement in the raising of children, but its meaning today is limited generally to efforts to “improve” the

gene pool. LC4001-4801 is Education of defective children, including the destitute, physically defective (e.g., blind, crippled), mentally defective and backward, and morally defective children. These should be updated analogously to HV3004-3008 where "Feeble minded children" has become "Mentally handicapped children." Meanwhile, education of the blind is placed in HV rather than in L (Education). The "defectives" in HV are limited to the blind, the deaf and dumb, the feeble-minded, and the insane. Other types of physical and mental handicaps, including multiple handicaps, have no similar section, pejorative or not, for their social aspects and adjustments.

Gays. Most works were classified in HQ76 (Social groups. Sex relations. Abnormal sex relations. Homosexuality), a placement that is both out of date and pejorative.

Seniors. Works about senior citizens are classified in HD7090-7250 (Working men's insurance and social security) and HQ1060-1064 (The Family. Marriage. Home). Neither of these provides adequate access.

Alternative Life-Styles. As a fairly new topic in an older classification, some adjustments will need to be made in assigning classification numbers in order to accommodate this topic. The Library of Congress classification invariably links Marriage, Family, and Home when, in reality, marriage and family are not necessarily connected. A heading for just Family without a link to Marriage would be in order to accommodate both unconventional and conventional family groups. Otherwise the coverage is adequate.

Alternative approaches to sexual experiences (termed Abnormal sex relations) are treated under Family/Marriage/Woman. This is sexist because it includes references only to women and not to men.

Works on communal living as an alternative life-style are classified as general works on communism. This classification seems extremely inadequate and biased.

Conclusions

Subject Headings. The process of catching up after years of outdated subject headings is well begun, but there is still some distance to go. The following changes in subject headings are recommended:

1. Abandon objectification.
2. Synthesize complex concepts.
3. Limit subdivisions —FOREIGN POPULATION and —FOREIGN INFLUENCES to works about people not born in the U.S.
4. Limit or abandon terms with negative connotations such as —RACE QUESTION and ACCULTURATION.
5. Continue the switch to the names used by the people themselves. In particular, investigate "Gays," "Chicanos," and names of native American peoples.
6. Rationalize terminology relating to the aging process.
7. Add more scope notes.

8. Abandon or redistribute certain subdivisions that reinforce stereotypes.
9. Reword some objectionable terms such as INDIANS OF NORTH AMERICA, TREATMENT OF and INDIANS OF NORTH AMERICA—CAPTIVITIES, to present a more accurate indication of the subject.
10. Undertake to determine from the groups themselves the best labels for such groups as Gays, Indians, Senior citizens, Hippies.
11. Apply topical subject headings to biographies and fiction when warranted by a discussion of the topic in the work.
12. Add new terminology to cover new topics as they appear in publications.

Classification: General.

1. Display the history of native Americans so that it reflects its relationship to the history of the United States where possible.
2. Reflect modern views on the treatment of homosexuality.
3. Update and broaden terminology relating to the handicapped to include all aspects of the subject.
4. Update the system to accommodate alternative life-styles.

Dewey Classification. The following recommendations may not cover all the problems, but they do represent the major ones found in this study.

1. In medicine, limit psychoneuroses to conditions generally accepted as neurotic today. Relocate epilepsy, neurological speech disorders, mental retardation, and homosexuality.
2. Examine closely any number where such groups as women, slaves, and ethnic groups are mixed together.
3. Continue breaking up indiscriminate groupings as in the splitting off of homosexuality (301.4157) from perversions and sex life outside marriage (301.415).
4. Change "Nondominant aggregates" (301.45)—perhaps back to the "Nondominant groups" of edition 17.
5. Change "Social pathology."

LC Classification. Problems of obsolescent terminology are most obvious here, but some relocations are needed. This analysis throughout was dependent on the publicly available versions of the LC classification. This restriction means that, while the numbers located are presumably correct, the investigators did not have access to any changes that may have been made in wording of the captions. This approach is considered justified because only the catalogers at LC have access to anything more current than was used for the study; the concern here is with the effect of policies on the field.

1. Revise terminology for Afro-Americans (E185) and relocate to the appropriate places in the classification.
2. Relocate and revise terminology for other ethnic groups in the population in E-F.
3. Revise terminology for the disabled, retarded, senior citizens,

and children in H. Get rid of terms such as *defectives*. Revise terminology in L for special education.

4. Change the classification in H so that homosexuals are not classified as deviants.

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APPENDIX 2 GROUPS INCLUDED IN THE STUDY

After each group is an indication of which of the two studies included it and the bibliographies used.

- Africa and Africans (UCLA: Hennepin County)
- Alternative life-styles (FSU: Casler, Constantine and Constantine, Kanter, O'Brien, Silverman, Hunt and Hunt)
- Blind people (UCLA: Mullins and Wolfe)
- Chinese Americans (UCLA: Cashman)
- Deaf, deaf-blind, and mute people (UCLA: Mullins and Wolfe)
- Ethnicity in America (UCLA: Weed)
- Gays (FSU: Parker; UCLA: ALA SRRT)
- General handicaps (FSU: Cohen, Mullins and Wolfe)
- Injuries and illnesses (UCLA: Mullins and Wolfe)
- Italian Americans (UCLA: Diodati)
- Japanese Americans (UCLA: Cashman)
- Jewish Americans (FSU: Buttlar and Wynar; UCLA: Cashman)
- Mentally disadvantaged (UCLA: Mullins and Wolfe)
- Mexican Americans (FSU: Buttlar and Wynar)
- Minorities in the U.S. economy (UCLA: Univ. of Calif., Santa Barbara)
- Native Americans (FSU: Buttlar and Wynar)
- Physical handicaps (UCLA: Mullins and Wolfe)
- Puerto Rican Americans (UCLA: Cashman)
- Senior citizens (FSU: Hennepin County; UCLA: Balkema)
- Teenagers (UCLA: Mullins and Wolfe)

The Essentials or Desiderata of the Bibliographic Record as Discovered by Research

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From this review of some research on the use of bibliographic sources—largely catalog use studies—it appears that the existing bibliographic apparatus has usually proved successful. In most studies the majority of users find what they are looking for. However, many questions have not been asked. There are, for example, at least four functions for a bibliographic source (finding list, gathering, collocating, and evaluative) and at least three modes of organization for information (the use of terms to name an access point, the use of content identifiers to label the type of data, and natural language); but the majority of studies have investigated the use of sources where access is defined through choice of entry and where the user's need was either to find an item or to find material by a given author or on a given subject.

The fact that some searches fail has led to two complementary types of suggestion for improved choice of entry in these files, but these two types of suggestion have not been integrated into a single coherent program. One suggestion is to increase the number of access points for each work, usually by increasing the number of title and permuted title entries. Another suggestion is to analyze further the problems involved in choice of entry so as to define a consistent set of principles such that the choice of entry for any given work would be predictable.

These same two suggestions have been made for the choice of subject entry as well as for descriptive entry. Thus, increased use of title entries could lead to increased subject access for the user who wants something on a subject. Similarly, suggestions pertaining to choice of entry for subjects have led to such proposals as that for gedanken indexing, and suggestions pertaining to the choice of name for subjects have led to various systems of specific and coextensive subject names.

There is need for further research in order to synthesize these various findings into a coherent system that defines the relations between these various studies.

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IN A GENERAL SENSE the term *bibliographic access* refers both to the process of gaining information about publications and to the sources that the searcher consults in order to gain the information. Studies of the use of the sources—usually catalog use studies—often involve a certain circularity. The bibliographic sources exemplify the best judgment of the bibliographer or cataloger, and the searchers' procedures are limited to the choices that the sources permit. As a consequence the studies conclude that some alternatives are more important to the user than others, but few studies begin by asking what are the appropriate functions that a bibliographic source should fulfill and what are the best modes of arrangement for sources that answer those questions.

The four functions that are commonly identified as appropriate for bibliographic sources are the so-called finding list or identifying function, the gathering function, the collocating function, and the evaluative or selecting function. Discussions of these functions can all be traced at least as far back as Cutter, but the collocating function is not specifically mentioned in his oft-quoted "Objects" for a catalog. Thus, the finding list function is

1. To enable a user to find a book of which either
 - a) the author
 - b) the title
 - c) the subject } is known.¹

The gathering function is

2. to show what the library has
 - d) by a given author
 - e) on a given subject
 - f) in a given kind of literature.²

The latter part of this function is usually fulfilled at the present time through the use of specialized bibliographies for such forms of work or material as fiction, newspapers, sound recordings, maps, etc., but the subject part of a library catalog does include some form headings and some subject headings with form subdivisions.

The collocating function consists of assembling related headings in a group. Supposedly (although there is little evidence one way or the other) such assemblages assist searchers by leading them from one term to other, more specific or appropriate, terms. Such assemblages are best exemplified in a classed catalog—thus many of the headings in the British Museum Subject Index are alphabetically classed subject names—but several of Cutter's practices have led to extensive collocation in a dictionary catalog. For example, in many catalogs, some corporate bodies (including governments) and some subject headings are collocated under place name, thus:

Chicago. City Council
Chicago. Clarence Buckingham Fountain

Chicago. First National Bank
Chicago—Politics and Government

The full extent of such collocation in catalogs has never been measured, and there are no adequate studies of its value for bibliographic searching. In a study of the subject headings listed in Sears, Sinkankas found that 64.5 percent of these headings were members of so-called *syntactic groups*, i.e., of groups where two or more subject headings begin with the same word.³ Since this study was limited to subject headings, there is no indication of the degree of collocation for a dictionary catalog where author and title entries are also included. Furthermore, since the data were taken from a printed authority list, they did not include those subject headings that are synthesized either through the use of such devices as form or place subdivisions, non-print headings, or representative (or key) headings or through the application of catalog code rules for proper names. Thus, the extent of collocation in an authority list was measured but not that in an actual bibliographic list.

The evaluative or selective function was defined somewhat narrowly by Cutter:

3. to assist in the choice of a book
 - g) as to its edition (bibliographically)
 - h) as to its character (literary or topical).⁴

The information for fulfilling this function in library catalogs is commonly limited to details of the bibliographic descriptions compiled under a subject heading. In one study derived from Project Intrex (and based on an extremely small data base), it was found that the most important fields for this purpose included the title field, the subject terms, and the abstract. The ability of any field to indicate the utility of a document for a searcher correlated with its length.⁵ However, the knowledge of subject experts as reported in book reviews or selective lists is seldom encoded into catalogs or other inclusive lists, even though the need for such information is widely recognized. (See, for example, the papers of Maltby and Duxbury and of Menzel.)^{6,7}

Although all four of these functions are commonly regarded as necessary aspects of catalogs and bibliographies, the available empirical studies of bibliographic searching pertain almost exclusively to the first two functions, i.e., to the finding list or identifying function and to the gathering function. One investigator even reported that some questionnaires were discarded when it was found that the patrons were using the catalog in order to select a publication rather than to find either a publication or a list of publications.⁸

There are at least three ways in which to organize and present information: (1) through the use of terms and proper names that designate categories or individuals; (2) through the use of content identifiers that designate a type of information; and (3) through the use of natural language (rather than terms). Existing bibliographic sources

usually exemplify the first mode of organization, and most of our knowledge of bibliographic access is derived either from empirical studies of catalog use or from analytical studies of the choice and form of names. However, machine-readable records necessarily include content identifiers, and it now appears that such identifiers are useful in printed lists as well. Although natural language is the common mode of communication for other information, it is rarely mentioned as a choice for bibliographic access to data.

Two sets of content identifiers are currently used in bibliographic records. They are the prescribed punctuation first introduced in the *International Standard Bibliographic Description* and now adopted in the *Anglo-American Cataloging Rules* and the system of tags, indicators, and subfield codes of the MARC format for machine-readable catalog records.⁹⁻¹¹ The procedures for assigning content identifiers to bibliographic records are, in some respects, logically simpler than the procedures for assigning terms that name categories. Briefly, each piece of information that is to be separately identified is classified by the list maker as an example of a specific type of information and the symbol that identifies that type of information is then assigned. The sequence of information is defined by the logic of the content identifiers rather than the sequence of information in the publication described. Thus, for example, once a statement has been identified as a publisher statement it is recorded as element 2 of area 3 (in the present code) and introduced by a space-colon-space. In a MARC record, it is assigned a location addressed by tag 260 and introduced by subfield code \$b.

Such systems have several obvious advantages. The use of content identifiers implies an efficient use of space for variable-length records in machine-readable form. The identifiers are easier and faster to define than any system of specific names. They enable the user who knows their meaning to interpret a record accurately—thus, for example, the reader of a modern catalog record can identify the publisher statement from the content identifiers without necessarily recognizing the name of the publisher or knowing the language of the record. In a study of a somewhat different character, Barney suggested that content identifiers could be used to define similar formats for entries compiled in different publications (e.g., botanical flora).¹² Furthermore, editors could use such a system as a checklist in order to identify both necessary and desirable information for each entry. He points to several publications where the entries include less than the optimum amount of data and suggests that the existence of a format would emphasize the need for such types of data. Finally, at least in machine-readable files, such devices can be used for retrieval. The procedure is almost certainly always defined as a serial search of the file and for complex searches can be defined as a form of Boolean logic as well. Since the content identifiers label only the type of information, searchers must identify all names and forms of names they

will accept. For example, publications of Alfred Knopf, Inc., might exemplify such variations in publisher's statement as Alfred A. Knopf, A. A. Knopf, Alfred Knopf, A. Knopf, Knopf, or even Borzoi Books, depending upon variations in catalog codes or variations in the catalogers' interpretation of the codes. Apparently, there have been only a few studies of the problems of access in such files, and none of these studies have investigated the problem of similar information appearing in different forms.

