

Humanities

The Revolution That Took 500 Years

Calling upon the public library in Williamsburg, Virginia, recently, a New York book publisher was startled by the librarian's first question: "Are you in CIP?" The publisher replied, "As a matter of fact, we just signed up. Why do you ask?"

The librarian steered him over to some shelves where new book acquisitions were stored and said, "See that empty section? That's where the CIP titles are kept when they arrive. They don't stay long. They are all quickly cataloged and put in the stacks for our readers to use."

She pointed to another section packed with books. "Those are non-CIP titles. Some of them have been there three or four months waiting until I can find the time to process them. Even here in a small library CIP makes a tremendous difference in getting your books out to the public."

"CIP" stands for Cataloging in Publication, a newly-created service of the Library of Congress which was partly supported in its experimental stage by the National Endowment for the Humanities. The service for the first time enables publishers to print in a book cataloging information in standardized format at time of issue.

Unexciting as this service may seem to the casual reader, librarians are hailing CIP as the most revolutionary invention in the identification of books since the title-page, an event which occurred in 1500 with publication of Jan Glogowczyk's *Exercitium*. They see the new service saving millions of dollars in cataloging costs each year as well as putting books quickly into the hands of readers.

Until CIP, librarians had the choice of holding a new book until they received its printed catalog card from the Library of Congress, usually a two- to four-month wait, or cataloging it themselves—a time-consuming task that could cost almost as much as the book. Even with the latter method, there was usually a lag of several weeks from the time a book arrived until it was available to readers.

Today in many libraries a CIP title is placed on the reading shelves in days or perhaps hours after its receipt. In the Williamsburg library, for example, a typist comes in three days a week and makes up the catalog cards and labels for the CIP titles, taking the

information directly from the CIP data printed in the front of the book. The only contribution the typist must make is to insert the imprint and number of pages because CIP data is compiled while the book is still in the galley proof stage, before pagination.

The use of a typist or paraprofessional rather than a professional librarian to do the cataloging is where the savings occur for individual libraries. Thomas M. Schmid, University of Utah's acquisitions librarian, says, "If we do straight original cataloging, it costs \$5.80 per title—with CIP, it costs only 75 cents per title." Schmid estimates his library currently is saving from \$12,000 to \$15,000 a year with CIP and this may increase to \$20,000 as more publishers are brought into the program.

He expects to plough most of the saving back into the purchase of more books. Other librarians are of the same mind, explaining why publishers are warmly embracing CIP even though it does add slightly to their production costs.

William A. Gosling, the energetic 30-year-old CIP program manager for the Library of Congress, says



Printer's mark of the 15th century English printer, William Caxton—one of the identifying devices employed before books carried title pages.

that as of October 1973, there were 461 participating publishers. The library is receiving between 250 and 350 titles a week or about 16,000 to 18,000 a year for processing.

Several more large publishing houses have recently joined the program. As soon as these additional publishers begin submitting titles on a regular basis, Gosling says CIP will be well on its way to its goal of covering 100 percent of the output of the American book trade.

Cataloging in Publication was launched in 1971 by the Library of Congress as a two-year experiment, and in mid-1973, having been declared a success, became a regularly-funded ongoing program. The experimental phase was funded by matching grants from the National Endowment for the Humanities and the Council on Library Resources, Inc. Congress currently is funding the ongoing program at about \$300,000 a year.

The self-identification of books—to the satisfaction of librarians, scholars, booksellers, bibliographers, and even to the publishers—has been a long-standing problem that predates the age of printing. Over the ages, publishers never have been able to get together on a uniform way of printing titles, authors' names, date and place of publication. Just how informal and independent they have been was recorded by the late Verner W. Clapp while he was a consultant to the Council on Library Resources. In an essay published in the *Wilson Library Bulletin* of December 1971, Clapp said of the early handwritten volumes:

"The exterior of the book typically bore a label or legend to permit it to be recognized on a shelf or in a pile, but inside the cover there was no title-page such as today supplies the chief bibliographic facts. Instead, when the scribe first laid pen to paper, he merely announced his task with the word *Incipit* (here begins), and here he might name the author and title of the work, or—not uncommonly—the title alone; or he might mention instead the author and title of an introduction to the main work, e.g., St. Jerome's letter to Paulinus serving as the introduction to the Vulgate text of the Bible.

