"""" "Current comments"

"Hi-Fi" Lists in ASCA System Reduce Noise While Measuring Research Activity

October 11, 1972

On numerous occasions I have referred to ISI®'s Automatic Subject Citation Alert (ASCA®) system, a computerized system for selective dissemination of information. 1-3 Of particular interest is the list of high-frequency or "hi-fi" words that is used by subscribers to construct their personal information profiles.

The hi-fi list is quite important. It not only helps determine the cost of the profile, but also tells the user how frequently he can expect certain words to appear in article titles, and how often selected articles, authors, or books, etc., will be cited in their bibliographies. The hi-fi list, therefore, is an effective tool for cost-sharing among ASCA users.

But the hi-fi list is also a potentially useful guide for the historian or sociologist in monitoring the growth or decline of research fields. For example, the increased occurrence of *prostaglandins* reflects the increased research on that topic.

In addition to 3200 hi-fi words, the ASCA instructional brochure includes a list of most frequently cited authors, articles, and books. Thus, while only a small number of such papers and books (about 60) are on the hi-fi list, they provide an interesting insight into the distri-

bution of research methodologies and concerns. Previously, I have listed the most cited papers,4 books,5 and authors 4 for 1967. Most of these were still on the hi-fi list for 1970! But the emergence of papers such as Rosenfeld's work on resonant states 6 indicates the kind of "monitoring" that is only possible using hi-fi data on highly cited papers. For certain fields, cited references may be the only reasonable means available for such monitoring studies. As the activity in certain fields grows, certain terms become less useful. Thus the term prostaglandins will not identify all pertinent papers and neither will the key or primordial papers in that field.

Each week the ASCA subscriber receives a personal computer printout listing all items retrieved by matching his profile against the week's input to the ISI data base. ASCA can search by specific "subject" words or phrases—or even parts of words—and by the names of journals, organizations, authors, and cited articles or books

While ASCA is unique among alerting and retrieval systems for a variety of reasons, its pricing system is worth noting here. While a minimum subscription fee is charged, each subscriber pays only for

what he orders. Those with simple requirements do not subsidize those with more complex profiles. The charge for a standard word in an ASCA profile is \$7.00 a year, but hi-fi words like blood, DNA, reflex, NMR, etc., cost more. They will retrieve more "hits" and therefore require more computer time. But when hi-fi words are used in combination, their cost is about the same as most standard words. Thus, information and retrieval, both high-frequency words, would cost \$47 and \$9 respectively when used alone, but in combination cost only \$13. Used as the "phrase" information retrieval (with which you'd miss retrieval of information) the cost is only \$10. These subtleties of profile construction are fully discussed in the ASCA instructional brochure, and frankly leave some people cold. That is why ISI has a team of information scientists to help with profile details.

As computer memories become cheaper and faster to use, the cost-sharing ramifications of our ASCA pricing policies may change. But the use of the hi-fi list provides a necessary degree of restraint so that each individual profile produces a reasonable slice of the current literature of science.

It has been suggested that the ISI high-frequency list be published in a scientific journal. We expect to publish some papers on word frequencies in scientific and technical vocabularies. In the meantime, anyone interested in the hi-fi list can write me for a gratis copy. A reprint request card will suffice, or you can use the OATS® card or form in this issue of CC.®

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citation indexing, historio-bibliography, and the sociology of science

by Eugene Garfield, Ph.D., President Institute for Scientific Information

It is indeed an honor to have been asked by the Scientific Committee to replace my friend and colleague, Professor Derek de Solla Price, as the speaker on this occasion. I gladly accepted the challenge, but I cannot provide his unique blend of wit, humor, and scholarship. Both Professor Price and Professor Robert K. Merton serve on the Advisory Board of the Science Citation Index as representatives of the 'Scientists of Science' — the name for a new breed of sociometrist concerned with the historical, sociological, economic, and behavioral study of science and scientists.

In contrast to Price who has 'turned' from history to bibliography, or Merton who has similarly 'turned' from sociology to find gold in the hills of bibliotopia, I am the bibliographer turned historiographer and sociometrist. I, therefore, will not display the 'traditional' scholarship of the medical historian who has painstakingly examined each and every relevant ancient manuscript pertinent to his chosen field.

Indeed, my objective is to show that so-called traditional scholarship is an exercise that is 80% drudgery and 20% intellectuality. To write history, today as in the past, one must be capable of martyr-like perseverance. It is a back-breaking chore to identify and obtain suitable library materials. One of my library professors at Columbia University once said that the availability of a comprehensive citation index would probably abort 90% of the dissertations in the humanities and social sciences. My purpose is to show that he was correct to the extent that many dissertations are awarded as a sign of completing the monastic sentence of years of toil in the stacks of libraries.

When I agreed to speak, I wrote the Secretary-General that I would use the occasion to report to the medical library profession certain basic ideas I had first reported three years ago at the Symposium on the Foundations of Access to Knowledge (Garfield, 1968) in a paper entitled "World Brain" or "Memex?" Mechanical and intellectual requirements for universal bibliographic control. In spite of the essential novelty of these ideas for most of you, I could not, however, in clear conscience merely paraphrase or parrot material that is three years old. This would be disrespectful to the importance of such an international conclave. I will, therefore, limit my initial remarks to a brief presentation of the basic notions involved in comparing primordial citations, subject indexing, and historio-bibliography. I will then present some interesting new data generated since my first public discussion of primordial citations. Not the least of this is a list of the 50 most frequently cited journal articles and a recently compiled history of DNA updated since I first reported the history of the genetic code using citation analysis (Garfield et al., 1964).

The appearance of the first 'experimental' Science Citation Index in 1963 created a mild furor in the literature. Not all the reviews were unfriendly: Professor Steinbach (1964), using a group of graduate students to help him review the SCI, said in Science:

Any real evaluation of Science Citation Index must be based on an extensive use test, and there has not been time for that. Most of us are accustomed to literature searches

that begin with a subject. This, of course, presents real problems if one wishes complete coverage of the subject, because subject matter indexes are no better than the choice of words indexed. However, we are used to them — like an old shoe, they are comfortable.

