

Elizabeth M. Moys

Moys Classification and Thesaurus for Legal Materials

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Fifth edition

Revised and expanded by
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Dedicated to the memory of Elizabeth M. Moys – a hard act to follow

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Editorial Board

Diana Morris, BA(Hons), MCLIP: was Librarian and then Research Services Manager at Slaughter and May (solicitors in the City of London) from 1985 to 2007, having previously worked on contract in Zimbabwe for two years and held posts in public and commercial libraries in London. Since then she has worked freelance abstracting journal articles for a legal database. Publications include a research index for the Prime Minister's Scientific Liaison Office in Harare, co-ordination of the Zimbabwean contributions to *Periodicals in Southern African Libraries*, and more recently a part chapter on cataloguing and classification in the *BIALL Handbook of Legal Information Management*. She was a member of the Editorial Board for the 3rd edition of *Moys Classification and Thesaurus for Legal Materials*, published in 1992.

Helen Garner, BA(Hons), PGDip: has been the Information Resources Librarian at the Bodleian Law Library since August 2004, having previously worked for over ten years at Freshfields Bruckhaus Deringer in London. She started her professional career as a cataloguer at the Foreign and Commonwealth Office before moving to the Royal Institution of Chartered Surveyors. Helen is a member of the BIALL Publications Committee.

Sarah Wheeler, MA: has been Assistant Librarian at the Supreme Court of the United Kingdom since it opened in 2009, with responsibility for cataloguing. Previously she worked at the Ministry of Justice Library before gaining an MA in Library and Information studies from University College London in 2009.

Additional corresponding members:

Jacqueline Elliott, BA, Dip. Ed(Tas), LLB(Hons) (Adel), ALAA: was Court Librarian at the High Court of Australia from 1985 to 2005. Previously she worked as Law Librarian at the University of Papua New Guinea (UNPG) 1982–85; was Deputy Law Librarian, University of Adelaide, 1974–82; and Assistant Law Librarian, University of the West Indies (Cave Hill Campus, Barbados), 1970–73 (where she initiated the use of Moys). During her years at UPNG she made two collecting trips to the Pacific Islands to gather material to start up the Pacific Law Collection in the Law Library at UPNG, Port Moresby. She maintained her contacts with the Pacific jurisdictions until her retirement in 2005 and for many years was Coordinator of the Pacific Twinning Project of the Australian Law Librarians' Group (now ALLA). Ms Elliott edited *Australian Law Librarian* 1993–95 and published

Pacific Law Bibliography (2nd edn., Hobart: Pacific Law Press) in 1992 and *Papua New Guinea Statutes in Force as at 31 December 1991* (UPNG Library) in the same year. She also wrote several articles on Pacific legal bibliography and was a member of the Board of the International Association of Law Libraries for five years. During her time at the High Court of Australia she conducted a number of Moys seminars in all states of Australia and after her retirement continued to do so until 2010. She was also a corresponding member of the Editorial Board for both the 3rd and 4th editions of *Moys Classification and Thesaurus for Legal Materials*.

Gail Griffin, NZLA Cert.: has been a cataloguer at Russell McVeagh (private law firm in Auckland, New Zealand) since 1991. Previously she was a cataloguer at the Secondary Teachers' College Library, University of Auckland Library, Business Archives, and an independent contractor for mainly small specialist government and private collections. Publications include indexes for New Zealand photographic journals. She has run seminars/workshops for new Moys users, including *Moys Classification – An Introduction*, and *Moys Classification – How You Can Use It*, which included a practical classification component.

Introduction

This is the first edition to be prepared under the auspices of BIALL after the sad passing of Betty Moys in 2002. I was an Editorial Board member for the 3rd edition published in 1992, but apart from the continuing help from Jacqueline Elliott (formerly of the Australian High Court Library) as a corresponding member, a new Board was assembled for this edition.

I have retained much of Betty's introduction from the previous edition, including the first two sections of the Introduction to the first edition, reprinted on request from librarians in Australia and New Zealand, with a few minor changes. Naturally, some of what was said there is now out of date, as are some of the bibliographical references.

I have also left unchanged Betty's explanation of the scheme's facet structure, reproduced below.

Facet structure

The secondary materials for each modern system are divided first into public and private law, a distinction which is almost universally known. Broadly, private law is concerned with the relations between persons, natural or corporate, while public law concerns relationships between the individual and the state.

Public law falls conventionally into three main groups: constitutional, administrative and criminal law. Each of these is divided by its own criteria of the rights, duties, topics and procedures which are involved. Criminal procedure is a sub-class of Criminal law and procedure.

Private law is arranged into groups of topics, following conventions which are fairly generally accepted by common lawyers, and not usually too different from the conventional classification of Civil lawyers. Thus, contract and tort (or obligations in the Civil law) and property are almost universal areas of legal activity. The growing body of law dealing with broadly social matters, such as health, education, labour law and social welfare have been placed alongside certain other matters affecting the legal position of the individual under the class heading Persons and Social Laws. One group of topics where there may be less agreement between lawyers in the United Kingdom and the United States is that of commercial law. In this scheme, topics are grouped by subject area, rather than by the sources of the legal rules governing them, so the topics of commercial law, such as company law, monopolies, sale of goods, insurance, banking, investment, transport and communications (now including computer law in general) are all in the main

class Commercial law. Civil and general procedure form another class, at the end of the Private Law group of classes.

Common tables have been provided for use at any required point. Those for Courts (Table V) and Persons (Table VII) should *not* be used where the court or the type of person is the main topic of the book, but rather where the court or person is one part only of a complex subject. Further explanation of the use of the tables can be found below.

Criminology, being strictly a sociological rather than legal study, is assigned to the Appendix. The schedule there can be used on its own, if required, or used at the end of one of the main classes, as instructed in the Appendix and in the relevant places in the schedules.

Index-Thesaurus

The Index-Thesaurus is presented in a format similar to that of the previous edition, expanded to include more references.

Updating

Many readers will already be aware of the email list *lis-moys-users*, which has been in operation for several years. The list provides a forum for anyone interested to make suggestions for amendment and improvement of the scheme, as well as being a general discussion forum. Its current address for sending messages is: lis-moys-users@jiscmail.ac.uk

Diana Morris

June 2012

Postscript

The preparation of this edition was eased immeasurably by the help, support and encouragement of Sarah Spells, Chair of the BIALL Publications Committee, who died suddenly after a short illness in September 2012. She will be greatly missed by all who knew her.

Introduction to the First Edition

Part 1: Principles of Library Classification for Law Books

In compiling a library classification for any special subject, whether it be law, engineering or literature, the general rules of classification, such as the exclusiveness of categories and the comprehensiveness of the sum total of categories, must be observed. The nature of the particular literature and the way it is used in libraries assume great importance, and must be thoroughly studied before any attempt is made to establish the basic outline of a classification scheme. The way specialists in the subject classify it themselves must also be studied, although a classification scheme for books will not necessarily be identical as other factors, such as form of publication, must be taken into account.

The classification of law itself has long been a subject of controversy. It is virtually impossible to divide the subjects of law into neat watertight compartments, as there is inevitably a great deal of overlapping of different aspects of subjects. For example, the law of insurance can be treated as a subject in its own right, or it can be regarded as an aspect of contract law, commercial law, tort, maritime law, the law of inland or air transport or criminal law. It is partly for this reason that legal practitioners, both in England and America, have tended to resist the introduction of subject classification in their libraries. As recently as 1955, an American survey showed that at least 39 per cent of law school libraries in the United States used no subject classification [Jennett, C. Subject classification in law libraries – a survey – 1955. 49 *Law Lib. J.* 17–20].

The advantages of subject classification for law libraries are similar to those for general libraries, namely that it improves the usefulness of the books to the reader by enabling him to find information on a particular topic, even if the specific volumes he asks for are not available, and that the strength and weaknesses of a library's bookstock are immediately apparent, so that a well rounded collection can more easily be developed. Lawyers frequently know the author of the books they want, or think they want, but if the books are arranged alphabetically by author, readers are likely to miss other, possibly more recent, books on the subject which might be helpful to them. Alphabetical order is, in any case, less simple than is usually supposed. For example, Clarke, Hall and Morrison's *Law relating to children and young persons* could be shelved at Clarke or Hall or, according to the present editor, at Morrison. A subject number, such as 347.42 or KN176, is safer, and more meaningful.

There are, of course, limitations to the advantages to be gained by classifying law books, most of which are inherent in all library classification. One of the most obvious is that no shelf arrangement can fully bring out all aspects of all the

books. However good the classification scheme used, the individual book can be put in only one place on the shelves. It will be alongside books which are similar in some respects and widely separated from others which are similar in different respects. A good subject catalogue is essential to bring out all useful aspects of a book's contents. Once it is agreed that a collection of law books should be classified, the principles underlying the arrangement to be adopted should be examined. There are two main types of library classification scheme: the traditional, enumerative kind exemplified by the Dewey Decimal Classification and the Library of Congress Classification, and the more modern faceted kind, such as the Colon Classification of S.R. Ranganathan. Whether a law library classification scheme is to be enumerative or faceted, it should follow certain general principles, which are discussed below.

The legal system

Library users almost invariably approach the study of a subject of law in the context of the law of a particular jurisdiction, and only very rarely from the point of view of comparative law. Therefore, the classification approach usually adopted for many other main subjects, namely giving primacy to various subjects and sub-arranging them either by traditional sub-division methods or by facet analysis, is inappropriate for law. This principle is reinforced by the fact that, apart from some very general books and philosophical and comparative works, law books are concerned with particular individual systems of law, such as English law, French law, Brazilian law, Indonesian law, Egyptian law, Roman law or Hindu law. There are two chief types of legal system: national systems and non-national systems.