"Many pages and perhaps months later, his task completed, the copyist would record the completion of the work with the word *Explicit*, an abbreviation of the phrase *Explicitus est* (it is unrolled), an allusion to the time when books were in scroll form. At this point the copyist might enter his own name, the place at which he had performed his task, some pious expressions of thanks or sighs of relief, or perhaps nothing at all. If the book were rubricated or illuminated, the artist might enter his record."

This casual means of identification was carried over to what is generally believed to be the first printed book, the Gutenberg Bible (1455), which nowhere contains these two words by which it is now known. The book actually contains no identification of any kind.

Colophon Resplendent in Red and Blue

But this oversight was quickly corrected in what was perhaps the very next book printed, a Psalter published

by Johann Fust and Peter Schoeffer and intended for liturgical purposes. Clapp says the publishers gave this work "a magnificence which has since been rarely equalled and probably never excelled. Because the content of the work was obvious, and because its text was meant to be intoned, there was no *incipit* or identifying legend in the beginning; but at the end, the bare *explicit* was replaced by a resplendent colophon, printed on the last page in majestic red characters with an initial in red and blue, and stating the title (misspelling, however, its principal word as *Spalmorum*, instead of *Psalmorum!*), the date of publication (1457), the names of the publishers and the method of reproduction, namely printing and 'characterization,' probably type-setting."

The colophon, which denoted "last word," was followed by another Fust and Schoeffer innovation—a printer's mark showing two linked shields hanging from a bough and also printed in bright red ink. These two devices, along with the *incipit*, were the chief means of identifying books well into the 16th century. The colophon still survives today as an occasional supplement to the title-page, and the printer's mark has been diminished to a small trademark.

In the 15th century most books were sold unbound and the first page of text was protected against being soiled by a blank page. Soon publishers began using this page to print a label or short title. Then they embellished it with woodcuts. And finally all the main identifying elements gravitated there, including the author's name, publisher and date of publication. As a complete title-page, this was done for the first time by publisher Wolfgang Stoechel of Leipzig in 1500 for Glogowczyk's *Exercitium*.

The First Title Page

The title-page thereupon embarked upon a rather formless development which, according to Clapp, "only too frequently failed to satisfy the bibliographer, and we find him often amending the author's name from the form in which it appears on the title-page to some standard form, sometimes supplying and sometimes omitting the honorifics and expanding the initials into names, or truncating the title and punctuating what is left, or supplying a wanting date of publication."

Clapp added that "in defense of the title-page it may be said that it never undertook to provide bibliographic information in the standardized (and often pedantic and awkward) form favored by bibliographers. Nevertheless, the need remains."

Credit for suggesting that publishers furnish bibliographic data, by inserting it on slips of paper in their books, goes to Justin Winsor when he was librarian of the Boston Public Library in 1876. The *Library Journal* picked it up in 1879 and printed the information on uniform slips of paper for pasting on catalog cards. However, the *Journal* distributed the slips separately from the books and as a result the experiment failed. Paste-up slips were inserted in some publications of Henry Holt & Co. for a few years in the 1880s, but again they never caught on.

(Continued on page 6)



Building Blocks for Regional Understanding

The Colorado College Bulletin 1972-73 illustrates on its covers the nine building blocks that make up its newly devised structure of liberal arts education known as the Colorado College Plan. Begun in 1970-71, this plan divides the academic year into nine blocks of time, each three-and-one-half weeks in length, divided by brief vacations between the periods. Each student takes one principal course only, such as "Myth and Symbol in Modern Poetry," and each faculty member teaches one course only in a "course-room" reserved exclusively for this group. The professor and students are free to plan this cultural unit as they consider best. In close rapport with faculty and fellow students, the students thus have a large responsibility for their own education.