On the other hand, a number of so-called reviews were in fact emotional and fearful responses to something quite different on the bibliographical scene - like a pair of new shoes. Most scientists and librarians, although working together on the frontiers of knowledge, are basically conservative. They are, after all, only human and so am I. I can justify my own immodesty by referring to Professor Merton's recent AAAS paper (1969) in which he states that a scientist need not hide his vanity because it is quite healthy. The negative acclaim the SCI received by experts such as Cleverdon (1964) only convinced me that the SCI would be recognized as a milestone in medical and scientific bibliography. Like the savants of the last century who proved that airplanes could not fly, citation indexes should not work. But they do! This is not to say that there is not plenty of room for improvement. I find it hard to predict what the supersonic version will be. Possibly the major contribution of the SCI is that it contains a truly up-to-date calendar year author index - the Source Index. The Source Index is valuable not only in the process of citation verification and search by author, but will eventually become the means for correcting thousands of authorintroduced citation errors that plague librarians every day.

A major semantic difficulty in discussing library systems is caused by the practice among librarians and others, particularly physicians and engineers, of lumping together two distinct problems of information retrieval — information recovery and information discovery (Garfield, 1966). Most scientists use author catalogs to find books they know exist. This I call information recovery. In this sense, the English word retrieval' is similar to the French word retrouver 'to find again'. Scientists rarely use subject catalogs to recover books. Many librarians have, therefore, justifiably asked why we spend so much money creating them (Gore, 1966). On the other hand, it is known that scientists do make use of periodical indexes. Subject indexes facilitate the process of information discovery — finding what is not known at the outset to exist. When the Science Citation Index entered the bibliographic scene, it added another means for accelerating information discovery. It is no surprise that the SCI appealed, at first, primarily to the adventuresome scholar who uses all sorts of serendipitous devices (Lederberg, 1959; Smith, 1964; Stonehill, 1965). This type of man is usually glad to discover the unexpected.

At first the librarian found SCI somewhat alien. Not only does a page of the Citation Index look strange (it could not have been otherwise), but the results of a search often seem equally strange. One cannot evaluate the results of many SCI discovery searches in exactly the same way that one can evaluate the traditional tool for information recovery. In retrospect, therefore, it is equally understandable that one of the major uses by librarians of the Citation Index, for which it was not designed, is citation verification. The intuition of the medical librarian on this is justified. In the seven years for which we now have citation indexes, an incredibly large percentage of the entire medical literature has been cited. There is a high but varying probability that, depending upon the year in which the paper was published, the citation one is at-

tempting to verify will be found in the SCI. Of 2,000,000 items cited in 1968 alone, about 25% or half a million were published in 1966 and 1967. This would account for a very substantial percentage of the items indexed in Index Medicus, Chemical Abstracts, Biological Abstracts, and Excerpta Medica combined. More importantly, it is as a tool for information discovery that the Citation Index section of the SCI must be evaluated. Regrettably, we do not have any established criteria for such measurement. Just as beauty is said to be in the eyes of the beholder, relevance is a quite subjective variable for the bibliographic explorer. What is relevant to one investigator is irrelevant to another.

One can develop methods for studying the overall retrieval effectiveness of the SCI and other indexes in well-defined search topics. For an extensive literature search on Thalidomide, Spencer (1967) compared the time of search with SCI to Chemical Abstracts and Index Medicus. Though favorable to SCI, such studies, however, have not revealed why the SCI, depending upon the circumstances, may or may not be very effective at all. Of course, we can conduct user evaluations in which users express general satisfaction or dissatisfaction, but this does not necessarily help us understand the fundamental conceptual problem of subject analysis.

To understand what is being retrieved in an SCI search, we have to recognize the underlying concept which is merely symbolized by a bibliographic citation. As librarians, our traditional concept of a 'subject' is so ingrained that we fail to realize that a word is merely a symbol for a concept. Chemists fall into the same trap and often forget that a chemical formula is only symbolic of the 'real' thing. Words, formulas, and citations are approximations. Furthermore, semanticists know that no two occurrences of the same word or symbol are identical. A subject heading or a key word functions as an approximation which is usually about one order of magnitude less specific than the approximation made by using a bibliographic citation as an indexing term. Citation indexing is not only 'in-depth' indexing as contrasted to the 'in-breadth' indexing of permuterm indexes, but the type of unique specificity the citation index provides is, at times, alarming to the traditional searcher. Indeed, a completely negative result in searching the indexes for current references to a particular paper or book may be exactly what the user expects or wants. Unfortunately, we have no standard of comparison for evaluating indexing systems in this respect.

To evaluate the specificity of citation indexing, one must translate a citation search question from the language of the citation index into the language of the word index. This is not easy, but when the attempt is made one recognizes that, as an indexing language, citation indexing also exhibits the characteristics of other indexing languages. For example, the see references and see also references contained in a typical controlled thesaurus can also be incorporated into citation indexes. As we will see later, in order to bridge the gap between the two indexing languages, I developed the concept of the primordial term — including primordial citations and primordial words.

One might ask why the term 'key citation', by analogy to 'key word', was not chosen. When I first used the noun phrase 'primordial citation' (Garfield, 1968), it was my intention that we design a dictionary of key citations. The dictionary would enable the librarian or student to make the transition from the symbolism of words