The term "national system: is not strictly correct here, but is used throughout to mean the system of law applicable to a particular modern jurisdiction. A jurisdiction frequently coincides with a nation state, but does not necessarily do so. For example, the United Kingdom, although not a federal state, contains three separate jurisdictions: England and Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland. The United States, as at present constituted, contains 51 jurisdictions – the federal nation state and the fifty constituent States. A wider jurisdiction can also exist when there is no sovereign federal government, as in East Africa, where the East African Common Services Organisation has jurisdiction in certain matters without sovereignty.

By "modern" jurisdiction is meant one that has existed since about 1800 AD, although it is not necessarily still extant, or may have been divided or merged into other jurisdictions. For example, legislation was passed over a period of many years applicable to Afrique Occidentale Française and, although this jurisdiction

no longer exists, a place must be available for these volumes in a classification scheme. On the other hand, it seems logical that books on the law of Serbia or Montenegro before 1919 should be treated as belonging to the history of modern Yugoslav law.

The second category, non-national legal systems, consists of subjects such as international law, Hindu law, Islamic law and other systems which do not coincide with modern national boundaries, such as classical Roman law, medieval Germanic law, and the special Dutch developments of Roman law in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries.

The usual classification practice is to place general subjects before specialised subjects, and general books before specialised books. Therefore, very general works, books on legal philosophy, comparative works and books on non-national legal systems should be placed at the beginning of any classified arrangement, followed by the books on national legal systems, arranged by system. In other words, the first characteristic of division is the legal system. A regional arrangement of national systems is clearly preferable to alphabetical arrangement, as it can allow for future federations, amalgamations of states or other political developments.

Naturally, the legal systems of countries which share historical links tend to have common features. Many systems of law, from all parts of the world, belong to one or other of two main families: the civil law systems derived from the law of the late Roman empire, and the common law systems derived from the common law of England. [The term “common law” is used here to mean the whole system of law including statutes and equity, developed in England. In the schedules and elsewhere in the introduction, the term usually means the whole family of systems based on the English common law. In the United States, the term “Anglo-American law” is frequently used.] In addition to systems which are firmly based on one of these European systems, many others in Asia and Africa have been influenced, in varying degrees, by European law. In fact, according to Professor Lawson, “it is only in a few isolated territories, such as Saudi Arabia and Afghanistan, that nonwestern law remains pure” [Lawson, F.H. *A common lawyer looks at the civil law*. Ann Arbor, University of Michigan Press, 1955].

The civil law systems can be divided into two main groups: those influenced by the French *Code Napoléon* and those influenced by the German *Bürgerliches Gesetzbuch*. The French group includes the Belgian, Italian, Spanish, most Latin American systems and the Egyptian civil law. The German group includes the Austrian, Swiss, many East European systems and Japanese and Turkish civil law. A number of legal systems, which were originally civil law systems, have been subject to outside influences, notably Scots law, Roman law in South Africa, Sri Lanka and Guyana and the laws of Quebec and Louisiana, Puerto Rico, the

Panama Canal Zone and the Philippines. All these have been geographically or politically connected with common law countries and their legal systems have been partially hybridized [Lawson, *op. cit.*].

It is, no doubt, because “there are considerable differences in the substantive laws of the two main representatives of the civil law world” [Ryan, K.W. *An introduction to the civil law*. Brisbane, Law Book Company of Australasia, 1962] that no known Anglo-American or European classification scheme treats all civil law systems together. There seems no reason why this should be done, although a place must be provided for books on civil law systems as a whole. Nevertheless, a scheme published in South Africa in 1966 provides, in addition to the classes for South African law, two separate foreign law classes, one for common law and one for civil law [Dannenbring, R. *The classification of law books in the University of South Africa library*. Pretoria, University of South Africa, 1965].

Common law systems

The common law was taken by English settlers or administrators to every continent, and in many places it took root and flourished, not only in countries settled originally by people from Britain, but also in more alien surroundings. The famous Indian Penal Code is a good example, and was subsequently adopted by nine other jurisdictions. Lawyers still feel to a remarkable extent that they serve a common system, whether they are in Accra, Bombay, Idaho, Manchester or Sydney. The legal systems derived from the English common law are therefore generally felt to be more homogeneous than the civil law systems, but because of the large number and variety of systems which have been influenced by the common law, the arrangement of books on the law of the countries concerned presents some considerable problems.

One of the basic features of the common law is that judges determine what the law actually is as well as applying it to particular cases. That “there is, indeed, a sort of general common law” applicable in many countries, is proved by the fact that judges in one country can and frequently do consult decisions from other countries in the system to determine the law applicable to cases before them [Elias, T.O. *British colonial law: a comparative study of the interaction between English and local laws in British dependencies*. London, Stevens, 1962]. In most countries, this is a matter of custom, but the practice is sometimes given statutory force, for example in the Ghana Interpretation Act [Interpretation Act, 1960 (C.A.4) section 17(4)]. Such reference is by no means confined to the use of English cases by overseas courts; it may equally involve reference to an Indian case in deciding a case from New Zealand, [Vajesingji v. Secretary of State for

India (1924) L.R. 51 Ind. App, 357 at 360 applied in *Hoani etc. v. Acten District Maori Land Board* [1941] A.C. 308 at 324] the application of a Canadian case to a New Zealand case, [*Clelland v. Clelland* [1944] 4 D.L.R. 703 applied in *Joe v. Young* [1964] N.Z.L.R. 34], reference to an Australian case by a Canadian court, [*Re Farmers' Settlers' Co-operative Soc. Ltd., City Bank of Sydney v. Barden* (1908) 9 S.R. (N.S.W.) 41 distinguished in *Thoresen v. Capital Credit Corporation Ltd.* (1964) 43 D.L.R. (2d) 97], or the citation of a Gold Coast case in an English case [*Kwaku Mensah v. R.* [1946] A.C. 83 cited in *R. v. Porritt* [1961] 1 W.L.R. 1372]. This process was greatly assisted in the Commonwealth by the work of the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council.

Not all the countries concerned have adopted the common law wholesale. Generally speaking, this happened only in those countries whose population consisted at the relevant time of British settlers. In African and Asian countries, the parts of the common law system relating to economic activity and the criminal law have usually been adopted, while the local customary law of landed property and family law has often been retained. In some countries the legal mixture contains elements of still further systems. For example, the civil law of Sri Lanka is based on Roman-Dutch law, considerably influenced by English law, together with some elements from Islamic, Hindu and Sinhalese law, while the criminal law is fundamentally English; the law of Uganda is a mixture of local legislation, various African tribal laws, common law as applicable in England in 1902, and certain British and Indian legislation specifically adopted in Uganda.

To complicate the problem, the quirks of history have left some pockets of non-common law jurisdiction in the midst of some of the basically common law countries, notably Quebec and Louisiana with their French-based systems in Canada and the United States, and Scotland, the Isle of Man and the Channel Islands, which are more or less within the area of the United Kingdom.

The areas in which the common law is to be found can, therefore, be divided into three main categories:

1. those whose legal systems are entirely, or almost entirely based on the common law, i.e. England, Ireland, Canada, the United States, most of the West Indies, Australia and New Zealand;
2. those whose legal systems consist of a mixture, in various proportions, of the common law and other systems e.g. India, Cyprus, Guyana, Nigeria;
3. those areas within a basically common law jurisdiction which have retained their own non-common law systems, albeit influenced to some extent by the common law, e.g. Scotland, Quebec, Louisiana.

For the reasons outlined earlier, several English and American classification schemes group common law jurisdictions together in some way, separately from

the rest of the world. While the grouping together of common law books can be very useful to readers, especially in any of the countries in the common law sphere of influence, the differences between the three categories of jurisdiction described above present a serious problem: which of these jurisdictions should be included in the common law section of the classification and which, if any, should be excluded? If all three types of jurisdiction are included, any large or medium-sized library will find a considerable number of books which do not deal with common law being placed alongside the common law books. This is undesirable, as it partly defeats the purpose of keeping common law books together, and is likely to be confusing, or even dangerous, for laymen and students starting their studies.

On the other hand, if a strict differentiation is made between books dealing with common law and books dealing with other systems, regardless of geography, the books on the law of countries with mixed systems, notably India and the African states, will be shelved in two or more separate places. This may not be a special disadvantage in other countries, but is hardly likely to be acceptable in the countries concerned. As the present tendency in these countries is for the law to be revised and developed along national lines, it seems probable that their legal systems will gradually diverge further and further from the common law system. Therefore, it seems best to treat the mixed systems as if they were separate national systems, rather than grouping them with the basic common law countries.

There is no ideal solution to the problem. It is understood that the Library of Congress proposes to adopt the simplest solution, disregarding the common features of the system and arranging books strictly by jurisdiction. Any library which prefers to keep common law books together must accept some sort of compromise. The arrangement suggested as avoiding the least desirable results of the two extreme solutions discussed above, while keeping together most of the books which are likely to be used in conjunction by lawyers and research workers, is to define the common law section of the classification as the countries belonging to the first category listed above, leaving books from jurisdictions in the second category to be classified separately by national system.

The two main objections to this proposal are that some important common law books, such as those on Indian criminal law and company law will be excluded, and that some non-common law books, such as those from Quebec, will be included. The first seems to be the lesser objection, as the number of volumes concerned would, in most libraries be small, and their connection with common law could be brought out in the subject catalogue. The other objection, concerning the category three jurisdictions, is more intractable. If, for example, Scots law books were placed in a separate Scottish section, this would not contain the whole law of Scotland, because laws of the United Kingdom as a whole, such as

electoral legislation, apply to Scotland. But Scots law books should not be placed alongside their English or Australian counterparts with no distinction. A possible solution might be to allow books from the category three jurisdictions to remain in the common law section, denoted by special symbols, such as S for Scotland or Q for Quebec, after the standard class mark.