A number of catalog use studies have been undertaken in order to identify both the ways in which library catalogs are used and the reasons for failure in the use of the catalog. Three of the more extensive studies were Jackson's early study of catalog use in thirty-nine libraries and two later studies, one of the public library and university catalogs in Ann Arbor by Tagliacozzo and others and the other a study by Lipetz of the catalog at Yale University.¹³⁻¹⁵ Several other studies were also reported, and some of these have been summarized by Bates and by Montague as well as in the more recent study by Lancaster.¹⁶⁻¹⁸

Although these studies varied greatly in detail, it was found that typical catalog searches were either for an item that the user knew to exist or for material on a subject, i.e., for two of the known functions of a catalog. There was little or no attempt to identify other types of function that might be important for bibliographic access. In some discussions the known item searches were correlated with the use of author and title entries and the finding list function of the catalog, while subject searches were correlated with the use of subject headings and the gathering function of the catalog. These correlations are approximately true, but they are not exactly true. In both the Ann Arbor and Yale University studies, it was found that subject headings were used for a few known item searches and, at Yale, Lipetz specifically reported that 6 percent of the author searches were for the purpose of identifying the works of an author.

The most important finding of these studies is that the majority of catalog searches were successful—but all studies report a significant number of searches that ended in failure. In general the number of failures increased as the size of the catalog increased. Furthermore, the failure rate for subject searches was usually greater than for known item searches. In addition, it may be that known item searches are more common in academic libraries than other libraries, but here the evidence is inconclusive. Several studies, including Jackson's, reported that the distribution between these two types of searches was approximately fifty-fifty (e.g., 48 percent known item searches and 52 percent subject searches in Jackson's study). However, graduate students and faculty were most likely to undertake known item searches, and the two studies that included large samples from university catalogs reported a preponderance of known item over subject searches (65.1 percent of the searches at Ann Arbor and 78 percent

of the searches at Yale were for known items). Jackson reported that subject expertise did not improve the success rate for subject searches, and this finding has been repeated in subsequent studies.

Moreover, although it is probably true for all searches, it has repeatedly been observed that in the average subject search, the user looks in one place and does not follow cross-references. Thus, the collocating function may be of great importance for lists that are accessed manually.

These studies are reassuring. They tell us that the traditional choices for entry are successful most of the time. However, the results also give rise to two different types of question. First, the failure rate is disturbingly high. Second, because so many questions went unasked, these studies do not provide an adequate basis for defining a set of performance requirements for future bibliographic systems.

The lowest failure rate for known item searches was that reported by Lipetz. He found that 10 percent of the searches failed because the material was not in the collection, 1 percent failed because the information in the query was too abbreviated to be identifiable, and 6 percent of the searches failed even though the card was in the catalog and findable, given the searcher's description.

The fact that the collection failed in 10 percent of the searches is startling. Technological solutions come to mind immediately. The library could expand its holdings greatly through the use of microforms without increasing the need for storage space. Alternatively, users could be given on-line access to machine-readable catalogs for other collections. Any solution to the problem of collection inadequacies would involve difficulties and expenditures, but there is a widespread realization that it would be better to undertake reasoned investigations of the alternatives than to blunder on.^{19,20}

In principle, there are two different ways in which to reduce the number of those catalog searches that are unsuccessful even though the catalog record is in the file. The choice and form of access points could be changed so that access points become more predictable or additional access points could be defined so as to serve different user needs. There is a body of literature pertaining to each approach. The first body of literature is associated with the analytical thinking of code development and the second body of literature is associated with statistical analysis of empirical data.

During the past twenty-five years the literature pertaining to catalog codes has exhibited a significant change in emphasis. Formerly, questions pertaining to choice and form of name were often decided according to what the working librarian believed to be user expectation. As a result there were many inconsistencies. As recently as 1967 Spalding pointed out that the term *main entry* (or "author entry," as it is often called in catalog use studies) was an ambiguous term. In many contexts it designates the name most closely associated with the work—e.g., a serial whose title included the name of a sponsoring

body was, at that time, entered under the corporate name; and in other cases the entry for a work consisted of a combination of the name most closely associated with a work and a term designating the form or category of the work, e.g., Australia. Constitution.²¹

Subject headings are similarly ambiguous. Supposedly, a subject heading tells what a work is about, but form headings—e.g., **Science Fiction**—name the form of the work. These various ambiguities in the referent of a heading are sometimes explained as convenient for the user. After reviewing some of the variations in form of corporate name, Lubetzky concluded: "It is, then, as an exploit in reader psychology that we have evolved a maze of rules in the apparent belief that although the cataloger may have to grope his way, he will lead the reader surely to the desired destination."²²

This study of Lubetzky's was probably the turning point. Since then, catalogers have gradually come to the conclusion that a set of consistent principles consistently applied will serve their users better than a series of ad hoc choices that appear, individually, convenient but that, when taken as a group, exhibit a variety of different interpretations of such words as either *authorship* or *the subject of a work*. Analytical studies have been undertaken to identify the alternative choices for entry, name, and form of name so that codes can be defined in a consistent manner. In a study of medieval names, Macey identified five different forms of name and described their use in various reference sources.²³ In her study of corporate names, Verona not only identified different choices for name and form of name but also identified several different bases for choice of entry such as "corporate activity" and "sponsoring body" or "promulgating jurisdiction" and "jurisdiction governed."²⁴ However, when she argues both (1) that sponsoring bodies and jurisdictions governed are inappropriate in the author catalog because they are examples of names most closely associated with the work and (2) that users are more likely to look for the constitution of Australia under the name of the jurisdiction governed, Australia, rather than under the name of the promulgating jurisdiction, Great Britain, it becomes clear that this is only the first step in a necessary analysis.²⁵ What is needed next is an analysis of the full set of functions that access points may fulfill—e.g., author, name most closely associated with the work, jurisdiction governed, etc.—together with an analysis of the types of name that fulfill each type of function. With such a framework it would prove possible to test and then define the necessary forms of descriptive access points for works under varying circumstances.

There have been several attempts to identify additional types of entry that should be included in a catalog in order to reduce the failure rate for both known item and subject searches. A common finding is that the failure rate for known item searches could be reduced if there were more title added entries. Tate, for example, found that the titles in bibliographic citations match titles in catalog records more often

than do the names of the authors.²⁶ Similarly, in the study of catalog use at Ann Arbor it was found that, although known item searches usually began with the author, the author information was correct only 41.9 percent of the time while the title information was correct 70.0 percent of the time.²⁷

A series of experimental studies, known as the Requirements Study for Future Catalogs, were undertaken in the late sixties. The findings from these studies both gave further support to the idea that better access through title was necessary and also identified some other categories of access points that could be appropriate for future systems. One important feature of the requirements study was an attempt to identify the access points that a user might remember about a known work. In order to obtain this information subjects were asked to select five publications from a collection and make some notes as to why these works were interesting. After several weeks they were asked to describe these publications by filling out a questionnaire that asked about both standard and nonstandard features. Thirty-seven percent of the responses identified titles that were findable in a conventional public catalog but 80 percent of the titles could have been found in a fully permuted title index. Accordingly, Don Swanson (director of the project) recommended that future catalogs include rather full title word indexes.²⁸

The nonstandard features were what Cooper described as weak clues. They included such items as type of binding, presence of an index, use of quotations, etc. Such features could characterize several thousand publications in a library of any size. However, Cooper speculated that a computer program could be written that would reduce the expected search length by a ratio of 500 to one. This expected search length, incidentally, is the number of documents the searcher would reject before finding the known item. The search program would take certain probabilities into account and search a machine-readable data base on various combinations of weak clues.

To the extent that the conditions of the memory experiment can be assumed to reflect future retrieval conditions, and to the extent that the statistics of the University of Chicago library are typical of document collections in general, it can be said that optimal use of all nonstandard information possessed by a library patron about a document with which he has had previous contact would result in reducing by a ratio of something like 500 to one the expected search effort [i.e., the number of catalog records] necessary for him to locate the document in a large collection.²⁹

Of course, in large collections, such a reduction would not be effective unless standard clues were used first to reduce the list of possible alternatives to around ten thousand items. For this reason, Cooper suggested that an automated index of weak clues might prove an appropriate supplement to some form of printed catalog.

One intriguing finding of the requirements study pertains to subject headings. Respondents often suggested subject headings that matched

(at least in part) existing subject headings, but these headings often were not the headings that had been assigned to the publications in question. Marcia Bates also reports similar results in another, more recent study. In this case student respondents (including library school students and other subject specialists) were asked first to examine a book and then to suggest subject headings that could be used to locate other books on the same topic. In interpreting the results, Bates assumed that those headings that matched (at least in part) the headings that were in fact assigned to the book were more successful, and she reports the results, thus:

Nonlibrary students are getting the best material in a subject search (basic matching rate) only a little over a fifth of the time (~20%), whereas students with library training succeed over a third of the time (35%). It would appear, however, that everyone feels successful most of the time . . . because the heading they look up in the catalog is all or partly matched, and will, of course, have some books listed under it. To put this another way, we may surmise that nonlibrary students actually find the best material on a subject about a third of the time that they think they have found the best material (~20%/60%). Even library students actually find the best material only a little over half the time that they think they have on the first try.³⁰

Bates concludes that, with automation, it may prove possible to develop some more redundant rather than specific forms of subject access. Such systems will lead catalog users to appropriate listings of materials. At the present time, it is likely that this is accomplished only through browsing or through the collocation of related headings in the catalog.

These findings on subject catalog use are far from conclusive, however. There are two other questions that need to be resolved before we can define the types of subject access that are important for users. These questions pertain to the choice of subject entries for a given publication and to the choice of a name and form of name for that subject entry. There is a large body of literature pertaining to each of these questions but there are no studies that relate our knowledge of the one problem to our knowledge of the other.

Thus, several studies report upon the relevance of various documents to given queries and, by inference, on the relevance of the terms that retrieved these documents. *Relevance* is often assumed to mean the sense in which the subject headings and the documents they represent are "about" a given topic. Thus, the choice of a subject entry is determined by knowledge of what the work is about. But this is somewhat vague. In a recent review Saracevic has identified several more precise (and varying) definitions.³¹ Some years ago Wilson identified two different meanings of *relevance*, and most discussions of the term can be grouped approximately with one of these two meanings. He used the word *relevance* to indicate "aboutness" and *utility* to indicate the ability of a document to resolve a problem.³²

Existing systems of bibliographic access are inadequate for identify-

ing the utility of works because indexers have been unable to predict all of the uses for any given work. What is needed is a system that combines a knowledge of the subject and its literature with the ability to relate this knowledge to the problems defined by specific scholars. At least four different methods have been proposed for implementing such a system and none of these methods have been fully evaluated. Cooper has proposed a theory of gedanken indexing that is based on the assumption that indexers can identify the utility of a text.³³ He admits that experimental studies will be needed in order to provide gedanken indexers with necessary data on which to base their choices. Others have assumed that only individual scholars can judge the utility of a text for their problems. If so, we will need systems that include more of those fields that facilitate evaluation and selection—especially abstracts and summaries.³⁴ Wilson, however, thought that extremely able subject experts (or “bibliographic consultants,” as he called them) could often perform this task, and this is a widespread opinion. White, for example, recommends that academic libraries provide specialized reference services for research—perhaps assigning one librarian subject specialist to each department of a university.³⁵ Possibly, an automated system that could scan printed texts knowledgeably would do as well, but the available research suggests either that this will never be possible or that the complexities of such a system are so great that it will not soon be possible, for, in order to define a series of algorithms that a machine could use in order to interpret text, it would be necessary to define language (or at least most occurrences of language) as examples of a definable model—i.e., to define language as a deterministic process.

In one study undertaken jointly at the University of Georgia and the University of California, Los Angeles, a series of interviews between the users and the reference librarians were analyzed in some detail. One purpose of this study was to identify those parts of the procedures that could be described formally. Briggs has reported specifically on the results at UCLA. An analysis of these results led him to the conclusion that

the interaction between the user and the intermediary is not a linear process, despite descriptions to the contrary in the literature. The process is non-deterministic and is characterized by the ability of the human intermediary to adapt it to the particular needs of the user.³⁶

However, the data discussed in this study differ greatly from the data discussed in other studies of linguistic behavior. The interviews covered a wide subject area and there were no restrictions on the linguistic structures employed within the interviews. In linguistic studies the investigator usually identifies a very narrow range of linguistic behavior and then, through analysis, is able to identify deterministic models that account for this particular aspect of linguistic behavior. The overwhelming majority of such studies investigate syntactic be-

havior, and often the investigator is able to describe the behavior in question in terms of some generalized model of syntactic behavior. Such generalized models include, for example, the transformational models of language first introduced by Chomsky or the depth hypothesis of Yngve.^{37,38} Thus, for example, in one study I was able to describe several characteristics of relative clauses that are predictable in character.³⁹

A few studies have investigated areas that are more clearly semantic in character. One of the early investigators in this area was Ward H. Goodenough, an anthropologist, who first studied anthropological linguistics and then applied some of these methods of linguistic analysis to such semantic categories as, for example, those that define kinship groups in various cultures.⁴⁰

There are a large number of such studies and each accounts for a rather narrow range of linguistic behavior. It is reasonable to suppose that some of them could be combined into a larger, more complex model that could account for some proportion of linguistic behavior. Furthermore, this proportion might be useful in some instances for developing models that could be used to scan texts to identify some types of information. However, no such model is available at the present time.

The systems for defining the choice of a subject name and its form are usually differentiated on the basis of whether they exemplify controlled or uncontrolled vocabulary. Systems of controlled vocabulary are usually further differentiated into those that name specific subjects (such as Library of Congress subject headings) and those that name specific subjects that are coextensive with the subject of the work (PRECIS, for example). The differences between these types of system are well known, but there are no studies that relate these differences to the needs of catalog users.

