PRODUCTION NOTE

Library Trends

Library Cooperation

PEARCE S. GROVE
Issue Editor

October, 1975

Library Trends

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LIBRARY TRENDS, a quarterly journal of librarianship, provides a medium for evaluative recapitulation of current thought and practice, searching for those ideas and procedures which hold the greatest potentialities for the future.

Each issue is concerned with one aspect of librarianship. Each is planned with the assistance of an invited advisory editor. All articles are by invitation. Suggestions for future issues are welcomed and should be sent to the Managing Editor.

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Foreword

CHARLES H. STEVENS

DURING THE PERIOD this issue of *Library Trends* has been in final preparation, educational television channels in many cities have been telecasting an illuminating series of lectures with the general title, "The Ascent of Man." This extraordinary program, shown previously in England and based on a book of the same title, features the late Professor Jacob Bronowski, distinguished mathematician, historian and biologist. From three continents and dozens of locations important to the story, Bronowski traces the anthropological and scientific history of mankind. Emphasizing the adaptability of *homo sapiens*, the lectures reinforce the thesis that man has overcome the obstacles of his environment and has become a dominant creature because he could adjust rapidly to circumstantial changes requiring substantial transfer of knowledge, and because he had the singular ability to survive and progress both as an individual and as a social animal. In support of his position, Bronowski uses visual and oral material so penetrating and convincing that it will undoubtedly become a part of televisions's growing repertory, to be seen again and again for a decade or more.

Without going into the arguments kindled by Bronowski, it is possible to conclude with him that there is evidence of an ascent of man and that the ascent will probably continue. His lectures show that one may look backward through history to see that man has accepted no limitation of time, space or resources as final. The seeming barriers have become challenges, yielding sooner or later to the force or knowledge man applies. These victories are the milestones displayed by Bronowski for the television audience. They show the ascent of man taking place on a ladder of recorded information. The succession of civilizations, and the broader dominion which man exercises over his

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environment in each, arise from his ability to record, retrieve and reuse the valuable lessons learned in the school of experience.

In our era, the library has had a share of the responsibility for the preservation and dissemination of recorded materials. Improved transportation and communication facilities have helped to make library resources more widely available. Barriers of time and distance between the information seeker and the knowledge sought are crumbling. As libraries use new technology to meet the pressing needs for information, the obstacles will become easier to negotiate. When that occurs, library cooperation and interlibrary networking will give toe space for another step in the ascent of man.

In his optimistic projection for the future of mankind, Bronowski made a plausible case for the development of shared library service through cooperative activities and networking. He maintained that a democracy of the intellect, based on the widespread availability of knowledge and information, is essential to the success and continuity of man's ascent. An aristocracy of intellect in which access to knowledge is limited to the elite, breeds revolution and destruction.

This observation is now under attack by those whose shortsighted views suggest that profit is the only impetus for inquiry, and gain the only impulse for publication or dissemination of information. Their argument is that information is a commercial good that must be sold to those who can and will pay for it. If commercially available information must compete with freely available information in library networks, the unbiased sources of information will vanish, they say, leaving government propaganda unchallenged access to the minds of the people. Some aspects of this argument have merit. Authors and publishers deserve to be rewarded; they are valuable to society and their roles need to be maintained through, for example, the protection available in copyright law. Other aspects of the argument advanced by the information entrepreneurs overlook essential points. Information is an indestructible commodity. If it is used it multiplies. It cannot be sold to each member of the market group with an exclusive right for individual use. Ideas will not be confined, and a publisher is ill-advised to suppress them editorially, or publish them in a product priced restrictively for a limited and rich clientele. Authors and scientists do not publish only for profit. Not one of the great men or women in the history of medicine, logic, science, biology, astronomy, physics or nuclear science who were mentioned by Bronowski wrote or published principally to enrich himself with royalties—nor did their publishers risk the outlay of resources solely for a return on investment.

Libraries offer no threat to the publisher; library networks enhance the opportunity for those who can buy information to learn the extent of what is available. Radio broadcasters, movie producers and book publishers once feared the spread of television. They thought (at least some did) that their business would be shouldered aside and, for a time, it was. Now, through changes in programming and publication, more radios are sold and used, more movies of high quality attract audiences at high prices, and more books and journals are sold than previously. Fear—not television—had been the temporary obstacle. Similarly, library networks are not a threat to the spread and utilization of information—quite the opposite. As networks prosper, a wider audience for the publisher's product will appear, and the market will broaden for the sale of more and more packages of information—books, records, tapes, slides, newspapers, journals, or data bases.

The challenge of the papers in this issue is to bring about another step in the ascent of man through a proper democracy of the intellect. Each author addresses this direction differently; terms differ and the theorems corollary to the main proposition may seem remote. However, the connections should be made in the eye of the beholder. If we, as librarians and information specialists, can dedicate ourselves to the idea, much can be accomplished. The burdensome problems we face in the areas of overpopulation, social unrest, insufficient energy or food, and polluted air and water can be solved. Information and the knowledge available through its use can meet these needs. Information leading to understanding is in fact the only defense against fear and panic. If it is employed by man to organize and utilize the resources available, the terror of an uncertain future can be dissipated.

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Introduction

PEARCE S. GROVE

AS EDITOR OF this issue I have assumed the role of a professional editor—assigning each chapter, evaluating manuscripts, and editing all writing before coordinating it into an integrated whole for publication. Consequently, the issue has evolved with alterations of assignments and chapters being added as the need became apparent through the development of each chapter.

All chapter manuscripts were edited—some severely—and some were returned for enlargement, more comprehensive coverage, and additional citations. Several manuscripts were reviewed by authoritative readers, while some became the work of a joint authorship. Unfortunately, some manuscripts were rejected. Therefore, the editor accepts the final responsibility for not only the coverage of this issue but also the development and emphasis of each chapter.

Library cooperation is often uttered as a symbol of goodwill, an intent to share resources, knowledge, bibliographical data, facilities and other fruits of technology, man's ingenuity, and the results of accumulated wealth. Gentlemen's agreements and professional pride in service to humanity are noble ideals that library historian Joe Kraus carefully documents in "Prologue to Library Cooperation." The historical treatise is an examination of available literature to establish a succession of thought expressed through individuals, institutions, associations and governing bodies. Foundations and individual philanthropists have made substantial contributions to cooperative activities among libraries in the United States over a seventy-five year period. Kraus sees five common elements in the reports of the cooperative library projects examined and a trend toward a national network for the benefit of library users.

Current trends in cooperation seem heavily dependent on

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technology and a high level of energy consumption. Political scientist Boyd Keenan examines these assumptions, agreeing with their importance and predicting that major changes in existing cooperative arrangements will probably be influenced more by external pressures than by the pressures internal to a library system. Keenan not only urges librarians to maintain a keen awareness of political trends, but also encourages them to actively inform both the general public and political leaders as to the basic issues of our society. Although he is optimistic about the future network development of librarians, Keenan, a recent UNESCO fellow on world political energy discussions in Paris, is far less certain of the rational system of energy distribution needed in our technological society.

Informal agreements and tacit understandings between individual librarians in a simplistic and rural-oriented society, apparently sufficient in an earlier era, hardly satisfy the needs of our highly integrated and technologically advanced society of the late twentieth century. Harry Martin has undertaken the monumental task of setting forth a method whereby formal cooperation may take place across state lines. A legal basis for interstate library cooperation is essential to the establishment of documented agreements, assurances of services rendered, and funded programs that include participation by libraries from more than one state. Martin concludes that compacts between states have been demonstrated effective and appear to be the most advantageous approach at this time to library coordination. Federal-interstate compacts are also cited as an ideal form for channeling federal funds into multistate services while maintaining a high level of continued state interest and participation. Martin provides the insight needed for librarians to overcome legal barriers to cooperation.

In his capacity as Deputy Director of the National Commission on Libraries and Information Science, Roderick Swartz has enjoyed a unique vantage point for assessing the need for cooperation among libraries in the United States. He stresses the need to examine closely user needs and also nonuser needs—the total information requirements of our society. Both traditional and newer formats of technological communications are needed, according to Swartz, who gives four trends in cooperative endeavor as seen from the users' viewpoint. These trends are examined for their effect on the information poor and the information rich.

Cooperative endeavors of lasting value require careful planning, an activity that can only be done with appropriate statistical information.

Mary Edna Anders has recently completed the most comprehensive survey of data ever taken, the Southeastern States Cooperative Library Survey. This experience has led her to the conclusion that reliable and valid data as a tool for decision-making can contribute significantly to the planning and implementation of cooperative library programs. Her analysis of historical and current trends indicates an optimistic picture for library administrators who will utilize the full array of data becoming available for planning and decisions. Perhaps the single most important agency for statistical data is the National Center for Educational Statistics (NCES); its personnel emphasize their determination that statistics be collected for utilization by those involved in planning and administrative decision-making.

A governmental agency more directly involved in library cooperation is that of the Office of Libraries and Learning Resources in the U.S. Office of Education. Dorothy Kittel, coordinator of Title III programs under the Library Services and Construction Act (LSCA) has sketched observable trends in states of the United States since the inception of the federal LSCA programs in 1964. Requiring a coordination of efforts at the state level, this program has also benefited from the direct involvement of regional coordinator in the planning of a system of library service in each state. This overview reveals encouraging trends throughout the country, with some programs of excellence cited.

One specific statewide program—that of Washington—was selected for more detailed consideration. Gerald Brong reports this state's step-by-step search for intrastate cooperation, in which he was personally involved. Brong's perspective as an audiovisual specialist gives him a unique vista from which to observe activities in the state of Washington. As director of the Library Futures Planning Task Force, Brong was also involved in plans for the implementation of components of the statewide program for library service. Brong found cooperation to be a very fragile way of accomplishing tasks, but was convinced that cooperation does enhance present services without relinquishing the uniqueness of individual library programs. He is also persuaded that intrastate library/information service programs are the building blocks upon which a national program of service must be based. Both Brong and Kittel agree that a "national network" must be designed to encourage the development and use of networks currently being formed at the state and regional levels.

Federal support of cooperative library service is also influenced by the direct participation of federal libraries in consortia and various

networks. An overview of federal library activity reveals many instances in which leadership for major cooperative programs was given by librarians in federal libraries, e.g., the LC shared cataloging begun in 1901. Russell Shank and Madeline Henderson document trends in cooperation by the more than 2,000 libraries of the federal government.

The Library of Congress is recognized as a national library, in fact if not in law, as are the national libraries of medicine and agriculture. These libraries have created national systems and networks for bibliographic and physical access to information for their patrons and immediate agencies. In doing so, they have also created elements of a unified system of library service for the entire country. Shank and Henderson note that the trend among federal libraries of the United States is toward systems or networks made up of many parts, whether labeled libraries, information centers, data centers, or clearinghouses. The National Commission on Libraries and Information Science has proposed a comprehensive planning effort for a total national library program, including a White House Conference on Library and Information Service.

The need for close coordination of governmental agencies and library associations is dramatized by the frantic and combined efforts of both to prepare for a rapidly approaching American bicentennial year and the White House conference scheduled shortly thereafter. Typical of his professional ability and personal dedication, Edward Holley prepared the manuscript on the role of professional associations in a network of library activity during his term as president of the American Library Association. Citing the formation of a Cooperation Committee in 1876 by the newly created American Library Association, Holley documents major contributions of library associations to cooperation, providing several tables of statistical data heretofore unavailable. This information is needed for a more comprehensive perspective of library associations in the United States and their potential strength as partners in a "network of knowledge." Pertinent data for state, regional and national associations are given with tabulations for purposes of analysis and comparison. Evidence of accomplishments at all levels of professional association work were found, and closer cooperative planning by the various professional association were recommended in order to achieve maximum levels of library service in the nation. Holley also noted that while deliberations on a national network are in various stages of progress, many of the same functions need to be performed at the state and regional levels.

One regional library association, multistate in coverage and in a period of dynamic development, has been chosen for close scrutiny. Heartsill Young, Lee Brawner and Allie Beth Martin, principal movers of the Southwestern Library Association (SWLA), have recorded the unparalleled accomplishments of their association during the six year period 1969-75. Beginning with the J. Morris Jones-World Book Encyclopedia-ALA Goals Award of 1969, the authors provide both a narrative and a chronological account of the association's numerous achievements, e.g., grants from the Council on Library Resources, the National Endowment for the Humanities, the U.S. Office of Education, each of the region's six state library agencies, and their respective state library associations. Library cooperation is believed paramount in SWLA, as reflected in its reorganization whereby the vice-presidents of each state library association serve on the regional association's research and development council. They progress to the SWLA executive board the following year, during their term as presidents of the state associations. This carefully documented evolution of SWLA may become a model for other professional library associations at all levels.

Regionally organized programs of service are growing in number and importance. Perhaps the most sophisticated thus far is the regional medical library program, which is candidly addressed by Donald Hendricks. He provides an insight into the actual functioning of the national network system designed and supported to facilitate the sharing of resources. Existing strengths and weaknesses of the program are relevant to all library applications of networking concepts. Hendricks recounts the difficulties of bringing together state and regional programs in a nationwide system. He also asserts that the foundation has been laid for the national goal of equal access to knowledge, which will lead to better health care for the medical welfare of the nation.

Library cooperation is carried out by personnel, usually those aware of its capabilities, possibilities and potential results to our quality of life. Those involved in these pursuits stress the need for continuing education to raise the level of awareness among all library personnel. Marion Mitchell and Donald Foos examine continuing education and institutes as a function of interstate library cooperation. Surveys indicate that continuing education is usually the first mentioned by librarians as a recognized need, but one of the last indicated by professional library educators. This factor is symptomatic of the chasm between graduate library school faculty and library practitioners. The

phenomenon has encouraged the federal government to support continuing education institutes conceived and held beyond academic campuses, a dramatic divergence from established patterns of government funding. The recent impact which institutes have had on the development of continuing education is emphasized by Mitchell and Foos, who stress the need for a nationwide program of continuing education for personnel in the library/information service field, a trend that is gradually emerging in the United States.

Accreditation standards and procedures have traditionally encouraged islands of independent library service and given little more than lip service to the development of cooperative programs. Johnnie Givens and Wanda Sivells examine the role of accrediting agencies in library development, citing the amazing variation of involvement by librarians. They note the lack of literature on this topic, which seems to reflect a mutual lack of interest both by librarians and officials of accrediting agencies. Givens and Sivells see some trends toward a closer relationship between the two, although there is presently uncertainty about the future role of national, regional and state accrediting bodies. Their findings seem to indicate that accreditation is of vital importance to library development and that therefore more attention should be given to this matter within the library profession.

Library developments in other countries are also encouraging programs of cooperation among libraries. William Jackson surveys library cooperation in Latin America and finds an uneven picture. Although the situation is encouraging at some levels, no basic pattern of development is evident. Jackson provides an insight into those programs of particular significance, suggesting a growing movement of library cooperation within Latin America. He emphasizes the necessity of adaptation of programs from one area of Latin America to another, noting that what will succeed in one part of the region may need to take a different form in another.

Elizabeth Morton notes the bilingual tradition of Canada in her historical survey of cooperation among Canadian libraries and governmental agencies. She documents a full array of activity, while noting the impact of recommendations of a royal commission as well as the dynamic leadership that indicates a bright future for coordinated cooperation in Canada. Morton recognizes the deliberate manner which marks the Canadian but points with pride to what has been achieved in her nation through voluntary cooperation.

The close ties with U.S. libraries are apparent as trends toward a national system of library service are examined.

Library cooperation in England is highlighted by Jean Plaister, who stresses the importance of the British Library, a newly integrated system of five previously separated "national libraries" bringing together library resources that may be without rival in the world. The British Library's Lending Division has forged ahead in international library cooperation, evidence of a trend that may have an impact on U.S. library service. All major projects undertaken in England with implications for library cooperation are recorded, revealing a definite trend toward the development of a national system which brings together the resources of virtually all libraries in the country. Regional and national networks in England include not only those features found in the United States but also an evolving system of transportation to facilitate the cooperative sharing of resources.

The sixteen chapters in this issue do not fully encompass the topic. Areas identified but not covered in this issue include international library cooperation, trends in special libraries and other types of libraries, economic factors as a determining element in trends toward or away from cooperation among libraries, and the existing consortia that are indicative of cooperative endeavors among librarians. Some of these topics, e.g., the latter, are adequately covered elsewhere, others are still in need of original research.

The preparation of the manuscripts for this issue has required numerous typings and reworking of the material. Without the able assistance of an excellent office staff this would not have been possible. I am especially indebted to Jeannette Terry Maddaford and Diane Watson for their devoted service and superior work under the most difficult circumstances. As usual, most writers "owe their souls to the company store" and I am no exception, for creative productivity is encouraged by administrators at Eastern New Mexico University where, as Library Director, I undertook the editorial responsibility for this issue. I am especially indebted to James B. Sublette, Dean of Graduate Studies, and George L. Jones for their support of publication endeavors.

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Prologue To Library Cooperation

JOE W. KRAUS

THE IDEA THAT libraries should, in some way, find means to work cooperatively to provide people with access to books unavailable in nearby libraries is a deeply rooted concept in librarianship. A search for the origins of the concept leads one down intriguing trails, but the first exemplar is not likely to be found. Catalogs of manuscripts in more than one monastery library existed in the first half of the thirteenth century. The most notable, the *Registrum librorum Angliae*, located manuscripts in 138 English and Scottish monasteries. Gabriel Naudé's *Advice on Establishing a Library* (1627) included the admonition that carefully prepared catalogs might serve to "please a friend, when one cannot provide him the book he requires, by directing him to the place where he may find a copy."[1] Wormann cites examples of an exchange agreement among the universities of Lund, Åbo, and Greifswald as early as 1740, a projected union catalog of the libraries of Weimar and Jena under the influence of Goethe when he was minister for education and culture, Lessing's proposal for a coordinated acquisitions scheme for Wolfenbüttel and Göttingen, and the ambitious attempt to establish a Bibliographie générale based on the millions of books confiscated during the French Revolution and gathered in the *dépôts littéraires*.[2] An organization for the exchange of publications, the Akademischer Tauschverein, founded by the University of Marburg in 1817, included eighteen German and eight foreign members by 1823, sixty-eight members by 1885; it continued until World War I.

A more interesting but less successful venture was the Agence centrale universelle des Échanges internationaux of Alexandre Vattemare to exchange official government publications and duplicate publications owned by libraries all over the world. Although the organization did not extend beyond the life of this flamboyant

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actor-ventriloquist, his influence was considerable. He visited the United States on three occasions, and submitted a long communication on international exchange to the Librarians' Conference of 1853 with a list of libraries which he claimed as beneficiaries of his scheme.[3]

The Librarians' Conference also heard reports on the Smithsonian Institution's activities in bibliographical work. As early as 1846 its Committee on Organization had proposed that the institution "become a centre of literary and bibliographical reference for the entire country." To attain that goal the librarian was to procure catalogs of all the important works on bibliography so that he might be consulted by "the scholar, the student, the author, the historian, from every section of the Union, and . . . inform them whether any works they may desire to examine are to be found in the United States; and if so in what library; or if in Europe only, in what country of Europe they must be sought."[4]

Conflicts immediately arose over whether the institution should foster scientific research and publication—the role advocated by Joseph Henry, secretary of the institution—or become a national library as Charles C. Jewett urged. A Solomon's decision to divide the income equally between the two roles limited the development of a bibliographical center, but Jewett, undeterred, pressed on with his imaginative scheme to produce a catalog from stereotype plates with a single entry on each plate. The plates were to be interfiled to produce "a general catalog of all the books in the country, with reference to the libraries where each might be found."[5] Libraries were to submit copy for their books using cataloging rules prepared by Cutter. Individual library catalogs could be produced from the stereotype plates as well as the general national catalog. Jewett's plan failed because the Smithsonian's role as a scientific institution won out over that of a national library and because of the impermanence of the stereotype process adopted by Jewett. But it failed not because the idea was faulty, but because of inadequate technology, inadequate financial support, and the lack of an organization to support the project—elements that have caused most failures in cooperative projects.

Thus, well before the beginning of the twentieth century, the basic methods of library cooperation had been suggested and in some cases attempted with some success. Although the history of library cooperation in the United States has been recorded in many books and articles, it may be worthwhile to review some of the cooperative library activities of the past seventy-five years to see what common threads emerge.

The best summary is that prepared by David Weber and Frederick Lynden for the Conference on Interlibrary Communications and Information Networks held at Airlie House in 1970.[6] This article has drawn heavily on that paper as well as on G. Flint Purdy's "Interrelations Among Public, School, and Academic Libraries,"[7] presented at the University of Chicago Graduate Library School's Conference on Library Networks—Promise and Performance in 1968. John Rather's bibliographical essay on library cooperation[8] and Ralph Stenstrom's bibliography, *Cooperation Between Types of Libraries, 1940-1968*,[9] are helpful guides to the maze of articles, reports and books on the subject.

Several difficulties present themselves at the outset. The literature of library cooperation is very large and most of the articles are uncritical. Although most of the cooperative enterprises of libraries are announced and described in some detail in library periodicals, there are few evaluative reports that give a clear account of the success of a venture and the factors leading to success or failure. Unsuccessful ones, in fact, simply seem to fade away. Costs of a cooperative effort are particularly hard to ascertain, in part because many expenses are absorbed by the participating libraries, and in part because standard reporting procedures have generally not yet been developed. Finally, the definitions of library cooperative projects are far from clear, and consequently no generally accepted taxonomy exists. In this article the following aspects of cooperative activities will be discussed: interlibrary lending, bibliographical access, specialization agreements, cooperative processing, and organization for cooperation. These broad divisions are neither discrete nor comprehensive, but they are intended to illustrate the road we have been traveling and some of the impediments along the way.

INTERLIBRARY LENDING

Sharing resources by lending books from one library to another is probably the oldest, and certainly the easiest, method since a single loan requires only a borrower, a willing lender, and a means of transmission. In an 1876 article, Samuel Green proposed that libraries enter into agreements to make the practice more commonly accepted.[10] The *Library Journal* published nineteen articles and communications on interlibrary loan from 1900 to 1915, and the first interlibrary lending code was drawn up in 1917 by the ALA Committee on Coordination of College Libraries. Revised codes were adopted in

1940, 1952 and 1968, and an interlibrary loan procedure manual was published in 1970.