Sub-division of the legal system

It has been established by reference to both the nature and use of legal literature that the first characteristic of division is the legal system. Within each legal system, the next question is the extent to which division should be, in traditional terminology, by subject, form, geographical area or date or, in the facet formula, how facets such as personality, energy, space and time are to be applied. Again, it is necessary to study the form and use of law books. It is clear that chronology is normally significant only for historical books and for the detailed shelf arrangement of publications such as successive editions of revised statutes, conference proceedings etc. Something like geographical treatment has, by means of defining national legal systems, already been used and although provision will still be needed for local sub-division within the area of a jurisdiction, this is of relatively minor importance.

An examination of the contents of law books leads to an analogy with literature. In one sense, the terms “literature” and “law” refer to abstractions, but in another sense it is true to say that a volume of Shakespeare’s plays or Milton’s poems is itself literature, and similarly that a volume of statutes is itself law. On the other hand, Dover Wilson’s *What happens in Hamlet* is a book about literature and *Chitty on contracts* is a book about law. For convenience, these two basic types of law books are referred to throughout as primary materials and secondary materials respectively. This is not a distinction based strictly on form or on subject, but rather on the special nature of the contents of law books and their use. A simple definition of primary and secondary materials is that the former contain the law itself, are books *of* law and can be quoted in court, and that secondary materials are books *about* law and cannot normally be quoted in court. This is, of course, an over-generalisation and cannot be strictly applied to every volume usually included in either group, but it serves to highlight the basic differences.

At this point, the analogy with literature must be abandoned. Whereas there are few practical difficulties in classifying together both the volumes of Shakespeare’s works and the biographies and critical monographs about his work, the same does not apply to legal literature. In all countries, but especially in common law jurisdictions, primary legal materials are very frequently published in

serial form, whereas most secondary materials are in the form of monographs or multi-volume sets of limited dimensions. The idea of trying to place monographs alongside the annual volumes of statutes which contain the legislation referred to is so ludicrous that it is quite obvious that the two kinds of books cannot be mixed. Therefore, primary and secondary materials must be treated separately in any classification scheme.

Primary materials

Primary materials should be arranged by the form of their contents. They contain two main kinds of texts: legislative texts, whether these are codes, statutes or subsidiary rules and regulations; and reported decisions of courts of law or administrative tribunals. Both types of publication require very full indexing services of various kinds, such as indexes, digests and citators. It is essential for law library readers that these service volumes should always be placed beside the true primary materials to which they relate, and they are therefore included here in the term “primary materials”. What exactly constitutes primary materials varies from one jurisdiction to another. It is a special feature of the common law system that much of the law is to be found in the reported decisions of the judges in cases before the courts. On the other hand, in many civil law jurisdictions the law is embodied in detailed codes, which are theoretically intended to provide a certain answer for every eventuality. In these countries, judicial decisions usually have less force than in common law countries. It is interesting to note, however, that in some European countries the position has already changed considerably: “French law has become almost as much a system of judge-made law as English law . . . German judges can be just as daring” [Lawson, *op. cit.*].

In many common law jurisdictions a consolidation of the statute law is compiled and published at intervals of about ten years or more. The form and arrangement of these compilations, or revised editions of statutes vary, but the object is always to provide in a convenient form the total valid legislation of the jurisdiction, i.e. all statutes which are in force, omitting all clauses or complete acts which have been repealed, and incorporating changes made by amending legislation. Arrangement is sometimes chronological, as in the British *Statutes Revised*, but is more usually by subjects alphabetically. If several revised editions are held, they should be arranged in chronological order.

In addition to legislation, both main and subsidiary, a law library is almost certain to contain volumes of parliamentary debates, government gazettes etc., which are necessary for the full understanding and interpretation of legislation. In an independent law library, this material should be placed close to the legisla-

tive texts, but in a general library it is more likely to be shelved in the political science section.

In arranging reported decisions, it is necessary to distinguish between decisions of the courts of law and those of administrative bodies, which usually have less authority and are frequently subject to review by the courts. Law reports must also be distinguished from casebooks, which are usually single volumes containing a selection of cases illustrating a particular subject, and designed to be used by students in conjunction with subject monographs. Casebooks are not intended for official use; they are textbooks, and should be classified with other secondary materials, by subject.

Digests are a specialised form of legal publication, mostly produced in common law jurisdictions (but are also published in some European countries, notably France and Italy), which are extremely valuable to all law library readers. In form, they are somewhat like encyclopaedias, being arranged alphabetically by subject. However, instead of articles, a digest consists of a series of brief statements of what the law is thought by the editor to be, with copious references to the law reports, and sometimes statutes, on which these assertions are based. Their function is normally to act as subject indexes to a wide range of law reports, although a few digests are confined to a single series of law reports, e.g. *Digest of the United States Supreme Court Reports*. Digests of the latter kind should be placed next to the reports they index, while more general digests should follow the body of reports for the jurisdiction.

Secondary materials

All other law books are secondary materials, including dictionaries, directories, histories, bibliographies, commentaries, monographs, casebooks and journals. With the exception of journals, which will be discussed below, most secondary materials should be arranged by subject, proceeding from the general to the special. Therefore, general works on the legal system and administration of justice, together with books on legal history and the legal profession are best placed before the books on specific legal topics.

Most legal systems recognise certain major fields of law, such as constitutional law, criminal law, property law and commercial law, but delimitation and nomenclature vary enormously. When the more detailed sub-division of legal topics is considered, the variations in concepts, classification of topics and nomenclature become increasingly prolific. The production of a library classification taking full account of all these differences, with the schedule for each legal system individually tailored, would be an immense task for a team of specialists.

Fortunately, it is unnecessary to seek such a perfectionist conclusion, as the theoretical objections to adopting a common pattern of arrangement for the books on various national systems of law seem to be losing strength.

The present tendency is towards emphasising the features shared by legal systems, rather than their disparities. As one of the chief American law classification workers has observed, “modern developments tend to wipe out many of [the] incompatibilities between legal systems of heterogeneous origins. Effective administration and effective use of a global collection of legal literature require that the arrangement of subject matter under various jurisdictions follow the same principles, and be as reciprocal as circumstances will permit, even at the risk of minor theoretical flaws” [Ellinger, W.B. Some observations on classification theory in the development of Class K. *57 Law Lib. J.* 360 and 364]. In other words, the use of standard methods for the subject arrangement of books from various jurisdictions is acceptable, either using traditional tables of the type found in other classes of the Library of Congress scheme or by employing the techniques of facet analysis. In either case, the resultant scheme should if possible agree with the consensus of the specialists in the field. This consensus is sometimes difficult to discover, and the compiler of a classification scheme may sometimes be forced to take decisions himself about the most convenient placing of disputable subjects, using his knowledge of the literature and its use.

In dealing with the arrangement of specific legal topics, the concept of public law and private law may be found useful. This distinction, which is much clearer in the civil law than in the common law, is between the public law regulating the relations of the citizen and the state, and the private law regulating relations between the individual members of society, singly or in groups. Public law is usually taken as consisting of constitutional law and administrative law with, sometimes, the addition of criminal law. The term is used in the fuller sense here throughout. Private law consists of property law, obligations (contract and tort), personal and family law and commercial and civil procedure law. The distinction between public and private law can be useful to the classifier, if only by providing convenient names for groups of sub-classes, although it has little practical value for the lawyer, and developments in the last 50 years or so have blurred it very considerably.

Governments now regulate many private activities, which used to be the sole province of private law. In the United States, in particular, government regulations of this type have been regarded as public law, and several American law classification schemes place them under public law. This has the unfortunate result that the “public” and “private” aspects of the law of a particular subject, such as the relations between landlord and tenant, or between employers and workers, are widely separated. The phenomenon of massive government regulation of many activities of the private citizen has obviously come to stay, and the

treatment of this type of law as public law is no longer useful, at least as far as common law jurisdictions are concerned, “where [public and private law] penetrate each other everywhere” [Lawson, *op. cit.*]. It is greatly preferable to treat the substance of administrative regulations together with the specific topics concerned, leaving only the constitutional, organisational and procedural aspects under the heading “administrative law and procedure”.

With this proviso, the terms public law and private law can be useful in determining the order of subjects, so that an orderly progression is made either from constitutional and administrative law to criminal law and the various branches of private law, or vice versa.

Legal journals

The contents and subject coverage of legal journals varies widely. In content they are clearly secondary materials, but in form they are nearer to primary materials, and there is a good case, on the grounds of convenience to both readers and library staff, for shelving journals next to primary materials. Most legal journals, except those specialising in subjects such as jurisprudence or comparative or Roman law, are concerned mainly with the law of the country of publication. If these journals are to be classified, the most suitable place for them is between primary materials and treatises within each legal system.

However, the question arises as to the extent to which journals should be classified at all. Opinion seems to be divided on the value of classifying legal journals by country, even to the extent suggested in the previous paragraph. A reader looking for a journal usually has a reference to a specific article. He wants to locate a particular volume quickly, preferably without having to look up a call number. The titles of many journals give no indication of the country of origin, e.g. *Criminal Law Review*, *Journal of Public Law*, *Law and Contemporary Problems*, *New Law Journal*, and therefore classification by jurisdiction can be a positive hindrance. General browsing through periodicals, except the current issues, is comparatively rare, even in an academic library, and ease of finding is more important to most readers than subject classification.

A survey conducted in Ghana in 1960 among both practising and academic lawyers produced a two-thirds majority in favour of arranging all journals in one alphabetical title sequence. While this is by no means conclusive, there do seem to be good arguments for treating journals in a different way from all other law books, and placing them all together, unclassified. Each library should choose whichever arrangement, either by legal system or unclassified, seems best suited to its own circumstances.