Since systems of uncontrolled vocabulary commonly use phrases from the titles of works as access points, these systems are equivalent in content to the previously mentioned proposals for enriched access under titles of works as an aid for known item searches. When used as systems for subject access, these systems exemplify two widely known weaknesses, but the effect of these weaknesses on user access to materials has never been investigated. These two weaknesses were noted by Cutter as well as by almost every person who has written on the relation between morphology and semantics.

First, there are those cases in which different combinations of words have substantially the same meaning—e.g., "Church History" and "Ecclesiastical History." Second, terms in a specific context often have a narrower or even different meaning from that generally assigned to the term—e.g., Channing's sermon "On a Future Life" in fact dealt only with heaven.⁴¹

It is odd that systems of uncontrolled vocabulary have not been more seriously studied, for they are faster and less costly to prepare

than other lists. In a recent discussion of this issue it was suggested that uncontrolled vocabulary might often be adequate for subject searches, since users often seek only one or two items rather than everything on the subject:

Natural language indexing may provide subject control as effective as subject control needs to be. Experimental proof is lacking, yet experience tends to support the belief that many users, perhaps a majority, desire only a few documents relevant to their search topics. This being the case, almost any search term a user chooses will retrieve something.⁴²

In systems of controlled vocabulary, the indexer is required to introduce all new subject names into an authority list first and then extract the needed names from the list. There are two reasons for this requirement. First, it ensures that all works on the same topic are listed under the same form of subject name, thus fulfilling the gathering function for subjects in the list. Second, this form of file makes it possible to control the existence of cross-references that lead a user from one subject name to another related subject. In practice, the existence of authority lists has also encouraged the use of obsolete terms such as **Aeroplanes** rather than **Airplanes**. This unfortunate effect is particularly obvious in systems that have been in use for a considerable period of time, such as Library of Congress subject headings (LCSH).

In direct and specific systems the indexer may assign as many subject names as are appropriate to the work as a whole, and these names are (supposedly) given in direct and specific form without reference to including topics, e.g., **Disabled Vehicles on Express Highways**. However, in *LCSH* there are many headings such as **Chicago—Streets—State Street** and **Thrush (Mouth Disease)**, where including topics are named as either the first or last element of the subject name.

In a system of coextensive subject names, each subject name represents an appropriately defined sequence of terms that names the entire subject of the work as a whole. In addition, *PRECIS* incorporates a comparatively simple mechanism for producing multiple entries under several carefully defined permutations of each subject name. This form of permutation is called *shunting* in order to distinguish it from the more routine types of permutations that are characteristic of, say, a permuted title index.

There are no studies that convincingly measure discrepancies between direct and coextensive systems of subject analysis in terms of their effect on user access. Richmond has reported on a comparison between subject names assigned to a group of publications in the *British National Bibliography* (which uses *PRECIS* for the alphabetical index) and on the catalog records produced in Library of Congress.⁴³ This study shows that *PRECIS* headings included many terms that were not represented by any of the Library of Congress subject names, but it does not show either that these terms could not have been represented in *LCSH* through the use of additional subject head-

ings or that the use of such terms would be of added help in subject searches—although both possibilities appear reasonable.

In one study of user preferences in published indexes their preferences were related to differences in the character of the subject names, but the evidence is not quite conclusive. Seventy-three percent of the subscribers to *Science Abstracts* used *Engineering Index* frequently and 63 percent used *British Technology Index* frequently. However, only 13 percent of the subscribers used *Engineering Index* first, as compared with 38 percent who used *British Technology Index* first. Since the subject names in *British Technology Index* represent a form of coextensive subject heading while the subject names in *Engineering Index* are specific, the investigator hypothesized that one reason for turning to *British Technology Index* first was that

[The subject index names] are highly precoordinated and this degree of specificity results in only a few entries beneath each heading. Quick reference can be made to each heading. . . . *Engineering Index*, in which an exhaustive search can be more satisfactorily carried out, is used as a second choice. In *Engineering Index* broader subject headings encompass more documents and the abstracts provide greater descriptive detail on which relevance may be assessed.⁴⁴

However, the tables in this study also show that the users considered *Engineering Index* to be not only more exhaustive and more accurate but also far less current than *British Technology Index*. This factor could well account for the reported differences in use of the two indexes without any reference to the character of the subject names.

Thus, in summary, it appears that while we know a great deal about specific aspects of the problem of bibliographic access to publications, we do not have a fully developed theory that would define the alternative choices and, as a consequence, there are no studies that relate these choices to the various, often unrecognized, types of questions that the user asks. We know some of the functions of a bibliographic list and we know something about user behavior in relation to some of these functions. We know some different modes for the organization of bibliographic information but we do not know how these different modes relate to user needs. For systems in which organization is defined by the use of terms, we know some alternative choices for entry and some alternative choices for names and forms of names. Furthermore, we know something about the way in which users consult such lists, but we do not know the relationship between these various choices for entry, name, and form of name on the one hand and user needs on the other. What we need is an overall theory that would enable us to define relationships between the findings of various studies.

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*REVISION OF ANSI STANDARD
FOR LIBRARY MATERIALS PRICE INDEXES*

The American National Standards Committee Z39 Subcommittee I: **Price Indexes for Library Materials** has been formed to revise the existing standard Z39.20, adopted in 1974. The members of the subcommittee are Jeffrey Gardner, Association of Research Libraries; Robert C. Sullivan, Library of Congress; and Sally Williams, Harvard College Library. The subcommittee is now seeking suggestions from the library community. Indexes based upon the current ANSI standards are formulated by the ALA Library Materials Price Index Committee, a committee of the Resources Section, RTSD, and published annually in the *Bowker Annual of Library and Book Trade Information*. If you have used price indexes in the past with less than satisfactory results, now is the time to make recommendations for improvements. Send your comments to Fred C. Lynden, Chair, ANSI Subcommittee I, Rockefeller Library, Brown University, Providence, RI 02912.

Reprographic Services in American Libraries*

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This paper evaluates data gathered in the seventh edition of the Directory of Library Reprographic Services (1978) in terms of the kinds of institutions listed and the types of reprographic services offered. It also reviews some issues of administrative involvement in library reprographic services raised by other studies.

Introductory Remarks

The importance of reprography as a copying and duplicating service to the library user and staff is generally well recognized, and photoduplicating units are now permanently established in many American libraries. Although much has been written about the procedures and organization of reprographic services in individual libraries, relatively little is currently available about the general pattern evolving from the continuously expanding applications of this technology.

An overview of such services and processes may be of value to library administrators and to the supervisors of reprographic units. Managers may be interested in the assessment of the relative importance of different aspects of reprography, and they may wish to review various scales of charges for those services as adopted by other libraries. The reprographic specialists may consider using such a summary as a model for comparison with other institutions. They may also want to use the present analysis as supportive data in recommending modifications of their own operations.

This paper attempts to identify some characteristics of reprographic services primarily by reviewing information received from the 481 American institutions listed in the seventh edition of the *Directory of*

*This is a condensed and considerably revised version of a paper entitled "Emerging Profile of Reprographic Services in American Libraries," published as a microfiche supplement to the seventh edition of the *Directory of Library Reprographic Services*.

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Library Reprographic Services,¹ referred to in this paper as the *Directory*, and by interpreting data of a small study on administrative issues in reprography conducted by the author in 1977.

The study consisted of a questionnaire forwarded to fifty specialists in library reprography requesting selected information about reprographic activities in their institutions. Although only twelve questionnaires were returned, the answers, considered in terms of the study by Boone in 1964,² offer additional reinforcement of the pattern of services that emerges from the data published in the *Directory*.

The types of material duplicated in libraries are diversified. Reprography is used in duplicating catalog cards, in reproducing missing pages from volumes in the collection, and in providing copied material for interlibrary loan requests. Other services include duplication of various bibliographies, lists of holdings, administrative documents, correspondence, and procedures.

Reprographic Services in the United States

The current edition of the *Directory* is most probably the largest available single compilation of reprographic services. Although worldwide in scope, the *Directory* contains 484 U.S. entries (more than 81 percent of all the entries in this edition), and the data listed in it represent the kinds of services most often found in American libraries.* The distribution of services in the *Directory* is listed in table 1, which presents figures on the availability of various reprographic services in the 481 libraries of the United States listed in the *Directory*.

The distribution of the 481 libraries by type is shown in table 2. These libraries are located throughout the fifty states and three territories.

Analysis of the geographical distribution of libraries offering services, presented in table 3, shows the highest concentration of institutions offering reprographic services to be in the northeastern and the lowest to be in the northwestern United States, with almost 30 percent in the central part of the country.

On the whole, it seems that the dispersion of the coverage is satisfactory, providing a good base for possible development of regional reprographic centers at some time in the future.

In the following sections, individual types of reprographic services are discussed in the order of their listing in the *Directory*.

Electrostatic Copies. Table 4 presents figures on the costs charged and time required for producing direct copies from printed documents by xerography or electrofax.

As indicated in table 4, a large majority of libraries charge between five cents and twenty-five cents per electrostatic exposure. Within this range, more than 63 percent charge ten cents per exposure, close to

*All tabulations in this paper exclude data from three libraries received after this study was completed.

20 percent fifteen cents per exposure, and slightly more than 5 percent list twenty-five cents per page copied. Each of the other charges, five cents and twenty cents, was listed by fewer than 5 percent of all reporting libraries.

TABLE 1
SERVICES OFFERED BY U.S. LIBRARIES (N = 481)

Product	Available		Not Available		No Answer	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Electrostatic Copy	419	87.1	—	—	62	12.9
Photographic Prints	136	28.3	212	44.1	133	27.7
35mm Negative Microfilm	196	40.8	180	37.4	105	21.8
35mm Positive Microfilm	170	35.3	191	39.7	120	24.9
Positive/Negative Microform	107	22.2	227	47.2	147	30.6
Hard Copy	275	57.2	110	22.9	96	19.9
Locally Generated Computerized Tools	112	23.3	—	—	369	76.7
Others*	135	28.1	—	—	346	71.9
Interlibrary Loan Services:						
Original Dissertations Lent	249	51.8	129	26.8	103	21.4
Filmed by Xerox for Purchase	198	41.2	155	32.2	128	26.6
Filmed Locally for Purchase	98	20.4	209	43.4	174	36.2
Serials Services	96	20.0	247	51.3	138	28.7

*Includes such services as slides, color prints, etc. See table 11.

TABLE 2
LIBRARIES OFFERING SERVICES BY TYPE

Type of Institution	Reporting Institutions	
	Number	Percent
Universities	271	56.3
Colleges	54	11.2
State Libraries	36	7.5
Public Libraries	30	6.2
Historical Societies	25	5.2
Others	65	13.5
Total	481	100.0

TABLE 3
GEOGRAPHIC DISTRIBUTION OF REPROGRAPHIC SERVICES

Area*	Number of Libraries	Percent of Libraries
Northwest	22	4.6
North Central	76	15.8
Northeast	178	37.0
Southwest	49	10.2
South Central	76	15.8
Southeast	71	14.8
Alaska/Hawaii	6	1.2
Territories	3	0.6
Total	481	100.0

*States were classified in the following groups:
 Northwest: Idaho, Montana, Oregon, Washington, Wyoming;
 North Central: Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Michigan, Minnesota, Nebraska, North Dakota, South Dakota, Wisconsin;
 Northeast: Connecticut, Delaware, District of Columbia, Maine, Maryland, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, New Jersey, New York, Ohio, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, Vermont;
 Southwest: Arizona, California, Colorado, Nevada, New Mexico, Utah;
 South Central: Arkansas, Kansas, Kentucky, Louisiana, Mississippi, Missouri, Oklahoma, Texas;
 Southeast: Alabama, Florida, Georgia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Tennessee, Virginia, West Virginia.

TABLE 4
COST OF ELECTROSTATIC DUPLICATIONS

Cost per Exposure	Cost of Duplication		Minimum Charge			Completion Time		
	Number of Libraries	Percent of Libraries	Minimum Charge	Number of Libraries	Percent of Libraries	Completion Time	Number of Libraries	Percent of Libraries
Free	5	1.2	None	19	8.1	1 Day	68	16.9
5¢-25¢	394	94.0	5¢-90¢	7	3.0	1-30 Days*	67	16.7
30¢-50¢	12	2.9	\$1	94	40.0	2 Days	68	16.9
Over 50¢	8	1.9	\$1-\$2	32	13.6	2-10 Days*	32	8.0
			\$2	29	12.3	3 Days	66	16.4
			\$2-\$3	12	5.1	More than 3 Days	101	25.1
			\$3	19	8.1			
			Over \$3	23	9.8			
Total	419	100.0	Total	235	100.0	Total	402	100.0

*Various completion times reported within indicated ranges.

More than half of all institutions indicated that they need no more than three days to complete orders for electrostatic copies. The longest time needed was thirty days, reported by less than one-fourth of 1 percent of all institutions.

Slightly less than half of the libraries supplied information on the minimum charges required for each electrostatic request. More than half of the responding libraries reported a charge of no more than

\$1, with only a few requiring no minimum. Within the range of \$1.00 to \$2.00 minimum charges, the figure most frequently listed was \$1.50. Less than 1 percent of the institutions were using outside contractors to provide electrostatic duplications.

Photographic Prints. This service consists of the conventional, continuous-tone photographic contact and enlargement prints, using silver bromide and halide processes. The service is usually offered by large reprographic laboratories only, and it is requested for special purposes such as publicity and illustrations for publication.

Only 10 percent of the participating libraries reported photographic print services. The majority of those institutions charged between one dollar and ten dollars per print (see table 5), the most frequent charge being three dollars, listed by 10.2 percent of the reporting libraries. The size of the enlargement was the major factor in determining the charges of the photographs. Among the institutions not reporting their charges, 17.4 percent will quote prices on request and 10.4 percent will use outside contractors, while almost half of the libraries reported no services (44 percent).