Coordinating and interlocking with the intensive academic work are the extracurricular and residential programs of the College, offering a wide variety of voluntary activities and enough free time for the students to follow their special interests.

With a ratio of one faculty member to 14 students and with the flexible method of learning described above providing a "totally fresh environment for learning," this small, private liberal arts college located on the fringe of the Southwestern area of the United States sought and obtained a grant from the Education Division of NEH to plan an interdisciplinary area studies program in which to examine the historical, social, economic and artistic contributions of each minority group separately and in relation to each other and to the predominantly Anglo culture of the institution.

The concept involved four areas of the American Southwest in its interdisciplinary considerations: *its land* (Western Texas, New Mexico, Arizona, Southern California, and Southern Colorado); *its people* (Red, Brown, Black, and White); *the relation of land and people* (environment); and *the relation of people* (racial and cultural issues). The heart of the program is *balanced* intellectual understanding and personal involvement. "Historically, artistically, culturally, in every way, the Southwest is as rich as any academic subject presently being taught in any college or university."

Colorado College operated from the principle that it preferred to strengthen its disciplines in Southwest studies rather than limit itself to various ethnic studies programs. As a result 15 new courses were added to

the curriculum during the grant period, such as "Change and Continuity in Native American Communities" and "The Piñon-Juniper Woodland Ecosystem." In addition, a Southwest Studies Institute for teachers was established during the summer of 1972 to study the ecology, prehistory, history and arts of the region.

The proposed Program was unanimously and enthusiastically accepted by the faculty, with many expressing a desire to work in the program. The first two minority faculty members, a Chicana and an Indian, were hired. Almost half the academic departments offered courses in the Southwest area, from Anthropology and Biology through Economics, English and History to Spanish.

The College attracted outside persons and institutions to work in and for the program—as visiting faculty, as conferees at a Southwest Poets Conference at the College. Among the guests were Drummond Hadley, the poet from Santa Fé, N. Scott Momaday, Pulitzer Prize-winning novelist, and Reies Tijerina. The College has won the cooperation of the College of Santa Fé, the Museum of New Mexico, and the Newberry Library in its new American Indian Studies program, also sponsored by NEH, to have their students do field work at these institutions.

The upshot of the year's planning was that the Southwestern Studies Program, having persevered in spite of some campus challenges to its aims and authority, qualified for a more substantial Program grant, subsequently awarded by NEH. As Professor Joseph T. Gordon, the Director, said, "Our problems are by no means over; in fact, they really have hardly begun, but that can be said of our opportunities as well." □

Power Through Trust

In March 1945 Edward N. Peterson entered Germany as a young infantry officer. While other soldiers pined for discharge, Peterson learned enough German to be assigned to the Military Intelligence Service and remained until 1948 as part of OMGUS—the U.S. military government of occupation.

Now a Ph.D., professor, and chairman of history at Wisconsin State University in River Falls, Peterson has evaluated what he and his colleagues in OMGUS did to or for Germany. Not much, his study, supported by a grant from the Research Division of NEH, concludes; OMGUS succeeded only "when it stopped trying. It succeeded by retreating."

OMGUS policy was primarily negative, characterized by a string of *de*'s: denazification, demilitarization, decartelization, debureaucratization. Only one was positive: democratization.

On many of these, OMGUS worked in vain or had dubious success. After years of strenuously laboring to eliminate German militarism—an effort that involved OMGUS in toning down mailmen's and firemen's uniforms—Washington abruptly reversed its field from fear of Russia and pressed the Germans to rearm. In ten years, decartelization broke up only one major enterprise "into three parts, each doing well and possibly profiting from its more manageable proportions." Denazification produced a witch-hunt that drove thousands of bureaucrats from their jobs and brought government to a halt; embarrassed by the results, Congress ordered the trial-machine stopped just as "it was getting to the criminals who deserved some 'denazifying'."

In only one of its aims did OMGUS succeed. "All things are relative, yet by standards of most countries . . . West Germany politically is not only as stable as any country in the world, but among the most democratic by American standards."