The use of photoduplication in place of lending the original publication was suggested in the 1917 code, but the equipment needed was expensive and cumbersome and few libraries had photographic laboratories. The National Library of Medicine began its photoduplication service in 1939 and made it a part of its interlibrary loan service in 1956.

Teletype was pressed into library service in 1949 in the public libraries of Racine and Milwaukee, Wisconsin. The ten original members of the Midwest Interlibrary Center (now the Center for Research Libraries) installed teletypewriters in 1951 to speed communication with the center and among the members. The current TELEX/TWX directory lists more than 630 installations in libraries. The intriguing possibility of using facsimile transmission for fast delivery of copies of printed pages was demonstrated at the Library of Congress in 1948 and was used in certain Atomic Energy Commission laboratories in 1950. Experiments were sponsored by the Council on Library Resources in the 1950s to test the practicality of several existing systems, and the New York State Library attempted an interlibrary loan service by facsimile for six months in 1967. None of these experiments were successful because of the high costs and uncertain quality of reproductions.

The volume of loans has increased to an estimated 6 to 7 million requests per year, and the burden inevitably falls on the larger libraries. Costs have risen to an estimated $6.39 per transaction.[11] As early as 1899, E.C. Richardson called for a central, national lending library with branches in New Orleans, San Francisco, Chicago and New York.[12] The Library of Congress began circularizing in 1936 for requested titles not included in the national union catalog, and regional union catalogs attempted to locate items in libraries within the area.

A study conducted by Rolland Stevens and submitted by the Association of Research Libraries (ARL) to the National Commission on Libraries and Information Science recommended the development of a federally funded network of "regional bibliographical centers, resource centers and back-up centers centrally planned, but with a decentralized service program."[13] Another ARL study, by Robert Hayes, is considering a system for interlibrary communication which would provide for records of interlibrary loan transactions through a computer network.

Although interlibrary loans have traditionally been reserved for scholars and scientists (and the research of graduate students), some states have used Library Services and Construction Act funds to support loan service for borrowers who would otherwise be ineligible. In New York state and Illinois, for example, direct support is given by the state library to cover the costs of interlibrary loan service through a network of public, academic and other libraries for loans of material to borrowers who are not engaged in formal research. The number of loans will unquestionably increase with the adoption of less stringent lending rules. The proposed federally funded network and the use of the communications technology now available seems to be the solution for more adequate interlibrary loan service.

BIBLIOGRAPHICAL ACCESS

The publication of union lists of the holdings of several libraries, descriptions of the resources of libraries, and the maintenance of union catalogs in card form have been the most common means of providing a convenient bibliographical record. Twenty-five union lists were published between 1864 and 1899. The bibliography appended to the first edition of the *Union List of Serials* (1927) lists 179 examples, and the one in the 1931 supplement added 68 more. The 1943 edition included 387 in the bibliography by Daniel C. Haskell and Karl Brown. The earliest regional list appeared in 1876, and the earliest national list seems to be Henry C. Bolton's *Catalogue of Scientific and Technical Periodicals*, published by the Smithsonian Institution in 1885.[14] The first edition of the *Union List of Serials* located 75,000 titles in 225 libraries; the most recent edition (1956) extends the coverage to 157,000 titles in 956 libraries. Similar cooperative efforts in the 1930s brought forth union lists of serial publications of foreign governments (1932), American newspapers (1937), international congresses and conferences (1938) and, more recently, microfilms and manuscripts. The *Union List of Serials* will not be revised, but is being supplemented by *New Serials Titles.*

A card catalog of books in the public libraries of California collected by the state library in 1909 was the earliest union catalog in the United States; the next one was produced as part of the consolidation of libraries of the Oregon state colleges and universities in 1932. During the 1930s, regional union catalogs flourished, aided by Works Progress Administration (WPA) workers and foundation funds. Seventeen of these catalogs were described in Downs's *Union Catalogs in the United*

States;[15] only four were completed with local funds. The Bibliographical Center in Denver, the Philadelphia Union Catalog, and the Pacific Northwest Bibliographical Center developed services beyond the usual location and referral functions, but all have had serious financial problems in meeting increasing costs of operation. Many smaller union catalogs organized to serve special groups of libraries or to bring together cards on a specific subject were compiled during the same period. No survey of them has been made since 1942, but few new ones have been announced and the current usefulness of many of the older ones is dubious. An expanded series of regional union catalogs, based on Howard Odum's definition of a region, which was proposed in Downs's *Union Catalogs . . .*, failed to materialize.

The National Union Catalog was started at the Library of Congress in 1901 and contributions were sought from major libraries, but it was not until 1909 that the cards were arranged into a single alphabetical catalog. A grant from the Rockefeller Foundation in 1927 supported expansion of the catalog; however, it was the 1968 publication in book form of the *National Union Catalog: Pre-1956 Imprints* with the cooperation of 500 libraries that made this important source available to the libraries that could afford it.

Descriptions of resources of libraries in the United States began in 1892 with W.C. Lane and C.K. Bolton's *Notes on Special Collections in American Libraries.* Under the sponsorship of the ALA Board on Resources of American Libraries, systematic coverage of libraries in the southern states, the New York City libraries, and the libraries of the Pacific Northwest appeared in the 1930s and early 1940s.[16] The Special Libraries Association four-volume survey (1941-47) added an important group of highly specialized descriptions.[17] None of these surveys has been revised and an annual series of "Notable Materials Added to American Libraries" expired after three years.[18] Resources of Texas and Illinois libraries have been described in recent publications,[19] but the era of the multistate survey of library resources seems to be over. Descriptions of individual libraries, of collections on a common subject, and similar surveys continue; Downs's *American Library Resources* lists over 11,000 survey articles, bibliographies and catalogs.[20] We have not yet succeeded in harnessing these traditional tools to the technology that is available today, and the increasing costs of conventional compilations are making them obsolete.

SPECIALIZATION AGREEMENTS

Agreements for specialization in collection development among

libraries were drawn up for the New York Public Library and the Columbia University Library, and for the Chicago Public Library, Newberry Library and John Crerar Library in 1896. In each instance certain subjects were allotted to a library; others would avoid extensive purchases in those subjects. E.C. Richardson urged similar cooperation by specialization among larger groups of libraries in 1899 and again in 1912,[21] but the idea won few converts. In 1916 the American Library Institute proposed a similar plan of cooperation by specialization which would enable research libraries in each of seven regions to accept certain specialties, thus ensuring the availability of a reference copy and a circulating copy of all important books.[22] Again in 1929 the Joint Committee on Materials of Research of the Social Science Research Council and the American Council of Learned Societies called the attention to the need for "cooperation among libraries so that copies of all important materials may be preserved and conveniently distributed and unnecessary duplication may be avoided."[23] The ALA Committee on Bibliography proposed plans for cooperative selection, purchase, cataloging and warehousing of books in a 1930 report. With financial assistance from the General Education Board, the University of North Carolina and Duke University embarked on a cooperative plan to develop a strong bibliographical collection, to exchange catalog cards, and to purchase books and journals which would not be duplicated by the libraries. The program was linked with joint research and curricular planning between the two universities. The two libraries joined with the Tulane University Library in 1941 in an agreement for purchasing Latin American materials, each library being assigned responsibility for certain countries. Funds were provided by the Rockefeller Foundation.

An experimental Division of Library Cooperation established in the Library of Congress in 1941 for one year, and funded by a grant from the Carnegie Corporation, produced a thoughtful report which called for "an intense specialization in designated fields by all of the major research institutions of the country,"[24] but the beginning of World War II prevented any action on the report.[25] A national conference on library specialization was called in 1941 by the ALA Board on Resources of American Libraries, and a similar regional conference of librarians of the Pacific Northwest met in Seattle two years later. Neither conference had any significant results.

COOPERATIVE PROCESSING

The need to supply information for gearing the nation to the

demands of World War II supplied the impetus for the first attempt at a national cooperative acquisitions program. The Cooperative Acquisitions Project was established in 1945 by the ARL, the ALA, and the Library of Congress (LC) to secure copies of books and journals that could not be obtained through the usual book-trade channels during the war years. By 1948 some 820,000 book and periodical volumes were acquired by LC agents in Europe and distributed among the cooperating libraries.[26] In acquiring these publications the libraries also acquired the knowledge that a large cooperative acquisition program could be carried on, and the U.S. government made a commitment to support such activities.

The project led to the organization of the Farmington Plan in 1948, when foreign book trade reopened after World War II. The plan has been reported fully and needs no additional description other than that some sixty libraries voluntarily accepted the responsibility for acquiring all important current publications published in most of the countries of the world. Allocations were made in 804 segments of the Library of Congress classification according to the subject specialization of each library, and each library agreed to submit cards for all books acquired to the national union catalog as quickly as practicable.[27] A Latin American Cooperative Acquisitions Program with some forty participating libraries existed from 1963 to 1973. Decreasing library budgets were a factor in causing the program to close.

The Farmington Plan was discontinued in 1972 partly because of the success of two federally financed plans. Public Law 480, which made surplus agricultural products available to underdeveloped countries for payment in their own currency, was turned to the advantage of research libraries in 1961 when legislation was passed to enable the Library of Congress to acquire the publications of these countries for cooperating libraries, using the countries' unspent accounts.

Title II-C of the Higher Education Act of 1965 provided federal funds to be used to develop a centralized acquisitions program at the Library of Congress for cooperating research libraries. This plan, which soon acquired the acronym NPAC (National Program for Acquisitions and Cataloging) has enlisted more than eighty libraries, acquired library materials from approximately thirty countries, and provided catalog cards for them.

After Jewett's ill-fated plan for preparing stereotype blocks for the cards produced by the Smithsonian Institution Library and titles to be reported by other libraries, no successful service appeared until the

Library of Congress began to distribute printed cards in 1901. Dewey spoke on the wastefulness of each library cataloging the same books at the 1876 ALA conference. The *Library Journal* started a cataloging service in 1879 but the enterprise failed within a year. Distribution of printed cards by the Library Bureau and the ALA was discussed as early as 1886, started in 1897, and transferred to the Library of Congress in 1901. None of these enterprises was truly cooperative, of course, but in 1901 cooperative cataloging began when the Library of Congress received copy for printed cards from other libraries, first from the library of the Department of Agriculture, later from the larger libraries.[28] A Cooperative Cataloging Division was established by the Library of Congress in 1932.

The Library Services Act encouraged the development of processing centers to speed both the ordering and cataloging of books made available from public funds. By 1959, twenty-one states had established one or more processing centers and the number has continued to grow; more than sixty centers were noted in the Southeastern Pennsylvania Processing Center Feasibility Study in 1967.[29] The services vary from reproducing catalog cards from LC proof slips to the entire process of assistance in selection, ordering, accounting, payment, production of card sets for filing, and preparing and mounting the labels and book pockets. These centers serve primarily public and school libraries.

Academic libraries have been slower to move into cooperative processing. The Carnegie Corporation established centralized ordering for the college and junior college libraries which received its grants for purchasing books for undergraduate students in 1931-38, but libraries continued to order the books purchased from their own funds.[30] The state college and university libraries of Colorado instituted a center after discussion and studies extending over twenty years and a detailed feasibility study in 1969. The Colorado Academic Libraries Book Processing Center provides full processing and accounting for nine state-supported institutions.[31]

In 1971 the academic libraries of Ohio formed the Ohio College Library Center (OCLC)—a computerized bibliographical data base with terminals in cooperating libraries—to provide cataloging data. The growth of OCLC and the development of new programs has been described in so many articles that it will suffice to say that it now serves more than 500 libraries in thirty-five states, and that its cataloging and bibliographical searching services will be supplemented by serials and

acquisitions systems. The technical means to develop regional processing centers seem to be clearly established; what remains to be solved are the organizational and financial problems.

ORGANIZATION FOR COOPERATION

That a national organization with regional subunits was necessary for library cooperation was recognized early by library leaders. Charles H. Gould, Librarian of McGill University, made "Coordination, or Method in Library Cooperation" the theme of the 1909 ALA Conference and called for "a single comprehensive organization in which each member shall have its own definite part to play, yet will also stand in distinct and mutually helpful relations to all the other members, acknowledging, each one, that it owes a duty to the whole body, although preserving complete freedom as to its own individual management and interests."[32] In the same year William Coolidge Lane, speaking at the dedication of the Oberlin College Library, proposed a central bureau of information and loan collections for college libraries, but Gould's address encompassed all types of libraries. The search for Gould's idea has been long and tortuous.

Public libraries had already taken an initial step by organizing county library service in Ohio and Maryland in 1900. A survey by the ALA Committee on Library Extension found that enabling legislation for county library service had been passed in thirty-one states by 1926.[33] County library service in the southern states was aided by WPA projects in the 1930s. Regional library systems, organized to provide services which individual libraries could not provide, came more slowly, but the Nelson Associates study of public library systems in the United States noted 491 systems which served 44 percent of the U.S. population and provided referral of requests, centralized purchasing, centralized processing, common borrowing privileges, and bookmobile service.[34]

Academic libraries entered into a series of cooperative organizations as part of institutional consolidations in the 1930s. The Claremont Colleges Libraries (1931), the Fisk University Library (1931), Atlanta University (1936), Dillard University Library (1935), and the Joint University Libraries, Nashville (1938) are examples of varying degrees of consolidation of independent colleges and universities; the Oregon State System of Higher Education provided for centralized administration of seven state-supported institutions.[35] The North Texas Regional Libraries (1943) included both state-supported and independent universities in the Denton-Dallas-Fort Worth area. Less formal organizations include the Cooperating Libraries of Upper New

York (University of Buffalo, Colgate University, Grosvenor Library, Hamilton College, Syracuse University, Cornell University, and Union College) which was active from 1931 to 1939, and the Colorado College and Head Librarians Conference (1941) which preceded the Colorado Academic Libraries Book Processing Center described above.

The Midwest Interlibrary Center, started as a cooperative storage center with a limited acquisitions program for ten large university libraries, soon enlarged its collecting program to include serials, state publications, and many other types of publications not commonly held by its member libraries. In 1965 the name was changed to the Center for Research Libraries; the membership now includes seventy-two members and fifty-eight associate members and thus has become one of the major cooperative library organizations in the United States. Other consortia have developed so rapidly that a 1970 study funded by the U.S. Office of Education determined that at least 125 organizations were active and that 96 of them had been established between 1966 and 1970.

This highly selective tour through the cooperative library projects of the past seventy-five years suggests several common elements:

1. The basic ideas of cooperation are not new and indeed had been proposed many times before they were accepted.
2. Cooperating libraries must be convinced that the potential gain is worth the risk of some loss of individual achievement.
3. Financial assistance beyond the contributions of the individual libraries is essential.
4. A carefully tested technology must be available.
5. A strong organizational structure is necessary to ensure permanence to the cooperative efforts.

American library cooperation has gone through a long period of testing, and significant projects have been accomplished. The possibilities for merging these accomplishments into a network that will serve all users of libraries seem very bright, indeed.

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The Politics of Technological Forces in Library Cooperation

BOYD R. KEENAN

IN THIS ISSUE of *Library Trends*, a number of distinguished librarians discuss the problems faced by libraries in maintaining present cooperative programs and in stimulating new ones. These problems, internal to the library as an institution, are best handled by professional librarians. The question might well be asked, then: What has a nonlibrarian to contribute to a discussion on library cooperation?

The only justification in including a nonlibrarian in such a symposium is the nagging feeling, experienced by some inside and many outside the profession, that major changes in cooperative arrangements in the future may be initiated by developments and forces external to the library system.[1]

Thus it may have been appropriate to invite a nonprofessional to wrestle with a set of problems faced by librarians. But in his passion to present a broad picture, the outsider is apt to become preoccupied with the "cosmic" problems of the centuries rather than to give attention to immediate concerns. Given the willingness of professors to speak broadly beyond their areas of competency, it is easy to sympathize with Margaret Brown of the Free Library of Philadelphia, who voiced the lament that "so many articles dwell on the state of the art in the year 2000 that it is hard to concentrate on what are, by comparison, mundane decisions which must be made by noon today."[2]

Recognizing my vulnerability, I nevertheless must emphasize that politics in an accelerating technological society—totally external to library management itself—will probably affect library cooperation far more in the decades ahead than any planning by the institutional professionals themselves. For instance, international politics and economics have been turned on their heads in recent months; those

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seeking to understand possibilities for American library cooperation cannot ignore these factors.

Like a bolt of lightning, the Arab oil embargo in October 1973 triggered a realization that not even our most distinguished intellectuals had really understood the character of a "high energy" technological society. Although World War II, with the atomic bomb, and the later photographs from outer space of our small "Spaceship Earth" should have taught us the reality of global interdependence, it took the energy-related developments of late 1973 to drive home the point. The closely associated problems of food, fuel, and the economy bear testimony to this reality, and we are still in shock. But it is time to pull ourselves from this state of numbness and look anew at the institutions available to help us. Those institutions which trade in ideas and/or knowledge are critical, and among these is the library.

COMMUNITY LIBRARIES ARE NO LONGER EXEMPT FROM "BIG" TECHNOLOGY"

Why, one might ask, should librarians in America be concerned with conditions made transparent by the Arab oil embargo? The answer is this: if cheap energy in the United States is gone forever (or at least for two or three decades, as experts seem to agree), every library in the country will feel the reverberations for a long time.

Libraries in hundreds of communities across the United States formerly prided themselves on providing provincial services for local citizens. But technology—particularly energy—has ended the concept of provinciality. Small libraries are no longer exempt from the problems of "big technology." Such libraries, no less than our most prestigious university and federal libraries, will be called upon to provide data on the issues of food, fuel, and the economy. Clients of the small library in a community wrestling with the agonies of strip mining will feel the need for sophisticated library services as strongly as the most respected U.S. Senator in Washington. The kind of information needed by this hypothetical community can be generated only if the local library is in some way linked to knowledge centers around the country.

No one—certainly not a layman—can predict the institutional arrangements to be required for such cooperation in a new technologically oriented, energy-intensive era. They could take the form of network linkages to a new bureau in an existing cabinet department (as noted in a proposal cited below), or Congress might decide that energy is so critical that it requires a more independent

national library center similar to the National Library of Medicine or the National Agricultural Library. Proposals will run the gamut.

LIBRARIES WILL BE MORE POLITICIZED

If the international oil cartel holds together, we can be certain that dramatic steps will be taken to build some kind of national energy information system. If this kind of effort indeed becomes necessary, all library managers will be pushed into cooperation among themselves and with politicians. Such a cooperative pursuit of knowledge by libraries—regardless of the organizational form it might take—is almost certain to "politicize" libraries as they have never been politicized before.

Consider again the community in ferment over strip mining. One cannot expect well-meaning coal company spokesmen or public utility executives to accept the allocation of a heavy expenditure of their tax dollars for books and other forms of information produced by environmentalists whom they honestly believe to be irresponsible, if not emotionally unbalanced. I predict a decade which will see libraries embroiled in political controversies matching in intensity earlier "book-burning" episodes associated with religion, pornography, and political subversion.

Battles for control of information dealing with energy and natural resources should not come as a surprise. Although leaders of business and industry in the natural resource area are prone to complain about governmental interference in their affairs, many of these industries have in fact been treated relatively more kindly than other sectors.

To a far greater extent than in most other industries, the primary source of governmental intelligence of the nation's fuel resources is the companies that produce and market oil and gas. The industry's two principal reporting channels are the American Petroleum Institute, which provides the statistics on oil, and the American Gas Association, the industry counterpart for natural gas production.

Environmentalists, suspicious Congressmen, state legislators, and others maintain that American public policy in these critical areas has been made in the dark because of the monopoly on facts accorded the industries themselves. Former U.S. economic advisor for energy, William Johnson, openly acknowledges the dependence of the federal government on industry figures: "I don't see how you can get information that doesn't come from industry. . . . The only way you can get data that doesn't come from industry is to have little bureaucratic gnomes taking statistics from each factory. We have data

from industry and have to accept it more or less as the truth. The notion that the industry is falsifying data is part of a paranoic, McCarthyite attitude that is sweeping the country."[3]

Librarians must prepare themselves emotionally for this ongoing controversy. In doing so, they must stay abreast of dramatic national proposals which would attempt to meet the growing dissatisfaction with the national energy numbers game. A specific example is a bill introduced by Senators Gaylord Nelson (D-Wis.) and Henry Jackson (D-Wash.) to establish a Bureau of National Energy Information within the Department of Commerce. If such an agency is created, it will have far greater impact on the general librarian and his or her clients than previously established centers of information. The host of other centers, including the National Library of Medicine and the National Agricultural Library, affect only particular constituents. Energy and natural resources pervade all aspects of life however, and every American will become a potential client of the library with access to information lodged in such a national repository.

ANOTHER ERA OF NEW POLITICS

If the international oil cartel continues to hold firm, one could argue that a "new politics" of knowledge management will confront libraries of all kinds as problems associated with fuel, food, and the economy become more complex and intense. Pressure will mount in demands for data to support ideologues scattered all across the social and political spectrums. Congressmen, state legislators, leaders in executive branches, and their research aides all will press as never before for evidence to support their projects and politically expedient positions. To a nonlibrarian, it appears that those operating libraries in such a super-technological society will be faced with some new questions of professionalism in another "new politics" era.

For example, as a broker of knowledge, does the librarian have a professional responsibility to call the attention of his or her client to unwelcome information? The developing trend of all levels of government to become involved in energy management provides many rich examples. One of the most complex and most significant issues in the context of the total U.S. federal system is the increasing competition among states to capture billions of private and federal dollars to construct new energy-producing installations.

Most experts agree that the management of energy, together with the impact of total natural resource problems on the national economy, represents as serious a threat to the federal system as it has ever faced.

But cooperation among the states is almost nonexistent. The economic pressure mounts daily for individual states to use every means available to gain federal funds—including the "massaging" and refashioning of data obtained in prestigious libraries.