Time required for the completion of an order varies from one day (indicated by 5 percent of the reporting libraries) to fifty days (reported by one library). Most libraries will complete an order within fourteen days. One-third of the libraries also required minimum charges ranging from one dollar to eighteen dollars, with minimum charges of two dollars, four dollars, and five dollars distributed evenly among half of all laboratories.

Microfilms: Positive and Negative. In most cases, this service is provided on roll film, stored on reels. The most frequently used film in this country is 35mm wide, unperforated, with frame size of 1¼ inches by 11⅓ inches. Occasionally, laboratories may also offer 16mm or 70mm film. The reduction ratio may vary with orders or laboratories.

Since 1967, the Library Materials Price Index Committee of the Resources Section, Resources and Technical Services Division of the American Library Association, has been sponsoring a compilation of the microform rates indexes based on rates listed in the corresponding editions of the *Directory*. The most recent index for negative and positive microfilm rates, based on the sixth edition of the *Directory*

TABLE 5
COST OF PHOTOGRAPHIC PRINTS

Costs	Reporting Institutions	
	Number	Percent
Less than \$1	14	28.6
\$1-\$10	31	63.3
More than \$10	4	8.1
Total	49	100.0

(1976), was prepared by Imre T. Jarmy.³ The study indicates that the index value for negative microfilm rate increased by 17.3 percent for the period between 1972 and 1975, while the index value for the positive microfilm rate increased by 36.5 percent for the same period.

35mm Negative Film. Among the laboratories reporting charges for this service (see table 6), the most frequently listed is a ten-cent charge per exposure (30 percent of all reporting units). A few libraries quoted charges per 100 feet, ranging from \$7.05 to \$18.00. However, no two libraries within this range used the same pricing scale; an insignificant number of institutions listed the prices per one foot ranging from \$1.00 to \$1.50. More than half of all the reporting institutions needed from ten to ninety days to complete the order, 14 percent reporting thirty days. The completion time most often mentioned was, however, a two-day period, listed by 12 percent of all libraries. Two-thirds of the institutions also required a minimum charge with each order. This charge ranged from \$1.00 required by one-fifth of the libraries to a \$20.00 charge by one library. Of the participating laboratories, 14.3 percent will provide quotations on request and 8.3 percent will use an outside contractor, while 37.4 percent of all institutions listed in the *Directory* reported no services.

35mm Positive Film. Only 17 percent of participating institutions reported prices for copying on a 35mm positive film (see table 7). Almost half of those institutions charged less than ten cents per foot. The single highest charge of ten cents per foot was reported by almost one-fourth of all libraries quoting the charges. Close to 40 percent of libraries reported no service, while one-fourth failed to answer this question.

Time needed to complete the orders ranged from 1 day to 180 days per order, with 12 percent of laboratories listing 30 days. Close to 57 percent of the libraries required a minimum deposit from one dollar to twenty-three dollars. Nearly 4 percent of the participants required no minimum. Fifteen percent of the institutions will provide price lists

TABLE 6
MICROFILM (35MM, NEGATIVE) SERVICES

Costs	Reporting Institutions		Completion Time	Reporting Institutions	
	Number	Percent		Number	Percent
Less than 5¢ per Exposure	8	8.0	Less than 2 Days	10	9.9
5¢	14	14.0	2 Days	12	11.9
5¢-9¢	27	27.0	2-10 Days	23	22.8
10¢	30	30.0	More than 10 Days	56	55.4
10¢-25¢	21	21.0			
Total	100	100.0	Total	101	100.0

TABLE 7
MICROFILM (35MM, POSITIVE) SERVICES

Costs	Reporting Institutions		Completion Time	Reporting Institutions	
	Number	Percent		Number	Percent
1¢-10¢	39	47.5	Less than 2 Days	11	13.3
12¢-25¢	19	23.2	2 Days	8	9.6
\$2-\$12	15	18.3	2-10 Days	21	25.3
Over \$12	9	11.0	More than 10 Days	43	51.8
Total	82	100.0	Total	83	100.0

on request, 10 percent will use outside contractors, and close to 40 percent reported no services, with 25 percent not answering this item of the questionnaire.

Microfiche: Positive and Negative. Forty-five percent of the libraries reported no microfiche services; 30.6 percent failed to answer the item on the questionnaire; 11.6 percent offered the service, charging for it from five cents to three dollars per fiche (see table 8). The largest single group of laboratories listed ten cents per fiche (5.4 percent); 3.1 percent of the laboratories charged twenty-five cents per fiche.

Most libraries report that they will complete an order within one to two days (54 percent of the institutions); 41.3 percent require from two to ten days. Minimum charges were listed by 19 percent of the libraries, ranging from sixty cents to five dollars per service, the majority asking for one dollar minimum only.

Microform Hard Copy. This is an eye-legible copy of the document reproduced from any microformat by using a reader printer. The size of the copies varies depending on the equipment used, and the copies can be processed by a number of different methods. The most popular methods are stabilization and electrofax.

Nearly half of all the reporting libraries (48.8 percent) offered microform hard copies. The price most frequently charged was ten cents per copy (see table 9). Close to 8 percent of the laboratories will fur-

TABLE 8
COST OF MICROFICHE (POSITIVE/NEGATIVE)

Costs	Reporting Institutions	
	Number	Percent
Free	2	3.0
Less than 10¢	4	6.0
10¢-25¢	55	83.4
Over 25¢	5	7.6
Total	66	100.0

TABLE 9
MICROFORM HARD COPY SERVICES

Cost	Reporting Institutions		Completion Time	Reporting Institutions		Minimum Charge	Reporting Institutions	
	Number	Percent		Number	Percent		Number	Percent
10¢	98	42.1	1 Day	32	15.4	None	15	13.8
15¢	63	27.0	1-2 Days	23	11.1	\$1.00	38	34.9
20¢	23	9.9	2 Days	30	14.4	\$1.50	11	10.0
25¢	23	9.9	3 Days	37	17.8	\$2.00	12	11.0
All Others (5¢-\$1.25)	26	11.1	5 Days All Others (1-25 Days)	14	6.7	All Others (up to \$5)	33	30.3
Total	233	100.0	Total	208	100.0	Total	109	100.0

nish a price list on request. Only six-tenths of 1 percent will use an outside contractor. Almost 23 percent of the libraries reported no service and 20 percent left the question blank.

The amount of time most often needed for the completion of orders was three days; almost as frequently listed were two-day and one-day periods. Nearly half of the laboratories require a minimum charge per order; the minimum most frequently asked is a one-dollar charge, reported by 34.9 percent of the institutions.

Locally Generated Computerized Tools. Of a total of 112 services reported, 65.2 percent were local lists of serials holdings (see table 10). Only a few institutions listed prices for the copies of these products, ranging from \$6.50 to \$30.00 per list.

Other reported lists include union lists of serials and monographic holdings, indexes of newspapers, COM catalogs of books, computer-produced title catalogs of A-V material arranged by keyword, and various current awareness lists.

Other Services. This catchall category provides for services not listed separately. Of the institutions, 28.1 percent answered this question. Among the libraries itemizing these services, 20.7 percent provided for making slides, 14.8 percent for color transparencies (see table 11).

TABLE 10
LOCALLY GENERATED COMPUTERIZED TOOLS

Services Reported	Reporting Institutions	
	Number	Percent
Serials Lists of Holdings	23	20.5
On Microfiche	21	18.8
Printouts	19	17.0
Periodicals Only	10	8.9
AV Lists of Holdings	4	3.6
Special Indexes	8	7.1
Others	27	24.1
Total	112	100.0

TABLE 11
OTHER REPROGRAPHIC SERVICES

Services Reported	Reporting Institutions	
	Number	Percent
Slides	28	20.7
Color Transparencies	20	14.8
Photostatic Reprography	17	12.6
Copyflo	14	10.4
Special Photographic Services	23	17.0
Others	33	24.5
Total	135	100.0

Other services reported by a much smaller number of laboratories include enlargements, fiche duplication, diazo and kalvar processes, and tape duplication. Prices for these services vary from 25 cents to \$10.00, with only a few libraries requesting a minimum charge, ranging from \$1.50 to \$25.00 per order.

Additional information was offered on request by 10.2 percent, and 3.8 percent reported using outside contractors.

Minimum Charges (Administrative). These charges are usually established in order to reimburse for various administrative costs such as bibliographic search and retrieval of material for reproduction. A distinction is made between the charges per item listed with individual types of services and the minimum charge per order discussed in this section (see table 12). However, the two categories of charges are not mutually exclusive. Some institutions may levy a minimum charge per either of the two categories; other institutions may include both categories, or none.

Such charges were reported by 67.4 percent of the libraries. It was stated by 46.0 percent that they have no minimum charge per order; 17.0 percent asked for one dollar, and 7.1 percent charged two dollars minimum.

Additional Charges. These charges usually cover services costs for

TABLE 12
MINIMUM CHARGE PER ORDER

Minimum Charge	Reporting Institutions	
	Number	Percent
\$1.00	55	17.0
\$1.50	17	5.2
\$2.00	23	7.1
\$3.00	11	3.4
\$5.00	8	2.5
None	149	46.0
Others (up to \$15)	61	18.8
Total	324	100.0

preparatory work done before reprographic services are begun. They also include special handling and additional mailing charges required for different sizes, weights, and insurance for the shipment.

Of the participating libraries, 61.1 percent either did not have additional charges (30.3 percent) or left the questionnaire unanswered (30.8 percent). The additional charge most frequently quoted was the actual postage cost.

Interlibrary Loan Information. Serials. Of the participating institutions, 28.7 percent did not answer this question and 51.3 percent answered it by indicating "not applicable," presumably implying that the institution does not lend serials. Among the libraries answering the question (see table 13), 67.3 percent answered unequivocally that they do not lend serials. Only 28 percent offered the service, 21.9 percent of them with reservations. Most will lend the periodical if the requested article contains more than twenty pages. It is assumed that for articles of fewer than twenty pages, the borrowing institution should request reproduction of the pages in lieu of borrowing the whole volume.

Dissertations. This information relates to the availability of dissertations and other types of scholarly publications accepted by the reporting institutions in partial fulfillment of the requirements for doctoral degrees, and in some cases master's degrees. The documents available for loan may be either hard copy or microform produced by the institution or by University Microfilms, Inc. (table 14).

Half of the participating libraries (51.8 percent) reported the availability of original dissertations completed after a given date, in

TABLE 13
INTERLIBRARY LOAN SERVICES FOR SERIALS

Status of Serials Lending	Reporting Institutions	
	Number	Percent
Lent All	21	6.1
Lent with Restrictions	75	21.9
Usually Not Lent	16	4.7
Never Lent	231	67.3
Total	343	100.0

TABLE 14
INTERLIBRARY LOAN SERVICES FOR DISSERTATIONS

Status of Service	Original Dissertations		Filmed by Xerox University Microfilms		Filmed Locally	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Available	249	51.8	198	41.2	98	20.4
Not Available	129	26.8	155	32.2	209	43.4
Not Stated	103	21.4	128	26.6	174	36.2
Total	481	100.0	481	100.0	481	100.0

most cases between 1955 and 1960, with the oldest being 1880. Copies of dissertations available from University Microfilms, Inc., were reported by 41.2 percent, most of them dated since 1950 or 1965, with the earliest dissertation microfilmed by University Microfilms, Inc., written in 1930. Only one-fifth of the participating libraries (20.4 percent) reported dissertations filmed locally, most for the period between 1930 and 1965. No library reported in-house microfilming of dissertations dated after 1965. A few libraries also listed master's theses as available. It is known, although not reported in the *Directory*, that some large university reprographic departments do microfilm post-1965 dissertations.

Processing of Requests. The interlibrary loan department is the administrative unit of the library most frequently accepting orders for reprographic services (table 15).

TABLE 15
DEPARTMENTS ACCEPTING ORDERS
FOR REPROGRAPHIC SERVICES

Department Accepting Orders	Reporting Institutions	
	Number	Percent
Interlibrary Loans	208	43.2
Reprography	31	6.5
Reference	21	4.4
Others	41	8.5
Not Specified	180	37.4
Total	481	100.0

Slightly more than one-third of all institutions do not include any departmental subdivision in their addresses, thus suggesting that no one department is responsible for coordination of reprographic activities in these libraries. Most of these are small institutions. Only 6.5 percent of all libraries provide for a direct service offered by separate reprographic units.

It is interesting to note that almost half of all the institutions will accept orders through TWX, and more than two-thirds of all libraries listed their *National Union Catalog* code numbers.

Administration of Library Reprographic Services

As noted earlier, the issue of administrative involvement in reprographic activities was discussed at length by Samuel Boone in a 1964 study that analyzed the state of the art in American libraries and, with minor updating, seems to be still applicable to present operations. A pilot project on a similar subject conducted in 1977, although too small to provide statistically significant data, offers some reinforcement to Boone's thesis. Hence, a brief review of some of his findings

may serve as a good historical background for the description of the emerging profile of reprographic activities in the United States.

The initial use of reprography in libraries is traced by Boone to the year 1910, when Amandus Johnson, the director of the American Swedish Historical Museum, employed a standard camera for photographing documents in Europe.⁴ In 1912, the Library of Congress installed its first Photostat camera, while Princeton, in 1913, was the first American university library offering photographic services to library users. It took a quarter of a century to establish the first separate photographic department (at the University of Chicago in 1938) and still another quarter of a century to install the Xerox 914 in libraries (1960).

Boone's study is based on information gathered from forty-five American libraries. In the discussion of data, he frequently refers to other works, among them Fussler's important book *Photographic Reproduction for Libraries*.⁵ These studies, together with Boone's own essay, provide a framework for relating the data obtained in the current *Directory* to the trends analyzed more fully in the above publications.