Non-national legal systems

Special schedules are needed for the classes allocated to general works and non-national legal systems, but some of the principles and procedures mentioned above can be applied. For example, the literature of international law includes its own primary materials, with treaties taking the place of legislation. While specially constructed schedules are necessary for the equivalent of legislative texts in systems such as Islamic law or Roman law, the standard tables compiled for the arrangement of the subjects of national legal systems can be used for many non-national systems, including the conflict of laws, and also for comparative law.

One subject which requires special mention is the conflict of laws, sometimes known as private international law. As its name implies, this is generally an international subject, but is also sometimes regarded as a part of national law, especially in federal states. This applies particularly to the rules regulating the conflicts between the laws of the various states in the United States. It is quite acceptable to place most conflict books with the national system, if so desired, keeping only those of wider application in an international class. It is equally possible to place all conflict books in a non-national class and sub-divide, where appropriate, by jurisdiction. There are several reasonable places for conflict of laws and no absolute best.

Part 2: Principal Features of the New Scheme

This classification scheme is an attempt to put the principles discussed above into practice. While the scheme has a clear bias towards the common law system, especially as developed in Britain and the British-settled Commonwealth countries, such as Canada and Australia, it has been provided with various features, described below, designed to make it more widely acceptable. It is not intended for any particular type of library, either for students, academic lawyers or practising lawyers. It is designed however, to be suitable either for a specialist law library or for the law section of a general library which is using either the Library of Congress Classification or the Dewey Decimal Classification for the rest of its books.

In the English-speaking world outside the United States there are relatively few fully organised law libraries which are outside academic institutions. There are, it is true, other great libraries, notably those of the Inns of Court in London, but even in England they are clearly outnumbered by the libraries of the university law faculties. In the newer overseas Commonwealth countries, court and bar libraries are usually small, and the degree of organisation varies widely. Fine

practitioners' libraries, of the type operated by some large American law firms, are virtually non-existent outside North America. The new classification scheme was originally compiled for use in a university library, with other academic libraries in mind, but suitability for practitioners' libraries was also considered.

In the Commonwealth as a whole, probably more academic libraries use the Library of Congress classification scheme for their general collections than any other single general scheme. This is particularly true of the newer universities, both in Britain and overseas countries, many of which are establishing law faculties. In addition, some of the older universities are reclassifying their stock by the Library of Congress scheme. It is well known that, although a great deal of work has been done on it, the law class of the Library of Congress classification has not yet been published, and therefore the libraries mentioned above are without an established scheme for classifying their law collections.

For these reasons, the new scheme was deliberately designed to fit into a general library classified by the Library of Congress scheme. The basic method of the scheme follows the enumerative pattern of the Library of Congress, and the notation for Class K is constructed on the principles used in its other classes. Thus, within each lettered class, the numbers run serially, although a few decimal sub-divisions of them are used. In certain sections, notably the classes for non-common law legal systems, blocks of numbers are indicated in the schedules, and sub-division is by means of tables printed at the end of the schedules. Numbers in Tables I and II are used serially, in the same way as in the schedules.

In any classification scheme, the process of division must proceed in an orderly fashion, using the various characteristics of division one at a time. Even with a basically enumerative classification, it can be said that "the total subclasses resulting from the application of a single characteristic [may be] called a facet" [Mills, J. *Modern outline of library classification*. London, Chapman and Hall, 1960]. This fact tends to be hidden in a scheme such as that of the Library of Congress in a welter of repeated detail. For example, specific numbers are provided in a great many places throughout the schedules to represent the application to particular subjects of facets such as place or time. Because of the practical requirement of fitting into libraries using the Library of Congress scheme for other subjects, the same kind of repetition occurs in the new scheme, particularly for the facet of legal form, containing such foci as casebooks or forms and precedents. Specific numbers have been allocated to these foci in the traditional manner, at the most appropriate places throughout classes KB to KN. However, as a move towards the construction of a faceted law classification, tables for two special facets, courts and legal form, have been added. The use of these tables is explained below.

Basic structure of the scheme

The list of classes shows how closely the structure of the scheme adheres to the principles set out in the first part of the introduction. The classes are arranged in three main groups. Books of a general nature come first, followed by books concerned with legal systems which do not belong to individual modern nation states, even approximately. The classes in this first group are:

K	Journals and reference books
KA	Jurisprudence
KB	General and comparative law
KC	International law
KD	Religious legal systems
KE	Ancient and medieval law

The second group which, in most libraries, would contain the bulk of the books, consists of all modern national legal systems, divided into two systems, the common law and all the rest. The common law section is defined as consisting of the countries with “pure” common law systems. As the scheme was intended for use in countries whose legal systems showed at least considerable influence of the common law, six classes were allocated to the common law section. One class was allocated to each of the remaining four continents, and another was set aside for the law of any particular country, usually the home country, which seemed to require special treatment. The classes in the second group are:

KF–KN	Common Law
KP	Own country (optional alternative)
KR	Africa
KS	Latin America
KT	Asia and Pacific
KV	Europe

The remaining group consists of a single class, KZ, to provide for non-legal books which may be possessed by specialist law libraries. General libraries should not use class KZ.

Within each national legal system, the separate treatment of primary and secondary materials has been carefully maintained. For practical convenience, the alternative place for journals is at the end of the primary materials section, although it is fully realised that this is terminologically incorrect. The common law is treated as a whole, and can be used to illustrate the method of subdivision of secondary materials. However, it was felt necessary to depart from strict application of the basic principles when arranging the primary materials from

common law jurisdictions. Many more readers want to find both the statute and case law of one jurisdiction together rather than statutes from many jurisdictions. Therefore common law primary materials are divided by jurisdiction before form. Three classes are allocated to common law primary materials: KF for the British Isles, KG for North America and the West Indies and KH for Australasia.

The remaining three classes are used for the secondary materials of common law arranged by subject. Class KL is for general surveys and a number of general subjects, such as administration of justice and legal history, while classes KM and KN are devoted to public and private law respectively. As explained above, these terms have no particular significance, but are used as convenient labels for groups of legal topics.

The common law classes are:

Primary materials

KF	British Isles
KG	Canada, U.S.A., West Indies
KH	Australia, New Zealand

Treatises, etc.

KL	General and legal history
KM	Constitutional, administrative and criminal law
KN	Private law

The method of arrangement for each of the other modern systems of law is similar to that for the common law, but fewer numbers are used. Each jurisdiction has been allocated a block of either 150, 80, 50 or 20 numbers, the size of the block being based on an estimate of the amount of literature that might be held in a British library which was interested in the country concerned. Thus, more numbers are given to countries such as France, India and South Africa than to Chile or Mongolia. Very small countries, whose output of legal literature is not large, and sub-divisions of countries are given smaller blocks of numbers. Tables I and II are used in combination for the detailed arrangement of books within each country. Table I deals with primary materials by form, and Table II is for the subject arrangement of secondary materials. The arrangement of forms and subjects respectively in the tables follows closely that in KF to KN, described above, except that no provision for jurisdictional division is needed. The use of the tables is described in detail below.

Adaptability

Certain special features have been built into the scheme to make it adaptable for use in different kinds of libraries, such as independent libraries of courts, legal societies and law schools as well as the legal sections of general public or academic libraries. These features include the provision of optional numbers for non-legal subjects, an optional class for the law of a preferred country, a method of simplification to help smaller libraries, and certain numbers throughout the scheme being left blank to allow for possible future developments. The scheme attempts to provide places for all books that may be found in an independent law library. As well as law books, such libraries usually have collections of books on related subjects, including sociology, politics and history, and some have substantial collections of literature, philosophy and other subjects. Class KZ has been set aside for this type of material, but it is recommended that if the non-legal collection is substantial, it should be classified by one of the published general classification schemes (simplified as may seem necessary), rather than using class KZ. General libraries should not use class KZ.

Books on a number of subjects very closely connected with law, such as legal bibliography, law libraries, forensic medicine and criminology are likely to be held by any library, general or special, which has a collection of law books. In general classification schemes, some or all of these subjects are placed in non-legal classes, such as bibliography, librarianship, medicine and sociology. General libraries using this scheme should decide whether placing these books in the law class or the other classes will be more convenient for their readers. The numbers provided for these subjects in class K may, therefore, be regarded as optional by general libraries.

The scheme has an obvious English-speaking common law bias, and is more likely to interest libraries in Commonwealth countries than elsewhere. However, in case any library might consider using the scheme, if it were not for the fact that the provision in the schedules for its own jurisdiction was inadequate or unsuitable, a whole class, KP, has been set aside as an optional alternative. This class, which comes between the sections for the common law and the rest of the world, is available so that any library which requires special treatment for the books of its own jurisdiction may achieve this, while using the printed schedules for the remainder of its books. It is therefore possible to withdraw all the volumes for, say, Scotland, Nigeria, New South Wales, Malaya or France from the main schedules and devise a special schedule for them in KP.

Experience shows that a librarian classifying books in a field with which he is relatively unfamiliar usually finds a detailed classification scheme easier to apply than a broad one. Although many legal treatises deal with large branches of

law such as contracts, criminal law or company law, a number of monographs are published every year on relatively detailed topics, such as future interests, charter parties, the continental shelf or Magna Carta. Theses, pamphlets and articles are frequently devoted to similar, or even smaller, segments of law. Therefore the scheme has been worked out in considerable detail. While it is true that monographs are never likely to be published on many of the minor topics listed, no one can tell when an offprint, inaugural lecture or dissertation on any of them may be published. In the notation for these details, decimal numbers have been used on a larger scale than is normal in the Library of Congress scheme. This provides an easy method for small libraries to simplify the scheme. It is suggested that, while large libraries should use the full numbers given, small libraries should ignore most of the decimal numbers, using only the full numbers of which they form the sub-divisions. Further simplification can be achieved by ignoring larger sub-division of subjects, as seems suitable, and placing books under the more general numbers. For example, the schedule for contracts in class KN, omitting the decimal sub-divisions, is:

- KN 10 Contract – General
 - 11 Casebooks
 - Special aspects
 - 13 Formation
 - 14 Parties
 - 15 Enforceable and unenforceable contracts
 - 16 Discharge of contracts
 - 17 Remedies
 - 18 Special kinds of contracts

Any library not wishing to use the full schedule could use KN13 to cover all subjects contained in KN13 to KN18, thus retaining only three numbers, KN10, KN11 and KN13 for contracts. A very small library might decide to put all books on contracts in KN10. This method of simplification can be used very easily at any place in any class. Apart from the omission of decimals, it is not recommended that any of the numbers in the schedules should be abbreviated. As they are in numerical sequence in each class, shortening numbers, unless done with the utmost care, could lead to great confusion. The best procedure is the deletion of blocks of numbers preferring to use the general number which covers the whole section. Additions and changes to the schedules will obviously be needed from time to time, because no classification scheme can provide for all likely future developments in either the subject or its literature. In an effort to make the scheme hospitable to at least some future developments, numbers have been left free throughout the scheme. Where blank numbers are not available, it will be possible to

extend the use of decimal or alphabetical sub-division to provide for some further additions. It is hoped that arrangements can be made for the publication of occasional supplements.