There are already many examples of states "floating" multi-million-dollar bond issues and making massive outright grants in interstate battles to bring untested pilot plants for coal gasification and liquefaction within their borders. A librarian might well ask: How does all this relate to my own professionalism? The answer is contained in the suddenness with which the total energy political situation struck the public in the fall of 1973. Librarians with keys to critical information, formerly unused and unnoticed, have suddenly become powerful gatekeepers of data.

As already noted, it is not a myth propagated by leftist agitators that powerful energy corporations control most of the critical data required to formulate reasonable public policy. As increasingly irritated citizens discover the seriousness of the situation, they will turn to the closest library—the one institution with an open door and professionals available to advise them.

To note the "closed" character of many energy corporations is not to imply that a grand conspiracy exists to hide pertinent facts from the public. Rather, the public and those responsible for the public's interest simply had never realized that the survival of the republic was directly bound to the availability of such data.

COOPERATIVE ACTIVITY AND STATE "STAMPEDES"

Our federal system tends to compound the problems encountered by all nations in the pursuit of energy. The seriousness of the situation understandably has galvanized state leaders as well as federal politicians; all want to stimulate action to make the country as independent in energy affairs as possible.

But it is to the political and economic advantage of certain sectors to stampede the states into dramatic, costly, and noncoordinated searches for energy sources. As in every other previous American crisis, profiteers have much to gain from a lack of transparency in such matters. Every librarian who seeks to attack this invisibility becomes a potential enemy of such profiteers.

A specific example is the vulnerability of state leaders to both the blandishments and cries of alarm by coal companies, public utility corporations, and natural gas and oil firms. Naturally, these interests are pressing the states for millions of dollars in assistance for new

facilities. I believe the crisis is so critical that even in the absence of any clear federal energy policy, states should consider some subsidies for the companies, but a woeful ignorance exists about the relationship of such installations to the broader national and international scenes.

The energy corporations want long-run federal and state guarantees for assistance on all major energy projects, but their spokesmen often become defensive when scholars of the international scene seek to air their concern over "crash" programs on the domestic front. U.S. economic development increasingly is suffering, relative to that of foreign competitors. The argument is therefore being made effectively by some that we should ponder a while before mortgaging our future on massive installations that could become "white elephants." What if the OPEC (Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries) cartel is broken, oil prices drop, oil becomes plentiful, and the American landscape is strewn with such white elephants?[4]

Such a concern has led Secretary of State Henry Kissinger, ironically perhaps, to seek a way to guarantee relatively *high* oil prices around the world for the next few years. Only then, his argument runs, can American taxpayers be protected against disastrous fluctuating economic conditions if American industry—aided by public dollars—does proceed with energy projects totaling many billions of dollars.

But librarians may ask how such policy-oriented questions relate to their day-to-day activities. It seems that since so few state leaders are aware of these subtle and complex points, the professional library community around the country, as one of our largest institutional systems dealing with knowledge, should attempt to inform its users. Certainly the most enlightened of the citizenry could be apprised of the depths of the energy problem through our library system.

State stampedes motivated by private interests with much to gain could be halted by cooperative campaigns to get materials on the energy and natural resource dialogue into the hands of opinion leaders and the general public. Perhaps no contemporary topic could so well offer itself to state and regional library associations for educational programs as the energy question. Happily, a few librarians have embarked alone on such campaigns.

LESSONS FOR THE FUTURE

It should be clear that I view the 1973 Arab oil embargo as a "cosmic" moment, laden with lessons which we should learn for future crises. The chaos which accompanied the imposition of the embargo

demonstrated, perhaps more dramatically than anything in U.S. history, the critical relationship between political power, knowledge and libraries.

At every level of government, the search for information became frantic. In the international arena, powerful nations used every device available to obtain data relating to oil supplies. Black market activity flourished in the exchange of both oil itself and information about oil. Within the United States, the quest for information was hardly less bizarre. A new federal agency was hastily created and a petroleum allocation procedure developed which involved the states and private corporations. Unfortunately, the experience stands as an indictment of both our governmental institutions and our knowledge dissemination system.

Governors were required to appoint state petroleum allocation officers. A sorry spectacle followed, including dismal reports of allocation officers not hearing from their federal counterparts for weeks and literally not knowing of regulations established in Washington. Individuals who had never before heard of the *Federal Register* were forced to make million-dollar allocation decisions affecting human lives and corporate destinies. Often these decisions were made on the basis of uneducated interpretations of regulations scanned in *Register* copies borrowed from local libraries. Knowledge—albeit ill-understood and second-hand—had indeed become power in a national crisis.

However, the nation did survive the embargo, and now permanent energy agencies have been established at all levels. Presumably they will function effectively if the country's jugular vein is ever threatened again. Yet we should not ignore the fact that, in spite of billion-dollar government agencies, a massive corporate complex with the world's greatest intellectual talent, and expensive "fail safe" information systems, the American polity was nearly staggered.

Depending upon one's ideological stance, there are many possible lessons to be learned from the experience of the 1973-74 winter. Some contend that the chief lesson relates to the dangers of permitting a segment of the private sector—in this instance the massive oil companies—to serve as the primary repository for information or "knowledge" in an area critical to the public interest. Without arguing that issue here, the events surrounding the embargo certainly illustrate the point that the country's well-being is likely to be increasingly dependent upon technological information systems built by libraries in concert.

As unbelievable as it might be, representatives of several state oil allocation agencies confided to me that only the patient assistance of reference specialists in small public libraries kept their operations from stalling in October and November 1973.

As I wrote several months before the 1973 embargo, "the chore of educating thinking people to the enormity and complexity of the energy question will be the most demanding ever undertaken by a democratic system."[5] Any failure in this assignment will be interpreted around the world as final evidence that a representative system of government cannot control its own technology. To those in the energy industries (and elsewhere) who claim that we cannot educate people to understand these issues, I must respond that their concern, if justified, suggests a new form of government rather than a subtle subversion of our existing democracy. If the broad aspects of the politics of energy affairs and other technological questions cannot be communicated to thinking people, democracies are finished.

This is the point where leadership in the library profession again comes into focus. In a democracy, the knowledge industry must ultimately be controlled by the people, not by the munitions makers or the energy barons. If such control is to be maintained by the people, the "open" library—whether in a prestigious university or in a small community wrestling with such questions as strip mining—will be a major battleground far into the future.

The idea of a democratic system will become a farce if libraries around the country do not successfully join forces to provide sound information which will demythologize the prevailing notion that the public cannot be educated to understand the forces of technology.

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Coordination by Compact: A Legal Basis for Interstate Library Cooperation

HARRY S. MARTIN

There are today more than 75,000 public, school and university libraries and information centers in the United States—a national resource serving all the American people.

Effective development and management of these library resources are essential for the continued progress of the nation in education, science, industry, agriculture, commerce, and foreign relations. Moreover libraries and information centers are now at a critical juncture in their development. . . .

Coordination is, at last, being achieved within individual States; however, coordination among the States, as well as between the States and the Federal government, is not yet a reality.

The development of such coordination and the formulation of comprehensive national and State policies for the enhancement of our library and information resources will be a prime objective of the White House Conference on Libraries and Information Services. . . .

The Committee stresses that it does not expect the White House Conference . . . to develop any compulsory national blueprint or master plan for library and information services.

On the contrary, the autonomy and diversity of libraries and information services must be continued.

But it is important, as well, that new patterns of cooperation and coordination be developed if the educational, economic, and cultural needs of the American people are to be attained.

House Committee on Education and Labor[1]

INTERSTATE LIBRARY COOPERATION is entering a new stage of development. As a result, new patterns of cooperation are emerging. A

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possible, though perhaps improbable, alternative is federal enactment of the scheme presented by the National Commission on Libraries and Information Science.[2] A more likely alternative is more extensive use of the patterns of cooperation currently employed by libraries and state governments. After a brief survey of the variety of legal devices traditionally used to support library cooperation, this article will examine one device, the interstate compact, which holds great promise as a tool for coordinating interstate library services. The compact is currently used indirectly to support two kinds of library cooperation across state lines. However, the possibility for a more forceful, direct use of the compact approach has a potential of achieving the coordination requested by the House Committee on Education and Labor.

The choice of an appropriate legal base for interstate library cooperation will usually depend as much on operational and administrative criteria as on legal factors. There are few legal restrictions as such on interstate cooperation, and voluntary programs of various sorts have operated across state lines with some success. However, there is a paucity of legislation permitting or encouraging interstate library programs. This lack of enabling legislation has restricted the formal options open to such cooperative ventures and perhaps kept the scale of interstate library cooperative programs at a low level. The present concern is to identify a means by which the scale of these operations can be increased.

Various legal devices can be used to further interstate library cooperation. In addition, many nonlegal arrangements have traditionally played important roles in such cooperation. Placed on a continuum ranging from informal to highly formal patterns of organization, these devices include articles of incorporation, interstate compacts, and federal legislation. In the past, library cooperative endeavors have tended to be informal, local arrangements among similar types of libraries. There is some indication that the patterns of the past will not meet the needs of the future. Recent developments indicate a trend toward more formal, even governmental, connections among different types of libraries over a geographically large area. Interstate ventures, because of their scope, generally require detailed planning and very formal structures. Creating regional union lists or conducting interlibrary loan operations across state lines may prove to be relatively straightforward, but where state funds or formal governmental commitments to permanent service operations are

required, the situation becomes complex and informal arrangements prove inadequate.[3]

An informal agreement consists simply of a mutual decision to cooperate in certain activities. It is not binding on the parties, but has the disadvantage of not providing an unambiguous record of the transaction. In time, this lack of an official record can easily lead to confusion about the exact contour of the cooperative program. A recent survey of 125 library consortia indicates that 60 percent have been established by incorporation. Difficulties due to oral or poorly written agreements were singled out.[4] Wherever one library comes to depend on another, even if there is no transfer of funds, a written, enforceable agreement is especially necessary.

Contracts are enforceable agreements with many uses in library cooperation,[5] but they are limited in their scope and flexibility. A contract for some service usually leaves it to each party to determine how that party will arrange performance of the contract. Where ongoing service programs have to be coordinated, however, some mutually agreeable form of continuous administration is usually necessary, and it is difficult to cover such details by contract. Contracts envisage the specific performance of predetermined acts, not the evolutionary development of service programs. In dealing with commercial enterprises, however, contracts are the preferable device. One might argue that a library cannot enter a "cooperative" program with a commercial outfit. On the other hand, operations such as BIBNET (Bibliographic Network) can generate regional networks of a sort through a series of individual contracts for bibliographic services. With perhaps no more than a general idea of which libraries are or might become involved, an individual library could contract with BIBNET and find itself sharing a data base with several other institutions. To this extent, a network now exists. Developing further types of cooperative activity, such as sharing the resources covered by the data base, would, however, require further agreements.

The scope and nature of interestate library cooperation increasingly requires more than a simple listing of the activities in which the member libraries have agreed to cooperate. These activities, listed in Table 1, are so numerous and complex that continuous administrative supervision is necessary. Where such administration is handled by the regular staff of the member libraries, the results are predictably unsatisfactory.[6] A permanent administrative body is needed, operating under a set of by-laws which clearly define its duties and

TABLE I

List of Library Consortium Activities

Activity	Number of Consortia Currently Operating Activity	Percent	Number of Consortia Planning or Developing Activity	Percent
Reciprocal borrowing privileges	97	78	4	3
Expanded interlibrary loan service	80	64	9	7
Union catalogs or lists	78	62	24	19
Photocopying services	72	58	11	9
Reference services	50	40	16	13
Delivery services	44	35	14	11
Mutual notification of purchase	40	32	23	18
Special communications services	35	28	12	10
Publication program	34	27	14	11
Catalog card production	34	27	12	10
(Other) Cataloging support	33	26	18	14
Joint purchasing of materials	30	24	29	23
Assigned subject specialization in acquisitions	28	22	33	26
(Other) Acquisitions activities	22	18	21	17
Microfilming	21	17	9	7
Central resource or storage center	21	17	11	9
Bibliographic center	17	14	16	13
Joint research projects	17	14	18	14
Clearinghouse	15	12	13	10
Personnel training	15	12	21	17
User orientation program	14	11	13	10
Other	9	7	6	5
Bindery services	7	6	4	3
Recruitment programs	6	5	5	4

Source: Patrick, Ruth J. *Guidelines for Library Cooperation.* Santa Monica, Calif., System Development Corp., 1972, p. 71.

powers. Of seven library consortia recently selected for in-depth study and which were not subsidiary components of higher level consortia, two were incorporated, two had constitutions, two had written agreements, and only one had an informal agreement.

When operating a variety of service programs in several legal jurisdictions with a large capital investment, formal legal structures are clearly preferable to informal arrangements. The degree of formality, in fact, affects the powers which can be exercised by the organization as

well as the type and degree of financing available to it. A more formally organized and politically secure legal base lends itself to a greater number of services which can be offered under the basic agreement; in addition, fewer legal problems are likely to arise. On the other hand, formal agreements, constitutions, by-laws, etc., require a certain amount of planning and negotiation. Even more formal arrangements may require governmental approval. Many library consortia have been as interested in ease of establishment as in anything else. For that reason, those consortia that wished to be established as independent legal entities have, to date, generally sought incorporation as a nonprofit institution or affiliation with an existing interstate organization—usually one of the regional education consortia.

Corporate status—recognition as a legal entity which can sue and be sued in its own name—provides a liability shelter against individual financial responsibility for its directors. Corporate existence is not determined by human life span. The psychological effect of dealing with a corporation provides increased assurance in daily business transactions. Furthermore, the lines of authority, the rights of members, and the limitations to third persons become much more certain when incorporated. Incorporation tends to produce more orderly administration of an organization's affairs.[7] In addition, nonprofit corporations receive favorable tax status, as do contributions to them. Most library consortia will quaify for nonprofit status.[8]

The advantages of incorporation were recently recognized by the Research Libraries Group (RLG), a consortium of four major research libraries. The libraries of Harvard, Yale and Columbia Universities and the Research Libraries of the New York Public Library will each be represented on the board of directors. The group plans to explore cooperative acquisition, resource sharing, and conservation techniques through cooperative organization, and intends to build a common bibliographic system as well.[9] The RLG is the first major consortium to receive some opposition. Publishers have viewed the cooperative acquisitions program as a possible threat. But the most vigorous criticism of this "thieves' consortium" has been directed at the loan-by-photocopy program,[10] where the arguments raised against the National Library of Medicine in the *Williams & Wilkins* case[11] have been applied. If the criticism expands to legal action, RLG will be thankful for its incorporation.

The most famous library consortium incorporated as a not-for-profit organization is the Ohio College Library Center (OCLC) a nonprofit corporation chartered by the state of Ohio on July 6, 1967.

The stated purpose of OCLC is to "operate a computerized, regional library center to serve the academic libraries of Ohio . . . designed so as to become a part of any national electronic network for bibliographic communication."[12] In 1971, an on-line, computerized, shared-cataloging service became operational. Other subsystems are in varying stages of development.[13]

Membership in OCLC is restricted to academic libraries (both state and private) associated with institutions of higher education in Ohio which are operated exclusively for educational purposes and qualify as exempt organizations under Section 501(c)(3) of the U.S. Internal Revenue Code. The membership elects a board of trustees which in turn elects the officers of the corporations.[14] Administrative responsibility is centered in an executive director appointed by the board of trustees. Funding for OCLC operations comes from membership dues, user fees, and special grants or donations.

The impact of OCLC on the library profession has been considerable. Several groups of libraries have investigated the possibility of participating in this network, either by linking directly with the Ohio operation or by replicating it in their own areas. Others have adopted a more cautious approach. The fact remains that OCLC, after years of discussion, study and debate over the prospects of networking, actually put together a working, on-line cataloging system. Other networks such as NELINET and SOLINET are now linking with OCLC, with the eventual prospect of replicating OCLC programs separately. Whatever the benefits or disadvantages in modeling the technical components of a network after OCLC, duplicating its legal and organizational structure is an entirely different matter.

Incorporation in one state can take a variety of formats. OCLC is an eleemosynary or nonprofit corporation. Public corporations are sometimes established to operate some public utility, but are restricted to intrastate activities.[15] Business corporations operate for money, often in several states. In fact, there are several privately operated networks in operation at the present time. Information Dynamics Corporation's BIBNET is one example of a private, profit-oriented bibliographic network.[16] Mead Data Central's LEXIS operation is a special-purpose, computer-based information system aimed at lawyers.[17] While these privately owned networks can be expected to proliferate, they hardly form a model for regional library cooperation. Although their services might be purchased on a regional basis, a business corporation could only supply specific services, not coordinate regional library activities.

But is a nonprofit corporation any better? Interstate operations, even for a nonprofit enterprise, are necessarily more complex than intrastate functions. Instead of dealing with the laws of one jurisdiction, the laws of each state as well as appropriate federal regulations, must be considered. Selecting the state of incorporation is only the first step. The purposes and activities of the network must conform to the requirements of each state's nonprofit corporation act. In addition, network operations may end up being closely regulated by a different set of state agencies in each state.[18]

However, while interstate network operations may be more complex legally than intrastate ones, the legal barriers are not insurmountable. Incorporation in one state as a nonprofit entity is a feasible way of offering certain computer-based services to a multistate area, insofar as the narrow questions of legality are concerned. But there are larger-scale problems involved. A limited corporation may be an inappropriate vehicle for coordinating what is increasingly being viewed as a public resource, namely, the provision of library and information services.[19] Millions of dollars are spent each year by the states and the federal government on library services. Many states are coordinating these services into state networks.[20] Librarians themselves are pushing for recognition of information as a public asset and of library and information networks as a public utility. Coordination of public utilities and disbursement of governmental monies cannot be left to a private, nonprofit corporation.

Coordination of state networks and development of regional library services are areas in which the contributions of traditional cooperative approaches are necessarily limited. If regional interstate library networking were merely a matter of providing low-cost services designed to encourage a sharing of resources, this might not be so. What is really involved, however, is the effective administration of a high-cost public service with political overtones on a multistate basis. For interstate activities at this level, a legal instrument is needed which will have equal effectiveness in each state involved. That requires governmental participation, and the only alternatives are: (1) assumption of responsibility and control by the federal government, perhaps through a federal corporation like the Tennessee Valley Authority; or (2) resort to an interstate compact to create a multistate agency.

In theory, the nature of the federal system does not take into account the existence of interests of areas more comprehensive than states yet less inclusive than the nation. The region does not have a formal legal

place in the political system. Rather it must gain its institutional character by federal, interstate or joint federal-state action.[21] Moreover, a regional organization lives a precarious existence since it must serve regional interests without subverting national or state goals. Nevertheless, regional institutions have gained increasing prominence. Richard Leach calls regionalism "a major new development in modern American Federalism."[22] A lead story in the *National Observer* proposed replacing the fifty states with twenty regional republics.[23] In 1972, President Nixon "established a Federal Regional Council for each of the ten standard Federal regions."[24]

Each of these councils is composed of the directors of the regional offices of the Departments of Labor, Health, Education and Welfare, and Housing and Urban Development, the Office of Economic Opportunity, the Environmental Protection Agency, and the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration, and a secretarial representative from the Department of Transporation. The function of each Federal Regional Council is to have the participating agencies conduct their grantmaking activities in concert through: "the development of long-term regional interagency and intergovernmental strategies for resource allocations to better respond to the needs of states and local communities."[25]

The creation of federal-state commissions, aimed at improving the economic conditions of certain depressed areas of the country such as Appalachia and the Ozarks, is a further example of the federal government's willingness to adopt a regional view in certain types of problem-solving administration.[26] There are many other examples of such regional orientation by the national government. One of the earliest and best known is the Tennessee Valley Authority (TVA). TVA is, perhaps, a classic example of a federal agency organized on a regional basis, the region in this instance being the valley of the Tennessee River and its tributaries, an area encompassing portions of seven states. The act which set up the authority in 1933 gave it the power to improve the navigation and to provide for the flood control of the Tennessee River, to provide for reforestation and the proper use of marginal lands, and to provide for the agricultural and industrial development of the valley.[27] From this act, TVA developed an amazing number of activities, including navigation, flood control, power operations, fertilizer and munitions research and development, forestry and soil conservation, recreation, malaria control, education, and even library development.[28] TVA is a federal agency, established

by Congressional legislation in an area in which the federal interest is clear.

The Commerce Clause would also be one possible source of Congressional authority over the knowledge and information resources of the country. In addition, the taxing and spending power of the federal government has been accepted for some time as nearly unlimited,[29] and the use of grants-in-aid could possibly establish an agency resembling TVA.[30] The current pattern for such a federally organized regional library network lies in the ten regional medical libraries established under the Medical Library Assistance Act of 1965.[31] The regional node of this network was not established by constructing a new facility, but by grants to an existing public or private nonprofit medical library with the potential for serving as a regional medical library. The funds were actually made available through performance contracts, as the libraries had to meet certain standards and agree to certain conditions. Network development within each of the ten regions is not yet highly developed. No regional medical library has yet begun operating an interstate bibliographic network of the OCLC type, for instance. As legal entities, however, they are well suited to this purpose.

If federal initiative in library networking were limited to scientific and technical fields in the foreseeable future, it would be quite understandable. Medical research has been given high priority to date. The Committee on Scientific and Technical Information (COSATI) and the Committee on Scientific and Technical Communication (SATCOM) serve as foci for similar interests.[32] Nevertheless, many political scientists have pointed out a gradual shift of power from the states to the federal government over the last century.[33] The trend identified is the transfer of effective power of political decision-making to higher governmental levels encompassing wider geographic areas. Common examples are the transfer of major social welfare responsibilities from the states to the federal government and the transfer of major business regulation to such agencies as the Interstate Commerce Commission and the Securities Exchange Commission. More recent examples indicate an expansion of these centralization tendencies to include the allocation of natural resources and control of the quality of the environment. Increasing concern with library networking in itself may be anticipating an inherent tendency to organize information resources over a wider region, as was proposed by the National Commission on Libraries and Information Science,

and as will be discussed in the upcoming White House Conference on Library and Information Services.