Scope. Boone defines the scope of reprographic services in terms of six major functions: (1) as a service to local scholars primarily to provide them with copies of the documents, often a substitute for their note-taking activities; (2) as similar services provided to distant scholars by copying serials and monographs requested through inter-library loan; (3) as internal services for the local acquisition and preservation needs of the library; (4) as major special projects such as microfilming long sets of periodicals; (5) as special services; and (6) nonlibrary projects such as production of slides for class instruction or conventional photographs made for various publication purposes.⁶

Returns from the 1977 study suggest that half of all reprographic services are performed in response to a local library patron request; some 30 percent of reported copying is done for internal library needs such as the production of catalog cards and provision of duplicates for missing pages. Around 20 percent of reprographic work is in response to interlibrary loan requests. The largest number of electrostatic copies reported for one year was 1,707,000; one-third of the libraries in the study reported more than 1,000,000 exposures each.

Most microfilming was done for internal purposes. Almost all libraries offer microform hard copies; the highest number of exposures reported was 26,000 copies, and half of the libraries provided more than 10,000 copies per year. Only a few laboratories have photographic units serving library patrons and internal needs more or less evenly. Some 40 percent of the participating libraries have arrangements for the in-house reproduction of catalog cards. One library reported a heavy public use of coin-operated duplicating machines.

Personnel. In 1964, Boone stated that "the organization of the various library photographic services . . . is so varied that any attempt to show clearly defined patterns or to draw generalizations is practically

impossible.”⁷ The situation is much the same today, and for similar reasons. The composition of the staff of a reprographic unit is determined by factors such as the size and types of operations, equipment use, and budget allocation. Thus, the staff may consist of only a few part-time students performing simple photocopying operations, or it may include a large number of full-time, highly skilled people for sophisticated, high-volume reprographic operations. Boone identified only fourteen independent photoreprographic units. Other libraries organized photoduplication as a section of other departments; in six libraries, the units were supervised directly by the librarian, and four institutions were offering reprographic services by using outside contractors.

The 1977 study reveals that one-third of the participating libraries had one librarian in charge of the operation with an annual salary ranging from \$14,000 to \$17,000. This range does not include significantly higher salaries paid to the heads of larger reprographic departments. All institutions employ full-time paraprofessional and clerical help, with the largest department having two paraprofessionals and seven clerks in addition to the librarian head of the department. The salaries of the supporting staff ranged from a high of \$12,000 for a paraprofessional to a low of \$6,000 for a clerical position. The average number of students employed was 2.5 FTE with wages of \$2.30 to \$2.70 per hour.

Financial Support for Reprographic Operations. Boone summarized the status of the financial background of reprography by quoting one of his correspondents, Allen B. Veaner: “Photoreproduction is an area of conflicting claims, widely varying administrative practices, and many unrealistic attitudes, particularly in matters of cost-accounting and the permanence of the photocopies.”⁸ The difficulties alluded to in this quote include a lack of clear definition of the concept of self-support expected from some reprographic operations. Pointing out the “lack of uniformity in pricing schedules” among the libraries, Boone stated that (a) “there is an average to which most of them cling” and that (b) “this average is probably not based on the actual costs of providing the service, but rather on the experiences of other institutions.”⁹ The data from the 1977 study and those published in the seventh edition of the *Directory* seem to substantiate the above two hypotheses. The recent study illustrates a similar situation. Although most participants did not answer the question referring to the budget of reprographic units, some reported that their reprographic operations were either self-supportive or financed in part by special funds. None, however, elaborated these claims. The budget of the reporting libraries’ reprographic operations constituted less than 1 percent of the total library budget. Approximately half of that allocation was for salaries; 35 percent was allocated for the purchase and maintenance of equipment, and the rest was used for supplies. The number of reporting libraries was, unfortunately, so small that no definite pattern could be detected.

Interlibrary Loan Services. Boone maintains that the introduction of xerography to libraries has dramatically reduced the amount of interlibrary borrowing of original material, significantly increasing the demand for photoduplication services. He further points out that most of the in-house reproduction consists of short runs of duplication, which are not attractive to the commercial outfits primarily because of the cost of locating and retrieving such material and the disproportionately high cost of bookkeeping involved. Hence, he stresses the need for uniformity in loan policies and the urgency to simplify procedures in interlibrary transactions.¹⁰ These problems were not solved in 1964 and are still not solved today.

The 1977 study reinforces the impressions of heavy use of reprography among interlibrary loan transactions, while the entries in the *Directory* clearly show the lack of standardization in price schedules. Among the participants in the study, the annual average number of reprographic requests amounts to some 5,000 copies in large university operations and 500 copies in smaller institutions.

Conclusion

Based on the data reported in the *Directory*, electrostatic duplications are the most frequently provided reprographic services in U.S. libraries, with microform reproductions running second. Roughly one-fourth of all institutions also list other services.

In spite of the wide range of charges for each service offered by the participants, there is an evident preference to follow charge scales adopted by other institutions. For example, almost 78 percent of libraries charge either fifteen cents or twenty-five cents per electrostatic copy.

Although the pattern of administrative organization of reprographic services needs further study, there is enough evidence to suggest that reprography will remain an important service in many libraries. Its nature and purpose will keep changing at the rate paralleling the rate of change in reprographic technology.

However, one may only speculate about the extent of the future role of reprography in the library. It may be that with the present trend in teaching techniques, which de-emphasize the textbook approach in preference to independent, often specialized reading, the demand for copying selected material will increase. Furthermore, the more efficient and less expensive fiche-to-fiche or film-to-film copying processes and equipment may replace the cumbersome circulation of original microforms; and still farther into the future, computer-produced books may eventually be filmed for storage and copied for circulation purposes. Assuming a satisfactory resolution of copyright, reprography may become the mainstay of regional depository and lending centers, a form of interlibrary cooperation that will most probably increase in volume within the next few decades. And to stretch this near science fiction conjecture a step further, at some time

retrieval systems will provide not only citations to the course material but also copies of the works cited. The technology for such services already exists and was tested in the early 1970s.

So, it may be that the reprographic function will be elevated to a major library responsibility as one of the methods of acquiring, storing, locating, and interpreting materials in library collections.

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8. *Ibid.*, p.48.
9. *Ibid.*, p.53. It is a well-known fact, although not documented in this study, that in some institutions the low fee schedules are based not so much on the cost accounting *experienced*, but on the *practice* (often heavily subsidized) of other institutions.
10. *Ibid.*, p.56.

Demise of a Classified Catalogue: Victim of Progress?

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The classified catalogue at Laurentian University in Sudbury, Ontario, has been closed despite its unique contribution to bilingual access (English/French). An alphabetic English subject catalogue covering material in English and other languages exclusive of French and a separate French subject catalogue for French material now cover monographs received since 1975. Internal maintenance problems and the attempt to provide equivalent access in two languages, plus the pressure to standardize when joining a cooperative cataloguing system, led to the demise of the classified catalogue, its inherent strength in a bilingual situation notwithstanding.

IN JUNE 1975 Laurentian University Library followed the path of Boston University and the National Library of Canada.* It decided to close its classified catalogue, and in doing so to end one library's innovative response to the problem of bilingual retrieval.

The past thirteen years had seen stalwart efforts to provide a bilingual classified catalogue. The catalogue consisted of two sections: (1) a bilingual index with interfiled French subject headings established by l'Université Laval (Québec, Canada) and English headings from the Library of Congress and (2) a shelflist referenced by this index. This shelflist did not entail any translation, and the combination provided equivalent access in the two languages via a heading inserted in each language upon initial receipt of material in either one. Despite the advantages described in an earlier article,¹ it was agreed in 1975 that the

*Boston University closed its classified catalogue in July 1972; the National Library of Canada, in December 1974.

Manuscript received August 1978; accepted for publication January 1979.

present shortcomings of the classified catalogue plus certain inherent weaknesses, combined with the cost savings anticipated through participation in a cooperative cataloguing project, warranted a difficult decision. Henceforward the classified catalogue would be replaced by conventional English and French catalogues, both in the traditional alphabetic style.

What was the thinking that produced this decision to abandon the classified catalogue? A number of factors coalesced. There were internal difficulties, the first of these being the turn-around time to produce the index. A new index heading required approximately one week and additions to existent cards a minimum of one to three weeks. The latter operation required the index clerk to withdraw index cards (French and English equivalents) from both the public index catalogue(s) and the master index in the Cataloguing Department. No temporary cards replaced these withdrawn cards, since it had been decided that the library could ill afford the required time outlay. In the absence of such a measure, fallout struck both the cataloguing and public service orbits. Cataloguers checking the department's index in the interval sometimes assumed that no such card(s) had been made and therefore instructed that the heading be typed anew and, even more onerous, proceeded to translate it again. This pitfall inevitably created duplication and inconsistency of headings, class numbers, and translations. During the same interval, users of the public catalogue(s) could not find headings in some cases located a week before. Users and even staff often assumed that headings had never existed and questioned such omissions.

When subheadings were being added to those already listed, a problem lay in the necessity of retyping to retain alphabetical sequence among these subheadings. The problem of transcribing alphanumeric classification numbers was compounded by the danger of mixing English and French subheadings, since each operation entailed lockstep changes to paired headings. Vigilant and time-consuming effort on the part of both typist and proofreader was essential. Unfortunately errors crept in.

A parallel problem was the recurrent need to revise subject headings to match LC/Laval revisions. Again cards had to be withdrawn and new ones typed and filed. In the case of scientific headings no fewer than two public catalogues were involved—the union catalogue and the science library catalogue—requiring, therefore, a total of three withdrawals and insertions per language.

In connection with new headings a problem peculiar to the bilingual nature of the index surfaced repeatedly. A lengthy delay factor stemmed from the difficulty of establishing French equivalents for new English headings. There was often a time lag before a French equivalent appeared in the Université Laval Library's *Répertoire de Vedettes-Matière*, and sometimes none appeared at all. This led in turn either

to postponing the inclusion of the English heading until Laval caught up or, alternatively, to creating a homemade equivalent that would probably necessitate later correction. Also, the bilingual indexing policy resulted in apparent conflict. For example, Laval used **Ports** as a French subject heading, where LC used the term **Harbors** with a cross-reference from the English **Ports**. This understandably proved confusing to users. The library was particularly conscious of any escalation of user confusion, being well aware that already patrons were asked to cope with a two-step catalogue plus the added challenge of interfiled French and English subject headings that were often similar but not identical.

On balance, while the classified catalogue had been indisputably useful in the bilingual context of Laurentian, the difficulties associated with it, some of which were caused by this same bilingual fact, were manifold. Unlike the National Library of Canada, by 1975 Laurentian University Library could not say that the "classified catalogue had proved to be an efficient retrieval tool."² The manual system of index production was far too inefficient and costly both in terms of poor service to the user and time-consuming tedium for the Cataloguing Department. Unfortunately, in-house constraints precluded indexing by computer.

Concurrently with the strenuous soul-searching provoked by the problems identified above came the attractive possibility of joining the Ontario University Libraries Cooperative Systems Cataloguing Support System designed and operated by the University of Toronto Library Automated Systems. The projected cost-benefits of this venture, benefits maximized by standardization, proved irresistible. Consequent upon this decision, there now exists a conventional subject catalogue covering English and other language monographs exclusive of French, as well as a separate catalogue devoted to French-language material. Cross-references tie French headings to the corresponding English, and vice versa.

Not unexpectedly, however, there has been a price—alas, paid primarily by the user. For subject access, patrons now must consult two catalogues (one of which is a two-step catalogue) and, in the case of Francophone users, perhaps even three catalogues—the new English and/or French subject catalogue(s) for material entering the system after June 1975, and the old classified catalogue for earlier material. Like Boston University, Laurentian University Library also "hopes to carry [a] conversion project to its logical conclusion by assigning alphabetic subject headings to the books represented in the classified catalogue. This operation will be extremely costly, however, and as a result the total dismantling of the classified catalogue is not anticipated in the near future."³ Meanwhile one lives with this ill-starred response to a bilingual challenge, victim of its own weaknesses and the tide of progress.

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Margaret Mann Citation, 1979: Michael Gorman and Paul W. Winkler

The recipients of the Margaret Mann Citation for 1979 brought cataloging expertise and experience derived from distinguished careers to the challenge and task of coediting a revised edition of the cataloging code.



Michael Gorman (left) and Paul W. Winkler

Michael Gorman and Paul W. Winkler

CAROLYN J. MCMILLEN
*Assistant Director for Technical Services
Michigan State University Library
East Lansing, Michigan*

Michael Gorman

Michael Gorman was born in Oxfordshire, England, on 6 March 1941. He was married to Anne Gillet in 1962 and they are the parents of two daughters, Emma and Alice. His professional education was received at the Ealing School of Librarianship, during which he was named the winner of the Cawthorne Prize for best results nationwide in the Library Association intermediate examination, and he received two Honours in the final examinations. He was named an associate of the Library Association in 1967 and was elected as a fellow of the association in 1978.

He began his professional career as a junior-assistant in the Ealing (London) Public Library, and following his formal education in librarianship he moved to the post of research assistant at the Polytechnic of Central London Library School/British National Bibliography. For two years he served as an author cataloguing reviser at the British National Bibliography and became head of cataloguing in 1969. From 1972 to 1974 he was a bibliographic consultant for the British Library Planning Secretariat.

During these latter years Michael Gorman became active in both British and international committee work. He was a member of the Cataloguing Rules Revision Committee, 1968-73, and from 1967 to 1973 he served as secretary to the IFLA Working Group on the ISBD-M and was responsible for the draft of the standard.

In 1974-75 Gorman was a visiting lecturer at the Graduate School of Library Science, University of Illinois. He returned to England to his position as head of Bibliographic Standards Office, British Library, and in 1977 he moved to the United States to accept the position of director of technical services and professor of library administration at the University of Illinois.