The decimal version

A number of university libraries which use the Dewey Decimal Classification finds the law class unsatisfactory, and it was suggested that a parallel version of the new scheme using decimal notation should be prepared. This required the telescoping of the seventeen legal classes (by definition the non-legal class was not needed) into ten decimal classes. This was simply achieved by putting together in one general class the subjects contained in the first three fairly general classes of the class K scheme, by using a single class instead of three, for common law primary materials, and by combining the four classes allocated to continents into another single class. The result is very different from the Dewey Decimal scheme, whose law class is:

- 340 General and comparative law
- 341 International law
- 342 Constitutional law
- 343 Criminal law subjects sub-arranged by country
- 344 Martial law
- 345 U.S. primary materials
- 346 U.K. and Commonwealth primary materials
- 347 Private law subjects, sub-arranged by country
- 348 Religious law
- 349 Rest of world – primary materials, by country, sub-arranged by form

Although a few minor changes had to be made to the schedules to fit them into the different pattern of the Decimal Classification, the basic shapes of the two versions of the new scheme are very similar:

	K version	Decimal version
General and non-national systems		
Journals and reference books	K)	
Jurisprudence	KA)	340
General and comparative law	KB)	
International law	KC	341
Religious legal systems	KD	342
Ancient and medieval law	KE	343

Modern national legal systems

Common law		
Primary materials	KF–KH	344
Treatises, etc.		
General	KL	345
Public law	KM	346
Private law	KN	347
Own country	KP	348
Other countries	KR–KV	349

In this way, the basic arrangement by legal system has been maintained in the decimal framework, in contrast to the Dewey subject-oriented arrangement. The Dewey scheme's tables of standard divisions for countries are used in classes 344, for common law jurisdictions, and 349 for the rest of the world. For further subdivision of these classes, two tables, similar to Tables I and II in the K version, are provided. Table E gives nine numbers for arranging common law primary materials, and Table F distributes the nine numbers, with some decimal sub-divisions, over the whole field of primary and secondary materials. The resulting numbers are not unduly long, compared with those in some other classes of the Dewey scheme, or with parallel numbers in the K version, e.g.

	K version	Decimal version
English sessional statutes	KF 22	344.42022
US federal administrative decisions	KG 376	344.7308
Victorian state digests	KH 159	344.94509
Egyptian criminal law	KR 533	349.6205
Nigerian property law	KR 1442	349.66907
Indian constitutional law	KT 1577	349.5404
German civil code	KV 1625	349.430141
Soviet labour law	KV 3624	349.47077

The schedules for the remaining classes have been given in outline only, to avoid unnecessary repetition. Any library requiring more detail can subdivide any number decimally, using the K schedules for the subject as a guide. An example is given above, where the number obtained from Table F for German codes is 349.43014, and an extra "1" has been added to indicate civil codes. Similarly, the number for maritime law (common law) is 347.82. Should it be desired to subdivide this, a schedule such as the following could be produced very quickly:

- 347.82 Maritime law
 - .821 Casebooks
 - .822 Shipping, seamen, etc.
 - .823 Collisions at sea
 - .824 Salvage
 - .825 Marine insurance
 - .826 Ports and harbours
 - .827 Carriage of goods by sea
 - .828 Fisheries

How to Use the Schedules

The layout of the schedules and the two notations should be self-evident, with the K notation to the left and the 340 notation to the right of the page. Some words are printed in italics, not to give them special emphasis but to indicate that they are necessary parts of the classification, such as facet indicators, which are not to be used as terms in the index-thesaurus. Most of the remaining terms in the schedules may also be used for alphabetical cataloguing or indexing.

Experienced librarians should encounter no special difficulties in finding their way round the scheme. It is, however, advisable that they should have ready access to a good legal dictionary and should have looked at least one of the introductions to the nature of legal literature which are available to first year law students.

The first step in building up a class number is to determine which legal system is dealt with by the book or document. The nature of the book as either a primary or secondary source is usually obvious. Generally, if it is not one of the types of publications listed in Table I, it can be assumed to be secondary in nature. Primary materials are sub-arranged by legal form: legislation, law reports, etc. Secondary materials are arranged by subject.

It is worth pointing out that books should *never* be classified by reference to the title alone. In the first place, the title frequently gives no indication of the legal system covered. Secondly, as can be seen from a scrutiny of the index-thesaurus, legal terminology includes a considerable number of homographs, such as: charges, defence, discovery, interests, maintenance and security. It is therefore essential to examine the context in which the words of the title operate.

Form or subject

A substantial proportion of modern legal primary sources are published in serial form: current legislation, law reports and the indexes, citators and digests to go with them. As these serial collections cover wide subject areas within their jurisdictions (even such subject-oriented series as *Road Traffic Reports*) they should always be placed in the appropriate form division of the primary sources section for the jurisdiction.

Most individual statutes and regulations are also published separately as individual pamphlets. Any library may obtain copies of all or some of these pamphlets in order to place them on the subject shelves. In this case, they can be easily distinguished from other pamphlet material by using the Table VI,

e.g.

Subject of document Water Act, 1989 (text)

Water	KN90	347.333
Statute (Table VI)	.Z14	.Z14
Full number	KN90.Z14	347.333.Z14

General or specific number

Unless the library has taken a policy decision to use a broad classification (see page 21) books should be classified as specifically as possible. In the schedules, following normal practice, the general precedes the specific. Therefore, numbers following the number which at first sight appears to be correct should always be inspected in case one of them provides a more specific place which fits the book better.

On the other hand, if the book covers several aspects of a subject or several related subjects, it should be placed in the most specific number which encompasses the subjects covered by the book. For example, a book on tax havens should be placed at KM336.75, but if it also dealt at some length with offshore funds and dividend-stripping, it should be placed in the more general number KM336.7.

For a book which deals with the law of two or more jurisdictions, see the notes at the beginning of Comparative Law, KB100/340.5.

Alphabetical sub-division

At some numbers, where logical sub-division has reached its practical limit, the schedules specify alphabetical arrangement, e.g. “By topic, A–Z”, “By city, etc., A–Z”. Usually one or two examples are given, when topic division is specified, leaving the classifier to devise his or her own Cutter numbers, as needed. The examples provided are not intended to be prescriptive.

The cutter numbers are constructed as follows:

after the initial letter S

for the second letter	a	ch	e	hi	mop	t	u
use number	2	3	4	5	6	7–8	9

after other initial consonants

for the second letter	a	e	hil	o	rs	u	wy
use number	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

after initial vowels

for the second letter	abc	dfg	ilm	n	p	r	stu	y
use number	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

For example:

Subject of document The coffee trade

Foreign trade	KN253	or	347.61
Commodities	KN253.8, A-Z		347.616, A-Z
Coffee	.C6		.C6
Full number	KN253.8.C6		347.616.C6

Subject of document International terrorism

International crimes	KC215-8	or	341.36
Others, A-Z	KC218		341.369
Terrorism	.T4		.T4
Full number	KC218.T4		341.369.T4

Where alphabetical arrangement of countries or other jurisdictions is specified, reference should be made to the Cutter numbers provided in the Index of Jurisdictions for the K notation or to the Dewey Decimal Classification geographic table for the 340 version. For example:

Subject of document Australian national legal bibliography

National legal bibliography	K61-76	or	340.04
Australasia, A-Z	K75		
Australia	.A82		(DDC) .94
Full number	K75.A82		340.0494

Subject of document Lives of English judges

Biography	KB10-15	or	340.31-3
Collections, by country	KB11		340.32
England	.E65		(DDC) .42
Full number	KB11.E65		340.3242

Where arrangement by cities or towns is required, Cutter numbers should be supplied by the classifier, for both types of notation. For example:

Subject of document Local government of Vancouver

Local government	KM361-91	or	346.6
Particular cities	KM391		346.69
Vancouver	.V27		.V27
Full number	KM391.V27		346.69.V27

Use of the Tables

Tables I and II

Each non-common law jurisdiction is listed in classes KR to KV, with a block of numbers and a letter against its name in the schedules, e.g. Kenya KR3101-50 (C), Malaysia KT3201-80 (B), France KV1101-1250 (A). A block of numbers has been allocated to each country and the letter indicates which section of Tables I and II is to be used for arranging the material for that country, state, province etc. For class 349 in the decimal version, Table I and II, section F must be used for each jurisdiction.