State governments have been aware of this increasing centralization of power for some time. The moans over federal encroachment on states' rights were once quite prevalent. In recent years, states have begun to adopt intermediate devices for regional centralization of power and thereby retard the giving up to the federal government of many areas of interestate concern. The device most frequently used has been the interstate compact.[34]

The interstate compact provides the states with the treaty-making power of independent sovereign nations.[35] Although an interstate compact is almost always enacted as a statute in each jurisdiction which is a party to it, compacts effectively act as contracts between the signatory parties.[36] The potential of such interstate agreements for disruption of the federal fabric is so great that a clause was inserted in the U.S. Constitution governing their use; Article I, Section 10 absolutely prohibits states from entering into treaties with foreign powers, and conditions the right of a state to enter into an agreement or compact with another state upon the consent of Congress.[37] Subsequent interpretation by the U.S. Supreme Court established the rule that only those agreements which affect the political balance within the federal system or which affect a power delegated to the national government must be approved by Congress.[38] As a practical matter, Congressional consent is sought and obtained in almost every case. Sometimes Congress will even grant advance consent to interstate compacts to encourage state cooperation in fields where Congress would like to see more action.[39] Failure to obtain Congressional consent is not necessarily destructive, as the Constitution does not specify either a time or method for Congressional approval. Furthermore, consent may be inferred. Failure of Congress to object actively to the continued operation of the Southern Regional Education Compact may well indicate an informal, implied grant of consent,[40] especially since segregation in the operation of the Southern Region Educational Board facilities is no longer the issue it was when the debate over approval by Congress took place. In addition, extensive debate at the time over the question of consent to this compact characterized the agreement as being of such character as not to require Congressional approval in the first place.[41]

Initially, the use of the compact device was restricted to the settlement of boundary disputes.[42] In fact, until the landmark Colorado River and New York Port Authority compacts of the 1920s,

nearly every interstate compact in existence concerned boundary matters in the narrowest sense.

In the last fifty years, however, states have been much more creative in their use of compacts. Now, in addition to settlement of interstate disputes, compacts are used to establish mutual aid programs, to set up study and recommendatory commissions, to regulate multijurisdictional resources, and to provide a variety of interstate services.[43] From one-time resolution of interstate disputes, the compact has evolved into a device which is increasingly used to establish agencies concerned with the indefinite long-term administration of continuing interstate problems.

Although more than 150 compacts of varying types are now in existence, no detailed classification scheme yet exists.[44] For our purposes, however, four categories of interstate compacts are of interest.[45] First, there are natural resource development or public welfare compacts, such as the water and fishery compacts. The interest being protected or fostered is general to the entire region involved. User charges are negligible, but it is reasonable and politically acceptable to resort to general state revenues for supporting funds. Interestingly enough, informal federal involvement in this type of compact is common. Congress regularly appropriates funds for operating costs to incerstate compacts in the field of conservation and water apportionment. Under the Atlantic and Gulf States Marine Fisheries Compacts, the U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service performs research for the compact commission. The focus of this type of compact is on the proper use of existing resources.

Regulatory compact agencies, also supported as a rule by the general budget of the signatory states, provide no services of their own but are empowered to make rules for the smooth coordination of activities that cross state lines. These agencies will often operate in one of the thirty Standard Metropolitan Statistical Areas which occupy portions of more than one state. The Washington Metropolitan Area Transit Regulation Compact, to which Maryland, Virginia, and the District of Columbia are parties, is an example of this type. This compact creates a bus-taxi regulatory commission designed to regulate routes and rates and encourage better service in the greater Washington area.

Self-sustaining proprietary service compacts, where revenue bonds and user charges carry nearly all of the financial burden, are perhaps the most famous category of compacts because of the well-known example, the Port of New York Authority, which has evolved into an agency with more power and greater financial resources than many

state governments. As such, many persons look to it as the prototype for all compacts. However, as one commentator pointed out, this overlooks the fact that the authority was created and is being sustained by a set of conditions which probably do not obtain elsewhere, whether the goal be service, regulation, or resource development.[46]

Another cateogry of compact—and one into which regional library networks will probably fall—is the non-self-sustaining proprietary service compact, designed to create and operate large-scale projects where revenue bonds and user charges may not be able to carry the bulk of the financial burden. This is the category into which most future interstate service compacts will fall if they make a serious effort to handle non-self-sustaining high-cost governmental functions.

The application of interstate compacts to library networks is not entirely theoretical; in fact, more than twenty-five states have adopted an Interstate Library Compact. Illinois adopted the first compact in 1961.[47] In 1962, the Council of State Governments developed a variant version at the request of the New England state librarians.[48] The Illinois form is used primarily in the Midwest, and the Council of State Governments version elsewhere. Two states, North Dakota and Minnesota, have different versions, which raises theoretical problems at least, since evidence of an agreement between states normally requires that each state enact the compact in substantially identical versions. The two versions of the Interstate Library Compact are, in fact, quite dissimilar in form, although the thrust of each might be said to be similar.

Both versions of the Interstate Library Compact are primarily concerned with permitting local libraries to enter cooperative arrangements with libraries in contiguous states, "where the distribution of population or of existing and potential library resources make the provision of library service on an interstate basis the most effective way of providing adequate and efficient service."[49] The primary emphasis here is on the interstate metropolitan area. Each version of the compact designates a compact administrator who, unless granted other powers by his state, primarily serves as a clearinghouse and depository for any interstate agreements entered into by libraries within the state. The Council of State Governments version, as passed in New York, provides for the creation of interstate library districts by interested public library agencies and authorizes cooperative programs between state library agencies of the party states.[50]

The Interstate Library Compact would be an awkward vehicle for

the creation of a regional network, specifically because no separate commission or agency has been established to plan and operate a network, nor have any funds been committed for such a purpose. The Council of State Governments also takes the view that the limited scope of the compact excludes it from the requirement of Congressional consent.[51] Thus, the creation of an interstate metropolitan library authority along the lines suggested by Alex Ladenson would probably require an interstate compact aimed at that specific purpose.[52] Since many large metropolitan areas encompass portions of several states, compacts establishing interstate metropolitan library agencies may be even more useful than regional compacts covering several states. On the other hand, the concerns of each probably differ so much that they require both.

There is one regional library network which does derive legal authority from an interstate compact. NELINET (New England Library Network) is a sponsored program of the New England Board of Higher Education (NEBHE) and holds legal status by virtue of that sponsorship. NEBHE is a nonprofit educational corporation, according to the NELINET statement of policies and procedures.[53] Actually, the board is a creature of compact, designated by the New England Higher Education Compact as the administrating body of the compact and specifically established as an agency of each state party to the compact.[54] Nevertheless, NELINET apparently prefers to view itself as an agent of a nonprofit corporation and, like OCLC, restricts membership to "any not-for-profit library, library agency or library consortium in the New England region."[55] Nonprofit libraries outside the six-state region may be granted affiliate membership.

NELINET staff members are employees of NEBHE. The director is appointed by the executive director of NEBHE with the advice and consent of the executive committee of NELINET. All fiscal and administrative support for NELINET is rendered directly by NEBHE, which retains a final veto power over all NELINET operations.

This retention of control by NEBHE over all phases of NELINET activities is interesting. Perhaps there was some doubt about the propriety of establishing a library network by an agency charged with providing "a co-ordinated educational program for . . . the several states of New England . . . with the aim of furthering higher education in the fields of medicine, dentistry, veterinary medicine, public health and in professional, technical, scientific, literary and other fields."[56] That is a broad mandate, of course, but it might be interpreted as restricting NELINET activitites to providing library

support services within an educational context. Subject to control by the NEBHE, NELINET is free to operate as a regional legal entity.

NELINET serves as a possible model for a regional network because of the existence of two other regional educational commissions. The Western Education Compact binds thirteen western states in a program aimed primarily at sharing existing training facilities in graduate and professional education, thus expanding the pool of technically trained graduates in the health and other professions without the necessity for each state to develop comprehensive programs in a variety of fields.[57] The compact was approved by Congress in 1953 and is patterned after the Southern Regional Educational Compact, which had failed to gain such consent a few years earlier, largely because of opposition from the NAACP and other civil rights organizations.[58] Nevertheless, both the Western Interstate Commission for Higher Education (WICHE) and the Southern Regional Education Board (SREB) continue to sponsor a wide range of regional programs for graduate, professional and technical education.

Under WICHE, for example, residents of New Mexico and Alaska (states with no graduate programs in library science) may attend library school in one of the other western states and, under the graduate student exchange program, pay lower tuition rates than they would otherwise. The program is limited to residents holding four-year college degrees, and students must meet the standard admission requirements of the library schools. They must also apply to their home states for certification of eligibility in the graduate student exchange program. The home states pay $2,500 per two semesters or three quarters to the accredited graduate library school for each certified student who attends. WICHE acts as broker and referee for the program, which encompasses many fields of study; library science was added in 1973. A second library education program sponsored by WICHE is the Continuing Education and Library Resources Program, designed to improve the delivery of library and information services in the western states through programs of continuing education for personnel at all levels and in all types of libraries. The program is also responsible for promoting cooperation among the states through the sharing of library resources.

A recent survey of academic library consortia revealed a consensus that being a component of a larger consortium encouraged the developmental progress of the library consortium.[59] One reason for this is that a good track record in other areas will stimulate and assist library cooperation. In addition, the larger body offers a forum for

airing library concerns before users and administrators. Furthermore, the existence of the larger group provided an opportunity for cooperation that libraries might not have developed on their own. Existing physical facilities, administrative support and funding sources are already available and do not have to be developed from scratch. Furthermore, the approval of institutional presidents for library cooperative programs is more forthcoming where the institutions are already cooperating in other areas.

On the other hand, membership in an educational consortium is restricted, which limits its use as a tool for interstate library cooperation. Some federal funds are marked for use by all types of libraries. Some projects might require the participation of nonacademic libraries. Some institutional presidents are still interested in protecting their autonomy. A clear disadvantage to membership in an existing consortium is the necessity to compete for consortium funds with other components or projects of the larger group.[60] The use of an interstate compact on education may be geographically restricted. Although the Southern Regional Education Compact specifically permits signatory states to enter supplemental agreements applicable to a portion of the member states,[61] no provision exists allowing states not members of the compact to enter into such agreements on an equal footing with member states. For states without an existing interstate compact capable of providing an umbrella agency for library cooperation, the alternative for establishing interstate library programs is by a separately enacted compact, designed to fit the requirements of the region involved and requiring specific state political and financial support.

Compacts are essential to any nonfederal interstate undertaking of a formal, binding nature.[62] They represent a special commitment of a state to a permanent or long-range interstate undertaking. Compacts take precedence over ordinary state statutes;[63] by superseding the laws of individual states in much the same manner that federal legislation is supreme over state legislation, compacts avoid the various conflict-of-laws problems involved in ordinary interstate business transactions. As programmatic devices, compacts are quite useful. They have the potential for greater state achievement in interstate problem-solving, although they also represent diminished state autonomy in decisions on the same matters.

Despite this last fact, state governors are enthusiastic supporters of this device because of its merits as a tool of executive action.[64] Governors generally retain limited power over state government,

especially when compared to the federal chief executive. An interstate compact frequently enables a governor to tap federal grants-in-aid and resources of sister states not otherwise available to him in promoting his own state's program. It also removes some of the legal barriers to solving regional interstate problems. Poverty in the Appalachian area, for example, can only feebly be attacked by each of the Appalachian states operating alone; together, with the assistance of the federal government's massive resources, constructive improvements can be obtained. Since most interstate compacts provide a governing board or commission for their administration, almost always comprised of gubernatorial appointees and by law required to report to him, the governor's control over his state's bureaucracy is somewhat enhanced. This latter point, however, is a double-edged matter. His control over his state's functioning may become more complicated, less flexible, and more burdened with interstate obligations which must be met if the compact is to succeed. The feature that probably has always been attractive to states' rights proponents—the assumption of state authority by compact in a realm which may easily be preempted under federal control—is that which especially pleases the governors. Whatever the reasons, they have shown repeatedly that they like this method of handling interstate problems.

Another strong advocate of interstate compacts is the Council of State Governments, which has yet to deny the merits of any compacts already on the books and which has repeatedly utilized as exemplary models such powerful interstate arrangements as the Port of New York Authority, the Delaware River Commission, the Interstate Oil and Gas Compact, etc.[65]

Interstate compacts are still essentially experimental in the American system. Their full potentialities remain untapped. Within the last few years, a new type of compact has emerged with even greater potential for handling large-scale regional operations in an effective way, yet in such a manner as to retain a large element of local control. The federal-interstate compact offers the most direct alternative to the federal agency model for handling multistate affairs.[66] The model for this type of agency is the Delaware River Basin Compact.[67]

The Delaware River Basin Compact created a regional agency with territorial jurisdiction over the area of the Delaware River Basin, including areas of the signatory states (Pennsylvania, New York, New Jersey, and Delaware). The agency is to develop water resources, control water quality, improve flood control, operate facilities for the

generation and transmission of hydroelectric power, and set rates and charges for such power. The implementing powers granted by the signatories include: borrowing and bond issuing powers, with a pledge of the credit of the agency but not that of the signatories; the power of eminent domain; and the power to adopt necessary rules and regulations to effectuate the varied purposes of the agency. Provision is also made for capital fund contributions from the signatories in accordance with cost-sharing provisions previously agreed to, but subject to the legislative appropriation of the respective parties. No mandatory obligation is imposed on any signatory with respect to finance. No individual, corporate, or political body in the basin may undertake erection of water facilities in the basin unless the agency approves by including that facility in the comprehensive plan.

Finances have been placed on a voluntary basis despite an anticipated deficit in the operation of various agency projects. In dealing with appropriations, the compact makes no distinction between the actual area of the basin and the whole area of the signatories; that is, the compact sets up no "appropriation districts" within the states.

The federal government agrees to substantially the same terms except that its agreement is subject to the provision that: "Nothing in this compact shall be construed to relinquish the functions, powers or duties of the Congress of the United States with respect to the control of any navigable waters within the basin, nor shall any provision hereof be construed in derogation of any of the constitutional powers of the Congress to regulate commerce among the States and with foreign nations."[68] Further reservations of federal power are found in a provision for congressional approval of any water project, and in the power "to withdraw the federal government as a party to the compact or to revise or modify the terms, conditions and provisions under which it may remain a party by amendment, repeal or modification of any federal statute applicable thereto."[69] Under the allocation-of-cost formula, the federal government will provide about one-half of the financing of the comprehensive plan for the Delaware River Basin Compact.

The agency which is to exercise the compact powers consists of five members, one from each of the signatory states and one representing the federal government. Each has one vote, and no action is to be taken except on a majority vote of the total membership.

Although the validity of the several compacts which the federal

government has entered has not been litigated in the courts, the U.S. Supreme Court repeatedly has expressed itself in favor of the compact device to solve regional problems.[70]

There also would seem to be little merit in the possible objection that federal entry into a federal-interstate compact with regulatory powers would amount to an unlawful delegation of regulatory powers over interstate commerce. Congress has been said to have a broad choice of regulatory agencies to carry out the law in areas in which the federal power to act is clear,[71] and the doctrine is well established that Congress may confer upon the states the power to regulate commerce in ways they otherwise could not.[72] Even without an expressed reservation such as that contained in the Delaware River Basin Compact, it would seem that under the supremacy clause alone, the federal would prevail in the event of conflict between a compact policy and a subsequently enacted federal policy.[73]

A federal-interstate compact seems to be an ideal form for channeling federal funds into multistate services while retaining a high degree of state participation. A federal authority on the TVA model would assume control of local and state facilities built up over years of effort and sensitivity to local priorities. Eschewing federal assumption of regional functions in favor of the compact device encourages a responsiveness to the people being served.[74] The independent federal agencies (e.g., Interstate Commerce Commission, Federal Trade Commission, and Federal Communications Commission) amount to a fourth branch of government, and are the least accountable, most independent branch of all.[75] While interstate compacts have not been noted for their responsiveness—largely because of the reputation of the Port of New York Authority for independent action—and despite the fact that federal agencies can demonstrate a high degree of sensitivity to the people they regulate, on the whole, a compact device offers more opportunity to construct a mechanism for accountability and responsiveness than does an independent federal agency.

A federal-interstate compact has a further advantage. Whereas the consent statute to a normal insterstate compact does not impose a binding obligation on the federal government to support the compact,[76] a federal-interstate compact is binding on the agencies of the federal government to uphold and support the agreement. In the words of the Advisory Commission on Intergovernmental Relations: "No other legal device available within the Federal system comes this close to placing Federal activities within the same regimen as those of States, and no other instrument has ever defined a Federal-State

relationship in an operational field in terms so closely approaching parity. Of course, it is not the governments themselves that are so described. Rather it is the joint agency which is their common instrument and the compact which is their mutual obligation."[77]

The National Commission on Libraries and Information Science has presented the library profession with the opportunity to participate in a complete restructuring of the nation's library services. Developments in the last few years indicate that regional interstate networks or cooperative programs that cross state lines will be important components of a national program. While the organization and structuring of interstate cooperative library services will continue to rely on traditional legal devices, opportunities exist for basing such activities on the creative use of legal approaches new to library services. One such device, deserving the careful examination of anyone engaged in establishing an extensive program of interstate library services, is the interstate compact. The compact has proven its value in many other areas of American federalism. The time may have arrived for its application to the coordination of the nation's information resources.

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The Need for Cooperation Among Libraries in the United States

RODERICK G. SWARTZ

THE TITLE OF this article is deceptive. It assumes that traditional library cooperation is valid. About a decade ago, one state library had as its slogan "cooperation is the key." Similar terms such as library cooperation, regional library, library system, and networking—all of which imply cooperative action—have become sacred in the profession. From time to time, someone needs to ask: Cooperation—the key to what and for whom?

In addition, the title does not indicate whose needs are fulfilled by traditional library cooperation, i.e., shared resources and shared jurisdiction. There is no doubt that it has been of benefit to those citizens who now have some type of regional library, or to researchers who receive library materials on interlibrary loan. There is no doubt that it has been beneficial in providing jobs for hundreds of library employees. But how valid is library cooperation based on an analysis of contemporary user needs for library and information services?

The title also implies that cooperation among libraries is the only valid and important type of cooperation. There is certain historical justification that interlibrary cooperation has been very beneficial; yet, how important is it today in relation to all other types of cooperative ventures with the various agencies and groups to which a library now has access?

It is the purpose of this article to take a critical look at the validity of library cooperation based on the recent increase of user need and demand studies and to determine whether cooperation really has been and will continue to be the key to meeting those needs and demands, based on the information and library needs of users and potential users.

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Shared library resources and jurisdictions have prospered in the United States based on the assumption that *more* is good, and that a well-coordinated and well-financed *more* is even better. Regional public library development grew out of projections made by Carleton Joeckel in 1935 that the answer to the poor distribution of library resources in the United States was a series of regional libraries which would provide nationwide library service, including service to rural and suburban areas.[1] Joeckel argued that by forming regional units of communities and counties too poor to provide library service, adequate levels of library service would span the country. Aided by federal legislation such as the Library Services Act of 1956, regional libraries did begin to provide a pattern of library service to the country.

Cooperation among college and university libraries was based on the assumption that the problems of too much growth within any one library could be offset by well-coordinated and cooperatively financed efforts. Spurred by threatening projections, college and university librarians began to develop joint acquisition programs such as the Farmington Plan, cooperative storage centers such as the Center for Research Libraries in Chicago, and the development of a nationwide system of interlibrary loans.

Networking continues to stress the better coordination of existing resources in all types of libraries. Bibliographic networks are allowing for the decrease in repetitious processing of library materials, while telecommunication networks are connecting a variety of library materials in all types of libraries, and administrative networks are working toward better coordination of library and information services. The National Commission on Libraries and Information Science, in developing its program for a national network, calls for this coordination factor to protect and sustain the United States' national resources of information.

These threads show that library cooperation has become an economically feasible way to improve traditional library service, a pattern which emphasizes the importance of improved access to a growing number of library materials. Regional library service is better than no library service, access to several university libraries via interlibrary loan is better than the availability of just one university collection, and the coordinated access of library materials in the United States through a national network would be even more advantageous.

The argument has been that the more library materials available locally, or at a reasonable distance, the better the library service will be.

If the financing of this service is shared by several jurisdictions, the service will be better and the costs more equally distributed.

From the point of view of library management, cooperation is certainly reasonable. But how does it rank in view of recent studies in user information need and demand?

USER STUDIES OF THE INFORMATION RICH AND THEIR IMPLICATIONS

User studies traditionally have been examinations of how libraries were used and by whom. They have been analyses of circulation statistics, of the use of particular library areas such as the reference department, or of the socio-economic backgrounds of library patrons. Tobin points out that this type of user study grew in popularity after World War II and was used as a management tool to "improve [the] existing condition." However, over the years little attention was given to the potential user or to citizen information demands or needs.[2]

This review looks at users and potential users of information rather than only at those who currently use libraries. In viewing their demands and needs, groups of information users should be distinguished. Edwin Parker uses the terms *information rich* and *information poor*.[3] The former includes leaders from scholarly, governmental and business communities who have an overabundance of information, who use libraries and other formal information sources, and who are familiar with techniques for securing information. The information poor are those who have little acquaintance with traditional information sources such as libraries, and whose information needs in many cases would not be met by these sources. For purposes of this discussion, Parker's distinction will suffice.

Next, one should distinguish between an information demand, or articulated information need, placed on the formal information community, and an information need which the individual has not articulated, perhaps even to himself. Demands on formal information sources have been a growing concern for a number of years, while the study of information needs is still in its infancy—there is little standardization at this point and the methodology is still in a formative stage of development. The major tool of measurement is the written questionnaire combined with an interview. From time to time there is serious doubt as to whether it is possible to discover information needs by querying an individual or group of individuals.[4]

Information demand research meanwhile has evolved into two separate strands: one which focuses on the literature patterns of use, and one which concentrates on the individual and his information gathering habits.

The study of literature use emphasizes the frequency and the depth to which particular segments of the library collection are utilized. The Fussler and Simon book on *Patterns in the Use of Books in Large Research Libraries*, which examines use patterns of various collections at the University of Chicago, is an example of this type of study.[5] The field of bibliometrics, in which fields of literature are analyzed for frequency and duration of use, has added much to the knowledge of user demands on library collections.

The other trend in user demand studies has been toward the investigation of information gathering techniques, i.e., the way scientists and other professional people search for information, what service they use, and how they evaluate and rank the various sources they use. Patterns and networks of the information flow are the central concerns of this research.