His committee assignments continued at a growing rate. He was a member of several British Library and Library Association cataloguing committees, the INTERMARC Software Committee, 1976-1977, and the Committee on Bibliographic Filing of the International Organization for Standardization, 1974 to date; and he drafted the standard for the IFLA Working Group on the ISBD-G. He is active in the

American Library Association and is frequently sought out as a speaker for workshops, seminars, and state library association meetings.

Michael Gorman's contributions to the literature of the profession have been numerous. He has written on the Standard Bibliographic Description; rules for entry and heading in *AACR*, 1967; machine-readable cataloging; bibliographic control; and the future of the catalog. His articles have been reflections of his forthright and incisive views, have displayed clarity of statement, and have been particularly readable.

Paul W. Winkler

Paul W. Winkler is a native of Illinois. He was born in Buda on 15 July 1912 and received a bachelor of education degree from the Illinois State University. His bachelor of science in library science degree and his master's degree in library science were earned at the University of Illinois, Urbana.

Before going to the Library of Congress in 1946, Winkler served as a cataloging librarian at the University of Illinois and Yale University libraries. His first assignment at the Library of Congress was in the Book Section of the Copyright Office Cataloging Division, and in 1947 he was named assistant head of the section. In 1948 he returned to the Yale University Library as a staff member, became head of the Social Science Section in the Subject Cataloging Division in 1952, and served in that capacity until 1954.

Winkler was a teacher in rural schools in Illinois, and his interest in teaching led him to the University of Denver in 1954 where he taught cataloging and other library courses. From 1959 to 1962 he taught at the University of Southern California. Following this last teaching assignment, he served as director of the Cataloging Department of Professional Library Service, a commercial library service firm, in Santa Ana, California.

In 1964 Winkler returned to the Library of Congress and began a distinguished career in the area of descriptive cataloging. He headed the English Language Section of the Descriptive Cataloging Division and in 1966 was named assistant chief of the Shared Cataloging Division. In 1968 he was appointed principal descriptive cataloger and served in this position until 1974, at which time he was named as an editor of the second edition of *AACR*.

During the early seventies Winkler actively served as a Library of Congress liaison to the RTSD CCS Descriptive Cataloging Committee. His expertise in descriptive cataloging and his seemingly limitless knowledge of the rules were of major service to the work of the committee. During this time he was responsible for the redrafting of the revised chapter 6, which was published by ALA in 1974. Following the conclusion of his work as coeditor of the second edition of *AACR*, Winkler has been named senior descriptive cataloging specialist in the

new Office for Descriptive Cataloging Policy, Processing Services, Library of Congress.

The award of the Margaret Mann Citation in 1979 serves as worthy recognition of the joint effort and contributions made by Michael Gorman and Paul W. Winkler to the content and structure of the second edition of the *Anglo-American Cataloguing Rules*.

NOMINATIONS FOR 1980 MARGARET MANN CITATION

Nominations for the 1980 Margaret Mann Citation are now being accepted. They should be submitted by December 15, 1979, to Joseph H. Howard, Processing Services, Library of Congress, Washington, DC 20540.

The Margaret Mann Citation is awarded annually for outstanding achievement in cataloging or classification through:

- publication of significant professional literature,
- contributions to activities of professional cataloging organizations,
- technical improvements and/or introduction of new techniques of recognized importance,
- distinguished teaching in the area of cataloging and classification.

Names of persons previously nominated but not chosen may be resubmitted. Letters of nomination should include a résumé of the nominee's achievements.

The citation has been awarded annually since 1951 by the Cataloging and Classification Section, Resources and Technical Services Division of the American Library Association, and its predecessors, in honor of Margaret Mann.

Margaret Mann served as head of the catalog department of the Carnegie Library in Pittsburgh, the Engineering Societies Library in New York, and the University of Illinois Library. From 1926 to 1938 she served in the University of Michigan School of Library Science. Her *Introduction to Cataloging and Classification of Books* is a classic in the field.

Esther J. Piercy Award, 1979:

Pamela Wood Darling

The Esther J. Piercy Award is presented in 1979 to Pamela Wood Darling for her very effective leadership in the field of library material preservation.



Pamela Wood Darling

WILLIAM J. WELSH
Deputy Librarian of Congress
Washington, D.C.

As much as anyone working in the field of preservation, Pamela Wood Darling has been responsible for raising the consciousness of librarians at all levels to the problems and challenges of preservation. She brings a broad perspective to bear on the subject, approaching it with an unmistakable *joie-de-vivre*. She *enjoys* her work, and that is obvious in her articles, her workshops and lectures, and in individual conversations with her. The enjoyment is coupled with a keen intelligence and analytical mind; she sees all sides of any issue and forces us to look at what our libraries are doing and for whom. While delighting in the wide scope and variety of library activities, she also makes us see the essentials of our business, those aspects that tie us together with certain common purposes.

A native of Illinois and second-generation librarian, she received her B.A. from Northwestern University in 1965 and her M.S. in L.S., with honors, from Columbia University in 1971. She was nominated by Columbia for the Library of Congress Intern Program, going to the library in 1971, and shortly into the program proved herself to be one of the brightest and most able interns ever to go through the program. After completion, she began work as an administrative assistant in the Processing Department. In that position she not only demonstrated strengths in her grasp of technical processes and budgetary matters but also proved herself adept at working with staff at all levels. In this aspect the director of the Processing Department depended on Pamela Darling's skills quite heavily; she made a significant contribution to the Library of Congress by helping to establish a Human Relations Committee in the Processing Department. That committee was used as a model in establishing a similar committee library-wide and now many of its functions are covered by LC's Labor-Management program. She is still fondly remembered by the people she worked with, and a visit by Pam to LC becomes a cause for celebration by those who know her.

In 1972 she left LC to take a position with the New York Public Library, as head of the Preservation Programs Office, Conservation Division, and in 1974 became head of the Preservation Department, Columbia University Libraries. She took to her work in preservation with energy and gusto and realized that what she was learning and doing should be shared. She has been very active in her field and has

written numerous articles and delivered many lectures, as well as developing several programs, seminars, and conferences concerned with preservation. The list of her activities reads like one belonging to someone of longer experience and of greater years; that she has accomplished all she has in such a short time is remarkable, and it makes the bestowal of the Esther J. Piercy Award well deserved.

To name a few of her accomplishments, she led seminars for the New York Metropolitan Reference and Research Library Agency in 1974, for Rutgers and Columbia library schools in 1976, a program in library conservation activities for ALA in 1976, and again for ALA, in 1977, a combined program and exhibit.

She coordinated the reestablishment of the cooperative foreign gazette microfilming project between New York Public Library and the Library of Congress in 1974 and was a participant in the Planning Conference for a National Preservation Program sponsored by LC and the Council on Library Resources in 1976. As a member of the New York Metropolitan Reference and Research Library Agency Task Force on Conservation she was responsible for a proposal to plan the establishment of a regional center for the preservation of library and archival materials. Since 1975 she has been a member of the Research Libraries Group Preservation Committee and authored for them a planning document as well as position papers on cooperative storage of microform masters and on the National Register of Microform Masters.

She has written numerous articles on the subject of preservation and has served as a member of many committees, including serving as chairperson of ALA's Committee on Preservation of Library Materials, 1975-77. She is a member of the American Theological Library Association, Board of Microtext; the METRO Task Force on Conservation; the National Micrographics Association; and the New York Library Association. An active member of ALA, she has served as a juror for the Melvil Dewey Award and alternate representative to ANSI PH-5 Standards Committee, has chaired the Subcommittee on Review Media for the Committee on Reprinting, and is a member of numerous ALA divisions.

Among her many articles on preservation, perhaps the most widely read is "Our Fragile Inheritance, The Challenge of Preserving Library Materials" in the 1978 *ALA Yearbook*. This thoughtful, well-written document lays out the many aspects of preservation in a clear and understandable manner. She addresses the problems of purpose, the need for determination of the relative value of the object versus the contents, and the elements of preservation such as light, environment, insects, maintenance, and housekeeping that all librarians can bring to bear on their collections; she also speaks to the necessity for a well-developed collection policy as essential to an effective preservation program and discusses our attempts thus far at cooperation, including the development of consortiums, regional centers, and national activi-

ties. Throughout this article, as is also evident in her workshops and talks, she not only identifies problems but also offers concrete suggestions for solving them. While conversant with the technology of preservation, she also understands the larger needs to be addressed if we are to cope with the massive problems facing us—the need for a coherent national preservation program, the need for greater cooperation, the need for the individual librarian to consider not only his/her own collection but also our national collections. A person of broad vision and great ability, Pamela Wood Darling richly merits the Esther J. Piercy Award and can be counted on to continue her contributions to the library profession in general and preservation in particular in the future; we can expect great things from her.

NOMINATIONS FOR 1980 ESTHER J. PIERCY AWARD

Nominations for the 1980 Esther J. Piercy Award are now being accepted. They should be submitted by December 15, 1979, to Joseph Z. Nitecki, Executive Director of Libraries and Learning Resources, University of Wisconsin, Oshkosh, WI 54901.

Since 1969, ALA's Resources and Technical Services Division has given the Piercy Award. Its purpose is to recognize contributions to librarianship in the field of technical services by a younger librarian—one who has no more than ten years of professional experience and who has shown outstanding promise for continuing contributions and leadership.

The award may be granted for:

- leadership in professional associations at local, state, regional, or national levels;
- contributions to the development, application, or utilization of new or improved methods, techniques, and routines;
- a significant contribution to professional literature;
- conduct of studies or research in the field of technical services.

Names of persons previously submitted but not chosen may be resubmitted. Letters of nomination should include a résumé of the nominee's achievements.

Esther J. Piercy was active in ALA and several of its divisions. The author of *Commonsense Cataloging* and numerous articles in the field of librarianship, Piercy was also, from 1950 until her death, editor of RTSD's journal, *Journal of Cataloging and Classification*, and its successor, *Library Resources & Technical Services*.

NATIONAL LIBRARY SERVICES/RESOURCES SECTION SCHOLARSHIP AWARD

Both recipients of the National Library Services/Resources Section Scholarship Award are affiliated with the University of Michigan. Mona East is at present the selection officer for the University Library, while Rose Mary Magrill is a professor in the School of Library Science, where she has been a faculty member since 1970. Mona East, a midwesterner, claims the University of Michigan as her alma mater also. Rose Mary Magrill has graduate degrees from East Texas State University and from the University of Illinois. The award-winning article, "Collection Development in Large University Libraries" (*Advances in Librarianship*, V.8, 1978), is the first on which the two authors have collaborated.



Rose Mary Magrill (left) and Mona East

Preliminary Report of the ALA RTSD International Cataloging Consultation Committee

The International Cataloging Consultation Committee (ICCC) has concluded its initial investigations and is now preparing a final report to present to the RTSD Board of Directors in June 1980. The ICCC wants to take into account the views of the division membership regarding the actions being recommended—particularly since their implementation might have a substantial impact on the division's priorities and resources. The members are, therefore, urgently requested to study the ICCC Preliminary Report and to forward comments before December 31, 1979, to: John D. Byrum, Chairperson ICCC, 400 Madison St. #1504, Alexandria, VA 22314. Members attending the 1980 Midwinter Meeting may, if they prefer, present their views at open hearings that the ICCC intends to conduct; the time and place for the hearings will be announced later.

The "Preliminary Report of the ALA RTSD International Cataloging Consultation Committee to the ALA RTSD Board of Directors," dated June 1979, follows.

Introductory Remarks

Established at the American Library Association's 1976 Annual Conference by the Resources and Technical Services Division, the International Cataloging Consultation Committee (ICCC) has had as its functions: "To study procedures involved in the development of international cataloging policies by international organizations and to propose methods to establish communication and ensure adequate consultation between these international organizations and RTSD."* This document serves to record the activity of the ICCC in pursuit of these purposes and to report its findings. The recommendations which follow the summary statement of problems that appears later in this document are tentative and subject to reconsideration to incorporate the views of the RTSD membership. The division's Board of Directors is urged to encourage such input by authorizing publication of this document in the Fall 1979 issue of *Library Resources & Technical Services* and by charging the ICCC with responsibility for holding open hearings on its recommendations at the January 1980 ALA Midwinter Meeting.

*In addition, the RTSD board subsequently assigned the ICCC responsibility for three additional tasks, as follows: (1) to investigate and identify an organizational structure appropriate for catalog code maintenance subsequent to the publication of AACR 2; (2) to submit for review a response to the ALA International Relations Committee's questionnaire relative to formulation of the association's International Relations Policy Statement; and (3) to suggest criteria for the evaluation of candidates for selection to represent RTSD at meetings concerned with international cataloging. These special assignments have been completed and reported to the board.

At its inaugural meetings on January 30-31, 1977, the ICCC identified several international organizations whose interests seem to comprehend formulation of cataloging policy. Foremost among these in recent years has been the International Federation of Library Associations and Institutions (IFLA)—in particular, its Division of Bibliographic Control and the International Office for UBC. Also of significance in this respect have been activities of the International Organization for Standardization (ISO); Unesco; and the International Association of National Librarians (IANL). As one phase of its investigations, the ICCC decided to interview individuals knowledgeable about the structure and procedures of these bodies. At the same time, the ICCC felt the need for more information about relevant matters internal to ALA and RTSD.

The ICCC has therefore devoted several meetings spanning 1977 and 1978 to discussions with individuals selected for expertise in these areas. Robert Wedgeworth, ALA executive director, described the process by which IFLA has achieved reorganization and revised its procedures. His remarks emphasized the importance of reconciling the methods for producing cataloging policy practiced by American groups such as ALA with those practiced by international organizations and offered several suggestions toward that end. He also commented at length on the means by which RTSD might keep the association informed about concerns related to cataloging policy. Henriette Avram, Library of Congress, and Edwin Buchinski, National Library of Canada, briefed the committee on the activities of the IFLA International Office for UBC, the TC46 Committee on Documentation of the ISO, the IANL, and other groups which have an interest in the promotion of cataloging standards. Michael Gorman, then at the British Library, and Åke Koel, Yale University, commented on the processes by which the various International Standard Bibliographic Descriptions have been formulated, drawing extensively upon their personal involvement in these efforts.

