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The View from the Editor's Chair

Benjamin A. Custer

A brief history of the last four editions of the Dewey Decimal Classification *from the personal viewpoint of its seventh editor.*

THIS WILL NOT BE A LEARNED, expository, or argumentative paper on the theory and practice of making classification systems or of using them. Instead, it will be a personal view of the *Dewey Decimal Classification* as seen from the editor's chair over a period of nearly a quarter of a century. This approach appears to me to be fitting in view of the fact that I retired in February 1980, shortly after publication of the two most recent editions of the Classification, the nineteenth full edition in June 1979 and the eleventh abridged edition in December. Since this is a personal view, nothing in the paper necessarily reflects the views or position of the Library of Congress, of the Forest Press, or of the Decimal Classification Editorial Policy Committee.

Like most users of libraries in the English-speaking world, long before I became its editor I saw the Decimal Classification at work in public, secondary school, and college libraries. My first intensive exposure to it, however, was during my year of graduate professional studies, 1931–32, when along with a hundred other students, I deciphered the mysteries of 327, 948.9, and 822.33. I remember returning to school after the Christmas holiday that year and being told in a hushed voice by a member of the faculty that the patron saint of librarianship, Melvil Dewey, had died on December 26, just a few days past his eightieth birthday. Though it is less true now, during the first decade of my tenure as editor, Dewey, the man, was a living presence in our daily work, often invoked to prove a point in contention. Either we said, "Melvil would consider this innovation totally unacceptable," or we said, "Grandfather (our occasional pet name for him) was a

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The author is editor emeritus, Dewey Decimal Classification, and was formerly chief, Decimal Classification Division, Library of Congress. Edited version of a paper presented to the Classification Round Table, Bibliographic Control Division, International Federation of Library Associations, on August 26, 1979. Accepted for publication September 1979. By way of paying tribute to Ben Custer on his retirement, the editor has selected three additional papers on classification for this issue.

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great innovator, and he would heartily favor this new idea."

Needless to say, I never met Dewey, but I did one time see Dorkas Fellows, editor from 1921 to 1937. This meeting took place at an American Library Association conference in 1936 or 1937.

I never actually applied the DDC to books until 1946, when I went to the Detroit Public Library as director of processing, in which capacity I supervised its application by others for ten years. I am embarrassed to say that I even recommended to the library director that we reclassify to the Library of Congress system, but he wisely overruled me. And I had the temerity to make that suggestion even before the 1960s when it became fashionable for American libraries to convert from DC to LC. During those ten years in Detroit I became very active in the American Library Association and consequently had official contacts with DC personalities, such as Advisory Committee chairwoman, Janet S. Dickson, Forest Press president, Godfrey Dewey, son of Melvil, and editor, David J. Haykin. In 1953 I attended the DC Editorial Policy Committee meeting that decided that the Library of Congress should assume editorial responsibility for the system; and in 1949 I was a member of the ALA board that was threatened with a lawsuit for daring to question Milton J. Ferguson's fitness to be the editor.

Finally in 1956, I myself was named editor. The story of those years, as well as the years from 1873 onward when the DDC was edited by Dewey himself, by May Seymour, by Dorkas Fellows, and by others, is admirably set forth with full documentation in John P. Comaromi's absorbing work *The Eighteen Editions of the Dewey Decimal Classification.*[1] This paper, therefore, will be limited to certain events and trends in my own 1956–80 period. I shall call these Cosmopolitanization, Modernization, Frustration, Satisfaction, and The Light Side.

COSMOPOLITANIZATION

In its earliest years the *Dewey Decimal Classification* was almost wholly oriented to the literature likely to be acquired by American academic libraries (like Melvil Dewey's own Amherst) and public libraries, to serve the reading interests of a nineteenth-century community inhabited by white Anglo-Saxon Protestant gentlemen, many of whom read Latin and Greek, often also French and German, but who did not dream that anything of cultural or scientific value could be published in Russian, and had never heard of Tamil or Ibo; who, like Dr. Samuel Johnson, always equated religion with the Christian religion, and usually equated the Christian religion with Protestantism. In those early days, and, indeed, up through the fifteenth edition of 1951, even though the internationally oriented Universal Decimal Classification was launched in 1895, Dewey and his successors appear not to have realized fully just how successfully the DDC had invaded the international library scene and just how great a need there was for the Decimal Classification to divest itself of its parochialism if it was to meet the needs of an increasing fraction of its users.

It has been my pleasure to participate in a major effort to internationalize the system increasingly through the sixteenth to the nineteenth editions, with the results plain to see as the proportion of sales outside North America has soared to 25, to 33, to 40, and now to almost 50 percent of the total. Supported by the findings of various surveys of the use of DDC—in the British Isles by the Library Association,[2] in Asia and Africa by the Forest Press-American Library Association sponsored Field Survey, and in Latin America by the Organization of American States—we have slowly eased the way for libraries that needed special provisions and shorter numbers for the branches of history, geography, language, literature, the arts, philosophy, and religion that had been of little or no concern to the American library users of 1876. We have introduced the detailed tables of areas and of racial, ethnic, and national groups. And, perhaps most important, we have extended the bonds of international cooperation and appreciation through meetings like those sponsored by IFLA, through exchange of operating personnel, through inclusion of librarians from other lands on the Editorial Policy Committee, through frequent and frank exchanges of views on specific classification issues with classifiers in other countries, and through development of expansions that have made the DDC acceptable for use as the organizing principle of many national bibliographies in countries that do not follow the American custom of preferring alphabetical arrangement under specific subject headings.

One of the most rewarding bonuses of this cosmopolitanizing effort has been the many professional and personal friends I have made on continents other than my own, in Australia, South America, Europe, Asia and Africa, where I have met with colleagues in their homes and learned to know more than just the surface of their countries.

Modernization

In like fashion we have tried, through the course of the four full editions I have edited, to bring DDC itself into the modern world, both substantively and organizationally.

Among the *substantive* improvements, women are no longer classed as a custom in 396, but coequally with men as the two sexes sociologically considered in 305. American native races are no longer referred to by the to them distasteful name of Indians, and are no longer considered a special topic of North and South American history, but are given the same treatment as any other race or ethnic group, no matter whether the considerations are political, economic, artistic, social, scientific, technical, or historical. The history of the Jews is no longer classed as part of their religion. There is substantial provision for topics in Roman Catholic Christianity, as well as for topics in Islam, Buddhism, and other religions. Homosexuality, which in the fourteenth edition was called a "vicious mania," is now a "sexual deviation," a type of sex relation, and a custom.

Among the *organizational* improvements, the system has been gradually developed from a series of "pigeonholes" for various

subjects—the word is that used by Walter Stanley Biscoe, Melvil Dewey's associate—to a rational and coherent structure characterized by subject integrity and predictable subject relationships. The concepts of citation order and facet analysis have been adopted and put increasingly to use. The index, from being a grab bag of terms directed only to those schedule numbers where the terms were named, has become a systematic structure that enables the thinking classifier to identify class numbers for tens of thousands of topics that could not be spelled out in full within limits less than encyclopedic.

FRUSTRATION

No work assignment, no matter how glamorous and enjoyable, lacks its frustrations, and mine has been no exception. The frustrations have come from many sources.

Like anyone else, I enjoy praise more than adverse criticism. I basked under the favorable response to the sixteenth edition, and, since I knew that the seventeenth was an even better edition, it was a severe blow to me to find how many people disliked it. I thought the introduction was much better organized than its predecessor and found that many people could not understand it. I liked the edition's symmetry and simplicity, and was shocked to find that people were appalled by its starkness. I knew that the index was based on a brilliant idea (even though not very well executed for lack of time) and was horrified to learn that people considered it of no help whatever, if not actually a hindrance to proper use of the system, accused us of sabotaging it on purpose, and so panicked the Forest Press that it directed us, at a cost of close to one hundred thousand dollars, to prepare a second, tradition-bound, index. There was, however, one big satisfaction at the end: unpopular or not, 23 percent more copies were sold of the seventeenth edition than of the sixteenth edition, which had itself been the most successful edition in DDC history.

The text of Edition 18 was completed in 1970, and it was expected that the set would be published early in 1971. Consequently, since the *British National Bibliography* wanted to begin to use this edition on 1 January 1971 to coincide with the start of a new publication cycle, it was decided against my better judgment that the Library of Congress—my office, in short—would begin to use the forthcoming edition at the same time. Unfortunately, a series of events for which the editors were in no way responsible delayed publication until late 1971; and, in fact, no sets were in users' hands before January and February of 1972. This delay meant that for more than a year American and British libraries received Dewey numbers that in many cases they could not fully understand, and the scores of complaints we received were indeed a source of frustration. Now we have the nineteenth edition, just published, which the Library of Congress as well as the national libraries of Canada and Australia began to use in January 1980. This time instead of advancing, the British are delaying implementation for a full year, until January 1981. The experience with the eighteenth edition showed that an effort at overseas accom-

modation can in some cases create more ill will domestically than it creates good will internationally!

The results were similar when, at British urging but with my full support, we relocated British and United Kingdom history to 941 from 942, where they had shared a number with English history for nearly 100 years. I think we did the right thing, but four years later American complaints are still coming in.

Still another frustration was the requirement through the eighteenth, but not the nineteenth, edition that we continue to display a residue of Melvil Dewey's peculiar spellings. I maintained strongly for nearly twenty years that the use of such spellings *dis*couraged rather than *en*couraged international use because of the problems encountered by users for whom English is a second language. But Godfrey Dewey once said that he would rather see the DDC disappear than not retain at least a sampling of his father's spellings, and it seemed only prudent, as long as Godfrey lived, to adhere to his wishes.

Another frustration came from the preparation of the abridged edition. This edition, intended mainly for small North American public and school libraries, was traditionally so designed that a small library growing larger could graduate from the abridged to the full edition merely by the addition of more digits to class numbers already in use. We had received many complaints about the awkward arrangements that often arose, especially when the DC structure was irregular. An example is the number for the history of Norway, 948.1, where history of the subdivisions of Norway is assigned to 948.2–948.4, rather than 948.12–948.14. Consequently, for the tenth edition we decided to modify rather than strictly abridge, so that 948.1 would be used for the parts as well as for the whole of Norway. Hardly had this edition appeared before a new series of complaints arose. Small libraries receiving computer-generated DDC numbers from processing centers, numbers arbitrarily cut down from full DDC numbers, were unable to obtain the correct numbers as provided by the tenth edition. Finally, frustrated by demands from both directions, we decided that Edition 11 would once again be a true abridgment. Libraries trying to follow the latest abridged DC will see a pendulum in operation: they will have classed the history of Oslo in 948.2, then in 948.1, then again in 948.2. My frustration only reflects that of the suffering librarians caught in the middle between two equally noisy sets of partisans!

The Cataloging-in-Publication program has provided us with an unending series of frustrations. The program, established nearly a decade ago with great fanfare, was based on the premise that proof copies of the works would be made available for cataloging purposes. It soon became clear that most publishers found this requirement inconvenient. Now, as standard procedure, the publisher supplies a title, perhaps a foreword or table of contents, and a brief description of what he or she considers the book to be about. Typical of the resulting protests are those we received for classing a spy novel titled *Birds of Prey* under zoology, even though the publisher provided not a

single clue to the true nature of the work. When such errors are discovered, we can at some expense correct the bibliographic records; but so long as any copy of the book remains it will bear within it the wrong decimal number (and the wrong Library of Congress number and subject headings as well).

I mentioned earlier the American fashion of the 1960s to convert from DC to LC classification, a fad occasioned by a variety of factors. However, at the same time that a good many United States libraries were discontinuing use of the DDC, international use must have been increasing since a comparison of the total sales of the eighteenth edition (ca. 55,000 copies) with those for the fourteenth edition (ca. 16,000 copies) reveals an increase of more than 200 percent. It was frustrating enough to learn of first one library, then another, then many, abandoning the DC, though it cheered us when the giant University of Illinois, America's third largest university library, announced that it would stay with us. But the really bitter pill I had to swallow was the countless letters saying, in effect, "Dear Mr. Custer," or even "Dear Ben, We have decided to convert from Dewey to Library of Congress Classification. Please supply us with a conversion table so we can turn all our DC numbers into LC numbers" —with no expenditure of mental effort on our part!

The editorship of the Decimal Classification is an ideal job in which to encounter zealots and enthusiasts, usually people who have become convinced that DDC gives their cause insufficient attention or improper placement. Our frustration comes in being unable to explain the convolutions of classification structure in a way that will convince these people that their particular field of interest is not being discriminated against, or to make it clear that the detail of development is based on the extent of the literature, in short, on literary warrant, rather than on theoretical considerations.

SATISFACTIONS

But no matter how disgruntling, how humiliating, how depressing, or how distasteful the frustrations, they cannot begin to equal the profound satisfactions of what must be one of the most interesting jobs in librarianship. The genuine pleasure that has come from seeing the cosmopolitanization, purification, and regularization of the classification cannot be fully realized by one who is not on the front line participating in the action. I recall our sense of accomplishment on the day that two assistants and I brainstormed the old "divide like" note into a new "add" note, and on the day that we worked out the structural concept of the index referring up to "other aspects" where the term indexed is not named but is included by implication.

Another satisfaction derives from the increasing international use of DC, from use in some twenty countries in 1932 to use in at least 134 today, and from the soaring sales figures, from less than 10,000 copies of the thirteenth edition, published in 1932, to approximately 55,000 for the eighteenth edition in 1971. To this may be added the pleasure of having the classification adopted as the organizing principle by so

many national bibliographies, including the *American Book Publishing Record.*

As the DDC has become more rational and more firmly established, I have had the satisfaction of observing greatly improved personal relations in the Decimal Classification family, i.e., among the Forest Press, the Editorial Policy Committee, the Library of Congress administration, the users, and the editors. In my early days as editor the acrimony and tension at editorial planning meetings was unbelievable; had a match been lighted, the mix would have exploded. Nowadays all these groups meet and confer with mutual trust and respect, no matter how vigorous their disagreements. It certainly makes a difference to know that your product is alive and well and not about to draw its last breath.

The Light Side

To conclude with a few of the anecdotes that have lightened the view from the editor's chair, there was Dewey's spelling of his own name. In his passion for efficiency early in his career, he dropped permanently the use of his two middle names, cut his first name down from Melville to Melvil, and for a few years reduced his surname from Dewey to Dui. The story may be apocryphal, but, since he reverted to the Dewey spelling just about the time he was married, it is said that when he asked Miss Annie Godfrey to share his life, his fortune, and his name, she agreed only upon the condition that the name she shared take the familiar form used by Admiral George, Philosopher John, and Governor Tom (none of whom, by the way, was related to Melvil). If this story is true, it was one of the few times in his life that Melvil Dewey met his match.

There was the lecturer at the University of Hull in England, born 1901, who wrote or edited several books on antiquarian subjects, whose parents had named her Decima L. Douie. And there was the former staff member, now deceased, who was so incensed by an unfavorable review of the seventeenth edition in a British publication that, while visiting Britain, she threatened to sue the editor for defamation.

After the poorly received seventeenth edition appeared, there were the pins or brooches anouncing Dewey Is Dead. But the T-shirts that were worn in 1976 when both the Decimal Classification and the American Library Association celebrated centennials, asked Dewey? and answered You Bet We Do!

These are a few of the highlights of an experience that for this editor has been unparalleled—a great twenty-four years.

References

1. John P. Comaromi, *The Eighteen Editions of the Dewey Decimal Classification* (Albany, N.Y.: Forest Press Division, Lake Placid Education Foundation, 1976).
2. Keith Davison, *Classification Practice in Britain* (London: The Library Association, 1966). Reports of the other surveys have not been published.

Fremont Rider and His *International Classification:* An Interesting Tale of American Library History

Herbert Poole

Fremont Rider died approximately seventeen years ago. He was a librarian of many talents, the possessor of an inventive mind, and an intellectual competitor of such other contemporary frontiersmen of American librarianship as Cutter, Biscoe, and Dewey. One of his last and least known contributions to what has eventually become history instead of practice was his International Classification for the Arrangement of Books on the Shelves of General Libraries, *the only totally enumerative classification scheme yet devised. The present paper sketches Rider's life, describes critically his classification system, and posits several explanations for its publication as well as its character.*

IT IS SOMETIMES just plain fun to ponder the fascinating things that seize our imaginations and refuse to let them go until some mysterious appetite has been satisfied. To test this observation, one need only recall the favorite professor who embellished the mainstream of his lectures with the seamy and fascinating sidelights of history. Most of them never really mattered, but they held our rapt attention and deepened our enjoyment. We are creatures of pastime, and like Tolkien's hobbits, all of us seem to enjoy a good story now and then.

American library history is no different from any other history in this regard. For example, take the story behind the article by Arthur Maltby that appeared in the winter 1977 issue of *Library Resources & Technical Services* entitled "Rider Revisited: Speculations Derived from an Unused Classification."[1] Few librarians in the United States today have had reason to study Rider or to learn furthermore that there are any systems for classifying library materials other than those of the Library of Congress and the Dewey Decimal System. Rider's system and the man himself are, however, both subjects that are quite interesting.

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Fremont Rider died approximately seventeen years ago. He was a man of many talents, the possessor of an inventive mind, and an intellectual competitor of such other contemporary frontiersmen of American librarianship as Cutter, Biscoe, and Dewey. One of his last and least known contributions to what has eventually become history instead of practice was his *International Classification for the Arrangement of Books on the Shelves of General Libraries.*

The *International Classification* appeared near the close of Rider's long and successful career in and around the American library profession, which had begun in 1907 when he was graduated from the New York State Library School at Albany.[2] The influences to which Rider was subject during his study there, under gurus of American librarianship like Melvil Dewey, James Wyer, and Walter S. Biscoe, undoubtedly remained with him as molding and guiding forces for the remainder of his life. Following the completion of his studies, Rider worked for several years as a secretary to Dewey at the Lake Placid Club on the seventh and later editions of the *Decimal Classification.*[3] Emulations of Dewey can be seen at intervals throughout the remainder of Rider's seventy-seven years.[4]

For sheer inventiveness, Rider must assuredly repose in the same company with Dewey, Shaw, Cutter, Ranganathan, and others. While perhaps not the inventor of compact book storage,[5] he was at least one of its earliest proponents, implementing a system of it in the Wesleyan University Library between 1938 and 1948.[6] He is universally credited as the inventor of the microcard, and at one time he served as chairman of the Microcard Foundation. He was a pioneer in interlibrary cooperation in the Connecticut valley, and he played a major role in the foundation of the Hampshire Interlibrary Center.[7] Between 1910 and 1917, he held top editorial positions with both the *Library Journal* and *Publishers Weekly.*[8]

By all accounts, Rider appears to have been a man unreconciled to idleness, filling his time with a staggering array of activities which ranged from land speculation and writing for the tourist trade to administering academic libraries, compiling genealogies, and finally publishing (at personal expense) his *International Classification* only months prior to his death. How long or how intensely Rider was interested in the development of a new classification scheme for libraries cannot be determined from existing literature. We know with some certainty that he was interested in the subject of classification by merit of his early work with Dewey and by the appearance of a paper in the literature in 1910.[9]

When published in its preliminary and, as fate would have it, its only edition in 1961, the *International Classification* contained a dogmatic essay of 33 pages, followed by the classification schedules themselves in 931 pages and an index of 242 pages. Rider's justification for the *International Classification* rested in his dissatisfaction with both the *Dewey Decimal Classification* and the *Library of Congress Classification* and on two basic premises which held that "a *library* classification is a classification intended to place in a practicable retrievable order the hun-

dreds of thousands of books standing on the shelves of a *general* library"; and "a library classification should have a very short and simple symbolization."[10]

Thus one can see that to Rider a bibliothetic (shelf-arrangement) system of classification for small, general libraries was more desirable than one that was bibliographic. Rider's beliefs were later supported by Dunkin, who noted that "in an American general library, a call number is only a shelving device."[11] Rider defined a "general" library as any library other than a special one, i.e., academic, public, or school and claimed that his scheme would accommodate adequately a collection of up to one million volumes.

Rider structured his scheme to contain less religious and geographical bias than either the DDC or the LCC, both of which he claimed in his introductory essay (and Dunkin confirms) favored Protestantism, Anglo-Saxonism, or U.S. geography to varying degrees;[12] hence the use of the term *international* in the scheme's title. He also structured the scheme to overcome this alleged bias by using short but comprehensive notations not possible in the DDC, which, according to Rider, produced numbers never shorter than two symbols and more often as long as six or more.

The notation of the *International Classification* makes use of all twenty-six characters of the Roman alphabet in groups of never more than three symbols. Such a notation permitted the use of 26 main classes, 26 × 26 or 676 subclasses, and 26 × 26 × 26 or 17,576 subheads. The notation is pure (i.e., not a mix of letters and numbers) as contrasted with Dewey (the next purest) and LC, the *Universal Decimal Classification,* and the *Bibliographic Classification* of Bliss, all of which employ mixed notations. Rider's scheme is totally enumerative, and makes use of ready-made class marks.[13]

Structurally the scheme is quite similar, if not nearly identical to those of C.A. Cutter and the Library of Congress. In some tables it follows arrangements identical to those of Dewey. It opens with a class "Generalia"; proceeds to philosophy, religion including psychology, history, geography, the social sciences, physical and natural sciences, fine arts, language, and literature; and ends with bibliography. Major exceptions to Cutter, the Library of Congress, and Dewey occur in the positions of fine arts and literature. He places psychology with philosophy and religion (an association that some hold to be invalid)[14] and separates philosophy from the natural and physical sciences by the interposition of the social sciences. Within certain tables such as physics (QI-QO), locations such as cryogenics under high temperature physics are questionable. Similar oddities can be found in other subclasses and subheads. A broad description of these can be found in Jesse Shera's discussion entitled: "Fremont Rides through the Dewey, Dewey Fog."[15]

Rider suggests that two-symbol book numbers for the system be provided by use of the first symbol of Walter Biscoe's two-symbol Date Table and by a single letter representing the author. This system provided for arrangement of books by their "decade-date" of publication

and then alphabetically by the initial of the author's last name. A portion of the Biscoe Date Table is shown here.

A = B.C.	G = 1800–1809
B = 1–999 A.D.	H = 1810–1819
. . . . .	. . . . .
C = 1000–1499 A.D.	T = 1930–1939
. . . . .	. . . . .
D = 1500–1599 A.D.	Z = 1990–1999
. . . . .	

To compare the *International Classification* notation to Dewey one might, as did Rider, consider Herbert Spencer's book, *Political Causes of the First World War,* published in 1934. When classified closely by Dewey and given a Cutter number, this would appear as:

940.53112
Sp36.

When classified as closely as the *International Classification* permits and given a Date Table symbol and a single-letter author symbol, this would appear as:

GDB
TS.