In examining the literature of user demand by the information rich, one notices two factors. First, there seems to be little relation between the groups concerned with information demand and need studies, and the groups involved with the development and design of library and information services.[6] In other words, library administrators and information technologists seem to draw little from the research in information need and demand. One notable example which has been documented is the development of the Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC); no user studies of demand and need, user behavior, or user requirements were included in the development of the ERIC system. As a result, Paisley found that after five years of operation the system was still not being brought to the attention of the educational practitioner.[7]

The second startling factor is that much of the work in information demand and need is being done abroad. There is, of course, the work being done at the Institute for Communication Research at Stanford University, the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Johns Hopkins University, and the studies of the American Psychological Association. However, much progress is being made abroad. England is a prime example; in preparing the background work for cooperative plans such as the National Lending Library, numerous studies were made of user demands for information and on library collections.

There are several major themes which run through the information

studies of the information rich. Perhaps the most recurring is the choice by scientists, researchers and other professional people of an informal information network over, or in equal importance to, any formal network of libraries and information centers. Watson's discussion of the informal communication of scientists in his book, *The Double Helix*, has been corroborated by numerous user studies. Studies of astronomers, anthropologists and agricultural experts show that informal discussion among colleagues is a major source of information.[8]

The use of informal discussion has led to a series of studies on information flow in professions, associations and organizations. It has allowed investigators to project the concept of an invisible college where scholars of a particular discipline are interconnected in an informal network akin to the organizational grapevine.[9]

In formal information channels, the right amount of information is more important than access to a quantity of information. For example, studies among physicians and physicists show that use is limited to a restricted number of primary journals in the field. One writer claims that in reader studies based on journals in the field of physics, even these basic journals are not well read. Another author claims that the "quick fix" was more often the norm than an exhaustive use of available collections.[10]

In fact, the question of accessibility—both in terms of time and geography—proved to be a more important factor than the quality of the source. One study asked individuals in a research sample to rank sources of information for several hypothetical problems. In each case, the sources of a personal library, a knowledgeable person close by, or the telephone were given priority over the services of a more distant library.

When such individuals are drawn into a formal information channel such as a library, numerous studies have shown that they are not sophisticated in their use of the tools of library and information science. Studies of citations from abstracting and indexing tools, for example, show a small number of references drawn from these sources.

One researcher speculated that the twin features of accessibility and the right amount of information were the reasons many researchers went to informal sources. There the individual gets "the right information in the right amount and within the time required."[11]

Finally, librarians are not seen as active participants in the procurement of information. They are seen as housekeepers,

organizers, or managers perhaps, but not people who aid in the complexity of securing information and data.[12]

USER STUDIES OF THE INFORMATION POOR AND THEIR IMPLICATIONS

User studies of the information poor are even more limited than are studies of the information rich. Tobin, studying the 477 user studies of all types listed in *Library Literature* for 1960-73, could find only five studies of nonusers and three studies of the disadvantaged. She hypothesized that there may have been more, but the results in terms of library use were minimal and not disclosed.[13]

Studies of the information demands of this group have shown that the logical, formal, information source—the public library—contributes little toward fulfilling their needs. A study conducted by the System Development Corporation (SDC) called for a "new outlook" by the public library if it is to be responsive to the information needs and demands of the disadvantaged.[14] An earlier study of the information needs of the information poor by Mary Lee Bundy showed the public library in a position of nonimportance.[15] A study of adult information needs in Indiana indicated that even for business, industry, agriculture and labor, the public library had little relevance.[16]

Data on information needs of the information poor are even more restricted. The most recent efforts appear to have been conducted by the SDC and the National Commission on Libraries and Information Science (NCLIS). SDC, in a study of Library Services and Construction Act projects to special target groups, looked at the information needs of the various groups of the information poor. The study focused on users and nonusers of federally financed library projects, finding a high interest in audiovisual formats. This was especially true of nonusers of the projects. Subject interests favored were employment information, health care, ethnic materials, and hobbies.[17] Similar trends were noted by the NCLIS in evaluating total information needs and relating this evaluation to planning for nationwide library cooperation and networking. After an early study by Patrick and Cooper indicated that the previous user studies did not provide enough data for national information planning,[18] the NCLIS made various attempts to identify user needs as a basis for national planning. An NCLIS study conducted by Bourne and others for the Institute of Library Research, University of California, Berkeley, identified nineteen subgroups whose information needs would vary from the

norm. Among the nineteen groups with special information needs, the following information-poor groups were identified: the economically and socially disadvantaged, ethnic minorities, the mentally and physically handicapped, the geographically remote, the aged, and the institutionalized.[19]

Another NCLIS study, written and researched by Edwin Parker of the Stanford University Institute for Communication Research, projected the impact of socio-economic change on information needs.[20] Again, emphasis was placed on information needs of the information poor, with a special stress on life information, and on information in an audiovisual format.

A third, less scientific attempt to evaluate potential user needs was a series of regional hearings scheduled in various parts of the country. Invitations to testify were sent not only to library and information specialists, but also to users and potential users of library service. The major impact of these hearings was on the growing awareness by the NCLIS of a greater variety of information needs being expressed by a wider potential clientele.[21] The commission found itself face to face with representatives of the information poor and heard them describe their information needs. While many of these needs were only partially or incompletely explained, the commission did begin to gain a broader understanding of the information needs of the information poor.

Still another effort to analyze user needs was the NCLIS's conference on user needs, held in Denver in May 1973. Building on the work of the Institute of Library Research, the commission invited sixteen specialists in user information needs to present papers on the information requirements of a particular subgroup. Each participant found that the description of information needs was a difficult task, even when one is extremely knowledgeable of the subgroup and its information interests.

In all sixteen subgroups, two factors which remained consistent were the importance of time and the usability of format. Unless information arrived on a prescribed time schedule and was in a format which could be used, the information itself was useless.

Nine of the papers looked at information needs of social and demographic subgroups which varied from the norm, the norm being defined as a "white male, middle class, healthy 'normal' adult, aged 21-65 years." These groups included women, homemakers, parents, children, young adults, the aged, the geographically remote, the economically and socially deprived, the institutionalized, the mentally and physically handicapped, and Mexican-Americans. The major

information needs of these groups were for life information, included survival, general life maintenance, and self-enrichment and growth.[22]

While the commission made these efforts to comprehend user needs, it is evident that there is still a great deal of basic research to be done on user information needs. It is encouraging, however, that the commission's study is one of the first times that library/information system planning and research on user needs are being conducted by the same group.

As many writers have pointed out, research in user information needs and demands is a fairly new field. More is known about information demands than about information needs. Work has concentrated on the information rich, with special attention to the requirements of scientists and technologists. As late as 1970 Brittain could identify only eighteen useful studies on the users of social science material.[23] Even less is known about the information needs of the information poor. While it is premature to draw too many conclusions from this total body of work, it is perhaps possible to make several observations about user information needs and demands, and library cooperation. There seem to be definite implications at the local, regional and national levels.

Despite limited knowledge of information needs, it is obvious that well-coordinated and well-financed library cooperation is not enough. More and better traditional library service is not the complete answer, which may suggest an entire new approach to the local delivery of information, especially to the information poor.

In his book entitled *Management*, Peter Drucker takes public service institutions to task for simply asking for more money to do the same old things. It is "effectiveness, not efficiency which the service institution lacks . . . they tend not to do the right things. . . . All service institutions are threatened by tendencies to cling to yesterday rather than slough it off."[24]

From the viewpoint of the information poor, and to a certain extent that of the information rich, it is necessary to reevaluate information and library services to determine which are important, and to ascertain the types and extents of information needs.

The first step in this process of moving from efficiency to efficient effectiveness is a better understanding of the potential user and his or her information needs. The use of marketing research techniques has proved helpful in some developments. This does not imply the creation of false needs, but rather a true analysis of a segment of the potential clientele, an assessment of their information needs, and then

development or alteration of services to meet these needs. The needs of potential patrons are studied to project the types and varieties of demands they could place on an institution. One marketing expert examined the marketing approaches for an information system such as ERIC and found that marketing techniques could be applied,[25] and public library in Manchester, England, has experimented with market research training for its staff.[26] The work done at Hamline University in Minnesota in studying the information needs of the campus, and then using the data to make the library responsive to these needs, is another illustration.[27]

This marketing approach emphasizes a different type of library cooperation, a closer user-professional working relationship. It implies a closer working relationship with all potential users in the community and community involvement in the planning of new and revitalized programs and services. It requires the library administration to work with the leadership and staff members of other groups serving the same community. In the SDC study of special target groups, people from other agencies ranked community involvement important to the success of the projects studied, whereas community involvement was not a significant point cited by the librarians questioned.[28]

User studies imply that the user-professional relationship needs to be strengthened within the walls of the library. The librarian needs to be more adept at isolating an information demand when it is articulated. Studies by Crowley and Childers show that the librarian is deficient in responding to even elementary information demands.[29] Merely to call on the vast resources of library cooperation and interlibrary loan is not enough. The importance of the professional's role in interpreting the demand and delivering the right amount of information is reflected in user studies. Studies show that the information rich are satisfied with less information than was supposed and that the information poor often require smaller amounts of information than most libraries will supply. This would indicate that it is crucial for a professional directly serving the public to identify correctly an information demand and then to produce the right amount of information to appropriately satisfy that demand.

Improved information demand analysis implies a greater concern with the interview process. The professional needs to know not only the literature and the channels for securing it, but also how to query the client to be sure the correct demand has been ascertained. It also indicates a greater responsibility for the librarian as an information transfer facilitator. Special librarians have long espoused this role in

meeting the information demands of their companies, but librarians from other types of libraries have been slower to accept this responsibility. If even the information rich are partial to informal and personal channels of information, and are unskilled in the use of library and information science tools, the growing importance of the trained librarian or information transfer specialist is obvious.

At the same time, there is a strong need for the library to explain its function to the user. Studies show that even if the user can overcome the difficulty of translating a generalized need into an information need and then into an information demand, it is very unlikely that the library is credited with satisfying that demand. This requires a total public relations program by the library (which starts with marketing or needs assessment), the development of new or revamped programs, and then the explanation to the public of the function and availability of these programs. This goes beyond elementary publicity to the very image that the library has in its community, whether it is town, campus, or school building.

User studies indicate that this need for closer user-professional cooperation is balanced by a need for closer cooperation with technological improvements. Users are making information demands which can no longer be filled by traditional formats or traditional sources. The growing importance of audiovisual formats for the information poor has been stressed by several authors. The valve of technology—especially telecommunications and computers—in aiding the receipt of information at the right time is becoming increasingly important to users of all types. Participants at the NCLIS Denver conference on user needs stressed that information not received in time was not useful information.[30] The ability to relay data about information, as well as information itself, via faster processes will be of growing importance to the information user.

At the regional and national levels, the improvement of the traditional form of library cooperation, i.e., the coordination and interchange of library materials, is rivaled by the importance of new and different types of library cooperation. Illustrative is the need for a coordinated program for continuing education, which updates and revitalizes the librarian's view of user needs, service patterns, and library cooperation. Better coordination of newer formats—such as audiovisual materials, microforms, and computerized data bases—is needed. The applicability of the technologies of computers and telecommunications to user information requirements demands better understanding.

Need for Cooperation

One effort, hopefully cooperative, is the developing study of user needs and the demands for information. Work with the information poor lags far behind the work conducted with the information rich. Even more important, there must be closer cooperation between researchers in information needs and administrators who are designing and providing library and information services. The developers of new or revitalized library and information services and products should be aware of and benefit from research in user needs studies. Finally, there is the effort to increase the effectiveness of traditional library cooperation by the infusion of technology and the planning of standardized networks.

From the user's viewpoint, the four important cooperative trends appear to be: (1) the effort to increase the effectiveness of traditional library cooperation by the infusion of technology and the development of a system of networks; (2) the development of other regional and national cooperative endeavors, such as the coordination of continuing education for library and information personnel; (3) a growing cooperation between the user of information services and the professional librarian or information specialist in order to reassess the way in which information is dispensed at the local level; and (4) the initial, although limited, cooperation between researchers on user information needs and demands, and the developers and administrators of library and information services. Just what the highest priority should be among these four trends depends to some extent on the group of users with which one is identified. For example, developments in the first trend have been criticized as being of more benefit to the information rich than to the information poor. The National Commission on Libraries and Information Science, although sharply criticized for it, has provided leadership for the first and second trends. However, clear leadership patterns are not as obvious for the third and fourth trends.

Traditional library cooperation, improved by technology, may still be a key to the fulfilling of user information needs and demands. Nevertheless, to ensure improved service to all user groups, it is essential that all aspects of these cooperative trends be utilized.

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Statistical Information as a Basis For Cooperative Planning

MARY EDNA ANDERS

STATISTICAL DATA CAN contribute significantly to three phases of cooperative planning. First, in the preliminary explorations, statistical measures provide objective descriptions of existing conditions that can be used in determining whether cooperative planning would be mutually beneficial to the participants. Statistical documentation of a need for cooperation certainly lends strong support to value judgments concerning its potential and should be useful in convincing appropriate individuals of the merits of a joint program. Second, in the actual planning process that follows the tentative agreement to work together, statistical data can help participants to identify the direction that the projected activity should take. The data can also aid them in the formulation of the precise objectives and organizational details of the cooperative program. Third, after the program produced by the cooperative planning becomes operational, statistical measures can provide one means of evaluating its effectiveness and impact. Such measures can be valuable in pinpointing weaknesses in the program and in ascertaining whether modifications need to be made in procedures or approach.

Historically, professional planners have recognized data collection as one of the initial phases in any planning process, and the growing quantitative character of planning activity has been noted by its practitioners. Many references to the uses of statistical data in planning are found in case studies; current guidelines for cooperative planning of recreation programs, health programs, and other services stress the necessity for appropriate and adequate data inputs into the planning and implementation of such programs.

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Compilations of library statistics have long been available to librarians. In his article, "History of the Measurement of Library Service," Thompson cites several reports published in the early nineteenth century and identifies Charles Coffin Jewett's *Notices of Public Libraries*, which appeared in 1851 as an appendix to the fourth annual report of the Smithsonian Institution, as the "first significant compilation of statistical records of American libraries published in this country."[1]

Publications treating library cooperation, library planning, and library statistics have not, however, emphasized the use of statistical measures. Articles and reports treating library statistics deal primarily with the problems of definition and standardization of statistical measures. The literature concerning library cooperation stresses pro and con views of its desirability and descriptions of specific cooperative activities, and the published material dealing with library planning discusses nonstatistical approaches. In fact, in her guidelines for the planning of academic library consortia, Patrick merely suggests that: "as a result of each exploratory meeting, there may be action items for the various participants to work on in their home environments. For example, it may be desirable to have a compilation of basic library statistics in a common format for each library involved."[2] Although his identification of the kinds of measures needed for statewide planning was not precise, Beasley noted positively, that "data are necessary in order to devise a rational plan of service for the immediate future."[3]

Generally, as Purdy observed, librarians have "been slow to exploit measurement as a professional tool."[4] The available evidence suggests that librarians use statistical data less often in cooperative planning—and even in administrative planning— than do personnel of other educational and service agencies. Librarians have used statistical measures most often in fiscal planning or, more specifically, in budget preparation and justification. Comparative data on salaries, on the size of collections, on the size and composition of the library staffs, and on per capita expenditures have guided preparation of library budgets and have been highlighted in the actual budget requests. Use of statistical measures by librarians in program planning appears to have occurred infrequently.

Basic differences in the structure of cooperation partially explain the lack of stress accorded statistical data in the joint planning of library agencies. In his review of interlibrary cooperation, Blackburn notes that library cooperation "is set in a tradition in which vague and casual relationships have been the norm."[5] Many cooperative library

programs have been developed not on the basis of factual and numerical data but on the basis of personalities—librarians who believed strongly in the potential of cooperation, who worked out the details of establishment, and who guided the joint program through any initial difficulties to a healthy and stable operation. With more complex programs of cooperation, preliminary discussions have usually resulted in specific studies of the feasibility of establishing the projected activity. Statistical data have, of course, been utilized in these studies, but primarily in connection with finances.

The restricted use librarians have made of statistical data reflects, to some extent, their lack of confidence in the reliability and validity of these measures. In spite of their inadequacies, many series of data are available to librarians. When used with full awareness of their weaknesses, these data can provide as valuable an input into the planning process as is offered by fallible human judgments.

Statistical measures needed by librarians in most cooperative planning can be grouped into two distinct categories. The first is composed of library data—measure of library resources, operations and services. The second category includes measures of the population to be served and, if possible, measures of the factors affecting the lives of that population.

Library statistics are collected on a regular basis by several types of agencies and organizations. In terms of comprehensiveness and sophistication of activity, the Library Surveys Branch of the National Center for Educational Statistics (NCES) is the most important of these agencies. Established in 1965, NCES has refined and expanded the activities of the U.S. Office of Education in relation to library statistics. With the support of the American Library Association (ALA) and other agencies, NCES has taken the leadership in planning a national library statistics system. The system is based on a working partnership between NCES and the individual state library agencies. Plans include a definite time schedule so that surveys of the different types of libraries will be conducted on a rotating basis. Planning for this national system—now officially designated Library General Information Survey (LIBGIS)—was begun in 1966. In addition to the many meetings of the individuals directly concerned with the project, a series of conferences has been held at both the regional and national levels in order to keep librarians informed about the program and to secure additional inputs into the planning of the system.[6] The initial collection of data under the LIBGIS program was begun early in 1975 with the distribution of survey forms to public and school libraries.

Research conducted in relation to the development of LIBGIS has already produced reports that will be valuable to persons exploring problems associated with library statistics.[7] Equally important, in connection with the implementation of LIBGIS, is a new edition[8] of the 1966 *Library Statistics*[9] scheduled for publication in 1975 by the U.S. Government Printing Office. NCES has continued its regular program of data collection during the years of planning for LIBGIS. Some of the surveys it has published are cited below.

Federal agencies other than NCES, state agencies, associations, some individual libraries, and commercial publishers collect and publish library statistics. For example, at the federal level the Bureau of the Census has regularly included library data in a number of its reports. Within the individual states, the state library agencies are usually the most active of the organizations that engage in the collection of library measures, and in some states the report compiled by the state library agency includes data on academic, special and institutional libraries. State departments of education normally collect, but do not publish, library statistics. Other units of state government may also gather library data. Statistical activities of library associations vary considerably. The ALA, once the major collector and publisher of library statistics, has virtually withdrawn from such activity on a regular basis and instead supports the statistical work of others. However, some smaller associations such as the American Association of Law Libraries have expanded their collection and publication of statistics. The few libraries that prepare statistical compilations have assumed the responsibility because of their own interest in having the data for budgetary planning. These libraries distribute the compilations without any analysis. Of the commercial firms that collect library statistics, R.R. Bowker has the most extensive program.

The following sections contain identifications of some of the series of statistical data published by the various types of agencies. Only titles that are currently being issued are included, and the most recent issue examined is cited. Where it could be supplied without undue difficulty, some indication is given of the number of years each series has been produced. Thompson traced the origin of some of the older series,[10] but is was not possible to bring his work up to date here.

ACADEMIC LIBRARY STATISTICS

More sources of statistical measures exist for academic than for other types of libraries. The most satisfactory of these series is the report, *Library Statistics of Colleges and Universities*,[11] produced by NCES. In its

most recent editions the report has consisted of three parts; parts A and B provide basic statistics for each library, and part C presents an analysis of the basic measures. Unfortunately, similar analyses are not, at the time of this writing, available for data describing other types of libraries.

Two associations and one library compile statistics for academic libraries. Beginning with 1962–63 data, the Association of Research Libraries (ARL) has published *Academic Library Statistics*[12] annually. Although its coverage is now restricted to the university libraries belonging to ARL, *Academic Library Statistics* continues the series, published for many years by the Princeton University Library. Seventeen categories of data are presented in the ARL report. Since the 1920s, Louisiana State University Library has collected and published "Statistics of Southern College and University Libraries."[13] The 1973 report contained ten measures and covered fifty libraries. The Association of Southeastern Research Libraries produces an annual statistical survey which currently provides data on holdings, expenditures, enrollment, salary scales, and staff for the twenty-nine member libraries.[14] The first issue contained measures for 1964-65.

The Council on Library Resources produces a very different kind of statistical report—a series of surveys of the economic status of academic library personnel.[15] Its report, based on data collected by the American Association of University Professors, presents a comparison of salaries received by librarians with those of faculty members as well as comparisons of the compensations of librarians by type of position.

PUBLIC LIBRARY STATISTICS

Measures of public library service are much more difficult to secure than are those for academic libraries. The public library statistics published by NCES and its predecessors have not appeared with the regularity of those for academic libraries. The most recent report was issued in 1970 and contains 1968 data.[16] It covers libraries serving populations of 25,000 or more and, consequently, does not attempt the comprehensive coverage provided by *Library Statistics of Colleges and Universities.*

Because of their inclusiveness, the most important source of statistical data on public libraries continues to be the reports produced by the individual state library agencies. Krikelas observed that in the state library agencies he studied, the statistical activity was "basically one of editing-for-publication the reports of the public libraries in that state, without any effort to analyze or synthesize the reports."[17]

However, the state reports are designed to cover all public libraries, and that characteristic alone makes them a significant series.

Three individual libraries collect and distribute data about public libraries—data which usually can be utilized in budgetary planning and justification. Two of the libraries—those at Fort Wayne and Memphis—initiated their compilations after the ALA ceased publication of statistical measures for public libraries. The report prepared by the Fort Wayne library covers libraries serving populations of 100,000 or more and is issued biennially.[18] It contains ten categories of information for each library and includes the salaries of the director and the assistant director and the length of time the incumbents have held their positions. The Memphis compilation covers southern public libraries that have budgets of $100,000 or more.[19] The report provides eleven measures, mostly concerning salaries, for each of the libraries (86 in the 1973 report). The Enoch Pratt Free Library publishes a very detailed chart which gives professional and nonprofessional salary data for large public libraries.[20] Detailed financial data as well as information on holdings are supplied for the twenty-three libraries included in the 1972 report.