| | TOTAL | | | | | |
|----------|-------|-------------------------|-------------------------|-----|------------|------|
| | TIMES | | | | | |
| RANK | CITED | AUTHOR | JOURNAL | VOL | PAGE | YEAR |
| 1 | 2383 | LOWRY OH | J BIGL CHEM | 193 | 266 | 81 |
| 2 | 654 | RE YNOLDS ES | JCELL BIOL | 17 | 708 | 63 |
| 3 | 561 | LUFT JH | J BIOPHYS BIOCHEM CY | | 400 | 61 |
| • | 516 | FISKE CH | J BHOL CHEM | | 375 | 25 |
| | 467 | FOLCH J | J BAOL CHEM | 776 | 487 | 57 |
| 4 | 444 | BRAY GA | ANAL BIOCHEM | 1 | 279 | 80 |
| , | *** | SABATHNI DO | J CELL BIOL | 17 | 19 | 63 |
| • | 381 | SPACKMAN DH | ANAL CHEM | 70 | 1190 | 58 |
| • | 364 | GORNALL AG | 1 BIOL CHEM | 177 | 751 | 4 |
| 10 | 333 | LINEWEAVERM | J AMER CHEM SOC | 14 | | 34 |
| ** | 206 | BURTON K | BIOCHEM 1 | 62 | 315 | 54 |
| 12 | 276 | DUNCAN DB | BIOMETRICS | ** | , | 66 |
| 13 | 274 | SCHEIDEGGER M | INT ARCH ALLERGY APP | , | 103 | 54 |
| 14 | 241 | DOLE VP | J CLIM INVEST | 36 | 190 | 14 |
| 15 | 276 | DAVIS 83 | ANN NY ACAD SCI | 121 | 404 | 84 |
| 16 | 273 | MELSON N | J BIOL CHEM | 183 | 375 | 44 |
| 17 | 223 | REEDLJ | AMER JHYG | 27 | 493 | - |
| 18 | 218 | MOORHEAD PS | EXP CELL RES | 20 | 613 | 80 |
| 19 | 217 | MARMUR J | / MOL BIOL | 3 | 708 | 81 |
| 20 | 207 | JACOB F | J MOL BIOL | 3 | 318 | 61 |
| 21 | 703 | WATSON ML | J BIOPHYS BIOCHEM CY | 4 | 476 | 54 |
| 22 | 187 | PALADE GE | JEXP MED | | 265 | 62 |
| 23 | 182 | KARNOVSKY MJ | 1 BIOSHAZ BIOCHEM CA | 11 | 720 | 61 |
| 24 | 187 | MARTIN AG | J BIOL CHEM | 230 | 1377 | 61 |
| 25 | 175 | SMITHIES O | SHOCHEMI | 61 | 639 | 66 |
| 26 21 | 163 | BARTLETT GR | J BIOL CHEM | 234 | *** | |
| 20 | 162 | BARKER SE | J BHOL CHEM | 138 | 636 | 41 |
| 2 | 156 | EAGLE H ROSENFELD AM | SCIENCE REV MOD PHYS | 130 | 487 | 20 |
| 2 | 156 | GELLMANN M | PHYS REV | 126 | 1027 | |
| 31 | 153 | TREVELYAN ME | NATURE LOND | 126 | 1007 | 67 |
| 20 | 140 | WARREN L | | | 1971 | |
| ñ | 140 | ANDREWS P | SHOCKEM 1 | 757 | 772 | ** |
| × | 130 | MONOD | 1 MOL BIOL | 12 | <i>'''</i> | = |
| 2 | 136 | SCHMIDT G | | 161 | = | |
| 3 | 150 | BARDEEN J | 1 BIOF CHEM | | 1175 | 45 |
| 57 | 134 | DEDUVE C | BIOCHEM | 100 | 804 | 67 |
| ű. | 151 | EARPLUS M | 1 CHEM PHYS | - 5 | 777 | = |
| 5 | 131 | AHLOUIST AP | AM / PHYSIOL | .53 | - | = |
| = | 130 | DUBOIS M | ANAL CHEM | '~ | = | 2 |
| 7. | 120 | ELLMAN GL | ARCH BIOCHEM BIOPHYS | - 2 | 70 | = |
| 42 | 123 | WARRUNG D | BIOCHEM 2 | 310 | | 7 |
| 43 | 175 | GELLMANN M | PHYSICS | 370 | = | 2 |
| * | 124 | MANDELL JO | ANAL BIOCHEM | • | = | = |
| = | 123 | DOLE VP | 18IOF CHEM | | 766 | |
| = | 177 | LITCHFIELD ST | JPHARMAC EXP THER | 72 | 7045 | |
| 7 | 122 | MILLONIGG | APPL PHYSICS | 3 | 16.77 | - |
| ~ | 110 | FRIEDEMANN TE | J BIOL CHEM | 147 | 415 | 43 |
| - | 110 | MOORE S | 1 BIOL CHEM | 211 | 807 | |
| 2 | 110 | AFFE HH | CHEM REA | 711 | 181 | : |
| - | | | C | | | -3 |

Fig. 1. Fifty most cited articles for 1967, ranked according to total times cited. (Refer to Appendix A)

to the symbolism of citations. Ordinarily, the subject expert does not require this assistance. The dictionary of key citations, however, soon became the dictionary of primordial citations for several reasons which are discussed below. But first I wish to note that a major portion of the work on this dictionary has now been completed as we have thus far compiled lists of the 20,000 most frequently cited papers for a five-year period. In Fig. 1, I have provided the list of 50 papers most frequently cited in the scientific literature during 1967. (See Appendix A for the titles of these papers.) Although I will not comment in detail on each paper, I do want to point out that many of these particular papers are methodological. In retrospect, one expects that such method papers will be frequently cited, but it comes as a surprise that they predominate so strongly. Furthermore, the age of these papers is even more dramatic, illustrating how today's research still depends upon methods and theories developed in previous generations. While examining the list of 'super-classics', as Professor Price (1965) would call them, one notices that the theoretical and other fundamental discovery papers also appear on the list. As we will see later, papers like these can be identified with the key events in the history of science or medicine. The predominance of biologically-oriented papers in contrast to those in the physical sciences is, of course, not a measure of the relative 'importance', social or otherwise, of molecular biology as contrasted to solid state physics. It probably simply reflects the quantitative differences in and character of publication in these areas.

But why is it not possible to construct a dictionary of key citations? Why a dictionary of primordial citations? We can, of course, in many cases associate a key

word with a key paper. The neologism 'euphenics', first used by Lederberg in 1963, can, of course, be used as a cross-reference to that paper. The underlying concept of euphenics, however, was known long before that time.

Many primordial citations identify key medical discoveries although, at the time of the discovery, an appropriate nomenclature was not even available. Consider the classical case of diabetes and the discovery of insulin by Banting and Best (Fig. 2).

- A. BANTING, F. G. and Best, C. H. (1922), Pancreatic extracts. J. Lab. clin. Med., 7, 464.
- B. BANTING, F. G. (1925), Nobel Prize Lecture.
- C. BANTING, F. G., BEST, C. H. and MACLEOD, J. J. R. (1922), The internal secretion of the pancreas. Amer. J. Physiol., 59, 479.
- D. BANTING, F. G. and BEST, C. H. (1922), The internal secretion of the pancreas. J. Lab. clin. Med., 7, 251.
- E. BANTING, F. G., BEST, C. H., COLLIP, J. B., MACLEOD, J. J. R. and NOBLE, E. C. (1922), The effect of pancreatic extract (insulin) on normal rabbits. *Amer. J. Physiol.*, 62, 162.
- F. BANTING, F. G., BEST, C. H., COLLIP, J. B., MACLEOD, J. J. R. and NOBLE, E. C. (1922), The effects of insulin on experimental hyperglycemia in rabbits. *Amer. J. Physiol.*, 62, 559.
- G. BANTING, F. G., BEST, C. H., COLLIP, J. B., CAMPBELL, W. R. and FLETCHER, A. A. (1922), Pancreatic extracts in the treatment of diabetes mellitus, Canad. med. Ass. J., 12, 141.
- H. SCHMIDT, J. E. (1959), Medical Discoveries (Who and When), p. 237. Thomas, Springfield, Ill.
- 1. SKINNER, H. A. (1961), The Origin of Medical Terms, p. 228. Williams and Wilkins, Baltimore.
- J. DEMEYER, J. (1908), Glycolyse, hyperglycemic, glycosuric et diabete. J. Méd. Brux., 13, 778.
- K. Best, C. H. (1960), Epochs in the history of diabetes. In: R. H. Williams (Ed), Diabetes, p. 1. Harper and Row, New York.
- L. Best, C. H. (1963), In: C. H. Best (Ed) Selected Papers of Charles H. Best. Univ. of Toronto Press, Toronto.