The brevity of the scheme thus becomes apparent.

From the appearance of the first reviews of the *International Classification* during the fall of 1961 and the spring of 1962, on through the winter that saw the announcement of Rider's death, it was for both Rider and his system a difficult time. Articles by Tauber, Shera, Langridge, Henshaw, Dunkin, and others appearing in the major professional journals genuflected before the reputation of the scheme's originator, but gave the scheme itself little quarter. As could be demonstrated, this treatment was in part justifiable, but in view of Rider's precarious health and the pressure that he admittedly felt to complete his work even with errors, if necessary, it may not have been altogether deserved.

The target of easiest criticism lay in the structure of Rider's system itself, which, according to Langridge, had been sacrificed for simplicity.[16] Shera, as mentioned earlier, confirmed Langridge's criticism time after time in citing instances of questionable locations or outright misplacements. The *International Classification,* it seemed, was replete with structural error, poor logic, and outdated ideas. The consensus was summarized best by Marie Henshaw when she wrote that it was

> disappointing that the International, in following Dewey, picks up so many of the subject misalignments and other errors. The anachronisms in Dewey are regrettable, but understandable. A new classification, unencumbered by tradition, should be particularly aware of the trouble spots in current classification and make efforts to improve and correct those subject areas.[17]

It seems altogether appropriate, however, in view of Rider's per-

sonal circumstances in 1961, to pose a philosophical question about his effort to devise a new and simple classification scheme. If, for the sake of argument, one were supposed to be on the verge of some discovery or major new development, the climax of which seemed to lie only days away, and if at about the same time one learned he had but few days left to live, is it unreasonable then to assume that under such conditions one might not attempt to complete one's work at the risk of some imperfection? Strong evidence exists that just such a set of circumstances confronted Rider during the period when the *International Classification* was being developed and readied for its "preliminary" and only edition. While criticism of the scheme's structural faults may be warranted, such criticism may have obscured qualities deserving more serious attention.

Rider himself suggested this argument in a letter to the editor published in *Library Journal* just six months before his death. Addressing himself to the criticisms of error and misalignments, he stated that

> for some of them there were 'reasons.' During the last two years of my work on the book I was struggling with convalescence from two serious operations. . . . I could not help but worry sometimes that, after all my work on the book, I might never finish it, and toward the end, I hurried some sections to press.
>
> On the other hand, some of the criticized allocations were deliberate. As the Preface emphasizes, 'parsimony' dictated many of them. Logic might prefer the inclusion of a subhead under a different main head; but, if that main head was already crammed full with completely logical subheads, while another main head was relatively empty, the latter attracted into itself certain quasi-independent sub-heads . . . not irresistibly attracted elsewhere.[18]

While the first of these statements answers the question raised earlier, the second is a difficult one to defend even for a bibliothetic classification system. Perhaps the spectre of death has an overriding effect on logic. One can only speculate and then proceed to try and view the scheme in a more objective light than most of Rider's colleagues who seemed to have had difficulty in seeing the *International Classification* as the praiseworthy effort that it is.

Structural arguments can be made against any classification system ever devised. Rider himself said that the perfect system had never been designed. It does not seem presumptuous to suggest that the portion of the title of the *International Classification* reading *Preliminary Edition Printed as Manuscript for the Receipt of Corrections, Emendations and Amplifications* expressed Rider's hope that someone would attempt to correct the structural problems, if time did indeed run out on him. In the same "Letter to the Editor" cited earlier, Rider indicated this to be true.

Aside from structural problems, it should be noted that there were several quite positive characteristics of the *International Classification.* Arthur Maltby dealt with a number of these quite well in his paper cited earlier. If from the perspective of notation one accepts the argument offered by Dunkin that in general "the hard fact is that call numbers are the written language of a classification scheme. In this

language we tell how to arrange books on shelves according to classes and subclasses of the classification scheme";[19] and if one also accepts Dunkin's argument that "call number language is like any other . . . in at least two ways: It limits what we can write" and "it can be understood easily only if its symbols are understood easily";[20] and if yet another advantage of a good notation is that it permits more permutations per given length of symbolization, then the *International Classification* rates extremely high.

Argument for Rider's notational system was strengthened still further by Dunkin when in writing on classification he stated, like many before him, that: "Brevity is helpful" and that mnemonic features are desirable.[21] The Rider notation met both of these criteria. The troublesome fact that purity of notation was self-limiting in the number of subclasses it permitted may not have been a real concern for the scheme, since it was designed within the limits of a one-million-volume library of a general nature. The limitation suggested to Rider at least that the likelihood of the need for more subclasses than the system permitted was not great. Even if it were, Rider saw extension by others as an adjusting mechanism.

Rider was deeply concerned over what he considered to be the lack of "parsimony" (brevity) in call number length. He saw in this many undesirable qualities, both from the standpoint of the user and from that of the technical and public service areas of the library. His wish for brevity and purity contains a certain appeal in this day of accelerating complexity.

From the economic standpoints of classification and maintenance of a system with notation like that of the *International Classification* many arguments are suggested. Being entirely alphabetic and enumerative, the class symbols are easily located. Being pure, the symbols facilitate shelving and retrieval. Being simple, they require no specialist for the classification process.

Yet another attractive feature of the *International Classification* is that it is a broad (as opposed to a close) scheme—broader than either Dewey or LC, and because of this probably not subject to as great a need for frequent revision nor to rapid outdating.[22] Broad classifications, by merit of their breadth, contain a kind of loosely syndetic nature that is uncharacteristic of close schemes without some manipulation, usually through the addition of costly *see also* references in the public catalog.[23] Syndetic, bibliothetic arrangements are important in open stack facilities, as they facilitate browsing and enhance greater use.

Rider contended that use of his book number system would, by what is known of the nature of use (that newest circulates most), promote circulation. This is a somewhat specious argument, since the nature of the system apparently permits confusion of two authors of the same last name publishing in the same subject within the same decade, century or millennium. Rider suggested that such confusion be avoided by some type of additional symbolization such as serial numbers 1, 2, 3, etc. to designate differences in the books. If such

modification were necessary, then only a purist could argue that use of the two-place Cutter or the three-place Cutter-Sanborn Tables might not be used just as easily and with more specificity. The chronological characteristic of the system would be sacrificed in this instance, however, as would the mnemonic factor that is enhanced by the simplicity of the Date Table.

The enumerative nature of the scheme cannot be seen in a positive light. Rider apparently had two choices open to him, as does any designer of a classification scheme, as to how compound subjects would be handled. He could have pursued the analytico-synthetic route taken with some success by S. R. Ranganathan. Because of his rule of parsimony, however, he chose enumeration, and in so doing produced the only totally enumerative system known.[24] According to Langridge, many older systems attempted this without success.[25] Rider tried to avoid the cul-de-sac that enumeration eventually leads into as knowledge expands by leaving blanks in the subheads. The position of some of these cause wonder, however, such as HDV, which occurs between HDU (Southeast Ireland) and HDW (Southwest Ireland). (Could this have been for Tolkien's middle-earth?) Foskett maintains that such a system is futile, since modern knowledge is inescapably many faceted.[26]

Rider must have known how great the odds against him were, not only in terms of his own mortality, but also in terms of the morality of classification systems as well. Tauber described these odds eloquently in his review of the *International Classification* when he observed that "the history of classification has been quite revealing in the array of corpses of schemes devised by individuals."[27] Ironically, Rider himself had observed fifty years earlier that "the appearance of any projected system of classification, new and avowedly iconoclastic raises at once very grave questions as to the futility of such new schemes.[28]

A new scheme, whether it be the *International Classification* or any other, even if it were perfect, faces great competition in America from Dewey, the Library of Congress, and the printed card services that help promote them.[29] This situation means that even if something better did come along its adoption would be problematic, but like Fremont Rider's effort, "it also reaffirms," according to Dunkin, "the inventive individualism without which there is no progress."[30]

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On the Classification of Psychology in General Library Classification Schemes

Miluse Soudek

The high level of theoretical, methodological, experimental and professional achievements in psychology during the last hundred years contributed to its general acceptance as an independent scientific discipline. The traditional general classification systems, such as the widely used Dewey Decimal Classification and the Library of Congress Classification, are in many respects inadequate to handle psychological literature. Historical analysis reveals that no substantial changes can be achieved within the restrictive frameworks of these schedules. The fact that psychology is a widely differentiated discipline indicates that new theoretical approaches to bibliographic organization, especially in relation to developing a general classification scheme for use in computer systems, will have to be established.

THE LIBRARIANS IN ACADEMIA work in an intellectual milieu with professional colleagues from academic departments, many of whom, for various reasons, are quite reluctant to accept the librarians' academic credibility. Among other misgivings, they question "the intellectual currency of those who classify psychology as a subdivision of philosophy." That is one of several criticisms made by Dawson in his article "Not Too Academic."[1]

This objection is valid; psychology is placed close to philosophy in the Subject Classification of J. D. Brown, the Expansive Classification of C. A. Cutter, and the Colon Classification of S. R. Ranganathan. Only in the Bibliographic Classification of H. E. Bliss are psychological sciences treated as a main class, close to biological, anthropological and social sciences. The psychology class was compiled in collaboration with C. M. Louttit, a psychologist specializing in the bibliography of psychology. The most widely used and best known library classification schemes for multidiscipline academic collections in the United States, the Dewey Decimal Classification (DDC) and the Library of Congress (LC) Classification, associate psychology with philosophy by classifying this independent scientific discipline as a subdivision of philosophy. Moreover, within this subclass of philosophy, psychology is

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represented in a truncated manner, with several essential branches classified under numerous other classes throughout the schemes. These aspects, as well as some other factors, seem to be the main reason for the discontent of some specialists in the discipline, as expressed in Elliott's statement "psychology is poorly served by most classification schemes."[2] This complaint, expressed recently, is not new. Louttit, an editor of *Psychological Abstracts* in the forties and fifties, considered the general library classification schemes, especially the DDC and the LC Classification to be "completely inadequate to handle psychological literature in a specialized library."[3]

Is the problem of the organization of a single discipline in a library classification relevant? It ought to be, indeed. The weaknesses in one discipline, for which no substantial remedy was found despite all the changes in the classification schedules throughout decades, can reveal and magnify the weaknesses inherent in the theory of the whole scheme as such.

Is the above-mentioned problem relevant for a librarian, at least in a college and university setting? Yes, it ought to be relevant. Nevertheless, for librarians in a variety of practical situations in general libraries the role of the theory behind classification seems to be minimized. A classification system is simply a tool, a technique for cataloging that a given library has chosen to use. The average librarian considers it his or her duty (and virtue) to develop sufficient expertise in using that established tool, and not to question its validity. In this respect we agree with Richardson who stresses that "the librarian can no more afford to ignore the question of the real scientific order in arranging his books than the professor of mineralogy in arranging his specimens." These activities, Richardson believes, are identical. He only wishes that "the average librarian had the same scientific attitude towards his problem that the average professor has toward his."[4]

And how about the library user? He, who is always claimed to be the final and decisive factor of a librarian's work? Traditional library classifications, although created primarily as means for shelving arrangement, do not provide logical arrangement clues for the users of psychological literature and do not facilitate their search and efficiency in use. A systematic grouping of books by subject does not exist in the framework for classifying psychology. Works closely related are separated the whole length of the library. Browsing through library stacks in search for their books in psychology, the users should be (and most often are not) familiar with many other classes of the system in use because these are likely to include materials of interest. Library classification seems again to serve as a tool supplying the call numbers by which one finds particular titles, usually in the strangest locations. For an effective bibliographic organization of psychology the library classification seems to be meaningless. After unsuccessful attempts to communicate with the "Dewey people," psychologists, as a professional group, seem to have lost interest in library classifications. "We should learn to translate our needs into the librarians' way of thinking"[5] appears to be the practical solution to them. They de-

veloped their own specialized scheme and system for *Psychological Abstracts,* suitable for retrieval of detailed information.

Possibly more than in any other scientific discipline the question of the classification of psychology can only be properly understood with some background knowledge of its history. Therefore, our first intention in the present study is to point out, in brief retrospect, how the revolutionary developments in psychology in the last hundred years caused a radical shift in its relationships and why its association with philosophy is not valid any more. The concise overview of some major internal and external transformations in psychology in the abovementioned period should also help us understand why the library schedules for psychology are not considered meaningful any more.

Furthermore, we shall offer a closer look at some problems in classifying psychology in two classification systems, DDC and LC Classification. Besides the historical anachronism of classifying psychology as a branch of philosophy, other objections are directed to the fact that some important developments in psychology are not at all reflected in the extremely narrow subclass created for psychology; the new fields and/or concepts currently forming an intrinsic part of psychology were not included in the framework of this subclass. The consequence is a far-ranging scattering of psychology throughout the schedules, a result that is theoretically as well as practically not feasible. In addition to these aspects concerning the relative position in these systems, we will deal with some other subject specifications as not having proper designations in the schemes. No significant solution seems to be effective within the framework of these schedules. In the discussion some new trends in the classification theory will be mentioned.

About a century ago the Decimal Classification of Melvil Dewey was published for the first time; in Leipzig the first psychological laboratory for experimental psychology was established at approximately the same time. Thus, the seventies were an anniversary decade for both librarians and psychologists. Yet their disciplines developed very differently in the last hundred years. This is the reason the few rare attempts to unify their scientific approaches were futile.

Notes on the History of Psychology[6]

The Origin of Psychology in Philosophy

The idea that "psychology has a long past, but only a short history" was expressed by Ebbinghaus, an eminent German psychologist, in the first decade of this century and has been quoted ever since.[7] By "long past" one understands philosophical doctrines within which psychological ideas developed. The "short history" relates to the period when experimental methods helped establish psychology as an independent scientific discipline.

Although the very beginning of psychology is difficult to trace, it is safe to say that its roots go back thousands of years to the early cultures of human civilization, to supernatural beliefs, magic, and taboos. Historical traces of psychological theories, for which we have documentary material, begin with the ancient Egyptians. Although

Western psychological thought was also influenced by other oriental cults and philosophies (Hebrew, Hindu), the treatment of psychological aspects within the philosophical systems is known mainly from the classical Greek and Roman philosophies. Especially the writings of Greek philosophers with their reasoning on the nature of man, his mind, mental operations and human behavior as such, formed the roots of modern psychology and established philosophy as the most prominent ancestor of psychological sciences. From that period it was philosophy within which psychological thoughts developed and grew for centuries.

During the medieval period one can trace psychological thinking in many Christian theological writings, as well as in Jewish and Islamic works. Later there were diversified philosophical movements within which philosophical psychology flourished through the Renaissance. Yet psychology as a separate scientific discipline did not exist.

The Birth of "New Psychology" in the Nineteenth Century

The initial emancipation of psychology from its prior status as a branch of philosophy is now about one century old. It started in the 1870s when psychology began to separate from philosophy and to acquire an independent existence as a new experimental science, as an autonomous discipline. Subjecting mental life to experimental study under laboratory conditions was the main characteristic feature of a "new" experimental psychology as opposed to "old" speculative psychology.

Because of a very important event, the year 1879 can be regarded as an official birthday of scientific psychology; in that year the first psychological laboratory was set up at the University of Leipzig in Germany by Wilhelm Wundt, professor of philosophy at that institution. The following chronological events are mentioned by various historians of modern psychology: Granville Stanley Hall was the founder of the first laboratory of psychology in the United States in 1884. Three years later he established the *American Journal of Psychology,* the first psychological periodical published in the U.S. In 1888 the first professorship in psychology in the world was established with the appointment of James McKeen Cattell at the University of Pennsylvania. With Cattell's appointment, psychology received formal academic recognition for its independence from philosophy. From this time on, American universities one by one began to create separate departments of psychology. In 1910 William James published his famous work, *Principles of Psychology,* essential for establishing the boundaries of modern psychology.

In the 1890s further academic changes in psychology tended to break the traditional link of psychology with philosophy even more. Further psychological laboratories, in which methods of science were applied, were established, especially in Germany and in the United States. New journals and seminal psychological books were published, and international congresses were convened. In 1892 the first scientific organization for psychology in the Americas, the American

Psychological Association, was founded. Woodworth and Sheehan describe psychologists of the 1900s as "an active and aggressive group, . . . hopeful of its newly acquired technique of tests and experiments, finding new fields to explore year by year, beginning to study the child, the animal, the mentally ill as well as the normal adult, maintaining contact with the workers in several other sciences, and ready to break loose from philosophy and set up an establishment of its own."[8]

Application of Experimental Methods to the Problems of Mind

The new group of experimental psychologists disagreed with the older tradition mainly in respect to methods and scientific standards rather than in respect to theory. The main characteristic of the last quarter of the nineteenth century was a departure from restrictive philosophical methods of mental philosophy and the turning to experimental research in psychology. The methods used for centuries for exploring man's mind, such as speculation and generalization only from one's own experience, came to be considered nonscientific and were found to be incapable of objectively solving the various psychological problems. The disagreement with unproved, speculative, nonscientific data collected from observation of everyday experience and with interpretations based on common knowledge, was growing. Psychology needed to develop more precise and objective methods of dealing with its problems and this was possible only under carefully controlled experimental conditions.

Influence of Other Sciences

Psychology began to attain independence from its philosophical heritage with the search for tools, techniques, and methods which had already been found effective in answering questions in some other sciences. The scientific methodology developed by physiologists and physicists was found especially suitable for psychological research.

Physiology became an experimentally oriented discipline during the 1830s. In the period prior to the emergence of experimental psychology, a group of scientists-physiologists was already experimenting in the sphere of mental processes. This experimentation was of great relevance to psychologists, for it prepared an experimental attack on the investigation of mental life itself. So it happened, that nineteenth-century physiology brought not only physiological data, but the scientific method to psychology as well. The fact that Wilhelm Wundt (Germany) and William James (U.S.A.), the pioneers in experimental psychology, both had medical degrees and both taught physiology before they turned to psychology, evidently helped them to recognize the significance experimental physiology may have on experimental psychology.

The founding of experimental psychology is also closely associated with psychophysics; psychophysical methods are techniques for measuring the intensity of subjective experience in sensation and perception. They were invented and first described by the German scien-

tist, Gustav Theodor Fechner, in 1860 in his book *Elemente der Psychophysik.*

Diversification of Psychology in the Twentieth Century.

From the very beginning of the twentieth century, psychology advanced in research and in theory, as well as in becoming a profession. The early part of the century was characterized by the rise of diversified psychological schools. These independent theoretical systems, with differences in basic points of view and postulates, influenced the advances of scientific psychology. The proper scope and methods of the new science were vigorously discussed in the so-called great debate among different schools of psychology. Behaviorism, Gestalt psychology, and psychoanalysis can serve as good examples of the most influential schools. Issues such as mind-body relations served as central topics in this debate among the different schools and movements.

Nevertheless, after some time elapsed, the narrow frameworks of theoretically separated schools were no longer capable of embracing the whole discipline. A new, more general conceptual framework was needed for a broadly designed "science of behavior."

From the 1930s, specialized topics rather than schools came to be of interest for theorists and researchers; among others perception, learning, thinking, and problem solving can serve as well-defined examples, especially because they were characterized by abundant experimentation. Application of sophisticated statistical techniques for analyzing research data and quantification as such became indispensable prerequisites. Psychologists began to label themselves according to specialized problems (e.g. learning psychologist, perceptionist) or according to specialized working areas (e.g. clinical psychologist, social psychologist). These working areas are the reflection of specialized sections or fields in psychology that developed with the discipline's remarkably growing focus on research and new areas of application. Especially in relation to library classifications that exclude these fields from psychology and include them into other disciplines, it is essential to say that these fields are intrinsic parts of psychology. Clinical, physiological, and social psychology can serve as examples.

In concluding this condensed overview of the history of psychology, it is safe to state that the high level of theoretical, methodological, experimental, and professional achievements contributed to a general acceptance of psychology as an independent scientific discipline. Unfortunately, this general acceptance has not been reflected in the most widely used library classification systems.

Dewey Decimal Classification

The first publication of this schedule in 1876 marked significant new developments in the library organization; we have pointed out that in the same decade similarly significant new developments in psychology contributed to its transformation into an independent discipline. We have also shown that at that time psychology was considered to be a minor branch of philosophy and not an independent area of

study. In the DDC, psychology was classified under "Philosophy" among such areas as occultism, witchcraft, magic and palmistry. One certainly has to accept the fact that in every classification the prevailing views of the world at the time of its origination are expressed. But even on that basis one has to wonder, as Louttit does, that "a rather unexplainable division was made."[9] He then shows that Mind and Body was given class number 130, followed by Philosophic Systems as 140, and that in turn by 150 for Psychology. These two subclasses of Philosophy, 130 and 150, were considered to be sufficient. Louttit states that no substantial changes were made in Dewey's subsequent editions and, as new fields were introduced into the discipline, they were not at all recognized as part of psychology in that classification.

The growing inadequacy of the Dewey scheme for psychological collections was officially pointed out by H. C. Warren during the Thirty-eighth Annual Meeting of the American Psychological Association in 1930. The Council of Directors considered a request from the representatives of the DDC and Relativ Index for the appointment of a committee to make suggestions for a revision. Therefore, the council requested an opinion from Dr. Warren[10] who stated in the Memorandum Anent Revised Dewey Classification: "When the Psychological Index was started in 1894, I examined the Dewey System carefully with a view to adopting it. But I found their arrangement even at that time absolutely unsuited to psychology."[11] In the same memorandum, Warren also explains why the DDC is "quite unusable" for psychology; it is based on pre-Wundtian and pre-Jamesian conceptions. He admits that a few of the topics are treated scientifically, but most of the new sections are dealt with in a fragmentary way and related topics are scattered around so that there is no use for contemporary psychologists to utilize them. He also mentions that, on the other hand, all branches of pseudopsychology and magic are worked out more than adequately. Says Warren: "It would probably have suited Thomas Aquinas and other medieval psychologists admirably."[12] He was doubtful about any official action taken by the American Psychological Association because "The Dewey people" would not consider any radical revision that would fit with modern psychology.

At the Thirty-ninth Annual Meeting of the American Psychological Association in 1931, it was decided that a communication be sent to the DDC and Relativ Index. The communication expressed the belief that recent changes in the psychology section have been beneficial; however, "a further revision, especially in the fundamental divisions and relations" was suggested.[13] The Association promised its aid and advice if more fundamental revisions were undertaken.