The "Indices of American Public Library Statistics," initially developed by Herbert Goldhor and published in the *A.L.A. Bulletin*, are now published in *Illinois Libraries*.[21] The indices provide a measurement of library use similar to the indices measuring the cost of living.

SCHOOL LIBRARY STATISTICS

Possibly because of the number of libraries involved, published sources of current statistical data on school library/media centers are not presently available, and only two sources contain some comparatively recent data on isolated aspects of school library/media services. NCES's report on local school systems gives the number of librarians and library aides in each of the school systems in 1970.[22] In addition, the annual reports on activities and expenditures funded under Title II of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act regularly include approximately eight tables of statistical data.[23] The data concern Title II staffs and the expenditure of Title II funds. State totals—not figures for local systems—are given in every case.

The 1962 U.S. Office of Education survey remains the most recently published source of detailed data on school libraries.[24] As indicated previously, school library/media centers are covered in the first survey

under the LIBGIS program, so it is hoped that current data will soon become available.

State departments of education routinely require school librarians to submit annual reports covering the resources, staffs and activities of the library/media centers. These reports are normally machine processed, but tabulated data are not usually published. In fact, in many states, the data seem to become lost somewhere in the mysterious realm of the computers, and the librarians who need the data are unsuccessful in their attempts to gain access to them.

SPECIAL LIBRARY STATISTICS

Fewer comprehensive sources of current measures of the resources and services of special libraries are available than is the case for academic and public libraries. Because company policy forbids the release of such information, data on finances and staff are not reported for many special libraries. Both the *American Library Directory*[25] and the *Directory of Special Libraries and Information Centers*[26] provide some measures for the special libraries they include.

The Special Libraries Association collects, analyzes and publishes data on the salaries received by its members. The data are reported by salary range and geographically by census region. Currently, the salary surveys are conducted triennially.[27]

More detailed statistical compilations are available for specific types of special libraries. Beginning with 1969, the *Law Library Journal* has published the results of annual surveys of individual law school libraries.[28] Statistical surveys of several other types of law libraries have been conducted and reported in the same journal since 1969.[29] It is currently planned to carry out these surveys regularly in the future. Starting with the 1965 proceedings, the American Theological Library Association has included statistical measures of individual libraries in the reports of its annual conferences. Fifteen different measures are provided for the libraries covered.[30] The American Medical Association and the Medical Library Association cooperated in a four-year research and development project to plan and implement a program for regular collection of statistics on health science libraries.[31]

STATE LIBRARY AGENCIES AND FEDERAL LIBRARIES

Aside from their own published reports, few sources of current data presently exist for either the state library agencies or for libraries maintained by the federal government. Special surveys have been

conducted for both categories, but these have been nonrecurring programs. Once the LIBGIS program becomes fully operational, these libraries will be surveyed on a regular basis.

There are currently two sources of data about state library agencies that should be identified, however. *The Book of the States*[32] provides some financial measures for the agencies, and the State Library of Ohio compiles salary data for them.[33]

LIBRARY EDUCATION STATISTICS

Current sources of statistics on library education have been described and evaluated recently in the *Journal of Education for Librarianship.*[34] Of the seventeen sources identified, four should be cited here. The *North American Library Education Directory and Statistics, 1971-1973* contains data on the various graduate programs, undergraduate programs, and library technical assistants programs.[35] Chapters treating the different types of programs provide detailed analyses of the data. The directory is the most comprehensive of the statistical sources dealing with library education.

ALA's Committee on Accreditation compiles data from the annual reports submitted by the schools accredited by ALA.[36] The compilation includes data on faculty, students and finance.

Two sources cover only limited aspects of library education. Data on placement of the graduates of accredited library schools and on the salaries they received have been published anually in *Library Journal* since 1952.[37] Data on the salaries of members of the faculties of accredited library schools were first collected for the 1971-72 academic year and have been collected annually since that time. The data were published in the *Journal of Education for Librarianship* in 1974[38] and future compilations will continue to appear in that journal.

STATISTICS ON LIBRARY BUILDINGS

Three series provide data on new library construction and on buildings which have been enlarged and remodeled. All three series are published in the architectural issue of *Library Journal.* The series dealing with public library construction was begun with data for fiscal year 1969,[39] and the academic library series began with 1967 data.[40] Both of these series have been published annually. A series on community colleges was initiated in 1971 with a report covering construction in 1965-71.[41] Each of the three series gives a number of specific measures of cost and size for the individual construction

projects listed. The commentaries which introduce the listings of the projects include a few comparative statistics.

STATISTICS ON LIBRARY MATERIALS

Measures of volume of book production and book prices are reported regularly in *Publishers Weekly*, which also publishes data from the annual survey of the Association of American Publishers.[42] The *Bowker Annual* reprints some of these data and presents some measures that are not available elsewhere.[43] Price indexes and average prices are given for hardcover trade/technical books, paperbacks and serials.

The *Hope Reports* contain data on volume of production and costs of nonprint media.[44] The annual series now includes three volumes: the first—*AV-USA*—covers production and costs; the second—*Education & Media*— deals with the use of nonprint media; the theme of the final volume varies from year to year. In addition to the annual series, a quarterly report series is produced. Tom Hope conducts his own surveys to secure the data for these various series.

BIBLIOGRAPHIES OF LIBRARY STATISTICS

Additional statistical compilations can be located most easily by consulting the various volumes of the *Bowker Annual* and the *Digest of Educational Statistics*.[45] Both of these publications contain statistics, and the original sources of the statistics, which are always identified, frequently contain additional data. In addition, the *Bowker Annual* usually contains a bibliography of statistical publications, and its articles often cite surveys in progress or recently completed. For older data, Rather and Cohen's bibliography[46] and the list in Palmer's volume[47] are useful. *Library Literature*, of course, covers statistical sources, but the publications cited above provide quicker identification.

SURVEYS

Many early surveys and special reports contain statistical data that are valuable from a historical standpoint. Four are mentioned here as illustrations, and a current survey is given more extended treatment. The monumental 1876 report, *Public Libraries in the United States*, covers all types of libraries and provides more numerical details than can be found in most current surveys.[48] In the report of the 1926 survey conducted by the ALA, narrative description is emphasized, but many statistical measures are included.[49] The first of the library surveys of a

region took place in the Southeast during 1946-47. The report of that survey provides measures of library conditions in the nine-state region just prior to a period of major growth and change.[50] Almost a decade later, a survey of library service and facilities was conducted in the Pacific Northwest. Statistical data are given much less often in the report of that regional survey.[51]

Because it demonstrates cooperation in the collection of data to be used by librarians in identifying areas in which cooperation is needed and is likely to be productive, the Southeastern States Cooperative Library Survey, now in progress, merits an extended description here. The Southeastern Library Association (SELA) joined the state library agencies, the state library associations, and the Tennessee Valley Authority in sponsoring and funding the survey. Begun in 1972 as a two-year project, the schedule has been extended and the final report will not be available before the end of 1975. A report containing the more than 500 tables produced from the data collected was released in April 1975.[52]

Patterned after the 1946-47 survey mentioned above, the 1972-74 survey covers virtually all types of libraries located in the nine member states of the SELA in 1972. Fifteen different questionnaires were prepared to collect data for the survey. Each of the questionnaires was designed to obtain data about the geographical area served by the library, the library's finances, its staff, its collections, the types of service it offers, the categories of people it serves, its physical plant, and in some cases, its use of computers. The questionnaire completed by professional employees of libraries gave them an opportunity to rate obstacles to library development and to rank possibilities for cooperation.

Work already completed on the survey supports some conclusions about conditions conducive to cooperation, and provides the basis for the illustration of possible cooperative programs. Survey data show that certain problems affect one type of library particularly; for example, school libraries need clerical personnel badly and these libraries could well begin a campaign to strengthen standards concerning staff. The returns indicate that there are problems which concern all types of libraries; there is a need for greater attention to staff development and for more opportunities for continuing education, for example, and certainly a cooperative program could be developed here. Survey tabulations reveal that many academic, public and school libraries are informally providing some service to individuals other than those they are immediately responsible for

serving. This suggests that in some localities, at least, a willingness exists to explore cooperative methods for making existing resources available to any person in the area. Review of the survey returns indicates that many individual libraries have more in common with libraries of other types than with their own type. Specifically, some community college libraries have more in common with high school libraries than with other college libraries. The same relationship exists between some public and some academic libraries, suggesting that libraries of different types share mutual concerns and should be able to work cooperatively. In essence, the survey data confirm the existence of many problems that librarians could effectively approach on a cooperative basis, and that cooperation need not be restricted to libraries of one type.

The 1972-74 survey itself adds to the evidence supporting the practicality of cooperation. The survey work plan called for the actual involvement of the sponsoring agencies and of individual librarians in virtually every phase of activity, and the level of cooperation essential to the completion of the survey has been maintained. As work on the survey draws to a close, the survey director, at least, is convinced that the project has been worthwhile. The real test of its worth, of course, will be found in the use that librarians make of it and in the extent to which it stimulates greater cooperation among librarians.

SOURCES OF NONLIBRARY STATISTICS

Many sources of nonlibrary data are of potential value to the librarian in both budgetary and program planning. Due to space limitations, it is impossible to do more than identify some of the agencies that produce the data and mention some publications as illustrations.

At the federal level, the publications of the Bureau of the Census are a most important source of data for the planning of programs by many agencies, including libraries. The decennial censuses provide official counts of the U.S. population and data on detailed social and economic characteristics of that population. The availability of decennial census data on magnetic tapes has increased their value for program planning.

Publications of state agencies also contain useful data series. The agencies most likely to produce such series are the health, planning and finance or revenue agencies. The first two sometimes prepare population estimates and forecasts, and the third usually publishes data on property values and various types of tax collections. Also

operating at the state level, the university bureaus of business and economic research frequently prepare series on personal income and on population estimates and forecasts.

At the substate level, regional councils and commissions routinely conduct significant demographic and economic analyses, and most of them have compiled the data series needed for the planning of programs in their areas. These agencies are normally eager to support library planning.

Of the commercially produced publications, the "Survey of Buying Power"[53] and *Editor & Publisher Market Guide*[54] are used most often in program planning. They each contain population and income estimates for counties and are issued annually.

The *Statistical Abstract* continues to be the most helpful source in identifying nonlibrary data.[55] Although they were compiled several years ago, two guides to sources of local data will also be useful to the librarian who lacks familiarity with statistical compilations.[56]

All planning by librarians begins with measures of their own operations; to those measures they add, when appropriate, comparative data concerning other libraries. In order to plan most effectively, librarians need data on the costs of the specific activities that occur within the library. Presently, few librarians prepare such information, and few of the published series of data contain such measures.

Contrary to the opinions of many nonlibrary administrators, library cooperation does not necessarily mean financial savings for the participants. In fact, it can increase operating costs. Programs of library cooperation are desirable and justified when they expand the resources and increase the effectiveness of the services available to users. In order to determine whether cooperation will achieve these objectives, librarians need more than inventory measures.

For effective use in administrative planning, data must provide measures of current conditions. Members of legislative bodies, officials of city and county governments, and academic administrators are not convinced by library budget requests and program justifications based on measures of conditions that existed several years ago. Because of the time lag in their appearance, many of the series of library statistics possess only limited value for library administrators. Instead of supporting administrative decision-making, the series are useful primarily in relation to research.

There are encouraging signs that library planning at all levels is

moving toward more effective use of data. Both external and internal factors are moving librarians in this direction. As state and local governments adopt zero-based and other forms of budgeting, publicly supported libraries will find it necessary to revise their processes of budget preparation and justification and to use different kinds of data. As library cooperation becomes more formal, librarians will become more interested in cost/benefit analysis. In addition, evidence of growing interest by librarians in better measures of library operations has been demonstrated in the work underway on measurement and evaluation of library service. Furthermore, the prospects for better series of data becoming available to librarians are bright indeed. The National Commission on Librarians and Information Science is emphasizing the need for better data, and its work provides significant support for statistical programs. NCES, through LIBGIS, should be able to achieve a significant improvement in the quality of data published at the state and national levels and, therefore, in the data that are easily available to practicing librarians.

Reliable and valid data can contribute significantly to the planning and implementation of programs of library cooperation. Data will always be merely a tool, however. The key to the success of library cooperation lies in the participants themselves—in the support they provide, and in their determination to make the program succeed.

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Trends in State Library Cooperation

DOROTHY A. KITTEL

EACH OF THE states and some of the outlying territories of the United States have now established intrastate telecommunication networks accessible to all types of libraries within the state or territory, and with the potential capability of communicating with networks of other states; five years ago this was not true. Although this is only one type of intrastate library cooperation, it is the type most commonly found.

The initial impetus for this and other types of cooperative activities may have been the 1936 report of the American Library Association's (ALA) Committee on Federal Relations to the ALA council. Based on several years of study and investigation of the contemporary library scene and of federal grant-in-aid programs in education, agriculture, and highways, the committee concluded that "a system of permanent annual federal grants-in-aid to libraries is essential to the complete and adequate development of library service throughout the United States."[1] While the committee directed its attention to the rationale and structure of federal aid to states for the development of public library services, it recognized the need to stimulate and assist library services in the public elementary and secondary schools and in public institutions of higher education. These institutions were seen as "essentially part of any general plan for complete service to all the people, and in this sense educational libraries belong to the 'public library system' of any state."[2] Federal grants-in-aid would be essential to assist in a general program of library cooperation and in the coordination of library resources on a regional and national scale. However, the committee opposed the use of federal subsidies to establish a single unified pattern of library service throughout the country. It saw the states, the local

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communities, and the nation all contributing to the development of a cooperative plan for the improvement of library service. It maintained that: "The function of the federal library agency is to oversee the distribution of federal grants-in-aid and to assure the efficient use of federal appropriations through the exercise of reasonable supervisory powers. The state library agency is responsible for the formulation of state plans of library development and for the distribution of federal grants to the libraries in counties, cities, and towns. Finally, the local units, as is now the case, have full authority in the administration of their libraries and also, as now, are responsible for the success or failure of library service."[3]

In its discussion of federal assistance for library cooperation and coordination of library resources, the committee identified some aspects requiring investigation: "storage and distribution of library materials . . . including . . . unused and surplus materials and the distribution of duplicates . . . the photographic reproduction of newspapers and other research materials . . . coordination of research materials through agreements concerning fields of responsibility; development of special collections; organization of regional bibliographic centers, and of document and newspaper centers . . . [and] development of an integrated system of interlibrary loan service for general readers as well as scholars."[4]

The recommendations of the committee did not result in the immediate passage of federal grant-in-aid legislation. However, as the economic conditions of the 1930s began to improve and the depression approached its end, the concepts in the report were widely discussed among library leaders, and the ALA began to search for ways to implement the recommendations. It began to sponsor specific proposals for federal grants to the states to be used for local library services, which were attached to bills for federal aid to state school systems. However, World War II required enormous outlays of federal funds for military purposes, and the educational groups failed to obtain legislation for federal aid.[5]

After World War II, the leadership of the library profession focused again on the need for federal financial assistance for library development. However, instead of seeking broad, general aid, an attempt was made to produce "a bill of some kind which would be specific enough in its objectives to be comprehensible, glamorous enough to stir the imagination, and limited enough in scope and time to avoid mass antagonism and competition with the National Education Association in its drive for federal aid to education."[6]

Accounts of the efforts to achieve passage of library legislation — from the March 12, 1946, introduction in Congress of the "Public Library Demonstration Bill," to June 19, 1956, when the Library Services Act was signed into law by President Eisenhower — have been recorded in the literature and will not be repeated here. It should be noted, however, that in testimony before Congressional committees witnesses have repeatedly stressed that the provision of library services to rural areas currently without library services or with inadequate library services would: "open up enormous library resources to these areas. Librarians have worked out cooperative methods of lending their books and files and other materials to such a degree that there can be a constant flow of valuable library materials to these rural areas once the outlets are established for their utilization."[7]

As experience was gained in administering the Library Services Act (LSA), it became apparent that the provision limiting the use of federal funds to rural areas with populations of less than 10,000 was inhibiting the development of a coordinated library program that could bring about maximum availability and utilization of library resources and services. Bills designed to overcome this limitation were introduced in both houses of Congress. These bills proposed to remove the rural limitation on public library programs; to provide federal financial assistance for public school libraries and college and university libraries; and to provide federal funds for library training institutes similar to the National Defense Education Act (NDEA) institutes for teachers of science, mathematics and foreign languages. It was recognized that the growing need for information and education for all people and the rapidly expanding body of knowledge made good libraries essential at all levels of education and that a coordinated program of library development was needed.

The Library Services and Construction Act (LSCA) was signed into law on February 11, 1964. It amended the original rural program to include grants for public library services to urban areas and funds for public library construction. Although the act did not specifically mandate interlibrary cooperation, the thrust of larger units of service for public libraries and of centralization of many functions begun under LSA (i.e., technical processing, reference and research services, shared specialized personnel, and cooperative book and other media acquisition, storage and loan) was carried forward by including urban public libraries in the developing systems. Proposals were made for federal assistance to public elementary and secondary school and academic libraries, and for a coordinated program of library

development. There was recognition of the interdependence of libraries of all kinds and of the need for simultaneous development of all libraries and for the training of librarians in order to effect the most efficient and effective improvement of library service.

In many states there was an increased awareness of the "community of interests" among libraries of different sizes and types. Many states recognized the need for broad-scale statewide planning for library development. For example, Rhode Island passed a comprehensive library law in May 1964 which provided for the creation of a Department of State Library Services, and state grants-in-aid to local, regional and statewide resource center libraries, including grants for public library construction. Other states undertook various types of surveys to encourage service programs which would coordinate the services and resources of all libraries.[8]

In 1965 legislation providing federal assistance for school, academic and medical libraries was enacted: the Elementary and Secondary Education Act, the Higher Education Act, and the Medical Library Assistance Act. There was no legislative provision for coordinating the activities carried out under these acts, nor for requiring coordination with activities carried out under the LSCA, which was to be terminated June 30, 1966. As expected, however, legislation to extend the LSCA was introduced in Congress in January 1966, and on July 19 an expanded and amended LSCA was signed into law. It authorized three new programs, including Title III, Interlibrary Cooperation, designed for the establishment and maintenance of local, regional, state or interstate cooperative networks of libraries, including state, school, college and university, public and special libraries and information centers to provide maximum effective use of funds in providing services to all users.[9] It required each state to appoint a statewide advisory council, which was to be broadly representative of both professional library interests and library users.

During the first year of funding under Title III, the states were limited to using federal funds for planning purposes. Surveys were the most frequently reported activities in this fiscal year. Primary areas of concern were: (1) determining library resources in the state that could be utilized under this title, and (2) evaluating methods of cooperation among different types of libraries to make library materials more readily available to all persons in an area.

When funds for program activities were made available in fiscal year (FY) 1968, fifty of the eligible fifty-six states and territories participated in the LSCA Title III program. Program activities

included: (1) identification and location of library resources available in the state or region; (2) establishment or expansion of interlibrary loan and reference networks to include all types of libraries and information centers and, in some states, the Regional Medical Libraries and State Technical Services Act information centers; (3) establishment or expansion of processing centers using modern technology and equipment; and (4) coordination of the acquisition of materials among types of libraries within a geographic area. These types of activities were continued in the next fiscal years. Some LSCA Title I programs in cooperative networks merged with Title III programs.

Interstate activities also became more evident. The U.S. Office of Education, Region VII sponsored a workshop for the five states in that region — Arkansas, Louisiana, New Mexico, Oklahoma and Texas — on "Mobilizing Resources to Affect Interlibrary Cooperation." The program which grew out of this conference is treated fully in the article by Young, Brawner and Martin elsewhere in this issue.

It is not possible to trace here the evolution of each of the states' programs of interlibrary cooperation; nor, with the limitations of space, can a truly analytical appraisal of the programs be undertaken. An attempt will instead be made to describe the development of intertype library activities in several states as reported by the state library agencies in their annual reports to the Office of Education on LSCA activities. Intertype library networks in New York, Illinois, California, Maryland and Washington have been analyzed by Genevieve Casey in *The Public Library in the Network Mode,* in which she focuses on "the role of the public library in the emerging intertype library networks."[10] The reader is also referred to the annotated bibliography, *Cooperation between Types of Libraries, 1940-1968*, and its supplements.[11]

Each state designed its plan for Title III according to its perceived needs and according to the available resources which might enable it to reach its objectives of establishing and maintaining cooperative networks of libraries. In some states the mere gathering of academic, public, school and special librarians and library users to discuss the potentials of intertype library cooperation was a major achievement. For example, in the first year of Title III activities, the Florida state library contracted with the Florida Library Association to sponsor a conference on interlibrary cooperation and to identify activities that could and should be undertaken. In succeeding years funds were used to purchase equipment to inaugurate data transmission between the

business, science and technology division of the Orlando Public Library and the technical information division of the University of Florida Libraries. This teletype network was expanded to include more public and university libraries. The state library became the central screening agency for interlibrary loan requests from school and public libraries to the university libraries and the Florida Health Center Library. In its 1970 annual report, the Florida state library stated: "Title III programs have paved the way for greater interaction between public, special and academic libraries. The interlibrary loan network has traffic both ways. . . . The network has emphasized the fluid resource concept. . . . Cooperation between school and public libraries is increasing also, especially at the state level where joint meetings frequently encompass new projects, philosophies, trends."[12] Interaction has continued and has led to such actions as: the planning, preparation and publication of a Florida Union List of Serials; the development of a depository system for state documents for improved access within all types of libraries; and continuing study and evaluation of cooperative planning.