Fig. 2. Bibliography on insulin (Banting and Best).

The association between diabetes mellitus and pancreatic defect was known for nearly 30 years prior to the discovery of insulin. In a historical review (A), Banting and Best refer to an early success by George Ludwig Zuelzer, a German physician who isolated a crude pancreatic extract in 1908. This Zuelzer used to treat diabetes in several patients and some improvement was noted. Unpredictable side reactions and failure by others led to abandonment of this treatment. Until then diabetic control had been limited to carbohydrate deprivation. The dietetic approach eventually produced starvation, overwhelming infection, coma, and death. As shown in Fig. 2, the first hint of their historic discovery, according to Banting's Nobel Prize lecture (B), appears in the December 1921 Proceedings of the American Physiological Society. This report was later abstracted and expanded in two journal articles in 1922 (C, D) under the title 'Internal secretion of the pancreas'. The word 'insulin' was not used. In another research paper (E) which followed, however, the word 'insulin' does appear in the title but in parenthesis after the expression 'pancreatic extract'. In a research paper subsequently published (F), the word 'insulin' is used and 'pancreatic extract' is omitted.

Banting and Best do not give their reason for coining the word. The point I wish to stress is that the first case report of the clinical use of insulin which is often cited as a classic (G) did not contain the word 'insulin'.*

'Insulin' first appears as a main index word in the 1923 2nd Quarter Index Medicus.

[•] In extensively reviewing medical histories, Best's memoirs, etc. (K, L), my colleague, Dr.

Gene Joslin mentions a 1921 notebook of Best in which the word 'isletin' is used and that Banting and Best used the word 'insulin' orally two months after publication of the classical 1922 paper published in the Canadian Medical Association Journal.

The important point I am trying to stress in this typical example of what structural linguists call the process of analogous linguistic change is that primordial citations must be distinguished from primordial words. Only an a posteriori intellectual effort can clearly identify what might then be called a 'key' citation. For any student who wants a quick identification of the classical paper on the clinical use of insulin mentioned above, The Dictionary of Primordial Citations will be extremely useful. The reverse may also be true. The paper or book with which a concept may become identified may appear many years after the term is in vogue or being heavily used. In fact, many times no clearly identifiable citation is associated with the word. As any etymologist knows, to identify the first occurrence of a word or phrase is no small task; and each particular subsequent use, whether in lay usage or in scientific usage, is only a shade different than the previous use.

To amplify the difficulties in correlating complex concepts with traditionally word-structured indexing languages, consider the concept 'protein determination by the Folin phenol reagent', sometimes referred to as the 'Lowry method'. In Fig. 1, we saw that this was first reported in 1951 and the paper is the most frequently cited work in the 1967 literature. No term for it exists in the Medical Subject Headings List (MeSH) of Index Medicus. The symbol Lowry 1951 JBC, however, adequately identifies the concept. The symbol Lowry 1951, JBC vol. 193, p. 265 also identifies its exact address! Unquestionably, Index Medicus does provide for indexing papers on protein determination methods, but that is a vastly more generic concept than the Lowry method or derivates thereof.

Perhaps this does not seem particularly important in a medical index, but does it seem unreasonable that a researcher might ask for papers in which the Lowry method has been employed in cancer research? From the number of papers on this topic alone, one must conclude that the depth of indexing this implies is necessary, and further, we must find ways to bridge the gap between citation indexes and word indexes. The Dictionary of Primordial Citations can help resolve some of these problems, but must be limited to those citations which by definition have become classics. We can only hope to develop the word synonyms or equivalents for each of about 20,000 of the most frequently cited papers each year — about 1% of all the papers that are cited. Should we attempt to establish key or primordial citations for those older words or word phrases which occur most frequently? Clearly, this is an entirely

Richard Torpie of Hahnemann Medical College was unable to find mention of the decision to use the word 'insulin'. Schmidt (H), however, ascribes to Jean de Meyer, a French physiologist, the term insuline, circa 1909. Skinner (I) reminds us that the word 'insulin' is a derivative of the Latin insula' island'. Of course, the active ingredient is derived from the Islands or Islets of Langerhans of the pancreas. De Meyer states that it was Schaefer who presupposed in 1913 that the Islands of Langerhans were responsible for the active principle long before the extract was obtained. Banting, Best, and MacLeod isolated the substance in Toronto in 1921 and used the name 'insulin' for their extract. We could not locate any article by Schaefer; de Meyer, however, did write on the subject of diabetes (J). Of significance, too, is the methodical citation by Banting and Best of Langerhans' discovery in all their early work.

different and possibly futile exercise. Frequency of word usage in scientific titles or traditional indexing languages is not going to provide a necessarily useful approach to the current literature. The historian would have great interest in knowing the primordial citations for words like 'cancer', 'liver', etc., but the searcher interested in some specialized aspect of cancer or liver research would not be aided significantly by such devices. In any case, extremely useful by-products can be obtained from large-scale word-frequency analyses. Before discussing these, let me cite a current example which illustrates why citation language is essential to current information retrieval.

Suppose that a physician comes to your library and requests current information on the 'Chinese Restaurant Syndrome'. This might seem like a jest, but in fact just last year it was discussed in the New England Journal of Medicine (Schaumburg et al., 1968) and later in Science (Schaumburg et al., 1969). The topic has also been discussed recently in the New Scientist under the dubious heading of 'Kwok's disease' (Chedd, 1969). These reference citations will continue to be useful citation index headings to help scientists retrieve information on this topic. But how will the medical librarian bridge the gap between the terms 'CRS' or 'Kwok's disease' and these primordial citations? We were acutely conscious of this gap between the indexing language of the citation index and the natural language of science when we introduced the concept of permuterm indexing.

The Permuterm Subject Index section of the SCI, which is still relatively unknown to many medical librarians, is based upon title words. PSI is obviously related to the Key-Word-in-Context (KWIC) index which has become so widely known through its use in Biological Abstracts and Chemical Titles (Luhn, 1959). Since KWIC and KWOC—or Key-Word-Out-of-Context index, not to be confused with Kwok's disease—are both title-derived, there are certain similarities between them and PSI. Their differences, however, are equally significant.