A special expanded classification for modern psychology appeared in the thirteenth edition of the Decimal Classification and Relativ Index in 1932.[14] Although psychological topics still remain in the old division of 130: Mind and Body, and 150: Psychology, General Psychology, an alternative scheme is offered under 159.9: Psychology (Alternativ Scheme). Louttit made a careful examination of this Alternativ Scheme in relation to psychology. First of all he asked what one

would do with literature in fields totally omitted. As an example he mentioned the fields that already have an enormous literature, such as clinical work, mental hygiene, or child guidance. These fields are not mentioned in the Complete Tables or in the Relativ Index. Psychologies of religion, education, crime, language are among other relevant topics not mentioned.

Besides omissions, the author's criticism focuses in more detail on some curious sections showing again sharp discrepancies with modern developments. As an example he mentioned Physiologic Psychology: 159.91, which includes anatomy and physiology of the nervous system but other parts of the organism are not mentioned. Louttit doubts whether the deviser of this section ever saw any modern works on physiological psychology or psychophysiology. Mysteriously, Mental Hygiene is included as the third major division and is separated far away from topics most closely related, such as Abnormal Psychology: 159.97. This section on abnormal psychology Louttit found "entirely hopeless." By analyzing this division he again suspects that the official classification on mental diseases of the American Psychiatric Association evidently remained unknown to the compiler of the Alternativ Scheme.

Without going into any further topics criticized by Louttit, let us mention his conclusions. He claims that the DDC has never been adequate for psychology. He does not believe that, in an attempt to correct these inadequacies in the thirteenth edition's Alternativ Scheme, the modern developments in psychology were taken into consideration, and he concludes: "We can with certainty say today, as Warren could in 1894, that the system is 'absolutely unsuited for psychology'."[15]

The alternative criticized above was dropped in the fourteenth edition (1942).

In the fifteenth standard edition of 1951 the majority of psychology titles can again be found in the subclasses of 130 and 150. Yet the scattering is substantial. We can find titles directly related to psychology in each of the major divisions. Some psychological fields are classified outside psychology with other subjects. Thus, for example, Social Psychology appears in the 300 class, while Physiological and Clinical Psychology are included under the 600 class.

One of the most relevant editions for psychology seems to be the seventeenth edition of 1965 with a completely remodeled schedule for that discipline. Some of these changes are described in an important statement by the editor, B. A. Custer.[16] The fact that a new schedule for the entire subject was provided by relocations means that some psychological topics were brought "home" to the new classification in 150: Psychology. This change included some fully justified relocations of topics from 130, as well as from 614 and 616. This new schedule for 150: Psychology reuses sixty-five numbers and relocates twenty-seven topics with new meanings assigned to many numbers.

Hinton, in her review of Dewey 17, when considering schedule 150: Psychology, believes that this new classification is appropriate. She

specifically mentions section 155: Differential and Genetic Psychology as an improvement over the old class 136 because of the more logical arrangement and because it is more in agreement with psychological literature. On the other hand she considers section 157: Abnormal and Clinical Psychology, which formerly was 132, less successful. She takes one example, demonstrating that "sufferers from organic epilepsy may be interested to learn that—decimally—they are psychologically psychotic (157.1) although medically only psychoneurotic (616.853), when actually they may well be neither."[17]

Thanks to relocations, the scattering in the seventeenth and currently used eighteenth editions of the DDC is lower than in previous editions. Yet it is difficult to understand why the schedule of 150: Psychology does not include such a typically psychological field as Social Psychology, which is under Sociology: 301.1. One can also wonder why Mental Deficiency is under Medical Science (616.8588) and Performance Rating under Management (658.3125). But in comparison to the Library of Congress Classification, it is true progress that Physiological, Clinical, and Educational psychology are in the 150: Psychology section.

Since the second edition in 1883, in which Dewey himself made some restructuring in the 800 level, some techniques have been devised for possible revisions. Among them were two techniques that brought about substantial revisions. Both were used for psychology. One of them is the use of alternate analysis and was shown on the Alternativ Scheme for psychology (159.9) in the thirteenth edition. The other possibility for revision is a "phoenix schedule" (where the whole division in the frame of one discipline is completely restructured) as developed for Psychology: 150 in the seventeenth edition. None of them has fully solved the problem.

Library of Congress Classification

It was mentioned before that psychology has a long past but a short history. The position of the LC classification emphasizes its long past at the expense of its relatively short scientific history. The LC classification presents psychology as a branch of philosophy, a medieval concept that confuses both external relations and internal points of view within the discipline.

In 1910 the schedule for Philosophy (B-BJ) first appeared with a subdivision for Psychology (BF). Presently, this schedule is in its second edition, published in 1950, reissued in 1968.[18] This schedule for Philosophy includes, along with Philosophy in General, sections like Logic, Speculative Philosophy, Psychology, Aesthetics, and Ethics. Within the BF division for Psychology there are Parapsychology and Occult Sciences. Psychology stands side by side, within the same subclass, with Phrenology, Graphology and the hand.

The history of the origin of the LC Classification is well known in the library world; the fact that this enumerative classification scheme was expressly designed for a more systematic and functional arrangement of the Library of Congress collection and its own reference

needs is mentioned quite often as a valid answer to the criticism of its shortcomings. The construction of the order of main classes was influenced by the Cutter scheme and that of DDC.

According to Immroth,[19] the most relevant sources for the construction of the subclass psychology were: Benjamin Rand's *Bibliography of Philosophy, Psychology and Cognate Subjects,* published in 1905, which is considered to be the best source for nineteenth-century psychological literature; the *Psychological Index,* which gave a continuous record of psychological literature from 1894, and the index to *Zeitschrift für Psychologie und Physiologie der Sinnesorgane.* Thus, the LC classification for psychology is based on the representative subject sources of the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries. E. Wiley, at that time classifier in charge of philosophy and political science, edited the schedule B-BJ.

The details in arrangement for psychology were related to the existing stock of books in the Library of Congress and, maybe, this was sufficient for the purpose for which it was created. But as a scheme that should adequately represent the whole discipline it was out of date from the very beginning.

From the Thirty-ninth Annual Meeting of the American Psychological Association in 1931, on the recommendation of the Council of Directors, a communication was sent to the Library of Congress. It stressed the belief that "your present classification for psychology is antiquated and confused, and that it neither represents the present articulation of the subject nor the external relations of psychology to many related sciences and arts."[20] The Association expressed the opinion that thorough revision and reorganization of psychological topics, so that they would more intelligently represent the current status, methods, and accomplishments of psychology, would be considered of great service to the Association and to the reading public. A possibility of collaboration of the Association with the Library of Congress was suggested.

The far-ranging scattering of psychology in the LC Classification has such a profound negative effect on vital fields of psychology that they cannot be found even in the subclass BF reserved for psychology within the main class. The main characteristic of the structure of the LC system is its arrangement by major disciplines. Bead points out that "as a result, various aspects of a subject are generally not grouped together but are classed with pertinent disciplines."[21] Nevertheless, in psychology, these are not only "various aspects of a subject" but whole vital fields of one scientific discipline that are classified in other classes. For example, there is no Social Psychology within the BF schedule for psychology because it is included in Sociology (HM 251–291). Another example is Psychiatry and Psychopathology (RC 435-576) for which the main class is Medicine. It includes such psychological branches as Clinical Psychology (RC 467) and Psychotherapy (RC 475–489). Educational psychology (LB 1051–1091) with its many assessment techniques is in Education. Neurophysiology and Neuropsychology (QP 351–495) include Physiological Psychology (QP 360).

What applies to individual fields also applies to some pertinent basic topics in modern psychology. Bell shows a detailed listing of LC Classifications relevant to psychology.[22] Outside the BF class there are forty-three classes and subclasses with numerous topics pertinent to psychology.

Recently, Pollard proposed a reasonable change in the LC Classification in relation to psychology. He suggested a simple relocation of Clinical Psychology from RC in Medicine to BF in Psychology. However, the same author in the same study proposes a major reclassification of Social Psychology within the same old section HM-Sociology, outside the BF schedule. The author advises the relocation of Clinical Psychology to BF because "clinical psychology is an applied field of psychology, not of psychiatry."[23] But social psychology is also legitimately an applied field of psychology. It is a scientific study of the behavior of individuals in their social context, of their interaction in groups. Relevant topics are personality, developmental psychology, psycholinguistics, etc. Social psychology overlaps with fields of study other than sociology, such as anthropology, communication, and linguistics. But above all it is a branch of psychology with a conceptual framework related to other fields of psychology. Therefore, social psychologists are educated in departments of psychology where social psychology courses constitute a significant percentage of the course requirements.

The interdisciplinary nature of some fields and topics in psychology is obvious. For example the physiological psychologists need to be competent in both areas, psychology and physiology. The training of such specialists includes areas such as neuroanatomy, neurology, pharmacology and biophysics. New vast and highly complex hybrid fields are developing and growing fast. Biopsychology, which analyzes the behavior in relation to biochemical and physiological factors, can serve as an example. The theoretical structure of the LC Classification, enumerative in its nature, is not ready to cope with many compound subjects and multidimensional approaches to complex psychological fields.

Revisions in the LC schemes were, understandably, always related to specific needs of the Library of Congress. With the closing of the Library of Congress card catalog any radical change in the basic structure of the LC Classification system is even less likely today than it was before.

DISCUSSION

What should and could be done?

Generally, within the traditional schemes, further revisions might prove useful. A good example in that direction may be Pollard's proposed change for a relocation of clinical psychology from RC in Medicine to BF in Psychology in the LC Classification.[24] Nevertheless, within the structure of these schemes only partial improvements are possible.

When Shera found that traditional library classifications were becoming "hopelessly inadequate" and that they "failed lamentably" he

stated: "No amount of basic revision or tampering with their organic structure can save them from this failure."[25] In the long run, one has to agree fully with this statement when the classification of psychology is taken into consideration.

In the present study psychology was traced in classification schemes and in the theories upon which they are based, which fall, according to Painter, into "traditional, deductive, systematic, hierarchical classifications."[26] In these traditional schemes with the set and predetermined order of classes, psychology is still a part of philosophy. Restructuring of disciplines in these schemes in not likely to occur. On the contrary, the order of disciplines in the DDC is considered one of the most enduring characteristics of that classification system.

The framework of the DDC is a set of traditional disciplines chosen as "main classes." These classes and their subdivisions selected by Dewey, were timely according to the fields of knowledge in the nineteenth century. All revisions in this scheme are done with regard to the integrity of notations and the integrity of hierarchical subject relationships. As discussed by several classificationists the problem of maintaining integrity in Dewey may result in the failure to keep pace with knowledge. The strict hierarchy of these traditional schemes is not ready to meet new developments, especially new concepts and trends, where psychology overlaps with other fields of study.

One wonders where the experts in the field, if consulted, would like to place psychology in the structural arrangement of classes in a general library classification system. Evidently, according to their specializations, diversified preferences would be suggested. Because of interacting biological and social factors in behavior, the question whether psychology is a biological or social science has been a topic of dispute to many scholars. From the 1960s there seems to be an increasing preference to consider psychology an important discipline within behavioral sciences. In regard to individual concepts within the discipline we would probably encounter the same complex problem; they can hardly be fitted into a fixed location in a rigid schedule. For that purpose we would need a schedule with a theoretical basis providing possibilities of combinations, where every type of relation within a compound subject may be expressed. The hierarchy of predetermined order and content of main classes and subclasses in traditional schemes does not provide such a foundation for psychology.

It is obvious that the problems related to the classsification of psychology in general classification systems form only a small portion of a much broader problem, concerning the fundamental principles, theories, and philosophies in library classification. It is a problem related to the theory of classification as such, namely, the principles upon which the classification is based. Psychology as a widely differentiated discipline supports the evidence that a new general scheme with essentially new theoretical approaches and concepts is needed.

From the point of view of research on a new nontraditional classification theory it is interesting to observe the work of the Classification Research Groups, in Great Britain as well as in the United States. The interested reader may find various reports on research activities of

these groups; one of the more recent reviews was written by Hopkins.[27] Their work is relevant to the problems discussed here and may bring new potential for scientific solutions. Briefly, the Classification Research Groups began discussing general classification problems in the early sixties by focusing on analytico-synthetic classification based on facet principles. From various descriptions of this kind of classification the present writer prefers that of Austin who points out "put in its simplest terms, the basic teaching of analytico-synthetic classification is that any compound subject, however complex, can be broken down into its separate components, or facets, and that these can be reorganized consistently into a standard pattern by reference to a general decision-making model".[28]

According to the same author, at the beginning the intention of the Groups was to construct a faceted scheme for which the Colon Classification scheme, established according to the technique of facet analysis, served as an example. At that time this new classification was still meant primarily for a physical ordering of documents and manual retrieval of books on shelves. It still was founded upon the main classes of disciplines, each of them divided into facets. In later developments one can see the idea of general categories of concepts that can be used in building any compound subject. This one-for-all basis excludes the necessity of a system of hierarchical main classes. This development obviously was a reaction to the fact that a system of main classes not only considerably restricts the hospitality for new and unforeseen topics but also is not at all suitable for the design of a machine-retrieval system. Evidently as a reflection of the general climate in information science during the sixties, the research in general classification has been related to a system for machine storage and retrieval. The prevailing difficulties seem to be in creating a single system of classification suitable for both shelf order and information retrieval.

In psychological sciences, in relation to the constantly changing patterns in different directions, the advantages of faceted classification seem to be obvious. A classification scheme that would allow the building of the notation from various components (facets) could be of great benefit to such a complex discipline with its numerous compound subjects. The combination of basic components by a faceted technique would provide more flexibility for numerous compound psychological subjects than their mere enumeration in traditional schemes. A scheme based on analytico-synthetic classification would also provide freedom for a suitable insertion of either whole new branches in the discipline or new specific subjects not enumerated in the schedule.

In order to apply facet analysis soundly to a complexity of subjects in psychology, the requirement of a deep knowledge of a discipline itself and of the way specialists think about the subjects should be a prerequisite. The idea we would like to stress here is that the right of psychology to preserve its nature and structure, should not be distorted in any classification system. The knowledge of fundamental issues, history, and developments in the disciplines should precede any classification making. On the other hand the knowledge of such a differentiated discipline as psychology might contribute significantly in a

discussion of the necessary synthesis in the development of modern general classification theory.

It would be outside the scope of this study to analyze basic research in the classification theory and especially to weigh its validity for one specific discipline. The theory of organizing knowledge is a discipline by itself, reaching to numerous other disciplines, as well as a technology, and calling for knowledge of postulates, principles, and laws important for classification making. Literature on this topic is readily available.[29]

So far, classification theorists seem to be optimistic. Already in 1963, Richmond in her article on the *Future of Generalized Systems in Classification* stated "there will be new generalized classification systems in the future for the simple reason that we have to have them. And anything we have to have sooner or later is found."[30]

Although we realize that, for various practical reasons, the traditional classifications will stay with us for many years to come, the significance of current research in the theory of classification, be it only from the point of view of one scientific discipline, is crucial.

Conclusion

The classification of psychology in traditional general library classification systems such as DDC and LC Classification is inadequate. Psychology as a scientific discipline can serve as a crucial example that no substantial improvements can be achieved within their organic structure even when these classification schemes are open to partial changes. It is evident that new approaches to bibliographic organization, based on new concepts in the theory of classification, are needed. This is especially true in relation to developing a general classification system for machine storage and retrieval. This task may be seen as an obligation of library science and the library profession, as well as of subject experts in the individual disciplines to the intellectual community. It ought to be accomplished regardless of the fact that, for pragmatic reasons, multidiscipline large libraries are obviously going to live long lives with their currently used traditional classification systems.

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A Scheme for the Temporary Classification of Materials on Foreign Law

Dennis Reynolds and Connie Capers Thorson

Since Library of Congress (LC) classification schedules for Class K "Law" have not been completed for most countries of the world, libraries using LC classification must devise local solutions for dealing with materials on foreign law. Some libraries locally classify such materials into classes other than Class K, while other libraries have drawn up their own temporary, usually simplified, local schedules. This paper describes a temporary scheme used at Knox College that allows for rapid and simple temporary classification. The scheme also allows for country subdivision and the possibility of subject division.

WHILE WORK ON THE DEVELOPMENT of the Library of Congress (LC) schedules for Class K "Law" continues, American libraries using LC Classification find themselves in the somewhat awkward position of having to decide what to do with materials on foreign law for which the appropriate subclasses of the Class K schedules are not yet available. Libraries using OCLC as a classification aid are greeted by the simple term "LAW" in the 050 field on MARC records for such materials, and records in the *National Union Catalog* provide no LC Classification identifiers at all. In order to deal with this problem, libraries either must adopt some sort of temporary scheme for putting materials into the collection or must relegate them to backlog until further portions of the Class K schedules are completed. To the best of our knowledge, the Library of Congress is not planning to go back and replace the "LAW" designation on MARC records produced prior to the availability of the various subclasses of Class K. Because LC Classification numbers will apparently appear in the 050 field on OCLC records only for books cataloged after completion of schedules for the appropriate subclasses, adopting rational interim measures for the local treatment of materials on foreign law is imperative.

Though we have not taken a formal survey of the measures used in

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libraries to deal with unclassified law materials, we suspect that a wide variety of temporary schemes have been adopted. It is possible to gain an indication of this diversity by examining OCLC records that have been input by individual libraries and have been assigned a local classification number in the 090 field. The examples given below, all dealing with African law, suggest some of the temporary measures being used by libraries for the classification of books on foreign law. For each of these examples, there is at least one record in OCLC with a local classification number assigned by an inputting library in the 090 field.

Local LC Call Number in OCLC 090 Field	*Author and Title*
HD 1169 .E4	Elias, T. O. *Nigerian Land Law and Custom.*
HV 7405 .M566	Milner, A. *African Penal Systems.*
K 0 .B27 1963	Baade, H. *African Law: New Law for New Nations.*
K 207 .E4	Elias, T. O. *The Nature of African Customary Law.*
KF 2171 .A4	Adesanya, M. *Business Law in Nigeria.*
KG 11.7 .K9	Kuper, H. (ed.) *African Law: Adaptation and Development.*
KR 0 .M467i	Mensah-Brown, A. *Introduction to Law in Contemporary Africa.*
KT 0 .A4	Elias, T. O. et al., (eds.) *African Indigenous Law: Proceedings of a Workshop.*

From an examination of these and other examples available on OCLC, it appears that most libraries that have adopted a local solution have taken one of two courses: to classify such materials outside Class K altogether, or to devise temporary, in most cases very simplified, local K schedules. For the first solution, the more popular alternate classes appear to be D, H, and J. The major drawback of this solution is that some titles simply do not fit very well into existing D, H, and J schedules. Furthermore, if a library commits itself to this course of "cramming" books into other areas of the schedules until appropriate Class K subclasses have been completed, this practice is likely to turn out to be a headache of rather long duration, since it will be some time before schedules for some subclasses in K are available. This solution also makes it difficult, without a great deal of preparatory bookkeeping or future searching, to keep open the option of going back when further Class K schedules become available and reassigning Class K numbers to those books now put locally into other classes.

The second alternative, that of constructing a temporary local Class K schedule, has the advantage of keeping together all materials on law, as well as making easy the later retrieval of materials to be reassigned more complete numbers as further portions of the Class K schedules become available. One of the problems with this solution, though, is that a "musical chairs" sort of conflict may develop between the local scheme and newly appearing portions of the Class K schedules. As a case in point from the examples listed above, the library that assigned *Business Law in Nigeria* a KF number, possibly on

the basis of a once existing, locally devised law schedule, was faced with a problem when the Library of Congress subclass KF schedules—United States Law—appeared. Similarly, the above examples show that KG, KR, and KT have all been locally assigned for African law, and these libraries may also have to make constant revisions of their local schemes as further subclasses of the Class K schedules become available. The use of K with a zero as a general class for all materials on foreign law circumvents this problem, but makes it difficult to provide further subject subdivision by country except at the Cutter number level.

The remainder of this paper describes a temporary scheme in use at Knox College for the classification of law materials on foreign areas. This scheme, though using K as the basis of the temporary schedules, is not likely to be disrupted by the appearance of further portions of the Class K schedules, so that constant revision of the local scheme will not be necessary. In addition, this alternative allows for a very adequate but easily and quickly determined country subdivision, as well as fast and efficient future retrieval of materials to be reassigned permanent numbers once the appropriate subclasses of the Library of Congress Class K schedules have been completed. The main impetus for the scheme presented below was the unexpected award of $15,000 for collection development as part of a grant to establish an interdisciplinary Islamic Studies program at Knox.* With the assistance of OCLC, the assignment of classification numbers for incoming Islamic books was generally not a problem. The only consistently troublesome area was law; while our acquisitions in Islamic law were certainly not comprehensive, they did begin to attain a certain prominence on our backlog shelf. After considering a number of alternatives, we opted for the solution described below, a local scheme that we have found applicable not only for books on law in Islamic areas, but also appropriate for all foreign areas for which Class K schedules do not yet exist.

The basis of the temporary scheme used at Knox is the combination of the letter K with a full class number of a country drawn from the national bibliography tables in Class Z. Thus, the first line of the class number is KZ for virtually all books on law for which Class K schedules do not yet exist. The second line of each class number is the national bibliography number taken directly from the Z schedules, a procedure that is quite simple and fast but extremely useful in allowing for arrangement of materials by country. This scheme makes it possible to keep all materials on foreign law in KZ, a subclass not likely to be assigned by the Library of Congress, at the same time as it allows for country subdivision in the second line of the class number. When the Library of Congress finishes permanent Class K schedules for a given country, it will be extremely easy to identify and retrieve

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materials from temporary KZ section to be reassigned permanent numbers within the appropriate Class K subclass.

Having determined the two-line number for a book, the call number may be completed by adding a Cutter number based on the author's last name or, in some cases, on the title of the work; a fourth line may be added to indicate the date of publication if desired. For example, the full call number assigned by Knox to Jasper Brinton's *Mixed Courts of Egypt* (OCLC #438085) is KZ/3651/.M5/1968, the KZ being the uniform first line for all books on law in foreign areas for which detailed K schedules are not available, and the 3651 being the first number in a nine-number range for Egypt taken from the Z schedules. Another example is the title *Islamic Courts in Indonesia: A Study in the Political Bases of Legal Institutions* by Daniel S. Lev (OCLC #579117), to which we assigned the call number KZ/3261/.L4/1972: KZ is the standard subclass for foreign law materials, and the 3261 is the first number in a five-number range for Indonesia drawn from the Z schedules. The KZ scheme works equally well for books on law in other countries for which detailed K schedules are not yet available. Combining the uniform designator with the first number in the nine-number national bibliography range for Japan and adding appropriate Cutter number and date, the full call number assigned by Knox to *Legal Reform in Occupied Japan* by Alfred Oppler (OCLC #1945371) is KZ/3301/.O66/1976. This scheme works well for a book on a broad geographic area, such as the title *Worker Participation in Europe* by Joseph Roger Carby-Hall (OCLC #2911070), for which the MARC record indicates only "LAW" in the 050 field. Following the same procedure outlined above, the full call number we have assigned to this book is KZ/2000/.C3/1977. To provide a final set of examples demonstrating the use of this scheme, the eight titles on African law given earlier in this paper are repeated below, each listed with a temporary KZ call number.