In applying the Tables, it will be seen that the numbers in Tables I and II follow on from each other, with Table I for primary sources and Table II for the secondary sources of the same jurisdiction. The number found in the Tables is NOT added to the first number in the block, but is SUBSTITUTED into the given block of numbers, as shown by the following examples:

Subject of document Land tenure in Kenya

Kenya	KR3101-50 (C)	or	349.6762
Land tenure (Table IIC)	29.2		(IIF) 0711
Full number	KR3129.2		349.67620711

Subject of document Malaysian tax law

Malaysia	KT3201-80 (B)	or	349.595
Taxation (Table IIB)	32.5		(IIF) 0472
Full number	KT3232.5		349.5950472

Subject of document French civil code

France	KV1101–1250 (A)	or	349.44
Civil code (Table IA)	25		(IF) 0141
Full number	KV1125		349.440141

Subject of document Spanish fisheries law

Spain	KV821–900 (B)	or	349.46
Fisheries (Table IIB)	73		(IIF) 0884
Full number	KV893		349.460884

England and Wales and the United States (federal only) have been provided with full schedules for primary sources at KF1–99 and KG301–99 respectively. For the other common law jurisdictions, as defined on page 8, blocks of numbers are provided for primary materials *only* in classes KF to KH or in class 344. These are sub-arranged by Table I in exactly the same way as is described above, except that for the decimal notation Table IE is used. For example:

Subject of document Constitution of Canada (official text)

Canada (primary materials)	KG1–60(A)	or	344.71
Constitution (text)(IA)	14		(IE) 012
Full number	KG14		344.71012

Subject of document Digest of Victorian law

Victoria (primary materials)	KH141–60(B)	or	344.945
Digests (IB)	19		(IE) 095
Full number	KH159		344.945095

Table III – Dates

This Table for dates may be used at any number where it is desired.

Table IV – Common law jurisdictions

This Table may be used at any relevant number, if required, but there are many places in the schedules where its use is suggested (i.e. *By jurisdiction* [Table IV]).

In each case the range of numbers given for the decimal notation refers to the Dewey Decimal Classification Classification geographic table. For example:

Subject of document The New Zealand legal profession

Common law – general	KL	or	345
Legal profession			
by jurisdiction	KL51–70		170094–9
New Zealand (Table IV)	18		(DDC) 93
Full number	KL68		345.1700993

Table V – Courts

This Table may be used at any number, if required. For example:

Subject of document Procedure in youth courts

Procedure, by court	KN361–9	or	347.921–9
Youth courts (Table V)	7.1		7.1 (10 numbers)
Full number	KN367.1		347.927.1

Subject of document Social security offences in the magistrates' courts

Crimes	KM540–565	or	346.85–88
Offences against public			
finance	KM564		346.886
Social security offences	KM564.5		346.8865
Magistrates courts (Table V)			
1 number	.X53		.X53
Full number	KM564.5.X53		346.8865.X53

Tables VI, VII and VIII

These can be used at any number, if required. For example:

Subject of document Libel actions

Libel	KN38.21	or	347.2481
Actions (Table VI)	.Z7		.Z7
Full number	KN38.21.Z7		347.2481.Z7

Subject of document Women in trade unions

Trade unions	KN195	or	347.48
Women (Table VII)	.Q22		.Q22
Full number	KN195.Q22		347.48.Q22

Subject of document Conference on New Zealand constitutional law

Constitutional law, by jurisdiction	KM61–79	or	346.14–9
New Zealand (Table IV)	18		(DDC) .93
Conference (Table VIII)	.004		.004
Full number	KM78.004		346.193.004

Methods of linking subjects

Complex subjects which cannot be dealt with by using the Tables can be classified by linking the class numbers for their constituent elements, employing the symbols : and + in the same way as in the Universal Decimal Classification. For example a book on sexual discrimination in relation to schools could be KN184.2 : KM208.2, or possibly KM208.2 : KN184.2, whichever arrangement seems to fit the particular book best. In a classified catalogue, both class marks should appear.

A book covering subjects from two different sections of the schedules, and not suitable to be classed under comparative law, could be dealt with by using + to join the two class numbers. For example, a book on the law of scientific research and patents could be either KN184.7 + KN114.1 or KN114.1 + KN184.7.

Terms in the thesaurus can be linked in the same ways (see page 251).

Extending the Tables

It is not possible to reproduce the schedules in any detail in the Tables. Libraries which need more detail are recommended to devise their own extensions to the sections they need. Supposing the library of an organisation specialising in energy resources wishes to classify books on the laws of the OPEC states in the Persian Gulf, such as Kuwait. Class KT gives Kuwait only twenty numbers, KT1101– 2000, to be divided by Table ID and IID, which assigns 16.33 to “Natural resources, energy”, making the number for the subject KT1196.33. This is not likely to be suf-

ficient for the specialist library, so the main schedules should be examined and an extended schedule for Table IID number 16.33 devised, such as:

16.33	Natural resources, energy
16.331	Energy policy
16.332	Coal
16.333	Oil and gas
16.334	Concessions
16.335	Exploration, oil rigs
16.336	Refineries
16.337	Distribution, pipelines, oil tankers
16.338	Alternative energy sources
16.339	Others, A–Z

Thus, oil refineries in Kuwait would be KT1196.336.

Similarly, a library needing more detail for the classification of tax law in South Africa might devise an extended schedule, such as:

South Africa	KR4201–4350
Tax law (Table IIA)	84.5
Normal number	KR4284.5
Extended schedule:	
84.5	Tax law
84.51	Liability to tax
84.52	Types of income
84.53	Types of person (Table VII)
84.54	Assessment, collection, avoidance
84.545	Allowances
84.55	Personal taxes
84.551	Income tax
84.552	Inheritance taxes
84.56	Company taxes
84.57	Capital taxes
84.575	Property taxes, stamp duties
84.58	Indirect taxes
84.585	Sales taxes
84.59	Customs and excise

Thus, income tax in South Africa would be KR4284.551.

We do ask libraries which devise special schedules of this type to post the details on *lis-moys-users*, so that all users will know what is happening. The information would also be invaluable when the next edition is being compiled.

Changed Numbers

The scheme is generally hospitable to new subjects, with the result that relatively few numbers need to be changed from one edition to another. However, for the 5th edition the decision was taken to update the structure of the scheme from KN84/347.326 to KN98.99/347.3599 to allow for the addition of a construction law section and the potential expansion of environmental law and natural resources, which are now adjacent to each other. Inevitably this will be unpopular with some users who may not have the resources to undertake a reclassification project. Anyone in this position is of course at liberty not to implement the changes at this time and to continue as they are, using whatever local adaptation they have adopted to classify materials in this area. Alternatively they could opt to use some of the new numbers (e.g. those for climate change) while leaving the overall arrangement unchanged.

Below is a summary of the basic structure of this part of the scheme, with the new numbers on the left and original numbers on the right, in italics. Classifiers are referred to the Index-Thesaurus and the schedules themselves for more detail.

KN84	Construction law	<i>KN84–88</i>	<i>Natural resources and energy</i>
KN85–88	Landlord and tenant		
KN89–92	Natural resources and energy	<i>KN89</i>	<i>Estate management</i>
KN93	[left unused for future expansion]	<i>KN90–93</i>	<i>Landlord and tenant</i>
KN94	Environmental law		<i>[same]</i>
KN95	Environmental protection		<i>[same]</i>
KN96	Planning		<i>[same]</i>
KN97	Environmental health		<i>[same]</i>
KN98	Agricultural law		<i>[same]</i>
KN99	Agricultural produce		<i>[not used before]</i>

Other changed numbers

4 th edition		5 th edition
K79	Bibliographical research	K32
KN83.8	Building and civil engineering contracts	KN84.4
KN267.3	Third parties (partnerships)	KN267.6
KN308.3	Regulatory bodies	KN309.1
KN308.5	Compliance	KN309

Dewey notation

During the preparation of this edition it was found that the Dewey notation had become muddled in places, leading to duplication of numbers, sequences out of place, and some incorrect Index entries. These have now been corrected and more guidance given where Dewey numbers need to be constructed. One area of the schedules particularly affected is that from Legal dictionaries (currently 340.03) to Legal research, Law reform (currently 340.0894–9) where the sequence has been completely renumbered. Classifiers are referred to the schedules for more detail.

Synopsis

Schedules

K	Journals and Reference Books	340	
1–28	Journals		.01
29–79	Bibliography		.02–04
80–90	Library and information science		.05
100–107	Legal writing, publishing		.06
110–114	Abbreviations, etc		.07
120–126	Dictionaries, etc		.08
140	Encyclopedias (general)		.089
150–180	Directories		.09
200	Maps, etc.		.099
KA	Jurisprudence	340	.1
KB	General and Comparative Law	340	
10–22	Biography, memoirs etc		.31–35
30–35	Legal miscellany		.37
40–66	Popular accounts		.4
100–250	Comparative law		.5–6
KC	International Law	341	
10–65	Primary materials		.11–16
71–76	Reference materials		.17
80–86	General works		.19
	Public international law		
100–136	General, history, theory etc		.2–23
140–199	The State		.24–31
200–209	Human rights		.33
210–219	International criminal law		.35–39
220–239	International economic law		.4–43
240–242	Social laws		.44–442
243	Environmental law		.444–4444

245	Nuclear energy	.448
250–255	Transport	.45
256–259	Communications	.46
260–277	International maritime law	.47–48
280–284	Outer space	.49
300–317	International relations	.5–53
320–329	Diplomacy	.54–5
330–339	Treaties	.56–9
340–1199	International organisations	.6
1200–1319	International disputes, courts etc	.7
1350–1425	War	.8
2000–2150	Conflict of laws	.9

KD	Religious Legal Systems	342
10–39	General	.1
60–890	Jewish law	.2
100–590	Christian churches	.3–6
600–680	Islamic law	.7
700–780	Hindu law	.8
800–980	Others	.9

KE	Ancient and Medieval Law	343
5–20	General	.1
21–29	Ancient Near East	.2
30–95	Hellenistic law	.3
100–250	Roman law	.1
251–300	Byzantine law	.5
310–340	Other ancient European systems	.6
350–380	Medieval and Pre-Napoleonic European law	.7
400–480	Roman–Dutch law	.8
500–540	Others	.9