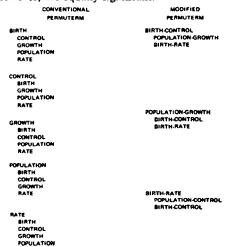


Fig. 3. Permuterm indexing of 'Control of population growth and birthrate'.

In the Permuterm Index every significant title word is permuted, not merely rotated as in KWIC, to produce all possible pairs of terms. Thus, approximately n(n-1) term pairs are created by this procedure. In a title containing six significant words, thirty pairs are created; for five terms, twenty pairs are created.

In very recent work we have developed modified permuterm computer programs which automatically or algorithmically generate 'logical' subdivisions in an index. This approach, like our studies of citation frequency, is based on purely quantitative measures of word co-occurrences. These frequency analyses establish semantically useful word phrases and word pairs. Such analyses should not be confused with textual word-frequency studies. We have recently completed a statistical analysis of several million word and word-phrase occurrences for the 300,000 titles appearing in the 1967 SCI Source Index. These titles are the initial input for the Permuterm Subject Index.

It is important to observe that when one seeks information on a highly specific topic, it makes very little difference, except for format considerations, whether or not he uses a KWIC or a permuterm index. If only one or two articles are identified in any system, then one can quickly scan the article title. Most scientists reject KWIC indexes precisely on the grounds of format. Secondly, and more importantly, when one searches a subject for which there are dozens of articles, one needs subdivisions to narrow the search to a few pertinent items. This is largely achieved in the format of the PSI. But the pure permutation of significant title words does not contend with the peculiar word or noun-phrase constructions of the English language. This is sometimes aggravated by omission of punctuation marks. Thus, consider the importance of the comma in the sentence, 'Doctor X, while distilling alcohol, was consumed'. Contrast this to 'Doctor X, while distilling, consumed alcohol' and 'Doctor X consumed distilling alcohol'. 'Distilling' and 'distilling alcohol' are quite distinct semantic concepts and ideally one wishes to preserve such distinctions. In an index one may sacrifice such distinctions to increase overall retrieval effectiveness and indexing economy.

How exciting to find that, by large-scale statistical analysis, the frequency of such unwanted co-occurrences is limited to an extremely small number. If one establishes a minimum threshold of co-occurrence, then legitimate word phrases are identified. If two consecutive words occur in titles x or more times, then that word pair has been established as a legitimate word phrase. Thus, while 'distilling alcohol' might in fact occur only once or twice, if the sequence did occur ten times, it would prove to be a useful primary indexing term! This seemingly innocuous discovery has great significance for the efficient design of indexes, since we can now reduce the number of permutations while increasing retrieval speed and specificity.

Consider the indexing of 'Control of population growth and birthrate' (Fig. 3). Whereas a concept like 'birth control' would appear as two primary terms by pure and simple permutation, the procedure described above automatically indexes this title under birth-control. Unfortunately, the procedure is not all that simple because we do not wish to separate the term 'birth-control' from 'control-of-birth'. It is precisely with this in mind that one must perform the frequency analyses after the permutation process and then reassign the indexing terms once the appropriate word

pairs have been identified. This procedure resolves the problem of conjunctive phrases in which one finds expressions such as 'control of population growth and birth rate'. By the procedure I have just described, such an article will be indexed under birth-control, birth-rate, population-growth, etc., whereas previously, the primary terms would be birth, control, growth, rate. In other words, the computer first examines the twenty word pairs created by permutation and replaces the single-term entries by the hyphenated expressions once it is determined that the word pair occurs above a given threshold.

Fig. 3 shows the indexing terms which would result from the second procedure, depending upon the statistics one might find for a particular file of information. All high-frequency term pairs would be cross-referenced to the appropriate term since they now function as primary terms. Thus, control-growth would be cross-referenced to birth-control. All such studies, of course, accentuate the advantages that may be derived from pre-edit and post-edit procedures by human editors who can perform the important indexing function of suppressing useless indexing entries. Using procedures of this kind, in the future, monitoring the changing literature of science and medicine will be possible by whatever quantitative criteria one wishes to select. One can establish useful word phrases without resorting to human editing procedures.

It is essential to keep in mind that the deliberate purpose of the *Permuterm Index*, and indeed most co-ordinate indexing systems, is to direct the reader quickly to a small set of references. Whenever the reader finds more than ten articles indexed under a given primary term, we must provide him further means of refining his search. It should also be remembered that the *PSI* was expressly designed to augment the *Citation Index*, to foster information recovery for a partially remembered title when a key word is known but not a citation.

In a similar fashion, we have established that the occurrence of a given reference citation 15 or more times in a given year clearly identifies a putative primordial term which should be characterized in natural-language terms for our Dictionary of Primordial Citations. We must realize that this is a constantly changing task. The Banting and Best paper on pancreatic extract mentioned earlier would be sought under the term insulin. The searcher wants mechanisms for quickly identifying reasonable numbers of references in a reasonable time. Dictionaries or thesauri based on these frequency analyses appear to be reasonable objectives. Of course, this can also be done with a controlled authority list like MeSH. But changes in MeSH result from analysis of indexing practices rather than analysis of the terminology occurring in the medical literature. There is no reason, however, why the two approaches cannot eventually be reconciled.

I would now like to turn from the theory of bibliographic symbols to the field of historio-bibliography. If I may paraphrase a great American, Dr. Martin Luther King, I have a dream. In Wellsian terms, this dream was symbolized as World Brain and by Vannevar Bush (1945) as Memex. Unlike Mr. Wells, I hope to see my dream become a reality while I am still among you.

In the first part of my presentation, I discussed the primordial term as it related to the traditional problem of subject analysis of library materials. At least one major significant by-product is attached to the use of primordial citations, which in this

(continued)

respect differ from their counterpart, primordial words. Bibliographic citations, as we have seen, not only identify or symbolize subject matter, but as 'addresses', citations contain chronological information which permit one to easily arrange them. When this is done, one has a crude history of the development of a subject. This is not new. Retrospective bibliographies have been arranged in chronological order for quite some time. But now, let us see what happens when we use, not merely the citations which identify the source documents, but also the reference citations. In Fig. 4, I have drawn a circle for each citation shown in a bibliography on staining of nucleic acids, and given each one an accession number. Unlike a traditional bibliography, the set of 15 source citations is drawn in a network diagram in which the lines with arrows

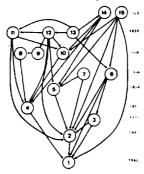


Fig. 4. Citation network of articles on nucleic acids. Citation relationships illustrated by network of 15 papers from a bibliography on nucleic acid staining.

indicate that, for example, paper 13 has cited paper 6. Anyone can create such a diagram for a simple network and I always make my students at the University of Pennsylvania do this when they compile a bibliography. When the number of source documents in the network becomes quite large, however, one can run into considerable difficulty in simply portraying this information. In a recent paper we have shown how these problems of display can be overcome (Garfield and Sher, 1967; see also Garfield and Malin, 1969). It is not my intention or purpose to digress to this interesting problem. The important point I wish to stress is that we have available a means for displaying citation networks without human intervention.