KZ Scheme Call Number	*Author and Title*
KZ 3553 .N5 E4	Elias, T. O. *Nigerian Land Law and Custom.*
KZ 3501 .M566	Milner, A. *African Penal Systems.*
KZ 3501 .B27	Baade, H. *African Law: New Law for New Nations.*
KZ 3501 .E4	Elias, T. O. *The Nature of African Customary Law.*
KZ 3553 .N5 A4	Adesanya, M. *Business Law in Nigeria.*
KZ 3501 .K9	Kuper, H. (ed.) *African Law: Adaptation and Development.*
KZ 3501 .M467	Mensah-Brown, A. *Introduction to Law in Contemporary Africa.*
KZ 3501 .A4	Elias, T. O. et al., (eds.) *African Indigenous Law: Proceedings of a Workshop.*

The national bibliography section in the Z schedules usually provides a range of several numbers for a country or broader geographic region. However, some countries in Africa do not have multinumber ranges; for example, Nigeria is identified at the Cutter number level.

For countries that have multinumber ranges, at Knox we have found it quite sufficient to use simply the first number of each range as the second line of the KZ number. Other libraries may desire to provide not only country subdivision, but also some degree of subject subdivision for each country, and the availability of a range of numbers for most countries provides an obvious basis for doing so. In this manner, a library could construct a local table of subject subdivisions to apply to five-number countries, nine-number countries, etc. Assigning decimal numbers and using a double Cutter number with the first for a subject subdivision could expand the KZ scheme to almost extreme detail. While this practice might suit the purposes of some libraries, we would caution against going too far in this direction, since at some point the degree of elaboration would obscure the simplicity of the scheme, its major advantage. The degree of subject subdivision, if any, to be used within each country's range will, of course, depend upon the needs of the individual library. Again, it has not been necessary for the Knox library to provide subject subdivision for any of the countries in the temporary KZ classification; the simple subdivision by country has been quite sufficient for our purposes.

While the scheme presented in this paper describes only one of many ways of dealing with materials on law for areas for which detailed K schedules are not yet available, we feel that it offers a number of advantages. Most important, like other local solutions that have been adopted, it allows us to put such materials into the collection rather than on backlog shelves. By using a single subclass, KZ, for all materials on foreign law, we have more than likely avoided the necessity of constantly revising our local scheme in the future to avoid conflict with the letters used for subclasses in newly appearing portions of the K schedules prepared by the Library of Congress. At the same time, by using national bibliography numbers as the second line of a KZ number, the separation of materials by country and the identification of the proper numbers is easy and quick. The range of numbers available for each country adds a dimension of flexibility for those who might want to provide subject subdivision within some countries. From the standpoint of the library user, this scheme appears to facilitate browsing better than some alternatives available and is a clear advantage to classifying materials in a variety of classes outside Class K. In addition to being convenient for the library patron, the KZ scheme allows for easy identification and retrieval of materials to be reassigned permanent classification numbers as portions of the K schedules become available. When the schedules for French law are completed, one will simply need to consult the shelflist KZ 2161 to KZ 2189 to identify the materials to be considered for assignment of classification numbers from the authoritative LC schedules. The retrieval of books on French law will be easy as they will all be in one place on the shelves. When permanent numbers are assigned, new card sets do not have to be ordered. Adding stickers to card sets and relabeling books are viable alternatives.

The primary disadvantage of a scheme such as the one described

here is that very often it becomes tempting to think of a temporary measure as a permanent solution. Libraries adopting a temporary solution should always keep in mind that at some point in the future all of the Library of Congress Class K schedules will be available, and it will be advantageous to integrate materials received now into the appropriate subclasses at that time. The schedules for Germany and France will be available in the foreseeable future, and the schedule for Latin America will follow. The schedules for the rest of Europe, Asia, and Africa will be years in the making. The time involved before all schedules are available is great enough that the adoption of a rational, easy-to-use scheme is desirable. We believe that the solution described in this paper meets the essential criteria for a scheme for the temporary classification of materials on foreign law.

Utilization of Personnel and Bibliographic Resources for Cataloging by OCLC Participating Libraries

Sally Braden, John D. Hall, and Helen H. Britton

The introduction of computerized cataloging using OCLC has affected the organization of cataloging departments and the cataloging policies and practices of the member libraries. On the basis of a survey of 147 OCLC member academic libraries statistics are presented on (1) cataloging production on a first time use (FTU) basis; (2) size of professional and support staff; (3) utilization of staff and bibliographic resources for cataloging; (4) adherence to the Anglo-American Cataloging Rules *and Library of Congress practice; and (5) the extent of verification of OCLC member records. Trends toward less verification of member records and increased use of support staff are identified, pointing to a need for greater local and regional quality control.*

INTRODUCTION

Since 1971, the year that computerized on-line cataloging through the Ohio College Library Center (now OCLC, Inc.) became a reality, cataloging in participating libraries has undergone changes that have begun to receive attention in library literature. Such studies as those of Gapen and Morita, Hewitt, Landram, Morita and Gapen, and Spyers-Duran have emphasized the effect of OCLC on the organization of cataloging departments and on cataloging costs.[1] The study presented here provides information primarily on the utilization of staff and cataloging resources, cataloging practices, and the degree to which OCLC member records are verified by other member libraries participating in the OCLC network.*

*"OCLC member" does not include the Library of Congress.

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In July 1977, the authors sent a questionnaire (see appendix 1) to the head catalogers of 147 academic libraries that have 300,000 volumes or more and are members of OCLC. One hundred twenty-one of these libraries responded, an 82.3 percent return. (For list of respondents, see appendix 2.) The responses were divided arbitrarily into two groups by size of holdings: libraries with 900,000 volumes or more (60 libraries) and libraries with fewer than 900,000 volumes (61 libraries). The tabulation and analysis of the data in this article reflect this division.

The questionnaire was designed to obtain information in five areas:

1. Cataloging production and staff size
2. Staff utilization for cataloging with LC copy, with OCLC member copy, and without copy
3. Principal resources used in cataloging
4. Adherence to the *Anglo-American Cataloging Rules* (AACR) (including the revised version of chapter 6) and Library of Congress (LC) practice
5. The degree to which OCLC member records are verified.

Cataloging Production and Staff Size

The introduction of automated cataloging has resulted in increased productivity, represented by greater monthly cataloging production and reduced backlogs of uncataloged materials.[2] Monthly OCLC production statistics reported by catalogers in answer to question A4 are tabulated in table 1 to show range, median, mean, and standard deviation from the mean of the responses. While the range of production for both groups of libraries is wide, the median and mean production within each group is nearly the same. The standard deviation indicates the wide dispersion about the mean of cataloging production figures reported by both groups of libraries.

TABLE 1

Monthly OCLC Production (Titles Cataloged on an FTU Basis) (Question A4)

	Size of Library Collections	
	Large*	Small*
Range	500–5,455	300–3,800
Median	2,000	1,200
Mean	2,175	1,256
Standard deviation from the mean	1,100	619

*Large libraries have been defined as those with 900,000 volumes or more, and small libraries as those with collections under 900,000 volumes.

One factor that contributes to increased cataloging productivity is the use of a printer attached to the OCLC terminals. Printouts of records in the data base save terminal and staff time and the effort of making handwritten copies for later use by those who handle original

and different edition cataloging and completion of partial cataloging records.[3] Eighty-one and six-tenths percent of the larger libraries surveyed and 62 percent of the smaller libraries reported at least one printer in use or on order. Many of the catalogers commented on the timesaving aspects of the printer, especially for verification of entries and call number completion.

The size of the cataloging staff has traditionally been recognized as an important factor affecting cataloging productivity. The questionnaire elicited information on the current professional and support staff levels used by the libraries to achieve their monthly production. Table 2 summarizes the responses to question A5 on staff size. The intention of question A5 was to determine the number of staff members employed in actual cataloging tasks, excluding such operations as administration, catalog maintenance, and final preparation of materials for shelving and circulation. The types of responses received left some doubt as to whether the question was interpreted as intended. To verify and refine the statistics derived from these responses, twenty-three of the larger libraries and fourteen of the smaller libraries were chosen at random for a follow-up telephone survey. Table 3 gives the mean figures calculated from the responses to this telephone survey. There are discrepancies between the mean number of professional and support staff reported in response to the questionnaire (table 2) and the figures in table 3 because the telephone survey was

TABLE 2

SIZE OF CATALOGING STAFF IN 121 OCLC MEMBER ACADEMIC LIBRARIES (QUESTION A5)

	Number of Professional Staff		Number of Support Staff	
	Large	Small	Large	Small
Range	1.5 to 40	1 to 13	2 to 78	1 to 28
Median	6.5	4	12	7
Mean	8.5	4.24	13.5	8.2
Standard deviation from the mean	6.23	2.18	11.3	5.57

TABLE 3

MEAN NUMBER OF STAFF (TELEPHONE SURVEY)

	Size of Library Collections	
	Large	Small
Total professional catalogers	9.6	5
Professional catalogers involved in administration	1.95	1.1
Professional catalogers involved in cataloging tasks	7.65	3.9
Support staff involved in cataloging tasks	10.5	5.4

used to obtain more specific information about the breakdown of the cataloging department staff with regard to assigned tasks. The figures in table 3 indicate that 20 percent of the professional catalogers in the larger libraries surveyed by telephone and 23 percent in the smaller libraries are involved in administration and that some of the cataloging support staff reported in the responses to the questionnaire are involved in tasks other than cataloging.

The follow-up survey also provided information on the number of OCLC terminals each library has available for cataloging and the number of hours per week each terminal is scheduled for cataloging use. The larger libraries have an average of 4.4 terminals available for cataloging, with a range of 2 to 8, and the smaller libraries have an average of 2.5 terminals, with a range of 1 to 5. The larger libraries schedule each terminal for an average of fifty-six hours per week, while the average per terminal reported by the smaller libraries is fifty hours per week. These figures imply that automated cataloging has altered the traditional work schedules so that production can be increased by making maximum use of terminals. This extension of effective work hours is corroborated by Spyers-Duran's survey.[4]

Staff Utilization for Cataloging with LC Copy, without Copy, and with OCLC Member Copy

Several sections of the questionnaire were designed to yield information on how the libraries surveyed have assigned the cataloging of materials with LC copy, without copy, or with OCLC member copy to the different levels of staff, professional and support. Table 4 represents the responses (converted to percentages) to questions B1–B3, C1, and D4.

These response tabulations reflect a high rate of participation by support staff in the cataloging process. Although the smaller libraries tend more strongly than the larger libraries to have professional staff involved in all types of cataloging, including cataloging with LC copy, the larger libraries tend more strongly to assign copy cataloging to support staff only. Support staff are also heavily involved in cataloging without copy and cataloging with OCLC member copy. While a majority of all the libraries assign cataloging without copy to professional catalogers only, 43.2 percent of the larger libraries and 41 percent of the smaller libraries have support staff participate in cataloging or verification of entries and call numbers when no copy is available. These percentages of support staff participation are even greater in the case of cataloging with OCLC member copy. Less than 25 percent of the libraries surveyed use "professional catalogers only" when OCLC member copy is available.

On the other hand, OCLC member copy is handled by "support staff only" in a small percentage of the libraries. A number of the libraries volunteered the information that support staff are assigned verification of member records for "easier" materials, implying that some attempt is made to distinguish degrees of complexity in cataloging.

TABLE 4

CATALOGING STAFF UTILIZATION IN 121 OCLC MEMBER ACADEMIC LIBRARIES
(QUESTIONS B1–B3, C1, AND D4)

	Staffing Level							
	Professional Catalogers Only		Support Staff Only		Both Professional and Support Staff		Professional plus Support Staff for Verification	
Task	Large	Small	Large	Small	Large	Small	Large	Small
Adapting LC records								
for same edition	1.6%	10%	58.3%	28%	40%	62%		
for different ed.	23.3%	33%	31.6%	9%	45%	59%		
Completing CIP records	5%	7%	66.6%	43%	28.3%	50%		
Verifying member cataloging records	23.3%	21%	13.3%	7%	46.6%	43%	11.5%	29%
Cataloging without copy	56.6%	59%	1.6%	0%	15%	12%	26.6%	29%

Principal Resources Used in Cataloging

The questionnaire elicited information on the principal tools used by the libraries to locate cataloging copy and to assign and verify entries and call numbers when cataloging without LC copy. Tables 5, 6, and 7 summarize the responses to the questions on the tools used (questions A2, C2, C4–C6, and C8).

TABLE 5

Sources of Cataloging Copy within the Library Other Than OCLC (Question A2)

	Size of Library Collections	
	Large	Small
NUC	100%	100%
Mansell	95%	97%
MCRS	13.2%	5%
MARCFICHE	8.5%	2%
Other		4%

TABLE 6

Local Authority Files (Question C2)

	Size of Library Collections	
	Large	Small
Name	78.1%	59%
Subject	64.9%	50%
Series	88.1%	97%
Other*	5.9%	2%

*Usually geographic names.

These response tabulations indicate that the NUC, Mansell, LC class schedules, the *LC Subject Headings,* and the *LC Subject Catalog* are used extensively by both groups of libraries. The larger libraries make greater use of *LC Name Headings with References* and *LC Monographic Series* than the smaller libraries. Although only a small percentage of two groups have MCRS and MARCFICHE, more of the larger libraries subscribe to these services.

It may be noted here that 96 percent of the libraries with 900,000 volumes or more and 85 percent of the libraries with under 900,000 use LC classification, while 4 percent of the larger libraries and 13 percent of the smaller libraries use the Dewey Decimal classification system (question A1). Of the libraries that use LC classification, 18.9 percent of the larger libraries and 23 percent of the smaller libraries volunteered the information that they had some exceptions in assigning call numbers. The exceptions most commonly noted were theses, microforms, and materials in American literature. Such exceptions may account for the discrepancy in the figures reported by the smaller libraries for the use of Dewey Decimal classification (the 13 percent

TABLE 7

PRINCIPAL SOURCES USED IN CATALOGING
(QUESTIONS C4–6, C8)

Bibliographic Tools	Call Number Assignment		Subject Heading Assignment		Name Heading Assignment		Series Decisions (If LC Practice Is Followed)	
	Large	Small	Large	Small	Large	Small	Large	Small
LC class schedules								
With additions and changes	95%	97%						
Without additions and changes	0%	0%						
Dewey schedule	4%	24%						
Combined indexes to the LC classification schedules (volunteered response)	4.9%							
NUC					96.6%	100%		
MCRS	6.6%	0%			9.9%	2%	98.2%	97%
MARCFICHE	6.6%	2%			6.5%	0%		
LC name headings with references					86.4%	70%		
LC subject catalog	88.2%	90%	89.9%	85%				
LC subject headings								
8th ed. only			0%	0%				
8th ed., plus supplements			99.9%	99%				
LC Monographic Series							86.6%	69%
Other sources					78.1%	59%		

response from question A1 concerning library classification scheme versus the 24 percent response concerning call number assignment tabulated in table 7).

The majority of libraries surveyed indicated that authority files are in use for name, subject, and series entries, although the use of such files is considerably greater for the larger than for the smaller libraries. A number of the respondents mentioned that in their libraries the public card catalog serves as the only authority file.

Adherence to AACR Revised Chapter 6 and to LC Practice

Questions C9–C11 of the questionnaire polled the libraries to determine if AACR revised chapter 6 is followed in all areas of bibliographic description when cataloging without copy. Ninety-eight and three-tenths percent of the libraries with 900,000 volumes or more and 91 percent of the libraries with under 900,000 volumes use AACR revised chapter 6. Local exceptions mentioned most often by the responding libraries were the omission of the authorship statement and the size.

In the notes area, 86.6 percent of the larger libraries and 75 percent of the smaller libraries indicated that all indispensable notes are made. The remaining 13.7 percent of the larger libraries and 25 percent of the smaller libraries make most of the indispensable notes. The exceptions most frequently cited were the omission of such notes as those supplying contents, those specifying the romanized form of a title in a nonroman script, and those used to clarify misleading information in the formalized part of the entry.

Forty-six percent of the libraries with 900,000 volumes or more and 37 percent of those with under 900,000 volumes responded that all dispensable notes are made. The responses of the remaining 54 percent of the larger libraries and 63 pecent of the smaller libraries indicated a variety of policies with regard to dispensable notes. The dispensable notes most often made by these libraries are those that indicate that the work is a thesis, that show the language of the text if the language of the title differs from that of the text, and that provide the bibliographic history of the work.

The survey also attempted to measure to what degree academic libraries adhere to LC cataloging practices in certain areas when cataloging without copy (question C3). Ninety-five percent of the larger libraries surveyed and 84 percent of the smaller libraries adhere to LC practice when assigning call numbers, and when establishing the form of name headings, subject headings, and series entries. However, one-third of the larger libraries and one-half of the smaller libraries that follow LC practice use a local call number scheme apart from LC for some materials. Microforms, juvenile literature, and theses were cited most often among these exceptions. In addition, many libraries commented that alternate classification numbers are used instead of the PZ1–4 numbers supplied by LC.

Policies on series decisions were the subject of question C7, the responses to which are summarized in table 8.

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Retired Librarian of Congress, L. Quincy Mumford answers librarians' questions about the new

CUMULATIVE TITLE INDEX TO THE CLASSIFIED COLLECTIONS OF THE LIBRARY OF CONGRESS, 1978

the unique 132 volume, single-alphabet listing of virtually every work classified by LC since 1897.

Background: Librarians have been asking penetrating questions about the *Cumulative Title Index to the Classified Collections of the Library of Congress* (TLC) ever since it was first announced. We distilled what we believed to be the most significant of these questions and discussed them with retired Librarian of Congress Dr. L. Quincy Mumford, whose 21 year regime (1954-1974) witnessed such relevant landmarks as the beginning of MARC and the introduction of the Shared Cataloging Program. Here are some of the questions and his answers.

Carrollton: Dr. Mumford, just why *is* title access so important?

Mumford: Well, in the case of the Title Index to the LC Collections, its greatest value probably lies in its most obvious use. When only titles are known to a searcher, TLC will show: authors' names (and the years of publication), which lead to National Union Catalog entries; precise LC Classification Numbers, which lead to specific card images on the LC Shelflist microforms, and LC Card Numbers for ordering from the Cataloging Distribution Service. In the case of the Shelflist, of course, searches for the precise Class Number should be made in TLC even if the author is known as well as the title.

In addition to this primary use, I should like to comment on the recent trend by acquisitions departments to set up their records by title in order to enjoy faster and more precise access than is provided in main entry catalogs (especially when corporate authors and other problem authors are involved).

The Catalog Management Division of the Library of Congress converted its own Process Information File from a main entry to title arrangement about eight years ago, and I understand that their searching efficiency increased substantially after that change.

In short, librarians have long needed a definitive, single-alphabet title index to the Library's huge retrospective collection of the world's literature, and there is no doubt in my mind that this 132 volume set is going to fill that need.

"Because of the overwhelming size, longevity, and international scope of LC's holdings, the great majority of the 6.5 million records in its Classified Collections have never been included in MARC, OCLC, or any other data base."

Carrollton: Now that we've established the importance of title access, let's explore just how many and what kinds of titles are in the Classified Collections.

Mumford: Essentially, these contain all of the materials (both monographs and serials) which have ever been cataloged and classified by the Library of Congress since the adoption of its Classification System in 1897. As of January 1979, these totaled approximately 6.5 million titles. About one million (or 18 percent) of these records are included in the MARC (MAchine Readable Catalog) data base which was established in 1968.

Carrollton: In view of the fact that access to the MARC data base is already available to libraries in a wide variety of segments and formats — and as it amounts to only one-sixth of the Library's collection — would you describe for us just what records make up the ***non-MARC*** portion of TLC?

Mumford: Yes. The more than 5½ million ***non-MARC*** entries in TLC will include the following:

- English Language works cataloged before 1968,
- French Language works cataloged before 1973,
- German, Spanish and Portugese Language works cataloged before 1975,
- Materials in the other Roman-alphabet languages cataloged before 1976, and
- Transliterated non-Roman alphabet materials cataloged by LC through 1978.

Because of these delays in entering the Roman-alphabet non-English-Language materials, it is estimated that more than half of the one million records prepared during the 12 years of the Library's Shared Cataloging Program have not entered the MARC data base.

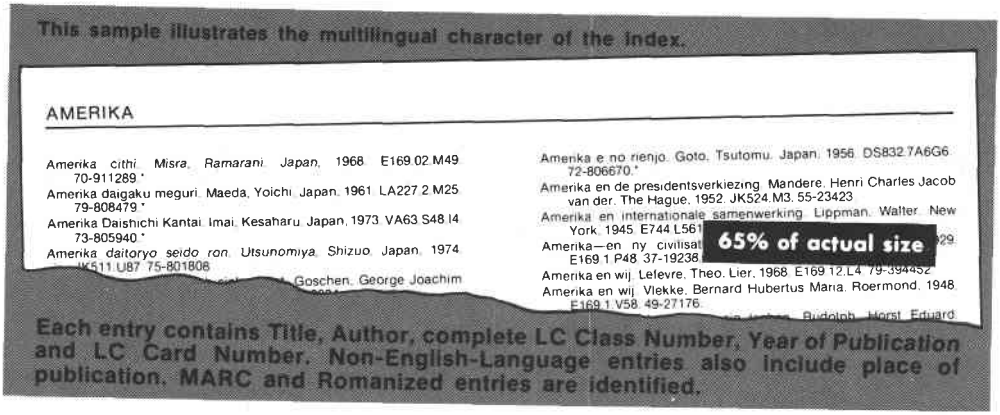
A small number of exceptions to the above listing are represented by the Library's highly selective RECON (REtrospective CONversion) Program which after several years has only just reached its 150,000th record (most of which covered 1968 and 1969 English Language reprints).

Actually, it has been the Library's long range emphasis on collecting and cataloging non-U.S. materials which has led it well beyond the role of a "national library" to its preeminence as a "library to the world". This emphasis is illustrated by the fact that in the last ten years, only 37 percent of the books processed by LC were in English (and, of course, a large number of these were of non-U.S. origin).

Carrollton: Well, that pretty well takes care of TLC's coverage of the non-MARC records. Now let's talk about OCLC. Several librarians have asked what benefits they would get from the Title Index that they would not already be getting as OCLC participants.