KF–KN	Common Law	344–347
KF	Primary materials	344
KG	British Isles	
KH	Canada, US, West Indies	

Treatises			
KL	General	345	
1–44	Legal system		.1
50–119	Legal profession		.17
130–149	Legal education		.178
155–179	Legal research, law reform		.19
200–319	Administration of justice		.2–7
400–480	Legal history		.8–9
KM	Public Law	346	
1–29	General		.01
	Constitutional and administrative law		
31–141	General		.1–2
171–207	Citizens		.3–35
208–229	Civil and human rights		.36
231–259	Government		.37–8
300–307	Administrative law		.4
331–359	Public finance, taxation		.5
361–391	Local government		.6
400–416	Military law		.7
	Criminal law and procedure		
500–565	General, crimes		.8
570–690	Criminal procedure, law enforcement		.9
KN	Private Law	347	
(1)–(4)	Conflict of laws (alternative)		(.1–4)
10–25	Contract, agency		.1
30–39	Tort		.2
	Property		
50–58	General		.3–3057
60–98	Real property		.31–35
100–118	Personal property		.36–37
120–143	Inheritance and succession		.38–39
	Persons and social laws		
150–169	Persons		.4
170–176	Family law		.42
180–182	Social services, education		.43–.445
185	Public health, medical law		.446–9

186	Controls in the public interest	.45
190–198	Industrial law and relations	.46
200–235	Equity	.5
	Commercial law	
250–256	General, trade, etc	.6–619
260–279	Business associations, industries	.62–64
280–287	Sale of goods	.65–67
290–295	Insurance	.68–69
300–315	Finance, investment	.7
320–329	Transport (non-maritime)	.81–82
330–338	Maritime law	.86
340–349	Communications law, computer law	.84–89
350–399	Procedure (general and civil)	.9

KP–KW Other Modern Legal Systems

KP	Preferred Jurisdiction	348	
KR	Africa	349	.6
KS	Latin America		.8
KT	Asia And Pacific		.5
KV	Europe		.4
KW	European Union Law (Alternative)		

KZ Non-Legal Subjects

Appendix

Criminology

Tables

I	Primary materials
II	Subjects of law
III	Dates
IV	Common law jurisdictions
V	Courts
VI	Special legal forms and topics
VII	Persons
VIII	Non-legal forms and treatments

Index of Jurisdictions

Index-Thesaurus



Schedules

K Journals and Reference Books 340

Note:

Some general libraries may prefer to place in another part of the library some of the material here, such as Library and Information Science K80–99/340.05 or Dictionaries, K120–6/340.08.

Journals

- | | | |
|----|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|------|
| 1 | <i>By title, A–Z</i> | .01 |
| | Notes: | |
| | 1. As an alternative to placing all journals, regardless of legal topic, country of origin, etc., together in K1, numbers are provided in other classes, e.g. KA1, KF99 and in the Tables. | |
| | 2. Numbers K2–27/340.02–8 are free for the arrangement of journals by language, or other criterion, if desired. | |
| | 3. Indexes to an individual journal should be placed with the journal. | |
| | 4. Some journals include law reports. If the reports predominate, treat as law reports, otherwise as journals. | |
| 28 | Indexes, abstracts (<i>to two or more titles</i>) | .019 |

Bibliography

Notes:

1. Include here library catalogues, union lists, etc.
2. As an alternative to placing subject bibliographies here, numbers are provided in other classes, e.g. KA5, KC71 and in the Tables.

- | | | |
|----|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|------|
| 29 | <i>General and non-legal</i> | .02 |
| 30 | Legal bibliography | .021 |
| 31 | Journals | .022 |
| 32 | Bibliographical research
(For legal research use KL155/345.08) | .023 |
| 40 | <i>Non-national legal systems, etc.</i>
Divide by the main classification, classes
KA–KE/340–343, thus:
Bibliography of jurisprudence:
K40:KA or 340.025:340.1
Bibliography of space law: | .025 |

K	Journals and Reference Books	340
40	<i>Non-national legal systems, etc</i> K40:KC280 or 340.025:341.49	0.25
49–60	<i>Subjects of public and private law</i> Divide by Table IID, e.g. K49.4 Legal profession K52.2 Taxation K57.6 Industrial law	.033-9 (Table IIF) .0331 .03472 .0378
	<i>National legal bibliography</i>	.044-9
61	Commonwealth	(DDC
62	England and Wales (<i>and UK as a whole</i>)	Table 2)
63	Scotland	
64	Ireland	
71	United States	
72	Rest of America, by country, A–Z	
73	Africa, by country, A–Z	
74	Asia and Pacific, by country, A–Z	
75	Australasia, by country, A–Z	
76	Europe, by country, A–Z	
	Library and Information Science	
80	<i>General works</i>	.05
81	Associations	.051
.9	<i>by name, A–Z, e.g.</i> .B5 BIALL	.0519
82	Directories of libraries and librarians by country, A–Z	.052
84	Library administration	.054
.1	Government	.0541
.2	Finance	.0542
.4	Staff	.0544
.5	Buildings, accommodation	.0545
.6	Furniture, equipment	.0546
85	<i>Special types of library operations</i> <i>by operation, A–Z, e.g.</i> .C3 Cataloguing .I5 Information work	.055
86	Use of computers and technology	.056
.2	Systems management	.0562

K	Journals and Reference Books	340
86	Use of computers and technology	.056
.4	Online services	.0564
.6	Library networks	.0566
90	<i>By country, A–Z</i>	.059
	Legal Writing, Legal Publishing	
	(see also Law of publishing KN345/347.88)	
100	Legal language, plain language	.06
.5	Semiotics, law and linguistics	.0605
	(If preferred, use KA70.L5/340.16.L5)	
101	Legal composition, legal opinion writing	.061
102	Palaeography, manuscripts	.062
103	Artificial intelligence	.063
104	Translation	.064
105	Publishing, bookselling	.065
.1	Electronic publishing, desktop publishing	.0651
.2	Authorship, punctuation guides, etc.	.0652
.3	Copy editing	.0653
.5	Proof-reading	.0655
.7	Tabling	.0657
.8	Indexing	.0658
.9	Bookselling	.0659
106	<i>Individual firms, A–Z</i>	.066
107	Directories	.067
	Abbreviations	
110	General lists	.07
112	Legal abbreviations	.072
114	Citation manuals	.074
	(i.e. how to construct or construe citations. Citators should be placed with the appropriate law reports, etc.)	
	Dictionaries	
	(see also Legal dictionaries under jurisdictions)	
120	English, Legal	.08

K Journals and Reference Books 340

Dictionaries

121	Polyglot	.081
122	<i>Other languages, A-Z, e.g.</i>	.082
	.L3 Latin	
123	Synonyms, antonyms, thesauri	.083
124	Proverbs, legal maxims, phrases	.084
125	Quotations	.085
126	<i>Others, A-Z, e.g.</i>	.086
	.C5 Chemistry	
	.E2 Economics	

140	Encyclopedias: General	.089
-----	-------------------------------	------

Directories

(including Who's Whos, Law Lists, etc)

Lawyers

150	<i>Multinational</i>	.09
151	<i>By jurisdiction, A-Z</i>	.091
	Legal associations	
160	<i>General</i>	.092
161	<i>Multinational</i>	.093
162	<i>By jurisdiction, A-Z</i>	.094
165	Higher education, law schools	.095
166	<i>By jurisdiction, A-Z</i>	.096
168	Legal services	.097
180	<i>Non-legal directories, by subject, A-Z</i>	.098

200	Maps, Atlases, Plans	.099
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KA	Jurisprudence	340
(1)	<i>Journals</i> (alternative to K1/340.01)	(.101)
(5)	<i>Bibliography</i> (alternative to K40/340.025)	(.102)
10	<i>General works</i>	.1
	(It is recommended that all general works, regardless of the school of legal theory to which the author subscribes, should be placed here. KA40–49/340.14 should be reserved for critical and historical works about jurists, rather than for their own writings)	
	<i>Special subjects</i>	
19	Historical jurisprudence	.12007
21	Legal concepts	.121
22	Content of law	.122
23	Sources of law	.123
24	Legal personality	.124
25	Legal rights and obligations, liability as a concept	.125
26	Causation	.126
27	Law: The state	.127
28	Judicial process	.128
29	Law: Force	.129
30	<i>Others</i> , A–Z, e.g.	.1295
	.E6 Equality before the law	
34	Rule of law	.1298
35	Justice, natural justice	.13
37	Law: Justice	.132
38	Morality: Justice	.134
40	<i>Schools of legal theory</i>	.14
41	Natural law, social contract	.141
42	Command: law	.142
43	Idealism	.143
44	Positivism	.144
	<i>Political theories of law</i>	
47	Fascist jurisprudence	.145
48	Communist jurisprudence, socialist jurisprudence	.146
49	<i>Others</i> , A–Z, e.g.	.147
	.F4 Feminist	
	.P6 Post modernism	
50	<i>National schools of legal theory by country</i> , A–Z	.1479
55	Legal logic, legal reasoning	.148

KA	Jurisprudence	340
59	Critical legal studies	.149
60	Sociology of law	.15
61	Public opinion : Law	.151
62	Public policy : Law	.152
63	Social psychology	.153
64	Civil rights	.154
65	Civil disobedience, opposition to immoral laws	.155
66	Animal rights	.156
67	Multiculturalism	.157
70	<i>Law in relation to other subjects, by subject, A–Z, e.g.</i>	.16
	.A7 Arts, literature, music	
	.D4 Development	
	.E2 Economics	
	.E3 Education	
	.E8 Ethics	
	.G4 Geography	
	.H5 History	
	.L5 Linguistics, semiotics	
	.P5 Philosophy	
	.P6 Politics	
	.P7 Psychology	
	.S3 Science	
	.S4 Sexuality	
	.S6 Sociology	
90	Law as a profession	.19
	(Place here philosophical works only. For the legal profession in a particular jurisdiction use KL/345 or Table II)	
100–199	Criminology	
	(Optional alternative. The same one hundred numbers, with the “hundred” figure suitably adjusted, can be used at <i>either</i> KB300–399, <i>or</i> KM700–799.)	