An entire day was spent at the Library of Congress, where members of the committee met with Doralyn Hickey, chair of IFLA's Division of Bibliographic Control, and with Joseph Howard, assistant librarian for processing services, Lucia Rather, director for cataloging (also, chair of the IFLA Cataloguing Section), and other staff of the Library of Congress. The group analyzed Dorothy Anderson's résumé of IFLA working groups procedures¹ in depth and discussed: the preparation of working documents; the circulation, publication, and ratification of draft proposals; and the need for greater participation of representatives from the United States, particularly from RTSD and ALA, on these various IFLA committees and working groups.

The ICCC has also maintained liaison with the ALA International Relations Committee (IRC) and, on behalf of RTSD, formulated recommendations concerning the content of the association's recently adopted International Relations Policy. In addition, the ICCC has informed the IRC of its statement elaborating evaluation criteria to be applied in the selection of divisional representatives to groups concerned with international cataloging policy; subsequently, the IRC developed and is in the process of approving a policy to govern selection of ALA delegates to international conferences and meetings.

Throughout the term of its appointment, the ICCC has consulted extensively with Doralyn Hickey, who has represented RTSD in various cataloging activities related to IFLA since mid-1977. During this period, Hickey has also served as a member of IFLA's Professional Board; in this capacity, she suc-

cessfully promoted the approval of a document concerning the formation and operations of IFLA working groups. Indeed, the adoption of a policy statement on December 17, 1978, concerning (1) selection of working group members and (2) reporting of working group activities, which was based on Hickey's draft submission, obviates the need for several of the recommendations which the ICCC would have put forward. (See attachment A.)

Although the ICCC has focused on the development of international cataloging policies in response to its charge (as elaborated at the beginning of this report), the committee decided finally to provide recommendations which are sufficiently broad to apply to all areas of international activity affecting the division's interests. The determination to frame these recommendations as matters appropriate to RTSD at the divisional level followed upon the committee's finding that international organizations are pursuing matters which are not necessarily limited to the concerns of any particular section. For example, the emergence of the International Serials Data System (ISDS) and of the First Standard Edition of the International Standard Bibliographic Description for Serials (ISBD(S)) is a development of interest to both the Serials Section and the Cataloging and Classification Section. There also appears to be the potential for increased activity at the international level related to the functions of both the Reproduction of Library Materials and the Resources sections. The fact that many of the ICCC's recommendations are addressed to the division as a whole, however, is not intended to diminish in any way the authority and responsibility of RTSD committees and sections; on the contrary, these units are encouraged to take whatever actions they might deem appropriate to support and extend in a coordinated manner the division's implementation of the recommendations which follow later.

Problems Encountered in Participation in International Bibliographic Ventures: A Summary Statement

In recent years, as technological advances have facilitated the sharing of information, members of the American Library Association have developed an awareness of the value of greater internationalism in bibliographic activity. Coupled with this awareness has been a sense of frustration that more effective participation has not been achieved.

The reasons for this failure are many. Together, they constitute the primary factors which handicap ALA and RTSD and their membership in the international scene:

First, the pace of international bibliographic activity has accelerated to such an extent that various groups are often working concurrently on the same issue. It is difficult to monitor this activity effectively, and, once useful projects have been identified, the allocation of limited organizational resources to ensure effective participation is a further problem.

Frequently the association has been forced to call on individuals attending international meetings for other reasons to represent its interest in areas where the individuals were not expert. Furthermore, there has been no concentrated and continued effort to identify persons both willing and competent to speak for the organization on the various issues which affect the American library community. It should be emphasized that the continuity needed is not one of personal representation, but of viewpoint and experience. Too frequently the person called on to represent the association is compelled to dis-

cover independently what could have been passed on by earlier representatives.

Moreover, if suitable persons are found, there is the need to provide adequate funds for travel, clerical aid to ensure sufficient and timely distribution of documentation, and financial support to reimburse the representative for time lost from work.

Once in the international forum the ALA representative committed to representing a constituency is sometimes in conflict with the international association's assumption that members of a working group are there as individuals. The ALA representative is uneasy with secrecy and closed deliberations and handicapped by the tight time schedules that make dissemination and discussion of documents impossible.

Furthermore, international organizations looking to the United States for a representative are likely to consult with Library of Congress staff as representative of the principal bibliographic agency, although there are indisputably areas where ALA, because of the breadth of its interests and membership, is as qualified to speak—if not more so. Because the collaboration between the association and LC is not closer, the limited resources of the two bodies are not used as economically as they might be. Moreover, the advantages of a united position are forfeited.

*Recommendations for Action**

Concluding its investigations, the International Cataloging Consultation Committee is prepared to make the following recommendations:

1. That ALA and RTSD take appropriate action, respectively, to indicate their support of international organizations which are engaged in activities of concern to the association and the division by, for example, membership in such organizations and the provision of sufficient funding to encourage their own members to participate in these international activities.

2. That ALA take steps to indicate publicly the association's interest in assuming a greater role in working with international organizations. It is suggested that the International Relations Policy Statement which was adopted by the ALA Council on June 29, 1978 (see attachment C), be forwarded to international organizations in which ALA and RTSD wish to become active or increase existing participation as a direct way of making their interest known. Continued and increased support from ALA, in addition to funding and sending representatives to meetings, is also essential if the work of the representatives of the association and its divisions is to be effective and accepted at the international level.

3. That international organizations be encouraged to appoint their committees and form specialized working groups in consultation with the appropriate library associations in order to determine the credibility and competence of the individuals proposed for appointment. Correspondingly, RTSD should respond promptly when requests for nominations to a working group are received. As a means of being prepared, RTSD should compile and maintain an up-to-date list of persons qualified to represent the division and association on such working groups, as well as a list of persons qualified to serve as reviewers of documentation. (Reference may be made to the [1] Profile of a Candidate

*As indicated by Attachment B, the recommendations set forth are consistent with, and provide a means of implementing, certain of the division's Goals for Action.

to Serve as an RTSD Representative on Cataloging Matters to IFLA and [2] Criteria to Be Used in the Selection of Candidates to Represent ALA Abroad, . . . Attachments D and E . . .)

4. That RTSD develop procedures to make individuals who represent the division at meetings of international organizations and their subunits accountable for representing the interests of the division at the international level. Further, that these individuals be apprised of the responsibility; for keeping the division informed about the work being done by the international organization (recognizing a potential need for confidentiality when justifiably appropriate); for preparing a detailed report of international activity and the actions and decisions taken; for seeing that the membership is provided an opportunity to review and to react to documents emanating from the international organization; and for being available for consultation at the end of a term of service. In order to inform representatives about their responsibilities, the ICCC suggests that RTSD provide for preparation of a document to define the division's position with regard to the role of its representatives and to specify the various responsibilities of the representatives as well as to address the need for continuity of representation when appropriate to insure the division's influence. The ICCC suggests further that RTSD transmit the proposed statement to the ALA International Relations Committee.

5. That RTSD provide individuals who serve the division by reviewing documents emanating from international organizations with a clear statement saying whether or not the document is to be distributed further, whether the reviewer is to express a personal viewpoint or is expected to support the division viewpoint, and what the deadline is for making a report.

6. That, recognizing that the division should be willing to represent the American library community in international activities related to its interests, RTSD take appropriate action to implement review of its relationship with LC in order to define areas of responsibility, so that better use of the limited resources of each organization might be made and jointly held positions might be developed insofar as this is possible and desirable.

7. That the president of RTSD report regularly to the ALA Council about the international activities of the division, including in this report the work being done in catalog code maintenance and revision as a matter of international interest; and that RTSD make provision for the use of the Divisional Interests Special Committee (DISC) as one method of informing other ALA divisions about the participation of RTSD in international activities.

8. That RTSD formally request that all sessions of committees and working groups of international organizations to which the division belongs be declared open meetings, with the clear understanding that working groups cannot be required to solicit comments from observers. (Such requests should include a brief account of ALA's own experiences leading to an open-meeting policy.)

9. That, when deemed appropriate on a case-by-case basis, RTSD or its designated representative formally request the chair of a working group to provide an opportunity for consideration and discussion of substantive criticisms of concern to the division which have been noted by the representatives of the division who are reviewing drafts from working groups.

10. That RTSD take action to distribute and publish progress reports of or about IFLA working groups and to provide the postage and copying fees in order to make possible the distribution of drafts of IFLA working groups.

11. That RTSD take steps to pursue with ALA Publishing Services the feasibility of the latter to act as a distributor for IFLA publications.*

12. That ALA take the action needed to belong to all IFLA sections, since all documentation emanating from the section is made available without cost to section members; further, that RTSD take steps to define and make known its needs in order to receive those documents sent to ALA which are of interest to the division.

13. That RTSD create a standing committee at the division level to be responsible for ensuring effective participation of RTSD in international activities which are of concern to all areas of the division. The functions of the proposed committee are:

- a) To monitor all international activities which are in areas of interest to RTSD;
- b) To maintain liaison with the UBC Office and the IFLA Division of Bibliographic Control, as well as with other groups within IFLA, in order to ensure that the committee is made aware of all projects relevant to the concerns of RTSD;
- c) To identify the issues which need to be studied and the standards which need to be reviewed, assigning priorities to these issues and standards and reporting this information to the RTSD board for assignment of issues to the appropriate sections or divisional committees;
- d) To identify the core group of people who are developing projects relevant to the concerns of RTSD in organizations such as Unesco, ISO, and FID;
- e) To study the relationship of international bodies, e.g., IANL, Unesco, ISO, and IFLA, in matters which are relevant to RTSD, in order to be aware of problems which exist and to provide encouragement for their solution. (For example, a matter for concern is the relationship between IFLA and ISO TC46 because ISO has handled qualitative standards, such as bibliographical standards, less expeditiously than quantitative standards);
- f) To develop short-term, medium-term, and long-term programs for improving and strengthening the relationship of RTSD with other organizations engaged in promulgating cataloging and other standards relevant to the division's interests;
- g) To publicize international standards of interest to RTSD;
- h) To identify knowledgeable individuals to serve as representatives of the division—using, to the extent appropriate, the profiles of qualifications desired in such representatives prepared by the International Cataloging Consultation Committee and by the ALA International Relations Committee as guides (see attachments D and E)—and to submit a list of these individuals to the RTSD board and to the RTSD executive secretary;
- i) To provide the RTSD representatives to international organizations with detailed descriptions of their responsibilities to the division and to the

*At the January 22, 1976, session of the RTSD Board of Directors 1976 (Chicago) Midwinter Meeting, it was moved, seconded, and carried: "That the Board . . . should request of the Executive Director of ALA that he investigate means whereby the ALA may serve as a distribution agency for the Library Community of the United States for publications of IFLA which deal with international cataloging policies." (Source: "Minutes," p.16)

international organization, including the demands likely to be made on the time of the representative and the home institutional support needed. (The representative should be required to agree to be available for consultation after completion of his/her term of service and, in addition, to prepare an informal oral or written history on the social and political aspects of the international organization as well as on the formal and informal procedures by which it operates for the information of other RTSD representatives);

- j) To maintain liaison with the ALA International Relations Office on a continuing basis in all matters;
- k) To consult with the International Relations Office in order to ascertain the names of individuals who may be attending or planning to attend international meetings which may have concerns of interest to RTSD, enabling RTSD to contact these individuals and to request that they monitor meetings, report to RTSD, etc.;
- l) To identify likely sources of funding to support the participation of RTSD in international activities;
- m) To identify expenses arising from participation in international activity and provide cost figures for the information and guidance of the RTSD board.

14. That, since the proposed committee would undoubtedly require a high level of administrative and clerical support to fulfill its functions, the RTSD consider the need for increased staff for the office of the RTSD executive secretary or, alternatively, additionally fund an Office of International Activities. Further, that the RTSD executive secretary (or surrogate) be designated for routine receipt of all documents in areas of interest to RTSD, maintaining a file of these documents, in print or microcopy; in addition, the RTSD executive secretary (or surrogate) be held responsible for monitoring international activities in order to identify the standards documents which are not routinely received but relate to the division's interests and to maintain a file of such documents for use of the proposed committee or other RTSD constituents.

Finally: 15. That, should recommendation 13 above not be approved, RTSD vest responsibility in the RTSD executive secretary for performance of the functions of the proposed committee, as listed above.

Reference

1. *IFLA Journal* 1:243-44 (1975).

Editor's note: Attachment A referred to in this report, "Suggestions for the Formation and Operation of IFLA Working Groups," is to appear in a forthcoming issue of *IFLA Journal*. For attachment B, "Resources and Technical Services Division—Goals for Action," see *Library Resources & Technical Services* 23:175-76 (Spring 1979). A draft version of attachment C, "ALA International Relations Policy Statement Adopted by ALA Council, June 29, 1978," was published in *American Libraries* 9:293-94 (May 1978). See also *American Libraries* 9:429 (July/Aug. 1978). Attachment D follows this report. Attachment E, "Criteria to Be Used in the Selection of Candidates to Represent ALA Abroad: A Draft for Discussion," was published in *American Libraries* 10:260-61 (May 1979).

ATTACHMENT D

June 17, 1977

MEMO

TO: RTSD Board

FROM: International Cataloging and Consultation Committee

Profile of a Candidate to Serve as an RTSD Representative on Cataloging Matters to IFLA

The following is an attempt to sketch the profile of an ideal RTSD representative to IFLA. It is fully expected that perhaps no one will be available who fully satisfies these criteria, and who can accept such an assignment; nonetheless, this can serve as a 'checklist' against which potential candidates can be evaluated. A brief rationalization for each of the attributes listed will be given immediately following their statement.