Mumford: First, of course, is the matter of coverage. Because of the overwhelming size, longevity and international scope of LC's holdings, the great majority of records in its classified collections have *not* been included in MARC, OCLC, or any other data bases.

Actually, there's no way of knowing exactly how many records are in the LC Classified Collections that are not in OCLC. We know how many records LC has sent to OCLC (over one million MARC records) but we do not know how many non-duplicate retrospective LC records have been put into the data base by OCLC participants. In spite of the large numbers of records cited by OCLC, after one deducts the MARC input, non-print materials, duplicate records, local publications, and other non-LC materials, the number of retrospective non-MARC LC records entered by OCLC participants should be relatively small. Based on conversations with LC catalogers and others, however, my outside guess would be that some 1.5



Mumford (Continued)

million unique non-MARC LC records may have been added by OCLC participating libraries.

This, of course, leaves 4 million non-MARC records in the Classified Collections that are not in the OCLC data base.

The main reasons for the relative lack of OCLC overlap, as indicated above, are the size and international nature of the Library of Congress holdings when compared to those of even the largest of the OCLC participants.

COMPARISONS OF HOLDINGS

The overwhelming relative strengths of the LC collections in specific subject areas are best illustrated in the biennial report, *Titles Classified by the Library of Congress Classification: National Shelflist Count* (published by the University of California at Berkeley under the auspices of the organization of "Chief Collection Development Officers of Large Research Libraries"). This study compares the holdings of LC to those of 27 major U.S. research libraries in individual LC Classification Schedules.

The 1977 edition of this report shows that the Library of Congress' holdings are often two or more times as large as those of second-place libraries in a wide variety of significant subject areas, including: American History (Classes E-F), Social Sciences (H-Hx), Language & Literature (P-Pz), Technology (T-Tx), and Bibliography and Library Science (Z).

"For a one-time expenditure which is less than a year's salary of a cataloger, TLC will go on, year after year; saving time and money for a library's Reference, Acquisitions, and Cataloging Departments."

In a telephone survey conducted by Carrollton Press during September, 1979, of the 20 largest members of the Association of Research Libraries, it was learned that although 16 of them are currently OCLC participants, none submit significant numbers of retrospective LC records to OCLC. (A possible exception to this is the University of Texas, which has sent OCLC approximately 20,000 *retrospective records to date.*)

LC CLASSIFICATION NUMBER CHANGES

Tens of thousands of LC Classification-Number changes will have been picked up and printed in TLC. In many cases where participating OCLC libraries derive their cataloging data from old LC printed cards it would be beneficial if they would consult TLC entries before they contribute retrospective cataloging to the OCLC data base.

Access to up-to-date LC Classification numbers, of course, will also be extremely important to libraries converting from Dewey to the LC Classification system. Moreover, OCLC participants can refer to TLC to find LC Class Numbers for those OCLC records which show only Dewey call numbers.

Carrollton: Dr. Mumford, you've demonstrated the usefulness and unique coverage of the *LC Title Index*. But the set is expensive (even with our pre-publication prices and extended payment plans). How can librarians justify its cost?

Mumford: I think the cost effectiveness of the set is best illustrated by the fact that for a one-time expenditure which is less than the year's salary of a cataloger, TLC will go on year after year saving time and money for a library's Reference, Acquisitions and Cataloging Departments — and do so during those future years when inflation will have increased staff salaries and other costs.

Looking at it another way, TLC records cost only $1.78 per thousand at the pre-publication price — and even less if paid in advance. The arguments for ordering the set now and paying in advance also seem impressive to me. Those libraries which ordered Mansell's *Pre-1956 Imprints* edition of the *National Union Catalog* when it was first announced paid less than half of today's price for that set. Also, the 10% prepayment discount on the Title Index amounts to a healthy $1,143. It is therefore obviously advantageous for libraries to get their orders on record now at the pre-publication price. That way, they'll be certain to get the "Z" volumes at the same price they paid for the "A" volumes.

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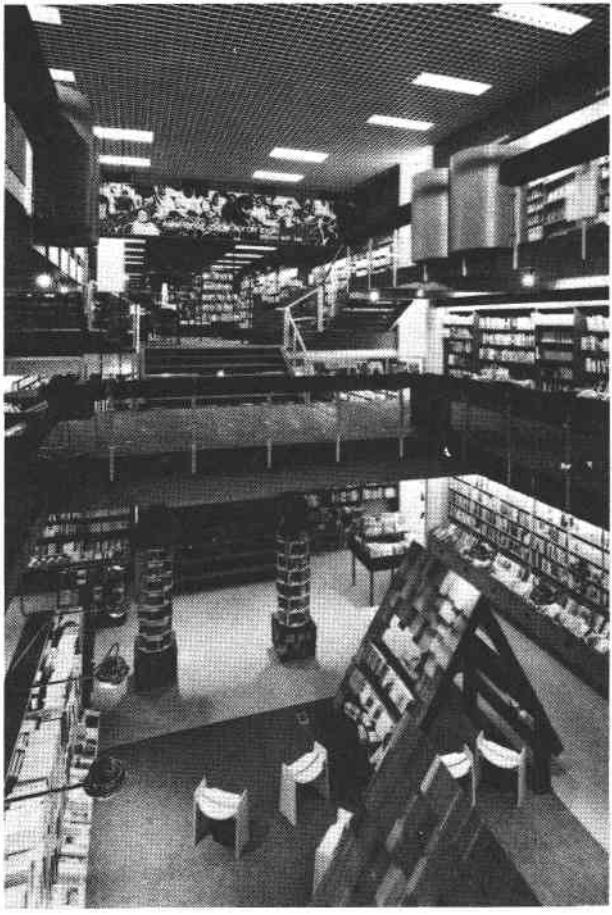

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TABLE 8

SERIES DECISIONS
(QUESTION C7)

	Size of Library Collections	
	Large	Small
All series traced by LC are traced	36.6%	31%
All series traced by LC are traced, as well as local decision*	20%	7%
Selected series traced by LC are traced	3.3%	5%
Selected series traced by LC are traced, as well as local decisions	40%	54%
Local decisions only are traced	0%	2%
Series are not traced	0%	2%

*This answer was volunteered by the percentages of the libraries indicated.

Fifty-six and six-tenths percent of the larger libraries trace all series that LC traced, while 38 percent of the smaller libraries follow the same policy. None of the larger libraries and only 2 percent of the smaller libraries responded that series are not traced, indicating that academic libraries consider series an important access point for users.

THE DEGREE TO WHICH OCLC MEMBER RECORDS ARE VERIFIED

The cataloging copy input into OCLC by member libraries other than the Library of Congress is a special case of what is traditionally called cooperative copy, or shared cataloging. On the basis of his survey Spyers-Duran reported, "The acceptance of shared cataloging data evoked criticism among some catalogers. Most catalogers appear to have little problem accepting LC cataloging, but regard cataloging done by another institution with some skepticism."[5] In *Cataloging with Copy,* Dowell discusses the factors that cataloging departments consider when deciding on the extent to which cooperative copy must be verified and the levels of personnel to which this task will be assigned.[6] The problem facing catalogers, says Dowell, is that of "integrating externally produced cataloging into a local existing system."[7] Decisions of other libraries must be correlated with local policies on such matters as choice and form of entries, fullness of description, and choice of systems of subject headings and classification numbers.

Even if cooperative cataloging conforms to AACR and LC practice, local preference in classification system and choice of alternate class numbers will necessitate some modification or completion of the copy. OCLC recommends that member libraries follow AACR or LC practice when putting new records into the data base, but these recommendations have not yet resulted in quality control that would ensure standardization of cataloging records.[8] Because of this lack of quality control, a majority of libraries surveyed find it necessary to verify call numbers, choice and form of entry, added entries, and subject headings on records input by OCLC member libraries. Tables 9 and 10 summarize the responses to questions D2a–D2b.

In addition, the majority of the libraries surveyed indicated that the

TABLE 9

ITEMS VERIFIED IN MEMBER RECORDS
(QUESTION D2a)

	Size of Library Collections	
	Large	Small
Call number	79%	73%
Choice and form of entry	71.6%	74%
Added entries	73.2%	68%
All of the above	70%	61%
None of the above	18.3%	20%

TABLE 10

TREATMENT OF SUBJECT HEADINGS IN MEMBER RECORDS
(QUESTION D2b)

	Size of Library Collections	
	Large	Small
Subject headings supplied in member records are verified as valid LC headings	70%	81.7%
Subject headings supplied in member records are checked for appropriateness to the items	61.6%	67%
Subject headings are assigned if none are supplied in member records	88.3%	90%
All of the above	56.6%	61.7%
None of the above	8.3%	1%

bibliographic description in member records is checked for accuracy. Eighty-eight and three-tenths percent of the libraries with 900,000 volumes or more and 88 percent of the libraries with under 900,000 volumes correct all areas of bibliographic description in member records, including the title statement, authorship statement, edition statement, imprint, collation, series area, and notes area. The remaining libraries (those that do not correct all areas of description in member records) cited most frequently the notes area and the authorship statement as areas that were not corrected.

Although a majority of the libraries surveyed find it necessary to verify member records fully, a substantial number do not. Thirty-seven percent of the larger libraries and 30 percent of the smaller libraries responded that budgetary restraints, administrative pressure, and adequacy of member records to serve library users were factors that contributed to their decision to accept member records without full verification (question D3).

Where full verification is done for member records, there is evidence from table 4 that libraries are using support staff extensively in the process. This increased participation on the part of support staff in handling cooperative cataloging copy represents a departure from the traditional division of tasks in many cataloging departments, namely, the assignment of cataloging with LC copy to support staff

and cooperative cataloging copy and cataloging without copy to professional staff.

A small number of the libraries surveyed maintain a list of OCLC member libraries whose cataloging copy is automatically accepted: 11.6 percent of the larger libraries and 5 percent of the smaller libraries. However, five libraries commented that they are compiling such a list and that there is some administrative pressure to investigate this possibility.

The data gathered for this study indicate the following trends in cataloging with copy: increased use of support staff in cataloging with OCLC member records; the acceptance of member records without full verification; the production of catalog records directly at the terminal, with the use of a stop-list. Spyers-Duran reports, "Many systems have been established in which copy cataloging is now done solely by the support staff. In many libraries, eighty to ninety-five percent of all cataloging is now performed by non-professional staff working at the terminal."[9]

Conclusion

This study of 121 selected academic libraries participating in the OCLC cataloging system provides quantitative information on current cataloging production, cataloging staff size and utilization, principal resources used in cataloging, and cataloging practices, including the use made of OCLC member records. The new large source of cooperative cataloging provided by the member records in an automated cataloging network has led to modifications in traditional cataloging policies and practices. Libraries have had to reexamine their policies with regard to cooperative cataloging copy and redefine the roles of the various levels of professional and support staff. Although a majority of the libraries responding to this survey adhere to the *Anglo-American Cataloging Rules* and follow Library of Congress practices, the fact that many of the libraries find it necessary to verify OCLC member records indicates variations in cataloging policies among the members of the system.

Because of the lack of cataloging standards uniformly applied by the libraries putting records into the data base, the potential of the system is not being realized. In October 1977, OCLC established the Inter-Network Quality Control Council to "devise mechanisms for implementation of quality control and applications of standards for input into the OCLC on-line catalog."[10] In its first meeting, the council decided to solicit input on topics dealing with quality control from regional advisory groups (or "peer groups") and individual libraries and to invite the participation of the Library of Congress.[11]

The cost-effectiveness of an automated system such as OCLC depends heavily upon the use made of its data base. In establishing the Inter-Network Quality Control Council, OCLC has recognized the need for encouraging the implementation of standards of quality control in cataloging that will enable member libraries to take full advantage of the records input by other members. The council has recog-

nized that the final responsibility for the quality of member records rests at local levels, with the members themselves and the regional networks to which they belong.

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APPENDIX 1
QUESTIONNAIRE ON THE UTILIZATION OF PERSONNEL AND BIBLIOGRAPHIC RESOURCES BY OCLC PARTICIPATING LIBRARIES

Name of university or college _____

A. GENERAL INFORMATION

1. The following classification scheme is used:
   _____ Library of Congress (LC)
   _____ Dewey
   _____ other (specify) _____
2. Sources of cataloging copy within the library other than OCLC are:
   _____ National Union Catalog, including LC Catalog of Printed Cards
   _____ Mansell's Pre-1956 Imprints
   _____ Micrographic Catalog Retrieval System (MCRS)
   _____ MARCFICHE
3. Approximately how many volumes are in your collection? _____
4. Approximately how many cataloging records (on an FTU basis) are produced on OCLC by your library in a month? _____
5. Number of cataloging personnel (full-time equivalent):
   _____ number of professional catalogers
   _____ number of support staff members
6. Do you have a printer for the OCLC terminals? _____

B. CATALOGING WITH LC COPY

1. LC cataloging records are adapted by:
   _____ professional catalogers only
   _____ support staff only
   _____ both professional and support staff

2. CIP records are completed by:
   _____ professional catalogers only
   _____ support staff only
   _____ both professional and support staff
3. Items for which LC cataloging has been located for a different edition are cataloged by:
   _____ professional catalogers only
   _____ support staff only
   _____ both professional and support staff

C. CATALOGING WITHOUT COPY (LC, OCLC MEMBER, OR OTHER)

General Policies

1. Cataloging without copy is done by:
   _____ professional catalogers only
   _____ support staff only
   _____ professional catalogers with the assistance of support staff for verification purposes
   _____ both professional catalogers and support staff
2. The following local authority files are maintained and used (if all are in one file, check all):
   _____ name authority
   _____ subject authority
   _____ series authority
   _____ other (specify) _____

Verification Procedures

3. LC cataloging practices are adhered to for the following (check all that apply):
   _____ call number (exceptions, specify): _____
   _____ name headings (exceptions, specify): _____
   _____ subject headings (exceptions, specify): _____
   _____ form of series entries
4. The following tools are used in the assignment of class numbers (check all that apply):
   _____ LC classification schedules, without the Additions and Changes
   _____ LC classification schedules, with the Additions and Changes
   _____ LC Subject Catalogs, including LC Catalog—Books: Subjects
   _____ Micrographic Catalog Retrieval System (MCRS)
   _____ MARCFICHE
   _____ Dewey, specify edition: _____
   _____ other, specify: _____
5. Subject headings are assigned using the following (check all that apply):
   _____ LC Subject Headings, 8th ed. only
   _____ LC Subject Headings, 8th ed. and supplements
   _____ LC Subject Catalogs, including LC Catalog—Books: Subjects
   _____ other, specify: _____
6. Name headings are assigned using the following tools (check all that apply):
   _____ LC Name Headings with References
   _____ National Union Catalog, including LC Catalog of Printed Cards
   _____ Micrographic Catalog Retrieval System (MCRS)
   _____ MARCFICHE
   _____ other bibliographic sources, if the name cannot be located in any of the above
7. Series decisions (to trace or not to trace) are made according to the following:
   _____ all series traced by LC are traced
   _____ selected series traced by LC are traced
   _____ selected series traced by LC are traced, as well as local decisions
   _____ local decisions only are traced
   _____ series are not traced
8. If LC practice is largely followed in making series decisions, the following tools are used to determine LC usage:
   _____ LC cataloging copy located in the National Union Catalog, MCRS, MARCFICHE, OCLC, etc.
   _____ LC Monographic Series

9. Do you follow AACR Revised Chapter 6 in all areas of descriptive cataloging?
   _____ yes
   _____ no
   If *no*, specify exceptions (such as omission of authorship statement or size): _____

10. The following indispensable notes outlined in Rule 143B1 of AACR Revised Chapter 6 are consistently made (check all that apply):
    _____ to identify the work or edition to distinguish it from others (e.g., a statement to show that the work is in microform)
    _____ to provide essential information regarding the authorship
    _____ to clarify the relationship of the heading or of an added entry
    _____ to clarify misleading information in the formalized part of the entry (e.g., when a slip mounted on the title page supplies a correction)
    _____ to provide information essential to locating the work (e.g., "bound with" notes)
    _____ to explain that the work is incomplete or imperfect
    _____ to describe accompanying material
    _____ to show contents of a multivolume work
    _____ to supply the romanized form of a title in a nonroman script
    _____ no indispensable notes are made

11. The following dispensable notes outlined in Rule 143B2 of AACR Revised Chapter 6 are generally made (check all that apply):
    _____ to reveal the contents or partial contents of a work in one volume (particularly bibliographies and indexes)
    _____ to supplement the physical description in the collation
    _____ to show the nature and scope of the work and its literary form if the title is misleading
    _____ to show the language of the text if the language of the title differs from that of the text, or if the language of the text is not obvious
    _____ to provide bibliographical history of the work
    _____ to indicate that the work is a thesis
    _____ to provide a statement of limited distribution or noncommercial nature of the work
    _____ no dispensable notes are made

D. USE OF MEMBER RECORDS IN OCLC

1. Does your library maintain a list of OCLC member libraries whose cataloging copy is automatically accepted?
   _____ yes
   _____ no

2. a. All member records are fully verified for the following (check all that apply):
      _____ call number
      _____ choice and form of entry
      _____ added entries

   b. Subject headings for member records are handled in the following manner (check all that apply):
      _____ Subject headings supplied in member records are verified as valid LC headings.
      _____ Subject headings supplied in member records are checked for appropriateness to the items.
      _____ Subject headings are assigned if none are supplied in member records.

   c. The following areas of descriptive cataloging are corrected in member records (check all that apply):
      _____ title statement
      _____ authorship statement
      _____ edition statement
      _____ imprint
      _____ collation
      _____ series area
      _____ notes area

3. If all items in 2a, 2b, and 2c are not checked, what factors have contributed to your decision to accept member records without full verification? (Check all that apply)
   _____ budgetary restraints
   _____ administrative pressure to accept member records
   _____ member records adequate to serve library users
   _____ other (specify) _____
4. Verification of member cataloging records is done by:
   _____ professional catalogers only
   _____ support staff only
   _____ professional catalogers with the assistance of support staff for verification
   _____ both professional catalogers and support staff

APPENDIX 2
LIST OF RESPONDENTS TO THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Adelphi University
American University
Arizona State University
Ball State University
Baylor University
Boston University
Bowling Green State University
Brooklyn College
Brown University
Case Western Reserve University
Catholic University of America
Chicago State University
City College of New York
Clark University
Clemson University
Cleveland State University
College of William and Mary
Colorado State University
Cornell University
Dartmouth University
DePaul University
Drake University
Drexel University
Duquesne University
East Carolina University
East Texas State University
Eastern Kentucky University
Emory University
Florida State University
Georgetown University
Georgia Institute of Technology
Georgia State University
Howard University
Illinois State University
Indiana State University
Indiana University of Pennsylvania
Johns Hopkins University
Kent State University
Lehigh University
Louisiana State University
Loyola University (Chicago)
Marquette University
Miami University (Ohio)
Michigan State University
North Carolina A&T State University
North Carolina State University
North Texas State University
Northeastern University
Northern Arizona University
Oberlin College
Ohio University
Pennsylvania State University
Princeton University
Rutgers University
St. Cloud State University
San Diego State University
Southern Illinois University, Carbondale
Southern Illinois University, Edwardsville
Southern Methodist University
SUNY, Albany
SUNY, Binghamton
SUNY, Buffalo
SUNY, Stony Brook
Syracuse University
Temple University
Texas A&M University
Texas Christian University
Texas Tech University
Texas Woman's University
Trinity College
Tulane University
University of Akron
University of Alabama
University of Arizona
University of California, Irvine
University of California, Riverside
University of California, San Diego
University of Cincinnati
University of Connecticut
University of Delaware
University of Georgia
University of Illinois

University of Kansas
University of Kentucky
Universiy of Louisville
University of Miami
University of Missouri, Columbia
University of Nebraska
University of New Hampshire
University of New Mexico
University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill
University of North Carolina, Greensboro
University of Northern Colorado
University of Notre Dame
University of Oklahoma
University of Rhode Island
University of Rochester
University of South Carolina
University of South Florida
University of Southern Mississippi
University of Tennessee
University of Texas, Arlington
University of Texas, Austin
University of Toledo
University of Utah
University of Vermont
University of Virginia
Wake Forest University
Washington University
Wayne State University
Wellesley College
Yale University

Gifts and Exchanges in U.S. Academic Libraries

Mark Kovacic

While all libraries receive gifts and many maintain exchange programs, the amount of gift and exchange material received and the ways in which this material is handled vary among libraries. The author examines policies and procedures relating to gifts and exchanges and investigates the organization and staffing of gift and exchange activities. Given a favorable environment, gift and exchange programs can be a cost-effective means of acquiring valuable research material for U.S. academic library collections.

WILLIAM HUFF WONDERED IN 1970 if "exchange units are really functional today or if they are vestiges of an era when people could devote more time to shepherding gift and exchange relationships."[1] Visits to eighteen libraries reveal some interesting facts about the status of gifts and exchanges in U.S. academic libraries. The libraries visited represent a wide geographical distribution and range in collection size from just under a million volumes to well over six million volumes.

In addition to gathering factual information, an attempt was made to obtain personal opinions on the value of gift and exchange programs. For this reason, interviews were conducted not only with those directly involved in gift and exchange work but also with various other library staff, including acquisitions, collection development, technical services and special collection librarians. By actually visiting libraries, instead of sending out questionnaires, it was possible to learn firsthand how gifts and exchanges are being handled in U.S. academic libraries today.

GIFTS

Although not surprising, the fact that all libraries receive gifts quickly became apparent. None of the people interviewed believed

This article is based on a study supported by a fellowship from the Council on Library Resources, Washington, D.C., and conducted from July to December 1977 while the author was gifts and exchange librarian, Pennsylvania State University Libraries. The complete report, entitled "The Organization and Function of Gift and Exchange Programs in Eighteen Selected U.S. Academic Libraries," is available from the ERIC Clearinghouse as Document Number ED 175397. Mark Kovacic is at present assistant head of acquisitions, University Libraries, University of Cincinnati. Manuscript received February 1979; accepted for publication April 1979.

that their libraries could adopt a policy of not accepting gifts, because there is simply no way out of it. The library address gets on many complimentary mailing lists and material comes in automatically and continually. It is also difficult to say "no" to well-meaning donors, especially since they are aware that libraries are currently experiencing budgetary restraints.