In other states intertype cooperative activities were undertaken more rapidly. For example, Arizona used Title I funds to contract with the Arizona State University, Bureau of Educational Research and Development, to conduct a comprehensive survey of library and information services, resources and needs of the state. The advisory committee for the survey was made up of representatives from all types of libraries and library education. When Title III planning money became available in 1967, the state library again contracted with the bureau for a survey with recommendations for implementing Title III. Cooperative projects were thus being developed on the basis of the findings of a survey. In 1968, after publication of the survey, a series of workshops was held in different areas of the state for librarians, trustees, governmental officials and lay people to publicize the findings of the survey. Reporting on FY 1969, the Arizona State Library Agency indicated that Title III had been very fruitful in Arizona. Communications networks, union lists, and cooperative patterns were created which greatly enhanced library services in the state. A great deal of knowledge was gained even from the one unsuccessful cooperative venture. In succeeding years the Title III program has included: (1) demonstrations designed to involve the community more meaningfully in school and public libraries services, with the school library offering its resources at night to all citizens in the community and with special programs to preschool children and their mothers in

the neighborhood; (2) updating the union list of serials and expanding it to include holdings of some libraries in Nevada and New Mexico; (3) a joint project with the California State Library to provide full library services to geographically remote areas in Yuma County, Arizona, and Imperial County, California; and (4) continuing support of the Western Interstate Commission on Higher Education project of continuing education for library personnel.

In 1974, with the development of regional library systems, known as Library Area Reference Service Systems, the Arizona state library reported: "The Channeled Arizona Information Network has developed into an efficient interlibrary loan and reference network where nearly 7,000 author/title requests were received with 78% hits and an average turn-around time of 6.8 days. Nearly 900 subject/reference requests were received and 100% answered."

Other states have moved in similar directions, but with slightly different approaches to improving the provision of library and information services. For example, the Indiana General Assembly enacted a Library Services Authority designed to encourage libraries of all types to coordinate their activities for the more efficient use of resources. The act enables local authorities having library responsibilities to join together in a municipal corporation in order to provide services which they deem necessary. By the end of FY 1974 five Area Library Service Authorities had been established.

The area library council seems to be a new concept of structure for library service emerging in the states, nurtured by state library and local planning and LSCA Title III. While there are variations in the concept, they share some common attributes:

1. The library authorities within a geographic area of some states have recognized that the needs of their clienteles cannot be met adequately by one single type of library; fulfilling these needs requires coordinated efforts by all those responsible for providing library and information services within the area.
2. They have organized into library councils in order to facilitate the efforts of individual institutions to undertake programs of coordination.
3. The councils, with membership from all types of libraries in the area, meet regularly to: discuss problems in serving their clienteles; identify the strengths and weaknesses of their resources in materials, staff or facilities; explore possible methods of solving problems by cooperative efforts; and design proposals that might

help solve the problems — both those that require additional resources, and those that can be accomplished by reassigning responsibility for sharing present resources to meet client needs.

Factors that have brought forth the new area library council include:

1. The LSCA Amendments of 1965 required the state library agencies to appoint advisory councils for each new program. The law specified that the Advisory Council on Interlibrary Cooperation be representative of all types of libraries and information centers, thus mandating a mechanism for bringing together academic, public, special, school and state librarians to develop plans for the use of funds made available under this program.
2. Title II-A of the Higher Education Act of 1965 encouraged academic libraries to form consortia and jointly plan for the acquisition of library materials.
3. The Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965, Title II, School Library Resources, stimulated more comprehensive planning for the use of materials purchased by the funds made available and, in some states, encouraged the creation of multischool district library/media service units.

These 1965 laws provided vehicles for persons responsible for library services to move ahead toward the goal of developing coordinated networks of libraries and information centers. However, although vehicles were provided there were no road maps, and people were moving in varying directions. Then, in 1970, the U.S.O.E. and the ALA sponsored a Conference on Interlibrary Communication and Information Networks (CICIN) which was charged to "explore and study the implications that would follow if a network of libraries and information centers were established in the United States."[13] At the same time, the LSCA was amended to require the states to develop a "comprehensive five-year program which identifies a State's library needs and sets forth the activities to be taken toward meeting the identified needs supported with the assistance of Federal funds made available under this Act."[14] The law also required the states' long-range programs to "set forth effective policies and procedures for the coordination of programs and projects supported under this Act with library programs and projects operated by institutions of higher education or local elementary or secondary schools and with other public or private library services programs."[15] Here was the impetus for statewide coordinated planning for library and information services — i.e., for the states to develop their road maps.

There were, of course, other factors — some local, others regional or national — that have encouraged breaking through the roadblocks to interlibrary cooperation. Those described above, however, seem to be the most significant.

Joseph Becker, director of CICIN, observed that: " 'Social engineering' is required to overcome many of the obstacles to network progress. There seems little doubt that technology can aid the process, but the fundamental requirement is to *motivate institutions to develop new patterns of organization* that will permit consortia and networks to operate effectively. Conference discussions made it very clear that a monolithic network structure imposed from the top down will not work. Meaningful network development requires grassroots motivation and grassroots support [emphasis added]."[16] The network configuration envisioned by the CICIN Network Organization Working Group included "a formalized structure which interrelates existing and future libraries and information centers, involving the organization of these units at the local, state, regional and national levels."[17] The group also saw the need for a coordinating agency at each hierarchical level.

Area library councils have the potential of serving as the coordinating agencies at the local level, enabling smaller libraries to draw on resources of larger libraries and making the resources of libraries with specialized functions accessible through organized patterns of referral. The councils may also serve as nodes in the general-purpose statewide network. Through some of their components they may, in addition, have access to special networks, e.g., the automation programs of the Library of Congress, the National Library of Medicine and the National Agricultural Library.

A review of the long-range and annual programs submitted in late 1972 by the fifty states, as required by the LSCA, reveals that nineteen states had, as a specific long-range goal, the development of some form of area library council; of these, ten had projects in their FY 1973 programs directed toward reaching this goal. In fifteen states this goal was implied in the long-range program and four states had projects in their FY 1973 programs. Only one state, in its long-range program, had neither a stated nor an implied goal of establishing area library councils.

The 260-member Regional Library Council, which serves the Chicago metropolitan area, is probably the most advanced of the area councils now in existence. It was incorporated as a nonprofit Illinois corporation in 1972, and in 1973 began the development of a five-year

plan of service.[18] Its mission, as stated in the five-year plan, is "to coordinate activities of the member libraries in cooperative ventures, in order to assure improved access to the materials and information in all the libraries and information centers within the area of the council for all residents of that area."[19] Council members identified areas in which planning was required: users, nonusers, and the unserved; personnel; acquisitions; tools; collections; information services to clientele; facilities; operations; finances; cooperation, education, and attitudes; and communications, promotion, and marketing. The results of planning efforts culminated in the development of goals and subgoals in each area. Once the council membership accepted the mission, goals and subgoals and ordered the priorities, the planning areas became activity areas, for which a general goal and subgoals were developed and long- and short-range activities were specified. There is provision for a process of continuous review, evaluation and further strengthening of the plan, which the council considers as a document in process, never to be completed.

In these states interlibrary cooperative activities have changed in emphasis and focus. From single-purpose projects involving more than one type of library — such as the expansion or establishment of a telecommunications network for interlibrary loan and reference services, the development of centralized technical processing centers, the development of union catalogs and lists, and surveys of library resources and needs — these states have moved to projects requiring types of libraries within a geographic area to cooperatively assess needs, jointly develop plans and programs to meet needs, and jointly evaluate their efforts. This requires a commitment from each type of library represented on the council to see itself in relation to the total community and to the world of library and information services.

From this brief review of intertype library cooperative activities, it seems apparent that librarians and information users have devised many strategies and systems to obtain the information they need. There is great concern about the need for a national network and for compatibility among the various state and regional networks. However, it seems clear that networks and other cooperative activities are being developed at the local, state and regional levels to meet specific needs at those levels. It is doubtful that a national network can be designed to meet the state and local requirements for all kinds of information transmission. A national network must be designed to overarch the state and regional networks. It must allow for diversity

among political entities as well as among subject specializations such as law, medicine, art and agriculture. This is the challenge now facing the profession.

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The State of Washington's Search for Intrastate Cooperation

GERALD R. BRONG

As INTRASTATE cooperative systems are developed we must consider why intrastate cooperation is essential, why it may be almost impossible to develop statewide services based on a cooperative system, and what options are available when cooperative systems fail. We need to examine how strength can be developed in an intrastate library/information service system that is based on a cooperative structure. The goals for this article are: (1) to show how cooperative development and operation is the most feasible route to maximize library/information service for a state; (2) to demonstrate that these cooperative efforts are extremely fragile; (3) to provide a strategy to insure maximized library/information service based on cooperative development and system operation; and (4) to present a model of a cooperative planning strategy, based on current efforts in Washington state, that could lead to the provision of maximized service.

Since cooperation is considered a very fragile way to accomplish program objectives, alternatives will be offered. As cooperative programs and library development in general are explored, the concept of change agents — "shakers and movers" — to accomplish specific objectives leading to the attainment of overall program goals will be presented. We need to define change agents in the library/information service field.

CONCERN FOR LIBRARY/INFORMATION SERVICE DEVELOPMENT

Considerable resources continue to be spent for the development of library services in the United States. For example, in the state of

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Washington 1973-75 biennium, approximately $130 million have been spent on the provision of all types of library service for a state population of approximately 3 million people. When considering a fully cooperative library/information service system, it is necessary to consider *all* service outlets already existing — i.e., public libraries, academic, school and special libraries, and the holders of unique informational resources, such as galleries, museums and nonprint media centers.[1] In determining expenditures in Washington state all sources of service were included. Similarly, when speculating about total library service through a cooperative system, all potential service outlets are considered.

In Washington, as in all other states, taxpayers are concerned with obtaining the maximum return for each dollar invested. It must therefore be asked: Do the people of the state receive their dollar's worth in library/information services from their state-funded programs? Can expenditures for library/information service be reduced or eliminated? If not, why not? Will cooperative systems provide more and/or better service?

IMPORTANCE OF LIBRARY/INFORMATION SERVICE

In Washington, public library service is considered a basic service that must be provided to all people. According to state law, "It is hereby declared to be the policy of the State, as a part of its provision for public education, to promote the establishment and development of public library service throughout its various subdivisions."[2] This 1935 statement in the Washington laws codifies the existence of public library service. In order to meet the intent of the law during the 1970s, development of maximized services for the users of libraries through the development and operation of cooperative programs has been essential. Library/information service today is far more complex than in the 1930s — in considering service today it is necessary to consider library/information service from the variety of libraries operated to meet a wide range of user goals and objectives. As outlined in *A Proposed Library Network for Washington State* there are significant implications of the cooperative network program:

1) It implies a degree of "democratization of information," in which all information is made as uniformly available as feasible. In doing so, it is clear that we are not talking about a leveling of resources, however. Rather we are talking about a formal

mechanism by which major resources are protected and yet made readily available.

2) It implies a steady increase in the ability to serve at all points of service. This means the building up of appropriate local collections to meet immediate needs as well as to provide the ability to draw on larger resources.
3) It implies a cooperative sharing among libraries, independent of their administrative base, be it municipality, school district, industrial concern, or institution of higher learning.
4) It implies a division of function based upon efficient utilization of the cooperative network, and not upon administrative boundaries. Thus, delivery of materials is made through the most convenient local agency and not through some administrative hierarchy. The channels that deliver material will often not be those that requested it.
5) It implies an increasing degree of specialization in the collections and interests of individual libraries, so that intellectual and financial resources are not dissipated in duplication of broadly available material.
6) It implies a sense of responsibility by the individual library to more than its own constituency, including a willingness to serve others and to support the costs of operating larger collections on which it may draw.
7) It implies an increasing concentration of equipment — for data processing and communication — at clearly defined points, thus providing a rationale for installation of specific levels of equipment.
8) It implies a willingness on the part of libraries to cooperate in a voluntary, but responsible, manner, including a willingness to accept certain common standards of cataloging, collection, and methods of operation.
9) Finally, but in some ways most importantly, it implies the creation of a new view of the library — on the part of librarians and users — as the place to go for information service of all kinds.[3]

The public library is probably the only public agency devoted to education (or learning) available to all people within the society. At one time in our history the library was called every man's university. The library has become a community center, a place through which learning resources are obtained, a recreational facility, a political activism center, and an edifice to which citizens of a community point

with pride. The ability to access and utilize information can be the basis for economic and political power. The successes in our society are based on our ability to use information in a productive way, as well as our ability to obtain it.

Johnson reports three major changes in our society: (1) proliferation of knowledge, (2) scientific and technological advances, and (3) urbanization.[4] These changes have caused, according to Johnson, shorter working hours and more leisure activity, population growth, and an affluent society. As our society is undergoing change, the library is also changing. Tomorrow's library may become a knowledge resource center and as such play a major role in alleviating today's problems of informational materials logistics.[5]

As knowledge resource centers, libraries may become total community centers providing all of the informational services required to operate within our society. As total library/information service becomes available to a society (or a community), the ways in which services and information are provided may change.[6] The sources for this information need not be limited just to those held in the collection but may include social counselors, medical practitioners, crisis clinicians, and legal advisors. Here the library begins to offer services normally provided, to some extent, by other social and health service agencies.

Today we also need to consider the possibility that commercial organizations, with a profit motive, may be able to provide library/information service in a more cost-efficient way than is now done in many libraries. Possibly, information services can be provided as a public utility, either by governments or by private enterprise.

With the application of new types of technology, telecommunications, and computers, the provision of services takes on a new perspective. The concept of local or community libraries begins to be challenged, since information can be provided from remote data bases and the computer can be used as a tool to facilitate a more efficient management system for the operation of library/information service programs. With the application of technology, the costs for providing service can be better documented, and the recipients of the service therefore may be appropriately charged.

Before we can develop programs for the future, we must define the goals to be attained by our library/information service system. We need to define the product or service to be provided by our libraries as well as the way we will work to produce those services or products.[7] It seems axiomatic that the future will call for more interlibrary cooperation

and intrastate coordination of the provision of services. Two important questions need to be asked: Who determines the goals for "our" library/information service outlet? Who decides how our activities will be carried out in order to meet these goals?

WHO DETERMINES THE GOALS FOR LIBRARY PROGRAMS?

All programs serving people, like library programs, will have goals determined to some extent by the people being served, as well as by the specialist employed to provide the service. As Walter Stone stated, "In recent years, the library function has become too important in society to be entrusted solely to librarians (even when limited to service with print) or to any other single professional communications group."[8] Determination of programs for library/information service outlets should be equally controlled, as shown in Figure 1. This is equally true for a self-sufficient program as it is for one that interrelates with other programs.

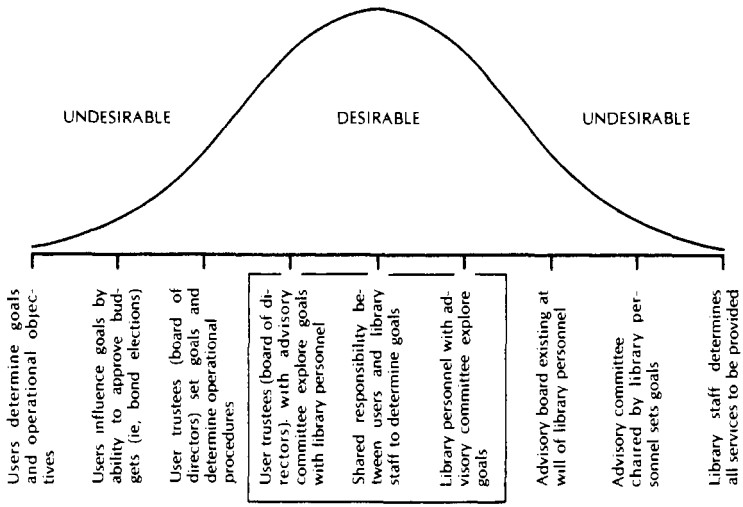

Fig. 1 — Program - Goal Determination

As plans for intrastate systems are developed, whether based on cooperation or mandate, it seems desirable that all parties involved—providers and consumers — have a role to play in determining both the goals of the system and the strategies for attaining the goals. The Library Services and Construction Act required that each state operate an advisory council on libraries. These councils were to determine the long-range program for the provision of library services in the state. It

would seem that this council is a logical place to commence the processes of defining goals for library programs. The council should assume this responsibility and must, therefore, be independent of control from the state library, legislature, or any other power body. The Washington State Advisory Council on Libraries (WSACL) consists of fifteen members, seven of whom are classed as library users. Appointments to the council are made by the Washington State Library Commission and the Washington Library Association.

The WSACL has played a major role in determining not only the goals and operational objectives for library service, but also has been involved in considering activities that might lead to the attainment of the defined objectives.[9] This council allows the professionals to step back and look at the total library/information service picture, thus providing the opportunity for new insights into the programs to be developed and operated.[10]

If the intrastate cooperative system is to have even a remote chance for success, the decisions establishing the system and guiding its operation need to be shared by all parties involved. Cooperative systems are based on communication. Participation in decision-making requires communication of ideas. Decision-making in a cooperative system will be based on achieving consensus — the democratic process, a fragile but workable process. Leadership is the key element to fostering a truly cooperative democratic library/information service on a statewide basis. Once goals are determined, it is necessary to define operationally program objectives and then decide how programs will operate to meet the objectives.

PROGRAM OPERATION

Determining the operational programs to meet the goals defined is, generally, the responsibility of the providers of the service. The programs will focus on meeting specific objectives. Generally, these objectives will be operationally defined, and will be relatively short range in nature. The WSACL, since it has among its members library administrators and library trustees, is in a position to speculate about specific operational activity that might be considered in order to attain the program goals and objectives. For example, in the research and planning area the council held the following objective: "To obtain and/or update information needed in planning for future library development."[11] The council then proceeded to prepare specific activities that might lead to the attainment of the objective:

1) To analyze current and projected census figures and other indicators to identify the state's population in terms of ethnic, social, economic, and physical characteristics; such analysis to be accompanied by and related to a profile of the state's geography, topography, and economic bases as they relate to the provision of library services.
2) Identification of what the non-users of publicly supported libraries want or need is an essential element in planning for library service. It is, therefore, intended to request of the legislature funds to conduct a survey of non-users to determine:
   a) If information such as could be found in publicly-supported libraries is accessed, where it is accessed;
   b) Non-users' perceptions of what library services not now provided should be provided, where they should be made available and whether such provision would make the non-user a user;
   c) An indication of the non-users' understanding of how libraries are supported and how they are managed.

   To aid in integrating total state services, it is anticipated that item (a) above would also indicate what other library a citizen uses if he does not patronize *his* public/school/academic library.
3) To develop a data collection system which would provide information on a continuous basis concerning the materials and personnel resources of all types of libraries.
4) To request of the legislature funds for an indepth study of the kinds and quality of library services available in the state's common schools (K-12).
5) The lack of *qualitative* standards for evaluation of library programs, as well as the desire to adapt national quantitative standards to the state level, resulted in the appointment of an Advisory Council Committee on Criteria for Library Programs. Target date for completion of the committee's task is 1974, at which time its output will be used to evaluate current library services and plan for future development.
6) To establish within the State Agency, or at some other appropriate location, an evaluation function for on-going analysis of the level of attainment of the objectives listed in this plan, as well as those identified in proposals for which LSCA or state funding has been or will be granted.
7) To analyze the role of the State Library in light of planned and potential developments.[12]

A LIBRARY—A PLACE AND A SET OF FUNCTIONS

Rather than thinking of a library as a place, one should think of it as a set of activities, systems, a staff of people, a collection of resources, and interrelationships between these that, when combined, allow for the provision of service. That service is making information available to be utilized.[13] The library is the sum of all of the parts included in the program's operation.

The building of a statewide library/information service system calls for the development of interrelationships through cooperative and managed programs that will allow for a maximization of information services to all people. One fact with which we must live is that in meeting the goals of tomorrow we must start with the resources we have today — including the existing library programs and all that they represent.

Looking at the work of the National Commission on Libraries and Information Science (NCLIS) and its projected goals for nationwide library/information service, it is obvious that not one of the fifty states has total library/information service that may be considered adequate by the NCLIS or the residents of that state. Cooperation continues as a determined strategy that can help facilitate the provision of services.

It is necessary to remember that a truly cooperative system is undoubtedly one of the most fragile arrangements that can be developed for the provision of public services. However, cooperative systems on an intrastate basis are the most reasonable means of attaining the goal of total library/information service.

COOPERATION — WHAT IS IT?

Like innovation, cooperation is hard to define and evaluate.[14] Cooperation can be defined as the association of people or agencies in activities with common goals or objectives and with the intent of providing specific benefits for all. The key concept is that the benefits derived are shared by all. The verb *cooperate* implies combining, acting in concert, joining forces, working toward a common cause, and sharing successes and failures. On a statewide basis we must cooperate to meet all of the goals of library service. Unless there are benefits evident that will be obtained by acting in concert with other libraries, there is no reason to develop a cooperative system.

STRENGTHS OF COOPERATIVE SYSTEMS

Development of cooperative systems will be the responsibility of a

group of people. As goals are defined and specific objectives determined for cooperative programs, the development of a corporate mind should take place. One of the significant strengths in bringing people together for problem solving is the creation of this corporate mind. It is assumed that the creative output of the group will be greater than the combined creativity of the individual members.

The concept of cost avoidance is one that must be explored as cooperative systems are developed. The reduction of expenditures should not be regarded as the only justification for forming cooperative systems. Cost avoidance is, however, an acceptable justification for initiating the consideration of a cooperative effort.

Collective action in a cooperative system usually brings satisfaction to the parties involved. Acting in concert with one's colleagues in solving problems is usually professionally rewarding and brings a satisfaction and strength that may justify cooperative systems. The public demonstration of cooperative programs is usually a very favorable activity for political interests.

WEAKNESSES OF COOPERATIVE SYSTEMS

If certain members within an intrastate cooperative system are only consumers of shared service, the cooperative system is destined to failure. Cooperative systems are built on the interdependence of all components in the system. There must be elements that all members of the cooperative system can provide and elements from which all members can benefit.

Another potential weakness is the consumption of energy in the development of cooperatives. In a cooperative system decisions are usually achieved by consensus. The democratic method that is essential for the successful operation of cooperative systems is however, a very inefficient decision-making process.

Another weakness that must not be overlooked is the difficulty in determining the commitments of all cooperating parties. Gamesmanship takes place as cooperative systems are explored.

Cooperation must be viewed as an extremely fragile arrangement. The system based on cooperation will exist only as long as the parties involved continue to cooperate. Not only can confidence in the cooperative effort be broken by a lack of performance from weak cooperating parties, but also by a lack of genuine commitment by key members. Intrastate cooperative systems are probably the best structure available to help maximize the provision of total library/information service.