What is the significance of all this for the medical historian and bibliographer? It means that, in the near future, the compilation of bibliographies will be inseparable from writing the history of that field. A scholar will be able to sit before his computer console and he will specify some starting point — a person, a word, a citation, a place. Given a particular word or document, he will then ask the computer to display a list of pertinent papers. Then the computer will draw or display for him a historical road map which will show him not merely the list of papers and books, but also a graphical approximation or detailed history of that subject. In an earlier paper (Garfield et al., 1964), we simulated this process by reconstructing the recent history of the genetic code by a process of citation analysis. At that time we traced the history up to the time of Nirenberg's now classical paper.

It is difficult to comprehend how hard it is to display such information until one tries to draw the *complete* diagram of any given field. But again, frequency analysis simplifies the problem; with certain exceptions we can eliminate anything from the overall network which does not satisfy a given critical threshold of citation linkage, and place it *temporarily* in a computer storage area. When we wish to examine the particular period in history more closely, we can do so by zooming in, and then, as historians, try to understand what significance, if any, some of the many uncited papers may have. We know, in fact, that probably 10% or more of the literature is never cited again once it is published—possibly a measure of the redundancy necessary to insure that any average paper does, in fact, get into the general stream of things (Price, 1965).

The recent history of DNA was reconstructed by vastly more simple procedures than that which we employed to do the early history of the genetic code. The basic assumption was simple: given a list of the recent papers on the topic, about 30 or 40 published in 1967 and cited in a single review or found in a straightforward literature search, the bibliographies of all the 1967 papers were examined and a master list compiled. Since several hundred papers were cited, all were eliminated which were cited only once. By a process of iteration, the next group of cited references to be eliminated were those cited only twice, etc. Eventually, this led to the list of papers shown in Fig. 5, each of which was cited five or more times. Subsequently, the list of papers was checked in the 1967 Science Citation Index and we attained a further verification of the significance of each paper by ascertaining that they are also highly cited in general. It is significant that for a fast-moving, active field like molecular biology, one must repeat this type of procedure for each preceding year if one wishes to completely fill in the eventful years from 1961 to 1967, during which time we have come from the breaking of the genetic code all the way to in vitro synthesis of life in the recent work of Kornberg et al. (refer to Appendix B for citation data to Fig. 5).

Of further significance is that many of these papers (indicated by black circles in Fig. 5) appear on our list of most heavily cited papers in the literature. Since that list is confined to the 1% per year which are cited 15 or more times per year, one would expect that a lower rate, about 5 cites per year as it turns out, would be sufficient for a specialized field. Thus, to write the entire history of science and medicine as distinct from merely writing the history of DNA or any other specific topic, one's interest would center on events of broader impact and scope.

By way of reiteration, I wish to mention that this history of DNA was written by my assistant, Marie V. V. Williams, under my instructions, even though neither of us knows anything about genetics. I do not think any geneticist would seriously challenge the diagram in Fig. 5, and it, therefore, becomes a perfectly valid teaching aid to the student and a great time saver for the historian.

Let me spell out the implications of these examples — if they are not self-evident from my discussion — for your future dealings with the reader who is faced with a common problem: given a bibliography of 100 papers on any selected field — and today that is commonplace — how can one select the key group of papers to read first? One must make choices since he cannot possibly read everything. Here you have seen how, starting with several hundred references, we have identified a dozen or so

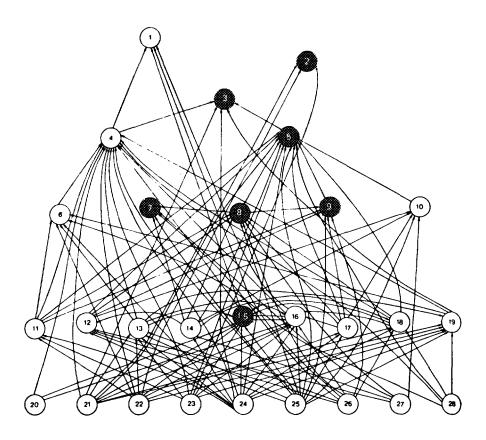


Fig. 5. Citation network of DNA articles based on review of 1967 literature by A. Sadgopal in Advances in Genetics (Academic Press, New York, 1968, v. 14, p. 325-404). Legend (refer to Appendix B): 1, Sheehan 1958; 2, Bray 1960; 3, Nirenberg 1961; 4, Marcker 1964; 5, Nirenberg 1964; 6, Marcker 1965; 7, Brenner 1965; 8, Khorana 1965; 9, Nirenberg 1965; 10, Khorana 1965; 11, Marcker 1966; 12, Khorana 1966; 13, Marcker 1966; 14, Khorana 1966; 15, Adams 1966; 16, Webster 1966; 17, Nirenberg 1966; 18, Ochoa 1966; 19, Nakamoto 1966; 20, Berberich 1967; 21, Lucas-Leonard 1967; 22, Caskey 1967; 23, Ochoa 1967; 24, Khorana 1967; 25, Nirenberg 1967; 26, Ochoa 1967; 27, Khorana 1967; 28, Ochoa 1967.