The schedule is printed as the Appendix.

KB General and Comparative Law 340

- (1) *Journals* (alternative to K1) (.301)
 (5) *Bibliographies* (alternative to K40/340.025) (.302)

Biography, Memoirs etc.

(As an alternative, biographies reflecting on a particular subject may be placed with the subject, using Table VIII)

Collections

- 10 *General* .31
 11 *By country, A–Z* .32
 15 *Individuals, A–Z* .33
 under each:
 .A1 Autobiography, memoirs
 .A11 Diaries
 .A12 Letters
 .A13 Conversations
 .A14 Speeches
 .A2–Z Biographies, by author or editor
 21 Genealogy .34
 22 Heraldry .35

- 30 **Legal Miscellany, Essays etc.** **.37**
 31 Oratory .371
 32 Poetry, drama .372
 33 Fiction .373
 34 Humorous writings .374
 35 Pictures, sketches, cartoons, photographs .375

Popular Accounts**Note:**

This section is optional, likely to be used by libraries which prefer to keep books intended for laypersons separate from those for professional readers.

- 40 *General* .4
 45 *By jurisdiction, A–Z* .41

KB General and Comparative Law**340****Popular Accounts**

Trials

60	<i>Collections</i>	.42
61	<i>By jurisdiction, A-Z</i>	.43
	<i>Individual</i>	
65	<i>Criminal, by defendant, A-Z</i>	.45
66	<i>Civil, by best known name, A-Z</i>	.46

Comparative Law**Notes:**

1. Place here books which treat in a comparative manner the law of two or more legal systems from different regions (non-common law).
2. For common law jurisdictions, use KL for general works and KM-KN for individual subjects.
3. The distinction between common law and non- common law may be ignored if it seems preferable to keep all such books together.
4. Books which deal with the law on specific subjects in different jurisdictions without comparing them may be treated the same way as comparative works if desired.

100	<i>General works</i>	.5
105	Conferences, by date (Table III) (Place here multinational conferences which are not confined to any particular topic or system of law)	.51
110	Associations	.52
111	<i>Bar associations</i>	.521
112	<i>Others, A-Z</i>	.522
115	Unification of private law (General works only; subjects should be placed in KB161-250/340.6)	.53
120	Civil law : Common law	.54
121	Civil law systems (As a whole and compared with each other. For individual systems use KR-KV/349)	.55

KC International Law

341

	Primary Materials	.1
(1)	Journals (alternative to K1)	(.11)
	Treaties	
	(Texts of treaties, conventions and other international agreements. For works about treaties <i>use</i> KC330–339/341.56–9)	
	<i>Collections</i>	.12
10	General and multilateral, by first word of best known form of citation, A–Z, e.g. .H4 Hertslet’s Commercial Treaties .U5 United Nations Treaty Series	.121
12	<i>By jurisdiction, A–Z</i>	.122
	<i>Single treaties</i>	
	<i>Multilateral</i>	
14	Peace treaties, by date (Table III) then by name e.g. .F19.V4 Versailles Treaty 1919	.124
16	<i>Others</i> , by date (Table III)	.126
18	<i>Bilateral</i> , by date (Table III) then by first named party, A–Z	.128
19	<i>Indexes</i>	.129
	Law reports	
20	<i>General collections</i> (i.e. cases from several courts) by best known citations, A–Z, e.g. .I5 International Law Reports	.13
	International courts	
	(Reports and related official documents only. For works about the courts <i>use</i> KC1210–1249/341.71–4)	
	Permanent Court of International Justice	
21	<i>Official series</i> A–Z, by letter and number	.131.A1–6
22	<i>Unofficial series, collections</i> etc. e.g. .H8 Hudson’s World Court Reports	.131.A7–Z
	International Court of Justice	
23	<i>Official series</i> A–Z, by letter and number or date	.132.A1–4
24	<i>Unofficial series, collections, etc.</i>	.132.A7–Z

KC	International Law	341
27	Inter-American Court of Justice	.133
28	European Court of Justice (May alternatively be placed in KV or KW)	.134
29	European Court of Human Rights	.135
30	European Commission of Human Rights	.1355
35	<i>War crimes courts</i> , A–Z, e.g. .N8 Nuremberg International Military Tribunal	.136
37	<i>Other international courts</i> , A–Z <i>Individual cases</i> , by date (Table III) then by name, e.g. .F27.L6 ‘Lotus’ case, 1927	.137 .138
39	Cases on international law decided by national courts, by jurisdiction, A–Z Arbitration cases etc. (Reports and official documents only. For works about international arbitration use KC1250–79/341.73–4)	
40	<i>General collections</i> Permanent Court of Arbitration	.14 .141
41	<i>Official series</i>	.141.A1–A4
42	<i>Non-official collections</i> , e.g. .S3 Scott’s Hague Court Reports	.141.A7–Z
47	<i>Other “permanent” arbitral bodies</i> , A–Z	.142
48	Claims commissions, mixed arbitral tribunals, <i>ad hoc</i> bodies, A–Z	.143
49	<i>Individual cases</i> , by date (Table III) e.g. .E93 Behring Sea fisheries, 1893 Digests, indexes	.148
50	<i>Serially published</i> , by title, A–Z	.15
55	<i>Others</i> , by editor or compiler, A–Z	.155
	International conferences	
60	<i>Collections</i>	.161
65	<i>Individual conferences</i> , by date (Table III) e.g. .F44 Dumbarton Oaks Conference, 1944 under each: .A1–5 Official reports, proceedings etc. .A6–Z Non-official publications	.165

KC International Law 341

70	Reference Materials	.17
(71)	Bibliographies (alternative to K40)	(.171)
72	Dictionaries	.172
73	Encyclopedias	.173
	Directories	
	(Diplomatic and consular personnel etc.)	
75	<i>International</i>	.175
76	<i>By country, A–Z</i>	.176
	International Law as a Whole	
	(i.e. both public and private)	
80	<i>General works</i>	.19
82	Sources	.192
.1	International custom	.193
86	International law: municipal law	.196
	Public International Law	
100	<i>General works</i>	.2
	Legal history	
102	<i>General works</i>	.21
	<i>By period</i> , under each classic author, except Grotius:	
	.A1 Collected works	
	.A2 Selections	
	.A3–Z4 Individual works, by title	
	.Z5–Z9 Biography and criticism	
103	<i>Up to about 1500 AD</i>	.211
104	<i>1500 AD to Grotius</i>	.212
	(e.g. Machiavelli, Vittoria, Belli, Ayala, Suarez, Gentili)	
105	Grotius (1583–1645)	.213
	De Jure Belli ac pacis	
.1	Texts, <i>by editor</i> , A–Z	.2131
.2	Commentary and criticism	.2132

KC	International Law	341
105	Grotius (1583–1645)	.213
.3	Other texts, A–Z	.2133
.5	General biography and criticism	.2135
106	<i>From Grotius to about 1814</i>	.214
	(e.g. Zouche, Pufendorf, Bynkershoek, Wolff, Vattel)	
	The State	
107	1815–1900	.215
108	1901–1918	.216
109	1919–1945	.217
110	1946–	.218
	<i>Theory and practice of international law by particular groups</i>	
121	Fascists, Nazis etc.	.221
122	Communists, socialists, etc.	.222
123	<i>By country, A–Z, e.g.</i>	.223
	.J17 Japanese practice of international law	
124	<i>Others, A–Z, e.g.</i>	.224
	.C3 Catholic	
	.I8 Islamic	
	<i>Special aspects</i>	.23
130	Codification	.231
132	Consent	.232
133	Compliance	.233
135	Individuals (as subjects of international law, <i>see also</i> Human rights KC200–8/341.33)	.235
136	Supranationality	.236
140	The State	.24
141	<i>As a physical entity</i>	.25
142	National territory	.252
.1	Accretion (e.g. creation of polders)	.2521
.2	Discovery	.2522
.3	Occupation (Civil only; for military occupation <i>use</i> KC1400/341.87)	.2523
.4	Settlement	.2524
.5	Colonisation	.2525
.6	Annexation	.2526
.7	Conquest	.2527
143	Frontiers	.253

KC	International Law	341
144	National waters	.254
.1	Territorial sea	.2541
.2	Continental shelf	.2542
.3	Exclusive economic zones	.2543
.5	Drainage basins	.2545
	(For national airspace <i>use</i> KC253.3/341.4531)	
145	Islands	.255
.1	Artificial islands	.2551
146	Landlocked states	.256
150	<i>As a legal entity</i>	.26
151	Sovereignty	.261
.1	Act of State	.2611
152	Equality	.262
153	<i>Status of special types or groups of states</i>	.263
.1	Commonwealth	.2631
.2	Federations	.2632
.3	Papacy	.2633
.4	Micro-states	.2634
154	Dependent states	.264
.1	Colonies	.2641
.2	Protectorates	.2642
.3	Mandates	.2643
.4	Trust territories	.2644
.5	Leased territories	.2645
.6	Condominiums	.2646
.7	International zones	.2647
.8	Associated states	.2648
155	Partition	.265
156	Mergers	.266
160	State succession	.27
161	Transfer of sovereignty	.271
162	Self-determination, referendums	.272
163	New states, division of states	.273
164	Recognition	.274
170	Servitudes	.28
171	Extraterritoriality	.281
172	Concessions	.282
173	Free zones	.283

KC	International Law	341
174	Neutralised zones, demilitarised zones	.284
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