But even here, Peterson disputes the effectiveness of OMGUS. "Generals can scarcely command a society to be more democratic," he says, and argues that Bonn's reconstruction of democracy from the Third Reich's shambles was chosen, not forced. "The experience of the war convinced the vast majority of Germans, in or out of uniform, that war was the worst of all calamities, a conviction that many already had in 1939 anyway. . . . Germany was effectively denazified by Hitler and his unsuccessful war."

Peterson's study is not, as these few lines might imply, an apologia for the Germans. His basic interest is in elaborating a theory of power; after sampling the topic in many historical contexts, he came to feel that "scholarly standards required a specialized, not a universal study," and decided to focus on modern German history.

This focus has produced a number of articles and an earlier book, *The Limits of Hitler's Power* (Princeton University Press, 1969). The new book, a case-history in the limits of U.S. power, should remind us of "the limitations of armies and bureaucrats to change human beings. . . ."

"Yet after such pessimism," Peterson concludes, "one should also note that the end 'result' in West Germany was not that bad, that in a sense if the goal is reasonable, even failure succeeds, and that to trust people with freedom is the best source of power." □

NOTE: Because of unforeseen production delays Volume III of Humanities contains only four numbers. The Endowment plans to resume in 1974 a schedule of 6 issues a year.

The Easter Island Puzzle

"It is not good for man to be alone," says the Lord God in *Genesis*, and generations of anthropologists have found plenty of human evidence to support this divine insight. Given the basic requirements for sheer survival, some human groups have taken great leaps forward into states that we designate as "civilization", while others—with the same resources of food, shelter, and animal comforts—have remained stuck in an evolutionary rut. Why the difference in results?

Prime among the factors contributing to cultural advance, according to one influential but much controverted theory, are a large population and intense contact with other peoples. A relatively small population isolated from contact with different societies, on the other hand, tends to remain simple and backward.

It makes sense—until one tries to explain the Polynesians of Easter Island, a 14-mile-long dot in the Pacific 2,300 miles west of Chile and 1,200 east of Pitcairn Island, the nearest inhabited place. Judging by the prevailing direction of ocean currents and other evidence, the island appears to have lain outside the prehistoric pattern of systematic, two-way sea contacts. By every rule that obtains in these matters, the inhabitants of Easter Island should have stagnated and remained culturally retarded.

Yet during the first 1,000 years A.D., the Easter Islanders developed a written language apparently unrelated to any other known script, and to have evolved a sociopolitical organization capable of bringing large groups of people together to quarry, sculpt, transport, and erect hundreds of gigantic stone statues of which



Two reerected statues at Ahu Vai Uri on Easter Island.

HUMANITIES FILM FORUM

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*DURING WEEK OF**

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| HAMLET | JANUARY 21 |
| UMBERTO D | JANUARY 28 |
| THE CRANES ARE FLYING | FEBRUARY 4 |
| BALLAD OF A SOLDIER | FEBRUARY 11 |
| ALEXANDER NEVSKY | FEBRUARY 18 |
| THE BATTLE OF CULLODEN † | FEBRUARY 25 |
| THE RISE OF LOUIS XIV | MARCH 4 |
| THE ANDERSONVILLE TRIAL ‡ | MARCH 11 |
| GRAND ILLUSION | MARCH 18 |
| POTEMKIN | MARCH 25 |

*Please check your local Public Television listings for exact date and time

† A BBC-TV Production

‡ By Saul Levitt



Restored central platform of the open air altar (*ahu*) showing five of the original six statues.

the largest weighed *more than 80 tons!*

The statues—squat figures with outside heads invariably wearing glum expressions—are familiar from travel ads promoting Chile (to which Easter Island belongs) and the Polynesian area. It is clear that they were religious figures, and that the Easter Islanders engaged in prehistoric warfare whose most characteristic result was the toppling of another tribe's statues.