| | | TOTAL | | | TOTAL |
|------|---------------|-------|------|----------------|-------|
| RANK | AUTHOR | CITED | RANK | AUTHOR | CITED |
| , | LOWRY OH | 2001 | 24 | EUEL EL | 721 |
| 2 | CHARGE 8 | 1374 | 27 | STREITSRESER A | 717 |
| 3 | LANDAULD | 1174 | 79 | MULLIKEN AS | 712 |
| • | BROSSH HC | 1190 | 29 | JACDS F | 111 |
| • | PAULING L | 1063 | 30 | BORN M | 710 |
| | GELLMANN M | 847 | 31 | BRACHET J | 706 |
| 7 | COTTON FA | 840 | 12 | PRINCIPE IN E | 103 |
| | POPLE JA | 633 | 33 | ALBERT A | 007 |
| • | DELLAMY L | 906 | 34 | LUFT #4 | 674 |
| 10 | SMEDECOR GIN | 804 | 30 | DEDUVE C | 673 |
| 11 | BOYER FO | 863 | 36 | VONEULER US | *** |
| 12 | BAKER OR | 878 | 37 | PIESER LF | *** |
| L2 | KOLTHOFF IM | 663 | 20 | HUISGEN R | 861 |
| 14 | HERZOERG G | 842 | | MOVIEOFF AB | 444 |
| 15 | FISCHER F | 824 | 40 | GOODWIN TW | 843 |
| 10 | MITZ F | 827 | 41 | BARTON DHR | 632 |
| 12 | DJE RASSI C | 801 | 42 | FIRMER RA | 631 |
| 18 | SERGME YER HU | 764 | 43 | BATES OR | 621 |
| 19 | THE BEEN G | 790 | 44 | FLORY PJ | 676 |
| 20 | MEYNOLDS ES | 740 | - | STAML E | 676 |
| 21 | MOTT NE | 741 | 4 | DE WAR M.S | - |
| 27 | ECCLES AC | 737 | 47 | GILMAN H | 616 |
| 23 | FRIGIL F | 729 | • | FOLCH J | 616 |
| 24 | FREUDS | 721 | - | DISCHÉ Z | 414 |
| ä | PEARLE AGE | 726 | 80 | GLICK D | 808 |

Fig. 6. Fifty most cited authors for 1967, ranked according to total times cited.

papers which represent the core of this field, and the 'field' can, of course, be individually tailored to the reader's needs. If you have done the recent history of DNA for one student, it can be used by another; but if faculty members or researchers have chosen less known topics, one must be equally prepared to solve their selective reading problems as well.

Finally, let me briefly turn from the topic of historio-bibliography to that of sociology. At the recent AAAS meeting I presented a paper, 'Can Nobel Prize winners be predicted?' (Garfield and Malin, 1968). The title was somewhat facetious, but actually a more correct title would be 'Can the Nobel Prize winners be forecasted?'. 'To predict' is a very strong term, one expected from the followers of Nostradamus. 'To forecast' is a probabilistic term: a meteorologist forecasts the weather by stating certain probabilities; he cannot predict the weather with absolute certainty.

In the same way, it is not possible to predict using the SCI; it is possible, however, to say that from the list of men shown in Fig. 6, one can forecast with high probability that several will receive the Nobel Prize. This is no small achievement when one considers that the approach is based on a purely objective method which does not require a personality appraisal or a reading of the works by these men.

The ultimate decisions will, of course, be made by their peers in the Swedish Academy, etc., but there can be little doubt, as was stated by Newell (1962), that citation indexes will be used increasingly as a means of evaluating scientific merit. This was originally proposed by Golay (1953) and recently expressed by Cranberg (1969) in *Physics Today*. This will, of course, require more meticulous attention to bibliographic practices to insure fair treatment for all, but within the bounds of acceptable error, the evidence is very clear that the *SCI* has become a major sociometric tool. The recent work of the Coles (1968) and others is merely a harbinger of future developments.

I have tried to show the inseparable relationship that exists between the conceptual problems of bibliographic control, subject analysis, symbol theory, and the history and sociology of medicine. It has been an ambitious undertaking. Undoubted-

ly, I have only scratched the surface and I leave it to others with less pragmatic concerns than publishing a work of the size and scope of the SCI. Let the scholars like Professors Merton and Price do their job. We have certainly given them all the ammunition they need.

In closing, let me relate that we now plan to complete the data base that will be needed to fully arm the historian who wishes to deal with the history of the decade 1961-1970. As soon as practical, we will fill in the SCI for the missing years of 1962 and 1963, and at the same time use the ten-year data base to create discipline-oriented indexes which will include chemistry and physics as well as the social sciences and education. By the time this enormous data base is completed, we expect that our computer hardware and software will be caught up and the dream I have sketched here will be realized at least insofar as we presently conceive of it.

appendix A

Titles of fifty most cited articles for 1967 ranked according to total number of times cited (refer to Fig. 1).

rank

- 1. LOWRY, O. H., ROSEBROUGH, N. J., FARR, A. L. and RANDALL, R. J., Protein measurement with the folin phenol reagent.
- REYNOLDS, E. S., The use of lead citrate at high pH as an electron-opaque stain in electron microscopy.
- 3. LUFT, J. H., Improvements in epoxy resin embedding methods.
- 4. FISKE, C. H. and SUBBAROW, Y., The colorimetric determination of phosphrous.
- 5. FOLCH, J., LEES, M. and SLOANE STANLEY, G. H., A simple method for the isolation and purification of total lipides from animal tissues.
- 6. Bray, G. A., A simple efficient liquid scintillator for counting aqueous solutions in a liquid scintillation counter.
- 7. SABATINI, D. D., BENSCH, K. and BARRNETT, R. J., Cytochemistry and electron microscopy: the preservation of cellular ultrastructure and enzymatic activity by aldehyde fixation.
- 8. SPACKMAN, D. H., STEIN, W. H. and MOORE, S., Automatic recording apparatus for use in the chromatography of amino acids.
- 9. GORNALL, A. G., BARDAWILL, C. J. and DAVID, M. M., Determination of serum proteins by means of the biuret reaction.
- 10. LINEWEAVER, H. and BURK, D., The determination of enzyme dissociation constants.
- BURTON, K., A study of the conditions and mechanism of the diphenylamine reaction for the colorimetric estimation of deoxyribonucleic acid.
- 12. DUNCAN, D. B., Multiple range and multiple F tests.
- 13. SCHEIDEGGER, J. J., A micro-method for immuno-electrophoresis, (In French).
- Dole, V. P., A relation between non-esterified fatty acids in plasma and the metabolism of glucose.
- 15. Davis, B. J., Disc electrophoresis. II. Method and application to human serum proteins.
- 16. Nelson, N., A photometric adaption of the Somogyi method for the determination of glucose.
- 17. RIED, L. J. and MUENCH, H., A simple method of estimating fifty per cent endpoints.
- 18. MOORHEAD, P. S., NOWELL, P. C., MELLMAN, W. J., BATTIPS, D. D. and HUNGERFORD, D. A., Chromosome preparations of leukocytes cultured from human peripheral blood.
- 19. MARMUR, J., A procedure for the isolation of deoxyribonucleic acid from micro-organisms.
- 20. JACOB, F. and MONOD, J., Genetic regulatory mechanisms in the synthesis of proteins.
- 21. WATSON, M. L., Staining of tissue sections for electron microscopy with heavy metals.
- 22. PALADE, G. E., A study of fixation for electron microscopy.
- 23. KARNOVSKY, M. J., Simple methods for staining with lead at high pH in electron microscopy.