Aside from these reasons for receiving gifts, however, is the fact that historically gifts have played an important role in the collection building efforts of academic libraries. The history of gifts to U.S. academic libraries dates back to the first college library established in the colonies. The Harvard College Library was a gift from John Harvard in 1638. In 1767, Brown University organized a collection of books for its library with generous contributions from John Brown and his family, and the Rutgers University Library, which probably began in 1792, was the result of a bequest from Reverend Peter Leydt.[2]

In addition to significant gift collections and endowments, U.S. academic libraries also benefit from many smaller gifts. It is this category of gifts—the single-volume donations and small gift collections—that comprise a major portion of gift-giving to U.S. academic libraries. The sources for such gifts include faculty members, alumni, friends and patrons of the library, local residents, individual authors, various organizations, such as banks and foundations, other universities, research institutes, and governmental agencies.

While most libraries seem generally satisfied with their gift programs, many expressed concern about the small percentage of gifts actually added to the collection compared to the bulk of gift material received. Thus, it is difficult to comprehend why many libraries accept everything that is offered. The reasons for accepting virtually everything include the desire for good public relations and the chance to acquire a more valuable collection in the future. There is no practical reason, though, for libraries to become the dumping grounds for the public's unwanted books. If libraries develop criteria for unacceptable gifts and incorporate them into written collection development policies, it becomes easier to decline unwanted library gifts tactfully. Such a practice reduces the cost of processing gifts, since it requires less time to sort gift material and to dispose of unwanted items.

Exchanges

The rationale of having exchange programs, of course, is to acquire material that is not available any other way or for which exchange is more economically advantageous than purchasing. The history of international exchanges can be traced as far back as 1694 when the Bibliothèque du Roi in Paris established exchanges with various countries.[3] However, no history of exchanges in U.S. academic libraries exists, although Juanita Terry suggests that exchange departments began increasing in this country in the late 1930s, apparently a direct result of the Depression years.[4]

Of the eighteen libraries visited, sixteen currently have exchange

programs, although in some cases the number of exchanges maintained is limited. While several of the larger libraries maintain thousands of exchanges, most libraries tend to have several hundred exchanges and a large percentage of these are with foreign institutions. As with gifts, the staff of most of the libraries visited believe that the material being received on exchange supplements the collection with valuable research material that might not otherwise be acquired.

A good exchange program, of course, depends upon the kind of publications available to the library to use for exchange purposes. These most often include titles published by the university press or by various university departments and are usually available for exchange purposes without cost or at reduced rates. Libraries without exchange programs or with a limited exchange program cite a lack of available publications as the reason.

Ten of the eighteen libraries indicate that they also maintain "bartered exchanges," where the library pays for American trade publications to be sent to foreign exchange partners. Some libraries have separate "exchange accounts" to use for this purpose, which range in amount from a few thousand dollars to as much as thirty-five thousand dollars. In such arrangements, the publisher or vendor ships the requested material directly to the exchange partner and sends the invoice to the library for payment.

The most common type of exchange involves journal titles. This is the most efficient kind of exchange arrangement since, once established, it practically maintains itself. The only costs involved after establishing the exchange are incurred in sending issues to exchange partners and claiming issues of exchange titles not received. Monographic exchanges, however, involve more effort because individual titles must be acquired for exchange partners and because it is necessary to keep a record of each title sent and received.

Policies

Half of the libraries visited have a written gift policy while only a few have written exchange policies. In most libraries, as a matter of policy, all monographic gifts are acknowledged, whereas serials and periodicals received on a continuing basis are generally acknowledged annually or upon receipt of the initial issue. While several libraries giftplate all gift books, most do so only when it is specifically requested by the donor. By using form acknowledgments for routine gifts and by using giftplates only when requested, the time and costs involved can be minimized while still providing the necessary good public relations.

Before accepting gifts, most libraries inform prospective donors that they reserve the right to make retention decisions for gift material and to dispose of duplicates and unwanted material as they deem most suitable. Likewise, libraries generally reserve the right to determine processing priorities, especially for large gift collections.

None of the libraries visited accept gifts with "strings attached" by

the donor, such as maintaining a gift collection as a physical entity. In practice, however, in most libraries a great deal of flexibility is exercised in this area of gift policy and conditions of acceptance are open to discussion with the donors. However, gifts are not often conditional and in most instances donors agree to permit use of the material in whatever way the library decides is best.

Many libraries have adopted the ACRL statements on legal title and appraisal of gifts. These statements acknowledge that for gifts of lesser value, donors quite often are not concerned about legal title and that for smaller gifts, libraries may want to provide an estimate of value to the donor, although appraising gifts is not recommended.[5] Therefore, in providing an estimate, most libraries stress that it is not an official appraisal and that the donor accepts responsibility in using it for tax purposes.

Exchange policies cover the types of material to be acquired on exchange (subject and geographical areas of the world), the kinds of material to be used for exchanges, and the extent to which the library will buy material to use for exchange purposes. Most libraries do not have a specific policy concerning the terms of exchange. While some mentioned title for title, piece for piece, or value for value, most agreed that the terms of exchange are determined most often on an individual basis and are dependent on the publications to be sent and those to be received.

Procedures

The procedures for requesting and receiving gift and exchange material are similar to those for ordering material and include "preorder" searching, placing the "order," and maintaining a record of it. Receipt of requested material includes verifying that it is what was "ordered" (i.e., requested) and clearing the outstanding "orders file" (i.e., requests file).

Unlike the acquisition of other material, which hinges on placing orders, gift and exchange material continues to be received without active requests for it. Since much gift and exchange material is not specfically requested and since it includes all subject areas and all languages, deciding what should be retained and added to the cataloged collections is a task beyond the capabilities of any one person. The selection process, therefore, generally involves numerous people. The gift and exchange staff will sort out the material that has no value or for which the library has no need. The remaining material will then be sorted into various subject categories for persons with the appropriate subject expertise to review. At several libraries, unrequested gift and exchange books are displayed with blanket order or approval books, since the selection process is similar for both.

Following the selection process, the gift and exchange staff is responsible for routing the material to be retained to the cataloging department. At 87 percent of the libraries, the gift and exchange staff is responsible for the bibliographical searching of monographs while in only 38 percent is the gift and exchange staff responsible for the

searching of serial and periodical titles also. Such searching is usually limited to "ownership searching," that is, ascertaining whether or not the library has already ordered the titles or has already received or cataloged them. It is interesting to note that at a number of libraries, complete bibliographical searching of books-in-hand is no longer considered an acquisitions function, but rather a cataloging function. This change is attributed to the use of on-line cataloging systems, such as OCLC.

Material not to be retained is disposed of by selling it, giving it away, or discarding it. Of the libraries visited, 76 percent conduct book sales. In most libraries the sales are held occasionally throughout the year, although in several there are ongoing sales and a few actually have separate sales rooms with regular hours of operation. Some of those libraries that do not have book sales stated that they are prohibited from doing so by state law. Annual proceeds vary from seven hundred to fifteen thousand dollars, with those libraries that have ongoing sales realizing the highest proceeds. Book sale proceeds are quite often channelled into book funds for buying new books, replacements, or duplicate copies of heavily used books.

Most libraries also offer their unwanted material to other libraries within their geographical areas by allowing librarians from other libraries to examine what is available. Items are generally available on a first-come, first-served basis within a specified time limit. However, in only 25 percent of the libraries are lists of duplicate and unwanted monographs prepared and in only 40 percent are duplicate and unwanted serials and periodicals listed. Those libraries that do list monographs are selective about what they list, and the list usually is prepared for the purpose of monographic exchanges with selected foreign institutions. The listing of serials and periodicals is more often done for the purpose of offering the material to the USBE or selling it to dealers.

Organization and Staffing

There are three basic ways to organize gift and exchange activities: (1) to centralize them into a single work unit, (2) to have a separate gifts unit and a separate exchange unit, or (3) to integrate gift and exchange functions into various other work units. The organization of gift and exchange functions at the eighteen libraries visited is shown in table 1 and corresponds closely to the Association of Research Libraries 1976 survey of gift and exchange functions in its member libraries. That survey indicates that 57 percent of ARL member libraries have a centralized gift and exchange unit, 13 percent have two separate units, and 30 percent integrate gift and exchange functions into various other work units.[6]

The way in which gift and exchange functions are organized has remained stable for some time at most libraries, and the majority of the libraries visited indicate that no major changes are planned for the near future. Most centrally organized gift and exchange units function as part of the acquisitions department, and gift and exchange librar-

TABLE 1

THE ORGANIZATION OF GIFT AND EXCHANGE FUNCTIONS AT THE EIGHTEEN LIBRARIES VISITED

Type of Organization	Number of Libraries	Percentage
Centralized gift and exchange unit	8	44
Separate gift unit and a separate exchange unit	2	12
Integrated into other work units	8	44
Total	18	100

ians most often report directly to the acquisitions librarian. There is no case in the present study where a centrally organized gift and exchange unit functions as part of a serials department.

The average number of staff directly involved in gift and exchange work at those libraries having a centralized gift and exchange unit is one professional librarian and two preprofessionals (most often referred to as library assistants or library associates), in addition to ten hours per week of clerical level help and twenty hours per week of part-time student help. It is difficult, however, to determine the amount of total professional time involved in gift and exchange functions, since many librarians become involved at one time or another in accepting and selecting gift and exchange material.

There is no general rule of thumb for the best organization and staffing of gift and exchange functions since there are so many individual variables. As table 2 illustrates, though, there is a direct relationship between the way gift and exchange functions are organized and the collection size. It is the larger academic libraries that tend to centralize gift and exchange functions into a single work unit under the direct

TABLE 2

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN COLLECTION SIZE OF LIBRARIES VISITED AND TYPE OF GIFT AND EXCHANGE ORGANIZATION

Size	Type	Size (cont.)	Type (cont.)
964,427	A	1,670,984	A
985,848	C	1,824,472	A
1,058,000	C	2,125,640	A
1,229,423	C	2,700,000	A
1,314,857	C	3,519,424	B
1,453,000	C	4,272,959	A
1,545,423	C	4,649,533	A
1,558,670	C	4,661,913	A
1,629,078	C	6,518,848	B

Type A—Centralized gift and exchange unit
Type B—Separate gift unit and separate exchange unit
Type C—Integrated into other work units
Source for collection size is the *American Library Directory* 30th ed. (New York: Bowker, 1976–77)

supervision of a professional librarian. Perhaps the main advantage to centralizing gift and exchange functions into a single work unit is that the same staff is consistently working with the same type of material and their expertise in the long run may account for increased efficiency.

Statistics and Costs

It is difficult to compare gift and exchange statistics among libraries since there are so many inconsistencies in the way in which they are maintained. The ARL survey, however, indicates that the majority of libraries it surveyed receive between three thousand and twenty-six thousand gifts annually.[7]

There seems to be uncertainty as to what percentage of total monographs and serials added to the cataloged collection is received as gifts or on exchange. Some of the people interviewed guessed that perhaps as much as 20 to 25 percent of both monographic and serial titles currently being added to their collections was acquired through gift and exchange sources. The significance of having such information available was suggested by William Lindstrom who, in his 1970 study of gifts and exchanges at the University of Hawaii Library, recommended that "the percentage converted into time should be forecasted and programmed into [the] total acquisitions effort in order to assure expeditious and efficient handling of these materials . . . thus, the system works as long as we refuse to regard gift materials as those to be 'worked' when time permits or when their growth forces a grand organized effort to reduce their size to a manageable state."[8]

Various cost studies done at the libraries visited as well as others that have been published indicate that the acquisition costs for gift and exchange material can be cost-effective. Such studies are based upon a determination of the total cost of acquiring such material (salaries, cost of exchange publications sent, postage, etc.) and a comparison of this cost with the value of the material added to the collection. Since many publications received on a gift or exchange basis do not have prices, their value is generally estimated, based on the average of those with prices.

Victor Novak, for example, found in his 1965 study of exchanges at the University of Santa Clara that the value of exchange material received and added to the collection was about $1300 more than the cost of acquiring the material.[9] Similarly, John Galejs' study in 1972 indicated that exchanges at the Iowa State University Library were economically beneficial, as the value of receipts exceeded the direct costs to the library by at least $5000.[10] Earlier cost studies done at Columbia, the University of California, and the University of Michigan also indicate that exchanges can be cost-effective.[11]

Conclusions

All U.S. academic libraries receive gifts and many have exchanges; however, it is the larger libraries, those with a million and a half volumes or more, that receive the greatest number of gifts and that

maintain the most extensive exchange programs. These libraries also tend to centralize gift and exchange functions into a single work unit headed by a professional gifts and exchange librarian.

Smaller libraries rely on larger libraries for the type of material normally acquired through gift and exchange arrangements. Material received from gift and exchange sources is generally of a primary-source nature and thus more suited to larger research collections. A vast amount of the world's publishing output is not commercially available through regular trade channels, and it is this area of acquisitions that should be the main function of a gift and exchange program.

As resource sharing becomes a reality, there will be less need for all libraries to maintain extensive gift and exchange programs. However, the role of gift and exchange programs in cooperative resource-sharing systems should be clearly defined, and it should be determined which libraries within such systems will be responsible for acquiring and making accessible those research materials available only through gift and exchange channels.

There is a need for libraries to establish goals and objectives for gift and exchange programs and to develop gift and exchange policies in line with their collection development policies. Such planning provides the basis for determining the organizational structure and staffing requirements by which the handling of gift and exchange material can be most efficiently accomplished. It is especially important that libraries develop criteria for the types of material that are acceptable as gifts. Gifts should not be accepted unless there is reason to believe that a fair amount of the material can be added to the library's collection.

Libraries should also look closely at their gift and exchange programs in terms of streamlining procedures and processes. Procedures that should be questioned include giftplating all gift books, providing lists of the books in gift collections to donors, listing all duplicate and unwanted material, and routine searching of such lists received from other libraries and institutions. These are all high-cost/low-yield activities, and their elimination would result in a more effective means of handling gifts and exchanges.

With a sound policy, effective organization, adequate staffing, and efficient processing procedures, gift and exchange programs can be a cost effective means of acquiring valuable material for academic research collections.

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1978 Library Microfilm Rates

Imre T. Jármy

An analysis of rates charged by selected U.S. libraries for producing 35mm, archival quality, silver halide microfilm, with tentative projections of future rates based on current market conditions.

THE PREPARATION OF THIS ARTICLE is sponsored by the Library Materials Price Index Committee, Resources Section, Resources and Technical Services Division, American Library Association. It updates similar articles on U.S. library microfilm rates published in earlier issues of this journal.[1] The following tables are based on rates listed in the seventh edition of the *Directory of Library Reprographic Services: A World Guide.*[2] The periodic publication of these indexes is designed to serve as a benchmark and assist librarians in planning and justifying budgets for library materials in microform.

It is assumed that libraries microfilm their collections for preservation purposes and plan to retain the microforms permanently. Therefore, only rates charged for producing archival-quality, silver halide, 35mm microfilm are listed. Previously the *Directory* distinguished between rates for bound and unbound library materials and newspapers. The 1978 *Directory* lists only a single rate for each institution and this article follows suit. Also, to conform to the indexes published for other forms of library materials, the former 1957–59 base period has been abandoned in favor of the new 1967–69 base period. The institutions in tables 1 and 2 are arranged alphabetically and hierarchically by their standard library symbols.

The prices listed are definitely minimum rates and should be considered typical for small orders without complications. Many libraries add charges for spools and boxes or establish minimum charges per volume, item, or order. They may also set additional charges for manuscript, pictorial, rare book, and other material requiring special handling, or for nonconsecutive runs, for filming double-page material in single-page format, for customer specifications, for scrapbook, map, and similar material, or for camera changes required by fold-out charts or other variations in material format.

Table 1 lists fifty-seven selected libraries in the United States and presents data on the rates charged for 35mm silver halide negative microfilm by forty-six of them in 1978. For comparison, the rates

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No copyright is claimed on this article, which the author wrote as part of his official duties as an employee of the United States government.

charged in 1975 are included in a separate column. Rates for twenty-three of these libraries were obtained by telephone since they did not quote rates for inclusion in the 1978 *Directory*. Four libraries, one more than in 1975, ceased filming operations and now contract all filming on a jobber basis. The rates quoted in this table indicate the prices charged for producing one exposure of negative microfilm.

The 1978 index value for negative microfilm rates increased 26.3 percent over the 1975 average rates—more than the total ten-year increase of 22.3 percent during the 1959–69 period. It shows that the

TABLE 1

1978 RATES FOR SILVER HALIDE NEGATIVE MICROFILM IN SELECTED U.S. LIBRARIES (35MM, PER EXPOSURE)

Symbol	Institution	1975 Rates	1978 Rates
AU	University of Alabama	$.05B	$.06AB
CCC	Claremont College	.06A	.05A
CLU	University of California, Los Angeles	.10B	.10B
CPT	California Institute of Technology	.07AB	.05AB
CSmH	Henry E. Huntington Library	.105A	.08
CSt	Stanford University	BCD	BCD
CU	University of California, Berkeley	.12	.135A
CoU	University of Colorado	.05	.05
CtY	Yale University	.10	.10
DLC	Library of Congress	.07	.09
DNA	National Archives	.10	.10B
FU	University of Florida	.05B	.15A
GU	University of Georgia	.06	.085AB
ICU	University of Chicago	.06	.075AB
ICarbS	Southern Illinois University	BC	.06B
IU	University of Illinois	.06	.06
IaAS	Iowa State University	.04	.04
IaU	University of Iowa	.04	.04
KyU	University of Kentucky	.06B	.055A
LU	Louisiana State University	.054AB	.06B
MCM	Massachusetts Institute of Technology	.06	.06
MH	Harvard University	.08	.135A
MWA	American Antiquarian Society	.188AB	.20
MdBJ	Johns Hopkins University	.06	.06
MdU	University of Maryland	.10	.14
MiDW	Wayne State University	BCD	BCD
MiU	University of Michigan	.08	.10
MnU	University of Minnesota	.085	.085
MoU	University of Missouri	.05	.06
NbU	University of Nebraska	BC	BC

Legend: A Averaged
B Responded to letter or telephone
C No filming facilities, filming discontinued, or filming only for in-house use
D Filming arranged with commercial firm

TABLE 1 (CONT.)

Symbol	Institution	1975 Rates	1978 Rates
NjP	Princeton University	.06B	.07B
NmU	University of New Mexico	.05	.05
NIC	Cornell University	.08AB	.08AB
NN	New York Public Library	.10	.12B
NNC	Columbia University	.10	.10
NRU	University of Rochester	BC	BCD
NcD	Duke University	.07	.07
NcU	University of North Carolina	.05	.08
OCH	Hebrew Union College	.10AB	.12B
OCl	Cleveland Public Library	BC	BC
OkTU	University of Tulsa	BC	BCD
OkU	University of Oklahoma	.03	.03
OrU	University of Oregon	.032AB	.08B
PPAmP	American Philosophical Society	.05	.05
PSt	Pennsylvania State University	.05	.10
PU	University of Pennsylvania	.10	.10
TNJ	Joint University Libraries	.05	.05
TxAuP	Austin Presbyterian Theol. Seminary	BC	BC
TxLT	Texas Tech University	.06	.06
TxU	University of Texas	.085AB	.07
UPB	Brigham Young University	.022B	.12AB
Vi	Virginia State Library	.10B	.10B
ViBlbV	Virginia Polytechnic Institute	BC	BC
ViU	University of Virginia	.06	.08AB
WHi	State Historical Society of Wisconsin	BC	.135AB
WaU	University of Washington	.05AB	.07
WvU	West Virginia University	BD	BC
Total		$3.2510	$4.0150
Average Rate		.0707	.0836
Index Value		143.3548	169.6670

Legend: A Averaged
B Responded to letter or telephone
C No filming facilities, filming discontinued, or filming only for in-house use
D Filming arranged with commercial firm

general inflationary pressures of salaries and the cost of supplies and equipment are no longer being even partially absorbed, as in the past, by library photoduplication services and are instead being transmitted to the customers. Even so, the increase in cost generally lags behind the annual increases in the cost of living index.

Table 2 lists twenty-two selected libraries in the United States and presents data on the rates charged for positive microfilm in 1978 by nineteen of them. Again, for comparison, the rates charged in 1975 are included in a separate column. The 1978 rates for fourteen of these libraries were obtained by telephone since they did not quote rates for tabulation in the 1978 *Directory*. The rates quoted in this

TABLE 2

1978 RATES FOR SILVER HALIDE POSITIVE MICROFILM IN SELECTED U.S. LIBRARIES (35MM, PER FOOT)

Symbol	Institution	1975 Rates	1978 Rates
CLU	University of California, Los Angeles	$.10B	$.10B
CU	University of California, Berkeley	.15	.15
DLC	Library of Congress	.10	.12
DNA	National Archives	.09B	.13B
ICU	University of Chicago	.0775A	.0925AB
LU	Louisiana State University	.088AB	.10B
MH	Harvard University	.10	.15
MiU	University of Michigan	.10	.10
MoU	University of Missouri	.05	.06
NIC	Cornell University	.135B	.145AB
NN	New York Public Library	.25	.35B
NNC	Columbia University	.12	.35
OCH	Hebrew Union College	.24AB	.275AB
OCl	Cleveland Public Library	BC	BC
OrU	University of Oregon	.20AB	.27B
UPB	Brigham Young University	.06AB	.192AB
Vi	Virginia State Library	.10B	.10B
ViBlbV	Virginia Polytechnic Institute	BC	BC
ViU	University of Virginia	.10	.10B
WHi	State Historical Society of Wisconsin	.12B	BC
WaU	University of Washington	.08AB	.094
WvU	West Virginia University	BD	.185AB
Total		$2.2605	$3.0635
Average Rate		.1190	.1612
Index Value		123.9309	167.9550

Legend: A Averaged
B Responded to letter or telephone
C No filming facilities, filming discontinued, or filming only for in-house use
D Filming arranged with commercial firm

table indicate the prices charged for producing one foot of positive microfilm.

After a surprising dip in the index value of positive microfilm rates for the 1969–72 period of minus 12.6 percent, subsequent periods show dramatic increases. Compared to an 18.6 percent increase for the 1959–69 ten-year period, the 1978 index value rose 44.0 percent in three years. Although the production of positive microfilm is a more mechanized process than the production of negative microfilm, this increase in prices indicates that libraries, laboring under severe budgetary restrictions, are no longer willing to absorb even a portion of the escalating costs of materials, equipment, and production and are passing them on to their customers.