But the meaning and motivation behind the statues remain a puzzle to cultural historians. "Produced under such conditions of isolation, these and other local accomplishments evoke genuine astonishment," writes William Mulloy, professor of anthropology at the University of Wyoming; "analysis of the unusual stimulus that produced them is a significant element in our general understanding of man and his works."

The possibility of our ever achieving that understanding has been threatened by the slow erosion of time, thoughtless destruction by the island's 1300 cur-

rent residents, and by outright vandalism: not so long ago one American tourist, curious to see what was inside the most precisely fitted *ahu* (the altars on which the statues rested) on the island, blew up a large section of it with black powder.

To ensure that the pieces of the Easter Island puzzle will survive to be put back together, the Republic of Chile has declared the island a national monument, and—with help from LAN-Chile Airlines and the International Fund for Monuments—has assembled an Easter Island Committee to restore the curious testament of a long-dead people.

Dr. Mulloy, supported by the University of Wyoming and an NEH research grant, is field director for the project. He and his Chilean colleagues hope to find out what the silent giants of Easter Island can tell us about a society which—apparently cut off from every other human contact—defied an assumed law of culture and managed to keep growing. □



Ahu Hanga Kio'e with restored paving of separated beach boulders.

(*REVOLUTION, Continued from page 2*)

The Library of Congress has been supplying printed catalog cards to libraries since 1901. Prior to publication, it issues a catalog card number for each book which is usually printed on the verso (reverse side) of the title-page. Librarians use this number to order cards and to match them with the books when they are received.

As a further means of identification, publishers in 1967 adopted the "International Standard Book Number" system, known as ISBNs, which also are printed on the verso of the title-page. But this has not helped with the autobibliographic problem.

The idea for Cataloging in Publication has more recent roots in an experiment called "cataloging-in-source" that was tried for a year by the Library of Congress in 1958. Employing final page proofs, the Library's catalogers were given 24 hours to produce the bibliographic information that was in turn printed in the book in the duplicate form of a catalog card. The short deadline put tremendous pressure on the catalogers, resulting in errors, and the whole rush process was very expensive—\$25 per book.

Authors' vanity proved another problem. Some of them objected to having their birthdates published in the catalog data; others who were using pseudonyms to sign the publication didn't want their real names revealed in the catalog information—a general practice of bibliographers. Accordingly, although librarians were enthusiastic, as were many publishers even though the service sometimes upset production schedules, the Library of Congress dropped the project.

But the main problem didn't go away—the big delay between a library's receipt of a book and its receipt of the Library of Congress catalog card. Members of the American Library Association and the Association of American Publishers agitated for a revival of the project. Finally, a decade later, the Library of Congress agreed to assess what had gone wrong the first time and try a different approach.

Cataloging in Galley-Proof Stage

"We decided we had to relieve the pressure on the catalogers," says CIP's Gosling, "and give them 10 working days. But this would upset the production cycle late in publishing a book. Therefore, we decided to back up and do the cataloging in the galley-proof stage, when we would have more time to get the data back to the publisher.

"It worked. It has taken the pressure off the publisher. He has latitude in typographical design in setting the information into the book. And he also does not have his production cycle disrupted."

Authors are happier, too. They have time to review the data in galleys and can veto the inclusion of their birthdates. They can make sure their true identities are not revealed if they are using pseudonyms. (In such case, the CIP data will show only a line where the author's name is usually placed. Librarians can fill it in with information obtained from the Library of Congress' master files.)

The Library of Congress has computerized its book

cataloging system. All CIP titles are entered at the same time the bibliographic data is returned to the publisher. In the automated system, called MARC (for Machine-Readable Cataloging), cataloging information on magnetic tape is distributed weekly to subscribing libraries and to private and commercial centers around the country which, in turn, print out requested information to their subscribers.

MARC Oklahoma, for example, which serves that state's library system, signals CIP titles with the notation "to be published soon." This allows librarians to make early selections and to place pre-publication orders. Recently, CIP has started to include the price of a book on MARC, giving librarians a guideline as to how much of their funds they can commit.