1. The representative selected should be a member in good standing of the ALA.
2. The representative should have been a member of RTSD for a substantial time.

The representative should have demonstrated interest in the activities of RTSD, been active in the division, and should be sensitive to the general philosophy and policies developed by that division's membership. It is expected that the representative should be one who will vigorously represent the RTSD and the ALA within IFLA, and should be active in its programs; hence, we should select someone who has demonstrated these attributes within the ALA. Likewise, it is highly desirable that the person should have been active in RTSD's deliberations for a significant period of time thereby making him/her sensitive or attuned to RTSD's concerns so that he/she can adequately represent the division's interests in international fora.

3. The representative should have been a member of, and active in, an RTSD divisional or sectional committee concerned with the making of cataloging policy.

The representative should have demonstrated extensive experience in the making of cataloging policy. The representative should have demonstrated his/her ability to be active in such fora. The particular exposure to RTSD's concerns as reflected by membership on policy making committees such as CPRC, and DCC, or CCRE, SPRC, SAC would help ensure that the representative will have had experience with and demonstrated his/her ability to assist in the formulation of cataloging policy.

4. The representative should have been engaged in library cataloging and related activities for a substantial period of time.

It is important that the candidate has been professionally involved with cataloging questions for an extensive period of time. Since cataloging codes and standards have significant impact on the practical world of library cataloging departments, it is important that the representative have extensive experience with it. It is desirable that the representative have had firsthand experience with at least one major change of cataloging codes.

5. The representative should have held a position of responsibility in technical services or cataloging for a substantial period of time, preferably as the head of a unit charged with such responsibility.

Cataloging practices and procedures have a profound effect on the whole fabric of technical services; hence, it is highly desirable that the representative have a broad view, and that such a broad view should have been gained from the perspective of a position of responsibility.

6. The representative should be conversant with automated library systems.

Many of the issues relating to standards, which will need to be resolved in international fora such as IFLA and ISO in the immediate future, will be strongly influenced by machine considerations; it is, therefore, highly desirable that the representative should have been actively involved in the study or planning or

design of, or the implementation of, or interaction with such systems for a substantial period of time, e.g., 5 years with this technology. Membership on committees such as the RTSD Filing Committee or MARBI should be granted serious consideration in making a selection.

7. The representative should have had experience with standard setting activity, and preferably contributed to such activity.

The representative should have firsthand experience with the process of standards-setting deliberations. The candidate should also be someone who has devoted some fraction of his/her professional energies in reflection on such questions, and broader questions relating to the nature of standards. Consideration should be given to a candidate who has had experience with American standards-making organizations such as ANSI.

8. The representative should be conversant with theories underlying cataloging and library catalogs including the impact of automation.

It can scarcely be denied that computer technology will determine the ambience for our catalogs of the future. The representative should have demonstrated his/her grasp of the fundamental theoretical bases for library catalogs and cataloging. The only tangible proof of the possession of this expertise is the quality of the contributions he/she has made to the professional literature.

9. The representative should have had responsibility for the implementation of changes in cataloging practices or codes.

Since the United States possesses a highly developed bibliographic control apparatus, it is highly important that the representative have had practical experience with the consequences of the transition from one standard to another, preferably in a bibliographical environment in which a broad spectrum of problems would have manifested themselves.

10. The representative should have had extensive experience with the maintenance of a large catalog which has been established for a considerable length of time.

This will ensure that the representative has had firsthand experience with the maintenance of a complex catalog containing a variety of cataloging codes, the problems of integrating a variety of cataloging codes into such an instrument, and the solutions to those problems.

11. The representative should be both articulate and persuasive.

Since the representative will be required to represent the interests of the RTSD and the American library community in public fora, it is essential that he/she be capable of presenting a point of view articulately and persuasively.

12. The representative should have thorough knowledge of, or have professional experience in, a variety of library environments, e.g., both a public and a research or academic library environment.

Be there truth or not to the assertion that there is a dichotomy of interests between public and research libraries it is highly desirable that the RTSD representative have such a well-rounded background.

INSTRUCTIONS TO AUTHORS

In preparing articles to be submitted for publication in *Library Resources & Technical Services*, please follow these procedures:

1. Submit only original, unpublished articles. Write the article in a grammatically correct, simple, readable style. Remember that the author is responsible for the accuracy of the statements in his or her article.
2. Devise a brief title. On a separate covering page give the title, the name(s) of the author(s), and the title and affiliation of each. Do not repeat this information elsewhere in the manuscript.
3. On a separate page type a brief abstract of the article, double spaced.
4. Use Merriam-Webster's *New Collegiate Dictionary*, 8th ed. (backed up by Webster's *Third International*), as your authority for spelling and usage; prefer the first spelling if there is a choice. Verify the spelling of names in an appropriate reference; don't rely solely on your memory.
5. Use the University of Chicago Press *A Manual of Style* as your authority for capitalization, punctuation, quotations, tables, and captions. (ALA style includes a few exceptions, which editors will mark.)
6. Type the manuscript on standard size, nonerasable paper, double spaced. Type quoted text double spaced also. Use the customary footnote reference indexes throughout the text, but do not type the footnote itself on the same page.
7. Submit all footnotes and references at the end of the paper, typed double spaced on a separate page. In general follow the practices recommended by Kate L. Turabian's *Manual for Writers of Term Papers, Theses, and Dissertations* with these exceptions:

Cite journal articles according to this pattern:

author's first name or initials, author's surname, title of article, *title of journal* volume:page references (issue date).—e.g.,

I. R. Kent Wood, "Success Is Easy When You Know How to Fail," *Audiovisual Instruction* 23:22 (Oct. 1978).

Note the punctuation and spacing pattern. Note also that the volume, but not the issue number, is given and that the names of the months are abbreviated and are not separated from the year by a comma. Note that the first line is not indented.

For subsequent references to a previously cited work, the surname of the author, a shortened form of the title (do not use *op. cit.* or *loc. cit.*), and the page reference are enough, e.g.,

4. Wood, "Success Is Easy," p.26.

If no other reference intervenes, use *Ibid.* (do not italicize) to take the place of whatever elements of the previous reference apply.

Number items as 1., 2., etc.; do not use superscript numbers.

Underline or quote all titles in both references and bibliographies.

Use p.726-30, not pp. 726-730, for citations to a book; abbreviate *volume* as V.2 or 2v.

Verify all citations carefully.

8. Submit all tables and illustrations at the end of the paper on separate pages, but indicate the desired placement in the text by adding an instruction in brackets, e.g., [Insert Table 2]. Provide a caption for each illustration and for each table. Type the tables double spaced and follow the examples in Turabian or the *Manual of Style* in constructing them.
9. Submit camera-ready copy for illustrations. Please protect it with cardboards when mailing your paper. Do not mar it with paper clips, staples, etc.
10. If you have presented your paper at a conference, identify the conference by name and date in your covering letter. Send the original, ribbon copy, and two photocopies to: Elizabeth L. Tate, Editor, *LRTS*, 11415 Farmland Dr., Rockville, MD 20852. Please include an addressed envelope with postage to speed the return of your manuscript during the editorial review.

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- c. subjects of articles

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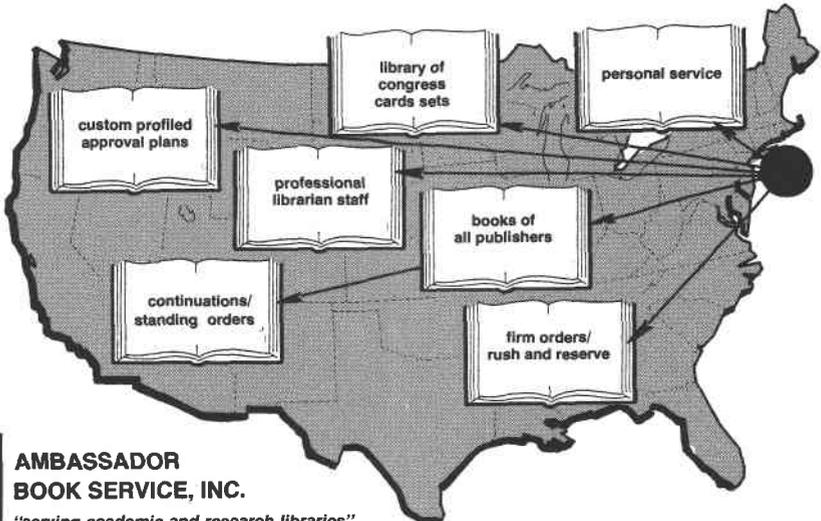
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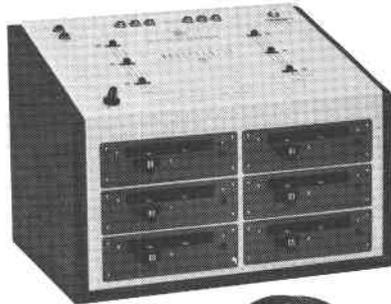
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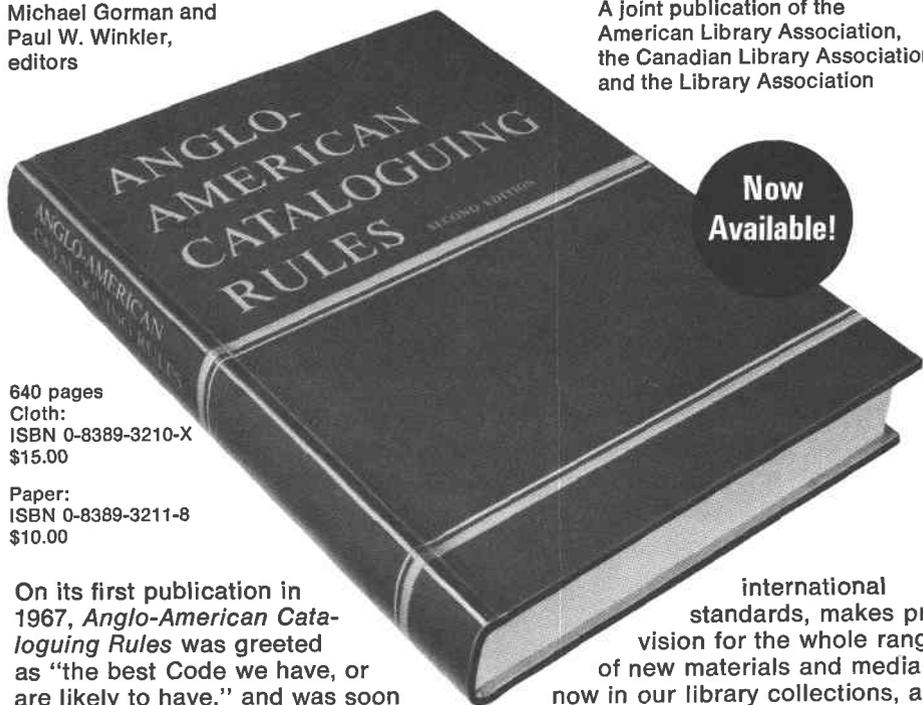
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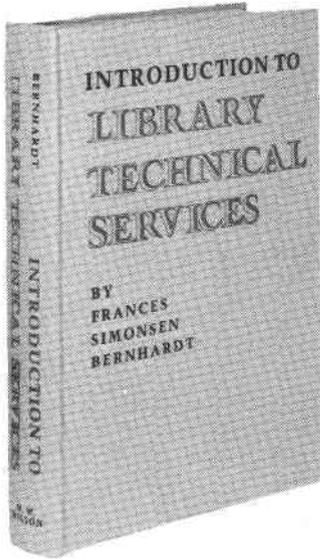
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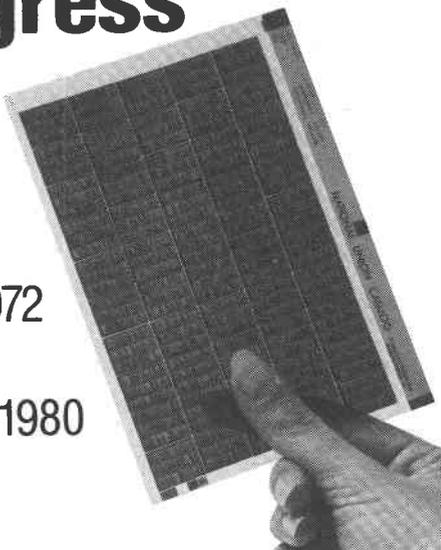
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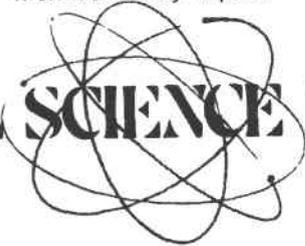
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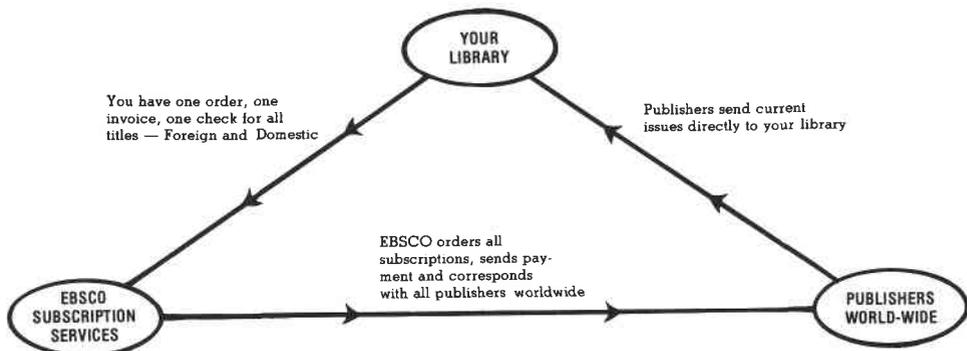
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