Table 3 compares the 1978 negative and positive silver halide microfilm rates charged by selected U.S. libraries with the 1969, 1972,

TABLE 3

INDEX OF U.S. LIBRARY SILVER HALIDE MICROFILM RATES

	1969	1972	1975	1978
Negative microfilm (35mm, per exposure)				
Average rate	$ .0493	$ .0621	$ .0707	$ .0836
Index value	100.0	125.9	143.4	169.7
Percent + or −	0	+25.9	+17.3	+26.3
Positive Microfilm (35mm, per foot)				
Average rate	$ .0960	$ .0839	$ .1190	$ .1612
Index value	100.0	87.4	123.9	168.0
Percent + or −	0	−12.6	+36.6	+44.0

and 1975 rates. For microfilm rate index purposes, the prices quoted in the fourth (1969) edition of the *Directory* have been utilized as the new base period for computing index values.

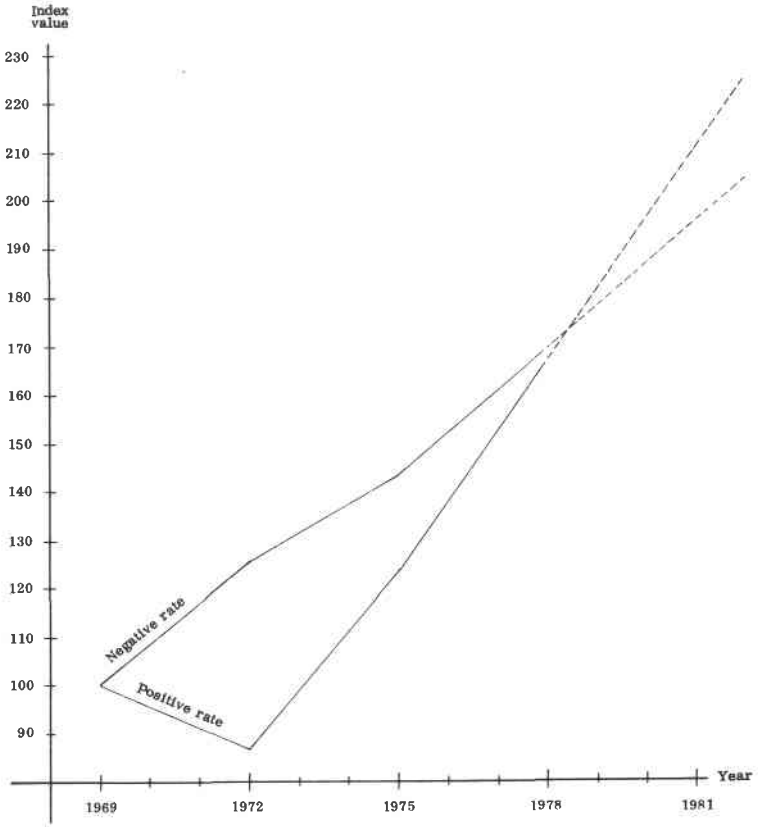

Figure 1
Graphic Display of U.S. Library Microfilm Rates

Figure 1 presents the 1969, 1972, 1975, and 1978 index values in graphic form. From these data, a projection of future index values of the negative and positive rates is made using the average annual rates for the 1975–78 period. The graph shows an annual linear rate increase for negative microfilm of 8.8 percent, giving an index value of 196.0 by 1981. Also shown is an annual rate increase for positive microfilm of 14.7 percent, resulting in a "scissoring" index value of 212.0 by 1981. The reader is cautioned that these future projections are conjectural, based on past prices and on a cursory reading of present market conditions. It is fair to assume, however, that inflationary pressures will continue to be a significant factor in the future, hence the linear projections.

Increasing prices notwithstanding, U.S. library-produced 35mm silver halide microfilm is an "acceptable buy," when compared with the average price increases for the 1975–78 period of 88.2 percent for U.S. periodicals, 49.6 percent for U.S. serial services, 45.1 percent for U.S. hardcover books, and 28.0 percent for 16mm color motion picture film.

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A Plain-Letter Romanization for Russian

George C. Steyskal

A method of romanizing Russian, very much like systems in current use, but without use of diacritic marks or special letters, is proposed for the convenience of typewriter and computer capability.

A FEW SYSTEMS OF ROMANIZATION by transliterating (transcribing strictly letter for letter)* words written in the Cyrillic alphabet in modern Russian have gained some currency, namely, the Library of Congress system (LC),[1] that of the International Organization for Standardization (ISO)[2] and one that is in use by virtually all linguists (LS system).[3] All these systems require some use of diacritic marks not available in most printing fonts, typewriters, or computers. It is at best difficult to deal with any diacritic marks in American computers. The LC system uses arcs over two letters, and other systems use the inverted circumflex (also known as 'haček' from its name in Czech).

The three systems are compared in the appended chart; an asterisk (*) indicates where the systems are not in agreement and the last column shows the proposed Plain-Letter system (PL). Another system, that used by *Chemical Abstracts*,[4] is indeed a plain-letter system, but it is defective in not distinguishing between the letters transcribed in PL by *e* and *eh*, *i* and *j*, *y* as a vowel and as a semivowel in *ja* and *ju*, *c* and *ts*, and ′ and ″ (soft and hard signs).

There are ten cases where the current systems are not in agreement. In four of the ten cases, the disagreement lies in the use of the inverted circumflex versus *h* after *z*, *c*, *s*, and *sc*; the ISO system uses *h* after the letters as an alternative. If *kh* instead of simple *h* were used

*There seems to be widespread misunderstanding of a few terms. Any conversion of one form of language, from oral to written or from one written system to another, is *transcription*. *Phonetic transcription* is conversion of either oral or written language into a written system that is intended to represent the sounds of the language. *Romanization* is transcription from one system of writing into another system using the Roman alphabet. *Transliteration* is transcription from one alphabetic system (one using letters) letter for letter into another.

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for Cyrillic X, there could be no possibility of confusion, because *h* would then be used only as the second letter of combination (digraph), including *eh* in the new proposal. Thus, six of the ten problems would be solved by the use of *zh, kh, ch, sh, shch,* and *eh.*

The seventh case of disagreement concerns the use of *c* in PL where the current systems use *ts* with an arc over the two letters, *ts,* or *c.* The ISO system provides the use of *t.s* to obviate confusion when *t* and *s* come together as final and initial letters of parts of a Russian word. It would be simplest to use *c,* which is the equivalent of the letter in question in Slavic languages written in Roman letters (Czech, Polish, Croatian).

The remaining three disagreements concern the use of *j* versus *y* or *i* linked by an arc with the following *a* or *u.* Inasmuch as *y* is used for the unrounded high back vowel in all three current systems, it is inadvisable to use it in another way. One is thus left with the usage of the ISO and LS systems, viz., *j, ja,* and *ju,* as in many European languages. Because *j* is used as a separate letter only before *o* in a few Russian words, there can be no difficulty (*e* is equal to the sounds of *j* + *eh, ju* and *ja* are separate single letters in Cyrillic, and *ji* does not occur, at least in writing).

In most linguistics publications, the use of the inverted circumflex is feasible, and little would be gained by discarding the LS system. However, for most purposes, and especially when computers are involved, the proposed system shown in the last column of the following chart would obviate a serious difficulty.

Automation in all branches of library work is proceeding rapidly, involving computers that do not have the capability of using diacritic marks, or else only with great difficulty or expense. The romanization here proposed will permit the use of any computer or typewriter using the simple English alphabet without sacrificing strict equivalence to the original Cyrillic spelling.

Russian books published before the 1918 revolution have four letters that are no longer in the alphabet, as indicated in the chart (figure 1). The hard sign transcribed by ″ was also used at the end of words, but is now omitted. Titles, etc., in the obsolete spelling should be modernized. In example 1, the 1893 title should be modernized as shown, as is done by the Russians themselves.

The letter e with umlaut (ë) is not a part of ordinary text, but is used only in grammars, dictionaries, primers, etc. to indicate a variant pronunciation.

An example of PL romanization is shown in example 2.

The romanization of other languages using the Cyrillic or Glagolitic alphabets poses special problems that should not interfere with a simple solution to the romanization of modern Russian. Serbo-Croatian is one language written in two ways: Serbian in Cyrillic, Croatian in Roman with diacritic marks. Serbian may be romanized into Croatian and the problem is then with the diacritics. See the extensive treatment of the problem in Dekleva, wherein an alphabet using diacritics is proposed.[5]

	Cyrillic	LC	ISO	LS	PL		Cyrillic	LC	ISO	LS	PL
	А	a	a	a	a		Р	r	r	r	r
	Б	b	b	b	b		С	s	s	s	s
	В	v	v	v	v		Т	t	t	t	t
	Г	g	g	g	g		У	u	u	u	u
	Д	d	d	d	d		Ф	f	f	f	f
	Е	e	e	e	e	*	Х	kh	h (kh)	x	kh
*	Ж	zh	ž (zh)	ž	zh	*	Ц	t͡s	c (ts)	c	c
	З	z	z	z	z	*	Ч	ch	č (ch)	č	ch
	И	i	i	i	i	*	Ш	sh	š (sh)	š	sh
*	Й	ĭ	j (i)	j	j	*	Щ	shch	šč (shch)	šč	shch
	К	k	k	k	k		Ъ	″	″	″	″
	Л	l	l	l	l		Ы	y	y	y	y
	М	m	m	m	m		Ь	′	′	′	′
	Н	n	n	n	n	*	Э	ė	è	è	eh
	О	o	o	o	o	*	Ю	i͡u	ju (yu)	ju	ju
	П	p	p	p	p	*	Я	i͡a	ja (ya)	ja	ja

LC—Library of Congress.
ISO—International Organization of Standardization (alternates in parentheses to be used en bloc).
LS—Linguistic.
PL—Plain-Letter.
*—Discordant parts of systems.
NOTE: The following equivalence of obsolete letters should be noted and words using them should be modernized. The hard sign ″ is no longer used at the end of words.

Ѣ = e Ѳ = f І i, Ѵ = И

Figure 1
Systems of Transliteration of Russian Cyrillic

Opyt slovarja tjurkskix narechij

Example 1

Мировые растительные ресурсы в Средней Азии. [Отв. редактор М. В. Мухамеджанов] Ташкент, Фан, 1972.

269 p. illus. 23 cm. (Труды Среднеазиатской опытной станции ВИР, вып. 2) 1.65rub USSR***

At head of title: ВАСХНИЛ. Всесоюзный научно-исследовательский институт растениеводства им. Н. И. Вавилова.

Mirovye rastitel'nye resursy v Srednej Azii. Otv. redaktor M. V. Muxamedzhanov Tashkent, Fan

(Trudy Sredneaziatskoj opytnoj stancii VIR, vyp. 2)

VASXNIL. Vsesojuznyj nauchno-issledovatel'skij institut rastenievodstva im. N.I. Vavilova.

Example 2

References

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3. Shaw, *The Transliteration of Modern Russian*, p.5, 8.
4. "Spelling, Translation, and Transliteration," *Chemical Abstracts*, Author Index 90, pt.1, 2I–3I (Jan./June 1979) and in the introductions to the author indexes of earlier volumes.
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Natural versus Inverted Word Order in Subject Headings

Jessica L. Milstead

In the Library of Congress subject headings inversions may be divided into three groups: (1) ethnonational adjectival phrases; (2) all other adjectival phrases; and (3) complex headings, usually including a prepositional phrase. The choice between natural and inverted word order in adjectival phrase headings appears to be governed by the degree of specification offered by the noun in the phrase. There is a tendency to invert to bring the noun forward unless it is much more common in natural language than the adjective with which it is associated. Major literary forms and certain headings in the social sciences are usually entered directly in ethnonational adjectival phrases, but other headings are inverted. In the light of current practice in other systems, and the lack of predictability in the present LCSH, it is recommended that normal practice should be direct entry for such phrases. Complex headings are leftovers from catch-title entry and classified catalogs and could best be reformulated into phrase or heading-subdivision form, keeping the same word order as at present.

As long as a subject can be expressed in a single word, devising the appropriate index term is relatively easy. However, as soon as the expression becomes more complex, devising the term becomes a two-step process: (1) selecting the words to express the subject; and (2) determining the order of these words.

This paper is concerned with the second part of the process, with primary attention to phrase subject headings in the Library of Congress system.

Such headings were seen as problems by Cutter, whose proposals for dealing with them were ambiguous and apparently unsatisfactory even to him.[1] Practice has more or less followed Cutter, but without any real guiding principles. Meanwhile, practice in modern tools such as thesauri has diverged rather sharply from that in subject heading lists. Since the Library of Congress, and probably many other libraries as well, will be freezing their catalogs in the near future, it is time to examine the problem again.

It is convenient to treat the two major types of phrases, adjectival

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and prepositional, separately. For purposes of this paper adjectival phrases consist exclusively of nouns and adjectives with an occasional conjunction, while prepositional phrases are of more complex structure. Each may occur in one of three forms: (1) direct natural language order; (2) inverted, using the comma; and (3) dashed subdivisions, in natural language order or inverted.

Inverted Word Order in Library of Congress Subject Headings (LCSH)

Chan[2] summarizes reasoning advanced by such authorities as Cutter, Haykin, and Mann, indicating that inversion is used to emphasize the noun in an adjectival heading, for collocation of headings beginning with the same noun, when the adjective merely differentiates between different aspects of the same subject, or when the reader is assumed to think first of the noun. None of the criteria provided by any of these authors can realistically be described as anything but rationalization; that is, they try to explain what has been done, but no two catalogers applying this reasoning in devising a heading of a new type are particularly likely to come up with the same decision on word order. No "grouping" explanation accounts for the opposite treatment of literature and art, for example, with the former always direct and the latter always inverted.

Adjectival Phrases

It is convenient to consider two groups of adjectival phrases separately:

1. Adjective-noun phrases, direct or inverted, in which the adjective denotes an ethnic, linguistic, national, or cultural emphasis (called ethnonational phrases in this paper); and
2. Other adjective-noun phrases (direct, inverted, or in heading-subdivision form).

The two major attempts to determine empirically if criteria that can be objectively stated exist for word order decisions in LCSH are those of Chan[3] and Harris,[4] both of whom considered only direct and inverted order, not subdivisions. Chan limited her study to ethnonational adjectival phrases, while Harris studied both types.

Ethnonational Adjectival Phrases

Chan attempted to search for patterns in inversion of such phrases. She concluded that inversion is the normal practice, finding categories of exceptions that include:

(*a*) Some literary forms (examination shows these are major ones).
(*b*) Some nouns relating to anthropology, linguistics, history and the social sciences, such as . . . *antiquities;* . . . *movement.*
(*c*) *Law* when used with ethnonational adjectives to form names of legal systems rather than headings that indicate the laws of specific countries or peoples, e.g., **Roman law,** but **Law, Aztec.**
(*d*) Proper names such as **American Party, Celtic Church.**

(*e*) Names that have lost their ethnonational connotation, such as **Arabian horse, Prussian blue, Aeolian harp.**

Chan found that the adjectives *Jewish* and *Negro* (in LCSH 7) presented an anomalous pattern, tending to be entered directly in situations where other ethnonational adjectives would be inverted. She suggests that, because *Jewish* may have both religious and national connotations, the direct entries may be found where the religious aspect is considered to predominate. She makes no attempt to explain the anomaly found with *Negro*.

Harris' approach was different; her work and that of Chan confirm each other. The frequency in natural language of the words used in a 10 percent sample of LC subject headings was examined on the hypothesis that rarer words were more likely to be used as the access point for a subject heading. Again, with the exception of the adjective *Negro* (*Jewish* did not appear in the sample) the noun in an ethnonational adjectival heading was found to be the determinant of direct or inverted entry. If the noun is a "common" one, (e.g., *literature,* or *drama*) entry is direct (adjective first), while if rarer (e.g., *quatrains*), entry is inverted (noun first). Two clear exceptions to this finding are *art* and *music,* both of which normally appear in inverted form.

The complementary nature of Chan's and Harris' work is clearly seen when some of the social science and anthropological nouns Chan listed are noted (these are entered directly): *children, language(s), people(s), emperors, movement, question, studies.* These are all rather common words, likely to occur more frequently in the English language than the ethnonational adjectives specifying them.

Thus, it is probably the case that, in ethnonational adjectival phrases, the natural language frequency of the noun in the phrase has been a major determinant of word order. Since more words are rare than are common, it is not surprising that inverted nouns appear to outnumber nouns entered directly, although neither the Harris nor the Chan study provides firm data in support of this assumption. The fine arts are an exception, since music and art headings are inverted.

Other Adjectival Phrases

The natural language frequency of the entry word in such headings is usually less than that of the nonentry word, but there is a tendency to invert when the difference in frequency between the adjective and the noun is small. That is, when the cataloger is in doubt, he or she inverts. Presumably, catalogers have felt that nouns are better specifiers than adjectives.

In about 80 percent of main headings followed by both inversions and subdivisions, the latter are used for aspects and forms, while the former are used to designate kinds or subclasses of the subject. Most of the remaining 20 percent deviated only slightly from this pattern, often in cases where the subclass could not conveniently be expressed in an adjectival phrase.[5] Despite a small number of inconsistencies, the use of inversions and subdivisions to produce a classified subarrangement is clear.

Complex Phrases

Such headings as **Animals, Habits and Behavior of,** have not been the subject of empirical research. It does seem relatively safe to speculate that these headings are carry-overs from catchword title entry and/or the classed catalog and many are now being reformulated by LC, usually to a subdivision or phrase maintaining the present word order.

Form of Headings in LCSH Practice

There is considerable evidence that, in complex headings, once the entry word has been selected, the structure of the heading is determined to a large extent by the desire to create alphabetically classed files, usually on the basis of punctuation marks. For example, it has been found that where a given word introduced both an inverted heading and a dashed subdivision, the subarrangement thus created by the punctuation separated facets of the subject (**Grain elevators, Cooperative** and **Grain elevators—Fires and fire prevention**).[6] Such covert arrangements do not serve readers. Interpolation of what amounts to a label identifying the facet becomes more practicable when headings in catalog entries are mechanically produced. **Cookery** is an obvious example. A list including the headings

Cookery—Exhibitions
Cookery, Greek
Cookery (Beets)
Cookery for cardiacs

could just as well read: Cookery—General—Exhibitions; Cookery—Specific cuisines—Greek; Cookery—Specific foods—Beets; Cookery—For special groups—Cardiacs; or something of the sort. A parallel may be found in the Wilson indexes, where such practice is often found, e.g., **Classification—Special subjects—Business.**

Current Trends in Subject Index Vocabularies

The current trend in indexing vocabularies is toward entry in natural word order. The only major thesaurus that uses inverted headings is *Medical Subject Headings* (MeSH). All others use direct entry. Of course, the trend in such vocabularies is toward less complex terms, with reliance on post-coordination. Post-coordination automatically reduces the number of decisions about word order.

Recommendations

First, the easy one. Inversion should never be used for headings containing prepositional phrases. The entry word desired for the concept should be selected, and the heading then formulated into a direct phrase or heading-subdivision form as appropriate.

For adjective-noun headings, more research is needed to determine when, if ever, the user is more likely to look under the inverted form of terms. Such research should, desirably, correct for the bias introduced by the fact that there are few naive users. That is, asking a

random sample of library users what form they expect will only show what they think libraries do.

Even though methods of compensating for user experience can surely be found, other approaches should also be investigated. For instance, it would be interesting to learn if narrative texts show consistent usage patterns. Which predominates, "Music of France" or "French music"; "Short stories of America" or "American short stories?"

As long as the needed research is lacking, we should drop the principle of putting things where the user will look first, simply because we don't know where that place is, and are fooling ourselves when we say we do. We have been putting things where the cataloger thought the best array would be produced, an entirely different matter. If this procedure had produced a predictable file, the need to learn how to access it would be acceptable. However, the location of adjectival phrases is only partly predictable, and then only by someone who has gone to a great deal of trouble in studying the subject heading system. Lacking certain knowledge, we should opt for predictability.

Adjective-noun headings should normally be entered directly. Any departures from such a system should be ones that can be clearly and unambiguously explained to a moderately literate library user in such a way as to enable that user to predict reliably whether a desired concept will be entered directly or inverted. This excludes such reasoning as, "where it is assumed the user will look first," or "to bring multiple aspects of the same subject together."

Where headings are now written in an inverted or subdivided style in order to achieve a classified arrangement on the basis of punctuation marks, they should be revised to make the arrangement explicit rather than implicit.

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Decimal Classification Editorial Policy Committee

John P. Comaromi, Chairperson

The DCEPC held its 78th meeting at the Library of Congress on April 5–6, 1979. All members were present: John P. Comaromi (Chairman), Lois M. Chan, Margaret E. Cockshutt, Betty M. E. Croft, Joel C. Downing, Joseph H. Howard, John A. Humphry, Donald J. Lehnus, Clare E. Ryan, and Marietta D. Shepard. Others attending were Benjamin A. Custer (Editor), Margaret J. Warren (Assistant Editor), Judith K. Greene (Secretary), and by invitation, Russell Sweeney (Principal Lecturer, Leeds Polytechnic School of Librarianship).

In actions, the Committee made the following recommendations regarding the 780 phoenix:

1. Regardless of provenance, scores and parts, recordings, and treatises about music will be classed together. Thus, Western art music, non-Western music, and non-classical music will be classed at the same number for any particular subject; scores and parts, recordings, and works about them will be classed at the same number.
2. The physical arrangement of the three categories (scores and parts, recordings, treatises) will be determined by each library.
3. The citation order for the phoenix will be executant (that which produces the sound, such as voice, instrument)—form (sonata, concerto, symphony).
4. An introduction to the phoenix will be written by Russell Sweeney, the major author of the phoenix.
5. A composer facet will be placed at 789 for works about a composer that cannot be classed elsewhere, thus introducing an alphabetical arrangement within the classified arrangement. A comprehensive list of composers will be prepared in alphabetical order to which notations by (*a*) numerical specification, (*b*) Cutter numbers, or (*c*) letter notations will be added, with a further option to arrange composers by each of the above methods within determined chronological periods.
6. There will be notes in the phoenix schedule, in Russell Sweeney's introduction, in announcements, and in brochures to the effect that the comprehensive composer list is an experiment, that it does not establish a precedent for the 780s or for any other section of the Classification.

Resolutions were made and passed conveying the thanks of the Committee to Russell Sweeney for his design, development, and presentation of the phoenix; to Winton E. Matthews, Jr. of the Decimal Classification Division for his thorough analysis of the 780 phoenix; and to John A. Humphry of Forest

Press who expedited both the development of the phoenix and the work of the Committee.

Regarding other actions, the Committee made the following recommendations to Forest Press:

1. The conversion table from DDC 19 to DDC 18 will be published as soon as possible after the publication of Edition 19.
2. The first segmentation mark in the DDC number will be located after the complete abridged edition number except for standard subdivisions.
3. The manual to assist in applying Edition 19 will be directed first toward the practicing classifier, secondarily toward the advanced student. It will be essentially a statement as to how the rules of the DDC are applied.