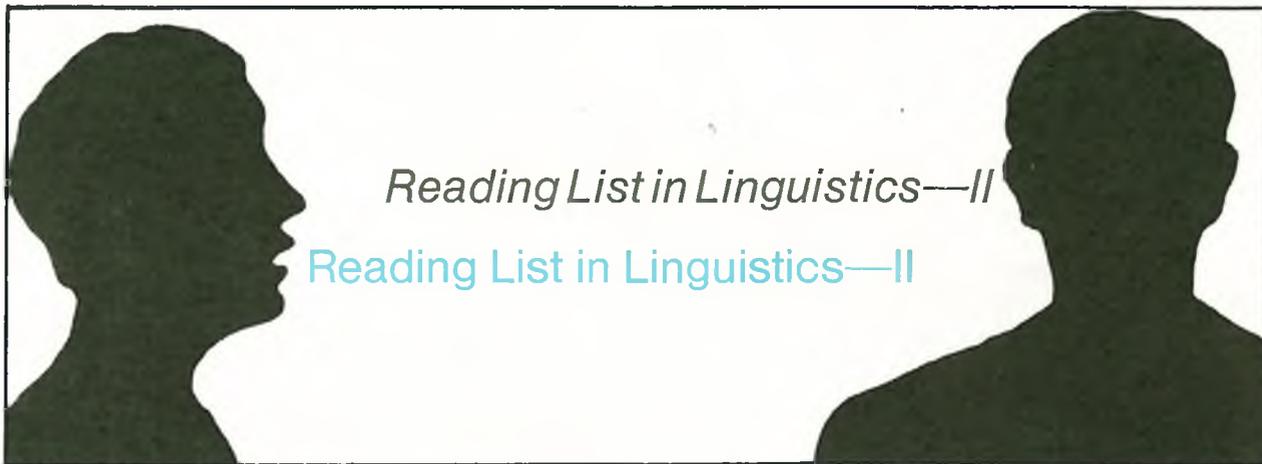
Many librarians in the Oklahoma system have standing requests for CIP catalog copy for all new books in a particular category, such as agricultural science or technical writing. Their requests can be coded so that MARC automatically furnishes them with the CIP data on titles they want. When they place an order for books, they may use the International Standard Book Number, which is available on MARC. Then they take the Library of Congress catalog card numbers from MARC to order the catalog cards if they are not making their own bibliographic records. In this way, they usually have the cards in hand by the time the books arrive, particularly in the case of technical publications which have long publishing leadtimes.

William Gosling says CIP will include all trade monographic publications as well as translations into Spanish for those members of the American reading public whose language is Spanish. Selected Federal Government monographic publications are now being brought into the program. Gosling says serials, periodicals, "vanity press" books paid for by the author, religious education materials and inexpensive editions and titles for mass marketing are considered out of the program's scope.

Except for these few classes of books, the CIP system of the Library of Congress will be pre-cataloging most of the volumes published in the United States each year at a saving of millions of dollars in cataloging costs and with the advantage of enabling readers to consult the latest publications soon after they have arrived at the local libraries. This is an achievement of tremendous magnitude in the world of the scholar and of the general reader as well. Johann Fust and Peter Schoeffer would be astonished to see the sophisticated system set in motion by their start 500 years ago. □

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The first part of the reading list on linguistics appeared in the February-April issue of *Humanities* and dealt with general linguistics. This, the second and concluding part, concerns the psychology of language and the relationship between language and society. The list was prepared by a committee, consisting of Thomas A. Sebeok, Distinguished Professor of Linguistics and Professor of Anthropology, and Chairman of the Research Center for the Language Sciences, Indiana University (Chairman); Eve V. Clark, Professor of Linguistics, Stanford University; D. Terence Langendoen, Professor of English and Linguistics, City University of New York; and Professor Joel Sherzer, Professor of Anthropology, University of Texas at Austin.

Good Reading

LANGUAGE AND PSYCHOLOGY: HISTORICAL ASPECTS OF PSYCHOLINGUISTICS. Perspective in Psychology Series. Arthur L. Blumenthal. New York: Wiley. 1970. 248 pp. Available in paperback.