- 24. MARTIN, R. G. and AMES, B. N., A method for determining the sedimentation behavior of enzymes: application to protein mixtures.
- SMITHIES, O., Zone electrophoresis in starch gels: group variations in the serum proteins of normal human adults.
- 26. BARTLETT, G. R., Phosphorus assay in column chromatography.
- BARKER, S. B. and Summerson, W. H., The colorimetric determination of lactic acid in biological material.
- 28. EAGLE, H., Amino acid metabolism in mammalian cell cultures.
- ROSENFELD, A. H., BARBARO-GALTIERI, A., PODOLSKY, W. J., PRICE, L. R., SODING, P., WOHL, C. G., ROOS, M. and WILLIS, W. J., Data on particles and resonant states.
- 30. GELL-MANN, M., Symmetries of baryons and mesons.
- 31. TREVELYAN, W. E., PROCTER, D. P. and HARRISON, J. S., Detection of sugars on paper chromatograms.
- 32. WARREN, L., The thiobarbituric acid assay of sialic acids.
- 33. Andrews, P., Estimation of the molecular weights of protein in Sephadex gel-filtration.
- 34. MONOD, J., WYMAN, J. and CHANGEUX, J. P., On the nature of allosteric transitions: a plausible model.
- 35. Schmidt, G. and Thannhauser, S. J., A method for the determination of desoxyribonucleic acid, ribonucleic acid, and phosphoproteins in animal tissues.
- 36. BARDEEN, J., COOPER, L. N. and SCHRIEFFER, J. R., Theory of superconductivity.
- 37. DEDUVE, C., PRESSMAN, B. C., GIANETTO, R., WATTIAUX, R. and APPELMANS, F., Tissue fractionation studies. 6. Intracellular distribution patterns of enzymes in rat-liver tissue.
- 38. KARPLUS, M., Contact electron-spin coupling of nuclear magnetic movements.
- 39. AHLQUIST, R. P., A study of the adrenotropic receptors.
- 40. Dubois, M., Gilles, K. A., Hamilton, J. K., Rebers, P. A. and Smith, F., Colorimetric method for determination of sugars and related substances.
- 41. ELLMAN, G. L., Tissue sulfhydryl groups.
- 42. WARBURG, O. and CHRISTIAN, W., Isolation and crystallization of the fermentation ferment enolase. (In German).
- 43. Gell-Mann, M., The symmetry group of vector and axial vector currents.
- 44. MANDELL, J. D. and HERSHEY, A. D., A fractionating column for analysis of nucleic acids.
- 45. Dole, V. P. and Meinertz, H., Microdetermination of long-chain fatty acids in plasma and tissues.
- 46. LITCHFIELD JR., J. T. and WILCOXON, F., A simplified method of evaluating dose-effect experiments.
- 47. MILLONIG, G., Advantages of a phosphate buffer for OsO₄ solutions in fixation.
- 48. FRIEDEMANN, T. E. and HAUGEN, G. E., Pyruvic acid. II. The determination of keto acids in blood and urine.
- MOORE, S. and STEIN, W. H., A modified ninhydrin reagent for the photometric determination of amino acids and related compounds.
- 50. JAFFE, H. H., A reexamination of the Hammett equation.

appendix B

Citations to network of DNA articles based on review of 1967 literature by A. Sadgopal in *Advances in Genetics* (Academic Press, New York, 1968, v. 14, p. 325-404) (refer to Fig. 5).

node

- SHEEHAN, J. C. and YANG, D. M. (1958), The use of N-formylamino acids in peptide synthesis. J. Amer. Chem. Soc., 80, 1154.
- Bray, G. A. (1960), A simple efficient liquid scintillator for counting acqueous solutions in a liquid scintillation counter. Analyt. Biochem., 1, 279.
- 3. NIRENBERG, M. and MATTHAEI, J. H. (1961), The dependence of cell-free protein synthesis in

- E. coli upon naturally occurring or synthetic polyribonucleotides. Proc. nat. Acad. Sci. (Wash.), 47, 1588.
- 4. MARCKER, K. A. and SANGER, F. (1964). N-formylmethionyl-sRNA. J. molec. Biol., 8, 835.
- NIRENBERG, M. and LEDER, P. (1964), RNA codewords and protein synthesis-effect of trinucleotides upon binding of sRNA to ribosomes. Science, 145, 1399.
- 6. MARCKER, K. (1965), Formation of N-formyl-methionyl-sRNA. J. molec. Biol., 14, 63.
- 7. Brenner, S., Stretton, A. O. W. and KAPLAN, S. (1965), Genetic code nonsense triplets for chain termination and their suppression. *Nature*, 206, 994.
- Soll, D., Ohtsuka, E., Jones, D. S., Lohrmann, R., Hayatsu, H., Nishimura, S. and Khorana, H. G. (1965), Studies on polynucleotides. 49. Stimulation of binding of aminoacyl-SRNAS to ribosomes by ribotrinucleotides and a survey of codon assignments for 20 amino acids. Proc. nat. Acad. Sci. (Wash.), 54, 1378.
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- MORGAN, A. R., Wells, R. D. and Khorana, H. G. (1966). Studies on polynucleotides. 59.
 Further codon assignments from amino acid incorporations directed by ribopolynucleotides containing repeating trinucleotide sequences. Proc. nat. Acad. Sci. (Wash.), 56, 1899.
- 15. Adams, J. M. and Capecchi, M. R. (1966), N-formylmethionyl-sRNA as initiator of protein synthesis, Proc. nat. Acad. Sci. (Wash.), 55, 147.
- WEBSTER, R. E., ENGELHARDT, D. L. and ZINDER, N. (1966), In vitro protein synthesis chain initiation. Proc. nat. Acad. Sci. (Wash.), 55, 155.
- Kellogg, D. A., Doctor, B. P., Loebell, J. E. and Nirenberg, M. (1966), RNA codons and protein synthesis. 9. Synonym codon recognition by multiple species of valine-, alanine-, and methionine-sRNA. Proc. nat. Acad. Sci. (Wash.), 55, 912.
- STANLEY, W. M., SALAS, M., WAHBA, A. J. and Ochoa, S. (1966), Translation of genetic message — factors in initiation of protein synthesis. Proc. nat. Acad. Sci. (Wash.), 56, 290.
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