In Committee reports, Forest Press announced the publication of Unabridged Edition 19 during the summer of 1979. The Press reported also that a target date of late 1980 had been set for the release of the Spanish edition of the DEWEY Decimal Classification.

In Committee business, Margaret Cockshutt was reelected vice-chairman by acclamation. Resolutions (appended)* were passed regarding the retirement of the Editor, Benjamin A. Custer, and the termination of appointment of Clare E. Ryan, ALA representative to the Committee. It was agreed that the 79th meeting of the DCEPC would be held at the Library of Congress on April 10–11, 1980.

*Editor's note: The appendixes have not been included in *Library Resources & Technical Services*. Copies may be requested of the RTSD Executive Secretary.

American Library Association Resources and Technical Services Division Bylaws

Bylaws of the Division

PROPOSED AMENDMENTS

The RTSD Board at its meeting on January 22, 1980, approved the following changes in the RTSD Bylaws, recommended by the RTSD Bylaws Committee. Members will be asked to vote on these proposed amendments at the Membership Meeting to be held at the New York Conference on Monday, June 30, 1980. Italics indicate the changes.

Article V. Meetings

Sec. 4. Votes by Mail. [Last paragraph] In the case of a vote by mail the Board of Directors may designate publication of the ballot or questions submitted in the *RTSD Newsletter* or in the official journal of the Division as the appropriate method of submitting the matter to the members for their determination.

Article XIV. Notice by Mail

Publication of notices in the *RTSD Newsletter* or in the journal of the Division or the Association shall be considered sufficient to fulfill the requirement of notice by mail.

APPROVED AMENDMENTS

Amendments passed at the June 26, 1979 Membership Meeting to provide for the election of a Councilor from RTSD to the ALA Council: (italics indicate the changes):

Article VI. Nominations and Elections

Sec. 1. Nominations. The Nominating Committee shall present candidates for the positions of vice-president (president-elect), vice-chairperson (chairperson-elect) of the Council of Regional Groups, *Division Councilor to the American Library Association Council,* and directors-at-large when required. [Remainder of the bylaw is as stated at present]

Article VII. Officers

Sec. 1. Titles. The officers of this Division shall be a president, a president-elect who shall serve as vice-president, a chairperson of the Council of Regional Groups, *a divisional Councilor of the American Library Association,* and an executive secretary.

Sec. 2. Duties. [Change the present letter (d) Executive Secretary to letter (e), and add the following as new letter (d)]:
(d) Councilor of the American Library Association Council. The Councilor shall serve as the representative of the Division to the American Library Association Council in accordance with the Association Bylaws. The Councilor shall report to the Board of Directors of the Division on issues which affect the Division. The Councilor serves on the Board of Directors as a voting member.

Sec. 3. Terms of Office [Change the present letter (d) to letter (e) and add the following as new letter (d)]:
(d) Councilor to the American Library Association Council. The councilor shall serve for four years, and may be re-elected for one additional four-year term.

Article VIII. Board of Directors

Sec. 2. *Vacancies.* [Change the present let-

ter (e) to (f), present letter (f) to (g) and add the following new letter (e)]
(e) Councilor to the American Library Association Council. If the office becomes vacant, a Councilor shall be elected at the next election to complete the unexpired term.

Amendments passed at the June 26, 1979 Membership Meeting to alter the method for filling vacancies when the vice-president/president-elect withdraws between the close of nominations and the adjournment of the regular meeting (italics indicate the changes):

Article VIII. Board of Directors

Sec. 2. Vacancies. [Add the following clauses to the existing paragraphs in Sec. 2 (a)]
(a) If the vice-president/president-elect resigns between the close of nominations and the adjournment of the regular meeting, the president chosen in the previous election will remain president until after the midwinter meeting of the Association; following the midwinter meeting, the newly elected vice-president/president-elect will assume responsibilities as president. If the previous president dies or otherwise does not choose to serve for this extended period, the vice-president/president-elect will immediately assume responsibilities as president.
If the president-elect dies between the close of nominations and the adjournment of the regular meeting, the resulting situation shall be considered as a vacancy having occurred during the term for which the president-elect was elected.
(g) If the successful candidate (*other than for the vice-president/president-elect*) dies or withdraws between the close of nominations and the adjournment of the regular meeting, the resulting situation shall be considered as a vacancy having occurred during the term for which that candidate was elected.

Preservation of Library Materials Section Bylaws

The RTSD Bylaws Committee reported to the Board of Directors on January 22, 1980 that the bylaws adopted by the Preservation of Library Materials Section are consistent with those of the Division. They are as follows:

Article I. Name

The name of this body is the Preservation of Library Materials Section of the Resources and Technical Services Division of the American Library Association.

Article II. Object

The object of this section is to recommend and encourage educational and research programs and advise in the conduct of such programs in all aspects of the preservation of library materials, including preventive measures, restoration measures, preservation by duplication, and emergency preservation procedures; to advise and assist the library profession in the solution of preservation problems and to disseminate information concerning preservation techniques, supplies, and programs; to cooperate with paper manufacturers, publishers, binders, and other organizations interested in preservation, in achieving solutions to problems of mutual interest and concern.

Article III. Relationship to the Resources and Technical Services Division

This body shall be a section of the Resources and Technical Services Division. The Bylaws of that Division and the Constitution and Bylaws of the American Library Association, to the extent to which they are applicable, take precedence over these bylaws.

Article IV. Membership

Sec. 1. *Members.* Any member of the Division who elects membership in this Section according to the provisions of the Bylaws of the Division thereupon shall become a member of this Section.
Sec. 2. *Classification.* Membership classes of the Section shall consist of the same classes as those of the American Library Association.
Sec. 3. *Dues, rights and privileges.* Only personal members of the Section shall have the right to vote and to hold office.

Dues paid to the American Library Association shall constitute the dues of members. The date of payment of dues to the American Library Association shall be considered the date of payment of dues to this Section.

Sec. 4. *Membership, fiscal, and conference years.* The membership, fiscal, and conference years shall be the same as those of the American Library Association.

Article V. Meetings

Sec. 1. *Annual meetings.* The regular meeting of the Section shall be held at the time and place of the regular meeting of the Division.

Sec. 2. *Special meetings.* Special meetings may be called by the Executive Committee and shall be called by the chairperson upon the written request of twenty-five members of the Section. At least thirty days notice shall be given and only business specified in the call shall be transacted.

Sec. 3. *Regional meetings.* Regional meetings may be called by the Executive Committee at the time and place of regional meetings of the Division.

Sec. 4. *Votes by mail.* Votes by mail may be authorized by the Executive Committee between meetings, or when, for reasons beyond the control of the Section, no meeting is held during any one year. When no meeting is held during any one year, votes by mail shall be submitted at the written request of twenty-five members. Whenever an action is submitted to a mail ballot, each ballot shall be accompanied by a written report stating the purpose of each specific proposal and the principal arguments for and against its adoption.

Mail ballots shall be conducted in such manner as the Executive Committee shall determine. A copy of the ballot shall be mailed to each member of the Section. A period of at least thirty days from the date of mailing shall be allowed for the return of ballots. A proposal shall be carried if it receives the same proportion of affirmative votes from all the votes cast as would be required to carry the same proposal at a meeting. Unless otherwise specified in the proposal, if carried, it shall become effective upon publication of the result of the ballot.

In the case of a vote by mail, the Executive Committee may designate publication of the ballot or questions submitted in the official journal of the Division as the appropriate method for submitting the matter to the members for their determination.

Sec. 5. *Quorum.* Twenty-five members shall constitute a quorum.

Article VI. Nominations and Elections

Sec. 1. *Nominations.* The Nominating Committee shall present candidates for the positions of vice-chairperson (chairperson-elect), secretary, and members-at-large of the Executive Committee. Other nominations for these offices may be submitted in writing by any ten members and shall be filed with the chairperson of the Section and with the executive secretary of the Division. Any such nomination shall be included on the official ballot.

No candidate shall be presented whose written consent has not been filed with the executive secretary of the Division. No candidate shall be presented who at the time of the nomination is not a personal member in good standing.

Sec. 2. *Nominating Committee.*

a) Composition. The Nominating Committee consists of three members at large of the Section, no one of whom shall be a member of the Executive Committee.

b) Terms of office. The Nominating Committee shall be appointed for a one-year term, ending with its final report to the membership, by the vice-chairperson (chairperson-elect) under whose term of office as chairperson its final report will be made, and with approval of the Executive Committee. Members of the Nominating Committee, upon expiration of their terms, shall not be eligible for immediate reappointment.

c) Duties. The duties of the Nominating Committee shall be those specified in the Bylaws of the Division. In addition, the Nominating Committee shall report nominations to the chairperson of the Section and to the executive secretary of the Division simultaneously and the executive secretary shall notify each member by mail of the nominations for elective offices in the Section at such time as is prescribed by the Bylaws of the American Library Association.

Sec. 3. *Elections.* Elections shall be conducted in accordance with the Bylaws of the Division and the American Library Association.

Sec. 4. *Extraordinary circumstances.* If, for reasons beyond the control of the Section, no regular meeting is held in any one year, terms based on the date of the regular meeting shall be determined by the anniversary of the last regular meeting at which an election was reported, unless a different date is authorized by the American Library Association. The election results shall be mailed to each member.

Article VII. Officers

Sec. 1. *Titles.* The officers of this Section shall be a chairperson, a chairperson-elect who shall serve as vice-chairperson, and a secretary.

Sec. 2. *Duties.* Except as otherwise provided in the bylaws, the duties of the officers shall be such as are specified in the parliamentary authority adopted by the Section, and such other duties as may be approved by the Executive Committee.

Sec. 3. *Terms of Office.* All officers shall serve until the adjournment of the regular meeting at which their successors are announced.

a) Chairperson. The chairperson shall serve for one year and shall not be eligible for the office of chairperson or chairperson-elect for a period of at least one year following completion of service as immediate past chairperson.

b) Vice-chairperson. The vice-chairperson shall serve for the first year after election as vice-chairperson, the second year as chairperson, and the third year as immediate past chairperson. In case of a vacancy in the office of chairperson, the vice-chairperson shall succeed to the office of chairperson and shall serve in that capacity until replaced in the normal succession by the vice-chairperson.

c) Secretary. The secretary shall serve for three years.

Article VIII. Executive Committee

Sec. 1. *Composition.* The Executive Committee consists of the officers of the Section, the immediate past chairperson of the Section, and one (1) member-at-large. The Executive Secretary of the Division, the chairpersons of all standing committees and discussion groups of this Section, and the representative of the Section on the editorial board of the Division's journal shall be *ex-officio* members of the Executive Committee, without the right to vote.

Sec. 2. *Vacancies.* Vacancies in the elected membership of the Executive Committee shall be filled as follows:

a) Chairperson. If the offices of both chairperson and vice-chairperson become vacant within the same year, the Executive Committee shall appoint one of its members to act as chairperson until a chairperson is duly elected. At the next election two candidates shall be elected, one to take the office of chairperson immediately and to serve for one year, the other to serve as vice-chairperson (chairperson-elect).

b) Vice-chairperson. If the office of vice-chairperson becomes vacant, two candidates shall be elected at the next election, one to take the office of chairperson immediately and to serve for one year, the other to serve as vice-chairperson (chairperson-elect). If the vacancy occurs between the close of nominations and the adjournment of the regular meeting, the vacancy shall be considered as having occurred in the office of chairperson in the following year.

c) Secretary and members-at-large of the Executive Committee. If the office of secretary or a member-at-large becomes vacant, a secretary or member-at-large, as the case may be, shall be appointed by the Executive Committee to serve until a replacement is elected at the next election to complete the unexpired term.

d) General provisions. If the successful candidate for an elective office dies or withdraws between the close of nominations and the adjournment of the regular meeting, the resulting situation shall be considered as a vacancy having occurred during the term for which that candidate was elected.

Sec. 3. *Terms of office.* Members-at-large of the Executive Committee shall serve for three (3) years. They shall be elected for terms expiring in different years, or in case of more than three members-at-large, so that the terms of no more than two shall expire each year. They shall serve until the adjournment of the regular meeting at which their successors are announced.

Sec. 4. *Officers.* The officers of the Section shall *ex officio* be the officers of the Executive Committee.

Sec. 5. *Powers and duties.* The Executive Committee shall have authority over the affairs of the Section during the period

between meetings of the Section, provided however that none of its acts shall conflict with or modify any actions taken by the Section. The Executive Committee shall perform such other duties as are specified in these bylaws, and shall report upon its work at the regular meeting of the Section.

Sec. 6. *Meetings.* The Executive Committee shall meet in conjunction with each regular meeting of the Section. Special meetings may be called by the chairperson and shall be called upon the written request of a majority of the members of the Committee.

Sec. 7. *Quorum.* A majority of voting members shall constitute a quorum of the Executive Committee.

Sec. 8. *Votes by mail.* Votes may be taken by mail as provided in the Bylaws of the Division.

Article IX. Other Committees

Sec. 1. *Standing and annual committees.*

a) Establishment. The Section may establish standing and annual committees to consider affairs of the Section which require continuous or repeated attention by the members. The Executive Committee shall recommend the name and size of each such committee, and may recommend special regulations for its appointment, composition, and term of office of members.

b) Composition. Unless otherwise provided for by these bylaws or by action of the Section, each standing and annual committee shall be composed of an odd number of not less than three (3) members, each of whom shall be an active member in good standing of the Section.

c) Terms of office. Unless otherwise provided for by these bylaws or by action of the Section, members of standing committees shall be appointed for terms of two years, and may be appointed for a second term, but in no case shall a person serve on a committee for more than four consecutive years. The terms of approximately one-half the members shall expire each year. Members of annual committees shall be appointed for terms of one year.

Sec. 2. *Special Committees.* Committees not authorized as standing or annual committees shall be special committees. Special committees may be authorized by the Section or by the Executive Committee. Each special committee shall continue in existence until its purpose is accomplished or it is discharged by the Section or by the Executive Committee.

Sec. 3. *Intersectional Committees.* Intersectional committees with sections within the Division and other intra-Division committees may be established by the Section upon notification of the Organization Committee of the Division.

Intersectional committees and other committees formed with units that are outside the Division and that are within the Association may be established only as provided for in Article IX, Sec. 5, of the Bylaws of the American Library Association.

Sec. 4. *Joint committees.* The Section may recommend to the Division that joint committees, either standing or special, be established with other organizations when the functions of the proposed committee cannot appropriately be delegated to a single Division or Section committee. Joint committees with organizations outside the American Library Association shall be established only as provided for in the Bylaws of the American Library Association.

Representation of the Section in organizations outside the Association may be authorized by the Section, with the approval of the Division and the American Library Association.

Sec. 5. *Notification.* The secretary shall inform the executive secretary of the Division annually of the establishment and functions, or discontinuance, of all committees of the Section.

Sec. 6. *Appointments.* Unless otherwise provided for by these bylaws or by action of the Section, each committee member and representative shall be appointed, with the approval of the Executive Committee, by the vice-chairperson (chairperson-elect), or the chairperson of the Section, under whose term of office as chairperson the member shall commence service and shall serve until the adjournment of the meeting at which the member's successor is appointed.

Vacancies on committees shall be filled by the chairperson of the Section with the approval of the Executive Committee.

Sec. 7. *Votes by mail.* Committee votes may be taken by mail as provided in the Bylaws of the Division.

Sec. 8. *Reports.* Unless otherwise specified in these bylaws, or in the act authoriz-

ing a committee, each committee shall report on its work at least once annually. Copies of the report shall be transmitted to the chairperson of the Section and to the executive secretary of the Division at least thirty days prior to the regular meeting of the Section.

Article X. Discussion Groups

Sec. 1. *Establishment.* Any group of ten or more members of the Section interested in discussing common problems which fall within the object of the Section may form a discussion group upon written petition from the group, and upon approval of the Executive Committee. The petition shall include the purpose of the group and the requirements for membership, if any.

Sec. 2. *Membership.* Membership shall be open to members of the Section who are interested in the purpose of the group and who fulfill the requirements for membership in the group.

Sec. 3. *Officers.* Each group shall elect a chairperson annually. In addition to the regular duties of the office, the chairperson shall see that a group's activities are limited to discussion of matters of common interest and concern in accord with the purpose of the group, that the group engages in no activity in conflict with the program of the Section, and that the Section Bylaws are observed by the group.

Sec. 4. *Discontinuance.* Each group shall continue in existence until its usefulness has ceased when it shall be dissolved by action of the Executive Committee.

Article XI. Notice by Mail

Publication of notices in the journal of the Division or the Association shall be considered sufficient to fulfill the requirement of notice by mail.

Article XII. Parliamentary Authority

Robert's Rules of Order (Revised) in the latest edition shall govern the Section in all cases to which it can be applied, and in which it is not inconsistent with these bylaws or special rules of order of the Section.

Article XIII. Amendments

Sec. 1. *Proposals.* Amendments to the bylaws may be proposed by the Executive Committee, by any other Section committee, or by petition signed by ten members of the Section. Proposed amendments shall be presented in writing to the chairperson of the Section and to the executive secretary of the Division at least three months prior to the meeting at which they are to be acted upon; they shall then be referred to the chairperson of the Bylaws Committee of the Division, which shall report upon them at a meeting of the Section.

Sec. 2. *Notice.* The text of any proposed amendment shall be mailed to each member of the Section at least thirty days prior to the meeting at which it is to be acted upon.

Sec. 3. *Voting.* The bylaws may be amended by a two-thirds majority vote of those members present and voting at the regular meeting of the Section.

Sec. 4. *Adoption.* A proposed amendment or new bylaw shall become effective when it has been approved.

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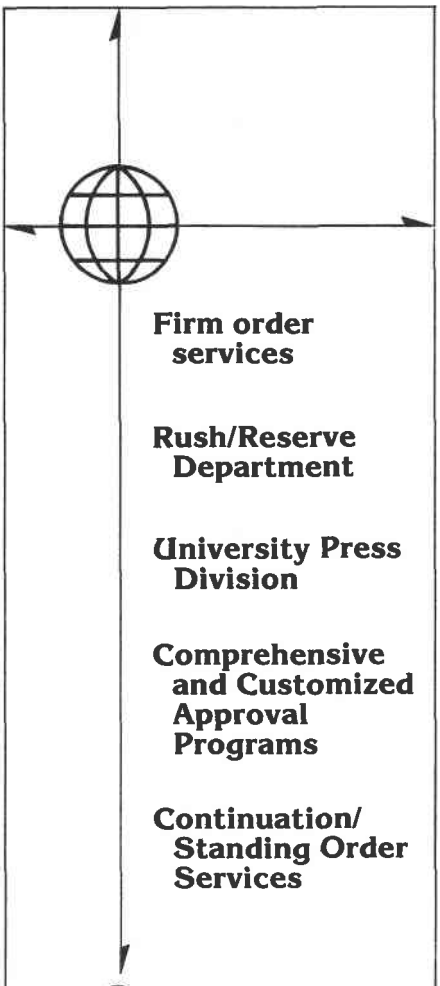

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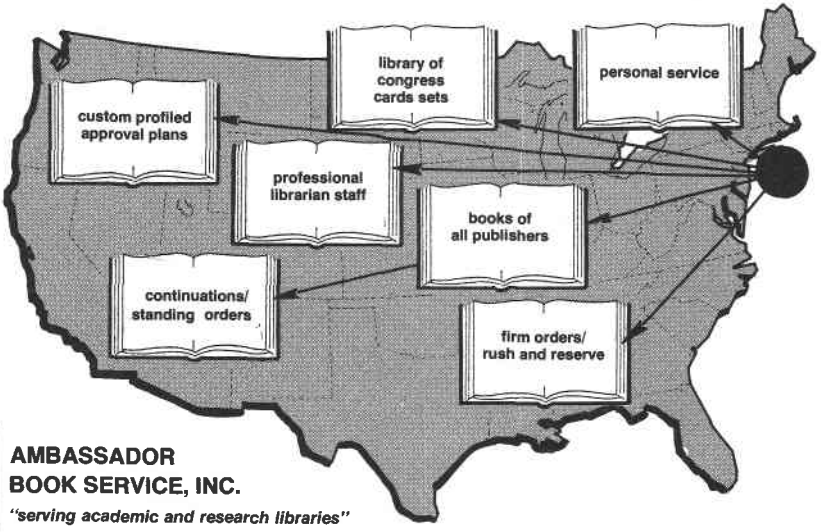

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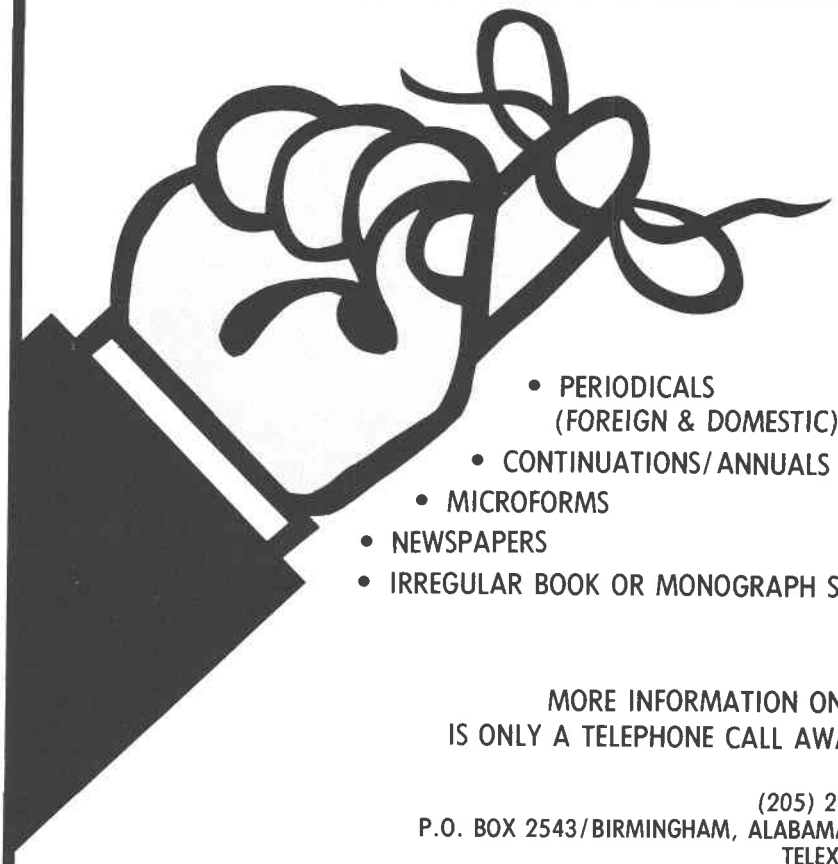

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