A science generally has some history—and here one will find an interesting account of both the controversies and findings of nineteenth century investigators of the psychology of language. The author draws on much untranslated material, and deals principally with the 'sentence vs. word' issue, language acquisition, and studies of reading.

PSYCHOLINGUISTICS: SELECTED WRITINGS. Roger W. Brown. New York: Free Press. 1970. 393 pp.

This collection consists of a wide-ranging series of papers by Brown and his colleagues on two main topics: the learning of a first language, research in which Brown is one of the pioneers; and psycholinguistic processes in adults. The articles include an investigation of how an English-speaking child learns how to ask questions, one on the use of pronouns as terms of address, and another on the phonetic symbolism in languages. This book also contains a penetrating analysis of recent experiments with a chimpanzee learning sign language.

STUDIES IN CHILD LANGUAGE AND APHASIA. Roman Jakobson. *The Hague: Mouton.* 1971. 132 pp. Available in paperback.

Jakobson here discusses how the child learns the sound system of his language, why he says "Mama"

and "Papa," and what relation such facts have to certain language disturbances. He relates these topics to a general theory of language.

LANGUAGE: SELECTED READINGS. Edited by Richard C. Oldfield and J. C. Marshall. Baltimore: Penguin. 1968. 392 pp. Available in paperback.

This set of reprinted papers by linguists and psychologists makes an excellent companion to Slobin's introductory book (on this list). From it, the reader gains a good idea of how language is approached by researchers in several fields: studies of language acquisition by children, speech perception, linguistic structure, information measures, and language pathologies.

PSYCHOLINGUISTICS. Dan I. Slobin. Glenview, Illinois: Scott, Foresman. 1971. 148 pp. Available in paperback.

Language and how people use it is a topic of increasing interest to the psychologist, and this book provides a very able and readable account of the use to which psychologists are putting contemporary linguistic theories. Slobin deals mainly with four areas of research: the syntactic structure of language, language acquisition, meaning, and the nature of the relation between language and thought.

SOCIOLINGUISTICS: A BRIEF INTRODUCTION. Joshua A. Fishman. Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House Publishers. 1971. 126 pp. Available in paperback.

This book is a basic and almost elementary introduction to an extremely complex discipline. It presupposes no knowledge of linguistics, anthropology, or sociology, but rather introduces and relates concepts from these fields as they are relevant. The major subareas of sociolinguistics are described—linguistic variation; small group, face-to-face sociolinguistic behavior; and the interrelationships of language, culture, and society. Numerous references are made to current research in this exciting and developing field.

LANGUAGE IN CULTURE AND SOCIETY: A READER IN LINGUISTICS AND ANTHROPOLOGY. Dell Hymes. New York: Harper & Row. 1964. 764 pp.

Since its publication seven years ago, this collection has remained the major reference work in the field of language and culture or linguistic anthropology. It contains 69 readings (most of them previously published as journal articles) from the various subareas of linguistic anthropology—world view and grammatical categories,

semantics, sociolinguistics, verbal art, social processes involved in linguistic change, and linguistic prehistory. The author's extensive and well organized bibliographies and reference notes make this book extremely valuable.

THE STUDY OF NONSTANDARD ENGLISH. William Labov. *Champaign, Illinois: National Council of Teachers of English.* 1970. 73 pp. Available in paperback.

This pamphlet is MUST reading for anyone now teaching or planning to teach in schools located in the ghettos of American cities. It presents in a clear, uncomplicated manner the basic principles of modern sociolinguistics and describes the nature of the various nonstandard dialects of English, with a focus on "Black English." It provides a model for overcoming the problems and conflicts arising from differences between the language of teachers and that of their students.

THE SOCIAL MEANING OF LANGUAGE. John B. Pride. *London: Oxford University Press.* 1971. 124 pp. Available in paperback.

Pride argues that language must be studied in its socio-cultural setting and that linguistics is therefore a social science. He guides the reader through a wide variety of topics and discusses the work of many scholars within the budding discipline of sociolinguistics. Although the book is introductory and can be read by a beginner in the field, it contains ample references to more technical sources in linguistics and sociolinguistics. This survey integrates research in linguistics and the various social and behavioral sciences. It is especially valuable in linking scholarly work from both sides of the Atlantic.

LANGUAGES IN CONTACT: FINDINGS AND PROBLEMS. Uriel Weinreich. *The Hague: Mouton.* 1968. 148 pp.

What are the psychological effects of speaking more than one language? How do languages influence each other? What causes a foreign accent? Uriel Weinreich answers these questions and many more in this book chock full of examples of bilingualism. He demonstrates that it is not languages that are in contact but rather speakers of languages, together with their cultures and their psychological makeups. An extensive bibliography refers the reader to the vast literature on multilingualism and its psychological and social contexts.

LANGUAGE AND CULTURAL DIVERSITY IN AMERICAN EDUCATION. Edited by Roger D. Abrahams and Rudolph C. Troike. *Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc.* 1972. 339 pp. Available in paperback.

The essays in this book counteract the 'melting pot' theory of American culture by focusing on linguistic and cultural diversity in the United States. They deal with various White speech communities, as well as those of Blacks, Chicanos, and American Indians. The papers were selected for their relevance and applicability to the teaching of children from diverse geographic, cultural, and linguistic backgrounds.

FUNCTIONS OF LANGUAGE IN THE CLASSROOM. Edited by Courtney B. Cazden, Vera P. John, and Dell Hymes. *New York and London: Columbia University Teachers College Press.* 1972. 394 pp.

These essays strikingly demonstrate the relevance of sociolinguistics and the ethnography of speaking to

problems of education. They deal with such topics as nonverbal communication in the classroom, the teaching of deaf children, bilingualism, Black English, and American Indian communicative patterns. Every paper applies theoretical insights from linguistics, anthropology, and sociology to the practical problems of teaching children.

BLACK ENGLISH. ITS HISTORY AND USAGE IN THE UNITED STATES. J. L. Dillard. *New York: Random House.* 1972. 361 pp.

This book is a fascinating, nontechnical investigation of Black English—its history, present grammatical structure, and ways in which this linguistic variety, used by Americans of African ancestry, differs from other varieties of American English. The work is particularly useful for school teachers and others concerned with problems of education in American ghettos.

LANGUAGE AND SOCIAL CONTEXT. SELECTED READINGS. Edited by Pier Paola Giglioli. *Middlesex, England: Penguin.* 1972. 399 pp. Available in paperback.

This collection reprints articles dealing, from a number of points of view, with the relationship between language and culture and language and society. The primary focus is Sociolinguistics and the Ethnography of speaking. The authors represented deal with such questions as what is a speech act and what is a speech event, how can rules for conversation be formulated, how is language studied in a social context, what are the social consequences of literacy, and what causes language conflicts. The underlying principle of all of the contributions is that language must be studied in the social and cultural contexts in which it is used.

Suggestions for Discussion

1. The problem of dialect and the standard language: Should society attempt to impose a standard language or accent? (What is gained? What is lost?) Should a dialect (e.g. a Black dialect) be taught in school? Or should all instruction be in a "standard" language? Are all dialects of equal value? What makes one dialect sound "educated" or "refined" and another "coarse" or "hickish"? Does Standard American actually exist? What makes it "standard"? Who speaks it?
2. Comparisons of languages: Can one language be considered superior to another? On what basis? Why is it difficult (impossible?) to have an exact translation from a foreign language? Should "dying" languages be saved? Why? Why not?
3. The social aspects of language: How do the following affect the language you use or the way you speak? your family background? your education? your job? your sex? How does language affect your view of yourself or of the world? Why do people assume that a common world language would reduce international frictions? Do international conflicts arise because we misunderstand or because we in fact do understand each other?
4. Is language the link between speakers, or are the speakers and their culture the links and language the tool of that linkage?
5. Is language for communication? Can there be communication without language?



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