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ALTERNATIVES TO COOPERATION

A basic assumption is that working together is a highly productive approach to problem-solving, problem definition, and the generation of ideas about possible solutions or the determination of alternative solutions.

POSSIBLE ALTERNATIVES

Cooperation is based on a willingness to work together to achieve mutual benefits. One alternative to cooperation is the mandating of statewide cooperation. With autocratic administration all segments of the library/ information service community will work for the provision of maximized library service for the people in the state; it is ordered and thus becomes law. In this system the state is responsible for saying what will and will not be done. The state will undoubtedly base its decisions on the ideas of the consumers of library service and of the providers of that service at the local level. The key element, nevertheless, is that everyone *must* "cooperate" in this system.

Self-sufficiency, when one need not obtain anything from anyone else, makes cooperation unnecessary. If a program is self-sufficient, then it really need not share its wealth with other programs that are not self-sufficient as a means of "entitling" itself to receive materials from other programs. Interlibrary loan, as it exists today, is based on the concept of those having the resources loaning them to those that do not. The basic assumption of cooperation is that everyone will loan to everyone else; however, if there is nothing to lend, there is nothing to fear by cooperation. Since self-sufficiency is highly unlikely to be achieved by any of the library programs as we know them today, another alternative to cooperation, though undesirable, is the continued provision of inadequate services.

By contracting services to a commercial firm or to another larger library/information service unit, it is possible to avoid the necessity of providing direct services. It is the contractor's problem to fulfill the terms of the contract. A previously determined remuneration is a very effective way to obtain and to provide services. Contracting to obtain or to provide services does not always imply cooperation. Cooperative programs, however, may be formalized and strengthened by contracting or by exchanging letters of understanding between all parties involved.

When one library is the customer of another, this means that an agreement must be reached about precisely what services are to be

provided and what the amount of remuneration will be. This agreement will allow the customer to hold the seller accountable for the provision of services spelled out in the contract — a viable alternative to cooperative systems.

However, all indications are that maximized library/information service can be provided in a state by the development and operation of cooperative service programs. As weak and fragile as they may be, they appear to be the best strategy to meet the goals identified for library/information service programs.

PLANNING FOR INTRASTATE COOPERATION

Many cooperative programs develop as short-range solutions to immediate problems. To determine whether a cooperative approach to achieving program goals is an acceptable and productive operational strategy, it will be necessary to know the following: (1) program goals—general statements of what is to be provided and to whom by the existence and operation of the library/information service program; (2) program resources—what is available to support the operation of the program. These resources include monies supporting operations, skilled people, tools for use in the operations, and external program support (through cooperative efforts); and (3) program objectives—what operational objectives are to be met as the program focuses on the goals.

Being skeptical about cooperative programs may be wise. As an operational strategy, cooperation is a costly way to meet objectives, but frequently it is the most effective. By constantly questioning, "why cooperation?" it may be possible to prevent the consumption of a program's scarce resources in planning for and participating in cooperative programs not aimed at achieving the specific objectives or goals of that program.

Intrastate cooperation may be desirable when it: (1) increases services available from the library/information service outlets to the people of the state; (2) increases efficiency in the development and management of the informational resources; (3) avoids increasing costs while increasing quality or quantity of services (assuming the services are aimed at attaining the program's goals); (4) provides professional satisfaction to the people involved in designing and operating the cooperative program; and (5) maintains interdependence (not just dependence) of the cooperating programs.

Intrastate cooperation starts with cooperative planning, which can take many forms, including:

1. Association leadership—professional associations representative of personnel in the information services field may assume an action-oriented posture by bringing people together for the purpose of program development.
2. State agencies—state libraries or other agencies can bring people together for the purpose of endorsing or developing a plan. Usually the agency has participants focus on problems the agency deems important.
3. Ad hocracies—gatherings of interested people with no official base may address specific problems or plan specific programs. These ad hoc groups are usually action oriented, but are frequently ineffective because they lack a base from which to influence decisions.
4. Planning bodies—authority groups, such as state library commissions, can establish official participatory planning/development groups.
5. External planning requirements—as with the LSCA, external forces can provide the motivation to establish a planning body. (The LSCA requires that a state have a statewide advisory council to develop a long-range library program in order to qualify for federal funds under the act.)

Generally, all five of the preceding forms are valid planning and developmental bodies. In 1971 the WSACL was formed by the Washington Library Association and the Washington State Library Commission as an advisory body to the commission, the library association, and the Washington State Library. The WSACL was charged with the development of the long-range program for the provision of library services for the state. This body has the following characteristics:

1. The fifteen members, one-half of whom are library users, might include association leaders, library trustees, school district and college administrative officials, leaders of public interest associations such as Common Cause or League of Women Voters, etc.
2. Appointments to the WSACL carry an honor. Appointments are made by the Washington State Library Commission.
3. Fiscal and staff support is provided to the WSACL by the Washington State Library.
4. Chairing the WSACL is an identified leader—appointment to chair the council is made by the library commission.

5. The WSACL usually meets bi-monthly.
6. Reports from the WSACL are made at association meetings, periodically to the Washington State Library Commission, and frequently in special WSACL meetings promoted as current status reports.
7. Interested groups may appoint liaison to the council and receive all council mailings, minutes, etc.
8. All WSACL meetings are publicly announced and open for participation.
9. Meetings are held at various locations around the state.

The WSACL is actively interested in all matters related to the provision of library/information service in Washington. The council was not assigned these responsibilities—it assumed them. The WSACL is a focal point for cooperative decision-making and cooperative developments within the state. Matters of recent concern to the council include: state library budget requests, certification of librarians, position description used in searching for the director of the state library, criteria for evaluating programs, survey of informational resources held in the state, criteria for legislation which could establish a statewide system of public libraries, programs for continuing education for library personnel, Washington Library Network automation projects, federal fudning, and examination of the proposed national plan from the NCLIS. (Minutes of all WSACL meetings are documents available through the Washington State Library. They are not indexed but may be requested according to date of meeting.)

As the WSACL assumed its responsibility of defining a long-range program for library/information service for the state, it formed a series of task forces and committees. These task-oriented groups actually became the working or research arm of the council. At one point, nearly 200 people were in some way officially related to the work of the council by appointment to a committee or task force. The long-range program eventually developed by the WSACL for the state was a direct result of the work of these groups.

A considerable amount of learning took place as council participants were exposed to new ideas and new ways to meet the service needs of their patrons. They became aware of the inadequacies of their existing library/information service programs.

In 1971, the WSACL attempted to develop a long-range program for library services, with the program being presented to the public in

1972. A year later it was revised and prepared for implementation. The program's working document contains the following sections: (1) statement of the mission of libraries in Washington, (2) goals for the provision of library/information service to all people in the state, (3) objectives, stated in operational terms, that when implemented will produce specific results related to the attainment of the goals, and (4) proposed activities leading to program objectives.[15]

THE DECISION-MAKERS

When undertaking any cooperative program, the decision-makers must be involved from the outset.[16] Frequently, participants planning cooperative activities need to return to the administration of their program and "sell" the idea to the decision-makers. All too frequently, the decision-makers pocket veto the idea (make no decision), or identify the reasons why it cannot work. Occasionally, cooperative programs are implemented and the administration is never consulted. Ironically, these programs have frequently proven successful.

Cooperative planners need to make all of their decisions public, which can best be accomplished by making the decisions in a public forum. The Washington State Advisory Council on Libraries was such a forum and it also reported to all concerned the specifics of decisions, including the names of those involved in reaching them. These procedures imply decision-making by consensus, and the efforts helped to develop an action plan with support.

A PLAN WITH SUPPORT

The Washington plan focuses on the provision of service to people. It does not focus on the administration of libraries. Cooperation is implied in the plan since the goals cannot be attained without shared efforts. By utilizing a supportable set of objectives, the cooperating parties learned to work together.

The WSACL provided ample opportunity for the surface to be scratched — even marred, reshaped, and rebuilt. Decision-makers either joined in the process, taking risks at making decisions that might affect them, or they were left standing on the sidelines by their participatory colleagues. Through the open exchange of ideas fostered by the WSACL, it became evident that decision-making by group consensus was possible. Honest differences of opinion continued to exist, debate raged as to the implementation of parts of the proposed

program, but a sincere effort was made by those involved to find practical solutions to the problems defined.

PROCESSES FOR CHANGE

Any program that calls for change will generally be enhanced if an organized process of change is developed. People operating as change agents will generally help to facilitate the diffusion process.[17] Change as a product is defined by Thelen as: "a situation characterized by these two criteria: there has been a semipermanent change in the force field—a new quasi-stationary equilibrium has been struck; and a major component within this new pattern is altered 'own' forces of the persons whose performance constitutes and maintains the change."[18]

In Washington state, as in other places,[19] it was found that change agents in the library/information service field need the following characteristics:

1. respect, trust, and acceptance from the majority of their colleagues
2. knowledge of library/information service program and processes
3. skills with interpersonal communications and organizational development
4. process orientation, humanistic in its thrust, to the analysis of problems and proposing of solutions
5. ability to allow other people to get credit for success programs which may have been stimulated by the change agents
6. involvement at a meaningful level with associations
7. mobility among the people involved in developing new programs—change agents, as cosmopolites, facilitate communications (carry messages)
8. knowledge of the politics of the library/information service field.

Those appointed to leadership positions of the WSACL possessed these characteristics and functioned effectively as change agents. In Washington, the professional excitement was maintained at a high level as changes in the library/information service field were pursued, partially due to the quality of participation by the change agents involved.

COOPERATIVE PROGRAM IMPLEMENTATION

Cooperative planning and implementation, based on decision-making through consensus, is graphically presented in Figure 2. Bringing the individual programs and their goals into focus,

combined with the focusing of the many diverse ideas held by operators of the individual programs into an intrastate cooperative, will produce positive results—the outcome of which may be measured by increased service to patrons.

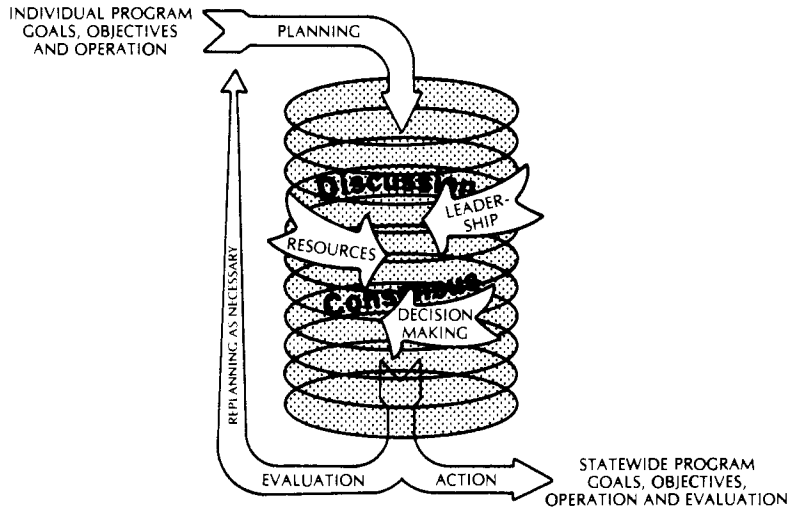

Fig. 2 — Decision Making and Program Implementation

It was believed that the utilization of participatory decision-making for both planning and operation would bring to bear the corporate mind to find acceptable strategies to implement programs that will meet defined program objectives. The implementation of a long-range program has become a shared responsibility in the state of Washington. The Library Futures Planning Task Force was chosen to facilitate the sharing of that responsibility.

IMPLEMENTATION OF THE LONG-RANGE PROGRAM

In January 1974, the Library Futures Planning Task Force was created as an action-oriented team to refine, into operational specifics, parts of the WSACL long-range program. The task force was to assist with the implementation of the program. In April 1974, the task force began its work with the assumption that its objectives would be met by July 1975, when the task force would disband. Operationally, the task force was attached to the Library Development Division of the

Washington State Library and served as a staff extension of the WSACL.

The cooperative approach to decision-making, program development, and program implementation provides the focus of the task force. It was composed of two professionals and supportive staff. Operating as change agents, the team traveled throughout the state, facilitating developmental and implementation efforts of Washington's newly accepted long-range program for statewide library/information service.

The task force was successful in rallying forces behind the implementation of the agreed-to program. Along with successes have been failures, most of which are the results of expecting too rapid an acceptance of new programs.

FROM PLAN TO PROGRAM

The task force then faced the challenge of bringing together the elements of the developing programs into a coordinated statewide services system. Intrastate cooperative programs were developed following a rather common sequence of steps: (1) definition of the goals and objectives; (2) development of strategies that would lead to the objectives; (3) determination of the resources needed to reach the objectives; (4) implementation of the strategies; and (5) evaluation to see if the objectives were met, redesigning strategies, and trying again, if necessary.

The Library Futures Planning Task Force in Washington had as a major responsibility the bringing together of the leadership in the library/information services field to design strategies to meet the objectives of the long-range program. The task force was to assist in finding the necessary resources to operate the programs and to facilitate the cooperative decision-making on how the programs would be administered and governed.

Cooperation is a fragile way to accomplish tasks, a cooperative chain being only as strong as its weakest link. Cooperation is a way to enhance present services without giving up the unique qualities of individual library programs. The strength of intrastate library/information service programs will be the base for the development of a national program for library and information service.

Two ideas for research emerge from the experience of cooperative planning in the state of Washington. First, research on the diffusion and adoption of innovations in the library/information service field is

worthy of study. Second, leadership in the field is undefined, and research on both what constitutes leadership and how it might be developed seem worthy of study. Hypothetically, the library field is no different from any other field in this sense, but evidence to support this assumption is still unavailable.

Resting in the hands of the few is the future of library/information service programs in Washington state. Taking this future into *our* hands as *we* make decisions about *our* programs' destinies is an assumed responsibility. However, it appears that together — cooperatively — we can achieve the goals we have set for our programs.

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Federal Library Cooperation

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FEDERAL LIBRARIES are moved to cooperate by the same forces that influence other types of libraries. They face a dearth of resources, a heavy demand in a broad array of subjects from a vigorous and growing constituenty, and wide dispersion of resources. As all libraries do, they face the still-increasing volume of publication and information, and the seemingly inexorable inflation of the costs of all resources required for library service.

Federal libraries are being pressed from another direction toward cooperative programs. Just as many segments of society look to the federal government and its agencies for planning, leadership, program support, and subsidy to solve social problems, a strong segment of the American library community anticipates federal library involvement in national library systems. To date, almost all but the national libraries have been shielded from this pressure by the bureaucracy of agency missions which do not yet recognize national library support as an essential activity. But the pressure to change is present and growing, particularly with the strength of new federal planning efforts, as in the National Commission on Libraries and Information Science.

There are more than 2,000 libraries in the federal government, ranging over a broad spectrum of types and purposes. Among them are the Library of Congress which is in fact, if not in law, a national library; the National Agricultural Library and the National Library of Medicine; six presidential libraries; general libraries which serve the cultural, informational, educational and recreational needs of the military agencies; academic libraries; libraries in elementary and

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secondary schools on military bases and Indian reservations; and the technical, legal, research and other special libraries of the many government departments and agencies.

Most federal libraries are small; the median size of federal library collections in 1970 (excluding the national libraries) was only 16,500 total holdings—mostly books, but including journals, maps, technical reports, and films. Furthermore, their budgets are minuscule; the median in fiscal year 1970 was only $27,000 for materials, staff and equipment. About two-thirds of the average library budget is devoted to personnel, and the typical federal library has fewer than three staff members, which may not include a professional. Only 7 percent of the federal libraries are in the Washington, D.C., metropolitan area; 60 percent are scattered throughout the states, while 40 percent are located outside the continental limits of the United States.[1]

The organizational infrastructure for federal library cooperation is relatively simple and about as effective as can be expected for an activity that does not operate with a legislative mandate. Most federal library cooperative effort is voluntary, as is the tradition in American librarianship. A number of important cooperative programs operate under the terms of joint agreements between agencies, simple in outward respects, but frequently arrived at only with difficulty, given the independence of federal agencies and their steadfast focus on their own Congressional mandates.

Federal laws and regulations provide a matrix that conditions certain aspects of library cooperation. Library procurement regulations, for example, require that books discarded from a federal library be sent to the Library of Congress (LC), where they are available for selection and addition to other federal libraries. Federal law regulates the conditions for transfer of funds among agencies, and internal agency regulations may further refine these conditions. Cooperative activities must be tailored to meet these conditions if funds to support them are to be taken from agency budgets. The criteria guiding the application of data processing and the acquisition of data processing equipment are set by law and monitored by the General Services Administration (GSA). GSA also controls the use of telecommunications services by government agencies. This agency is therefore in a position to influence interlibrary cooperation in computer networking, among other things.

In the spirit of accountability for national resources, the national libraries, and occasionally other federal libraries, respond to expressions of national need by working with committees of various

associations to formulate programs that will improve access to their collections for other libraries. For example, the publication of the LC catalog in book form was the result of joint planning by the Library of Congress and the Association of Research Libraries, and the published version of the National Union Catalog was prepared in response to recommendations by the American Library Association.

Currently, most federal library cooperative projects are the result of the work of the Federal Library Committee and its task forces. The committee was formed in 1965 under the auspices of the Bureau of the Budget and the Library of Congress. Its mission is to:

> (1) consider policies and problems relating to Federal libraries; (2) evaluate existing Federal library programs and resources; (3) determine the priorities among library issues requiring attention; (4) examine the organization and policies for acquiring, preserving, and making information available; (5) study the need for and potential of technological innovation in library practices; (6) study library budgeting and staffing problems including the recruiting, education, training, and remuneration of librarians.[2]

The membership of the Federal Library Committee consists of representatives from the cabinet departments, several independent agencies (some permanent and others elected), other branches of the government, and various regional libraries. The Librarian of Congress serves as chairman. The administrative work of the committee's executive office is handled by the Library of Congress, although it is not a unit of the library. Most of its work is done by task forces of volunteers from many federal libraries, including many not represented on the committee. Several of its major studies have been conducted with grant funds from other federal agencies. Under committee auspices, a group of federal librarians is beginning to examine the possible administrative and legal approaches to the establishment of a cooperative system for centralized services for federal libraries.

In 1961 the office of the Science Advisor to the President created the Committee on Science Information—later the Committee on Scientific and Technical Information (COSATI)—to study and coordinate information handling activities in major government agencies heavily involved in sponsoring scientific and technical research. Delegates to the committee were usually the principal information officers of the various agencies, although a few bureaus and the national libraries designated their chief librarians as members

or observers. Thus, although COSATI was not library oriented, it did provide a forum for deliberations among a few highly placed information officers and librarians on issues of information service important to both libraries and information centers. Responsibility for managing COSATI was transferred to the Office of Science Information Service in the National Science Foundation when the position of Science Advisor to the President was abolished early in the Nixon administration. It has more recently been replaced by an informal council of managers of federal information activities.

It can be argued that since all federal libraries are units of the U.S. government, they are not cooperating when they interact, but are operating as elements of a single system. The fact is, of course, that the federal government is so large, its facilities so dispersed throughout the country, and its various departments so compartmentalized by mission orientation, that any joint activity among federal libraries has all the attributes of cooperation among otherwise independent agencies.

The independence of federal agencies in program and mission gives rise to special problems that can be handled only through cooperation. The interpretation of laws and regulations meant to apply uniformly to the management of federal agencies varies so greatly among the agencies that many regulations have become more restrictive than helpful. Several projects of the Federal Library Committee have as their aim the codification and rationalization of varying interpretations of regulations, or the negotiation with administrative support activities such as the Civil Service Commission and the GSA for more uniform and serviceable interpretation of the rules of operation.

Basically, cooperation among federal libraries does not differ in many of its elements from similar activity elsewhere in the library world. Federal librarians are active in sharing resources through interlibrary lending, and have negotiated a code to govern this activity. Going further in this effort, they have prepared a detailed inventory of holdings of a selected group of approximately 190 libraries to facilitate both interlibrary lending and cooperative collection developments.[3]

Generally, federal agency missions do not overlap, although selected program elements among agencies might at times appear to serve similar goals. Since federal libraries primarily support agency missions, their collections thus tend not to overlap. They therefore achieve by normal operation the collection specialization that other parts of the library community must negotiate by design. This does not mean that nothing is left for federal libraries to do in cooperative collection development. Agency missions do change with time and political

administrations, making it difficult for some federal libraries to maintain extensive research collections in great depth. Most agencies rely on the collections of the Library of Congress and the other national libraries for such material. The burden on these libraries is great, and perhaps ought to be relieved through some means of positive collection development for lesser-used research materials. Interdisciplinary missions in some agencies are also difficult to serve except through special arrangements with federal libraries maintaining collections on a rather traditional subject basis. In some cases, no federal library would have a usable collection on an esoteric subject. Again, the collections of the national libraries carry the burden of this service. For these and other reasons, the General Accounting Office has suggested that federal libraries engage in some programs of cooperative collection development.

The fact that federal libraries do specialize according to agency mission is of some value to library cooperation in general. By identifying the goals of various federal agencies, perhaps from the descriptions of them in the annual *Government Organization Manual*, interlibrary loan librarians can determine with a relatively high probability of success the location of special library collections on subjects pertinent to their users' needs.

Federal libraries share administrative burdens, as, for example, in joint use of one agency's contracts for the purchase of library materials and binding services by several additional agencies. They have sponsored research both in continuing education and in the role of libraries vis-à-vis information centers, aiming at an improvement in the development and use of resources. The educational research has resulted in the development of a number of courses for a post-master's degree program in federal librarianship at Catholic University of America as well as a series of executive management workshops. For several years, several of the large federal bureaus with many field libraries have conducted a joint workshop for field library staffs to make their library service more effective and to identify and work on problems that otherwise would remain submerged in general bureau management activity. One Federal Library Committee task force studied procurement practices and prepared a manual which brings together hitherto scattered and variably interpreted regulations.[4] It serves as a guide both to librarians of the many small libraries who may be generally unskilled in federal practices, and the harassed general managers of federal bureaus who know too little about library needs.

In late June 1973, a group of federal libraries began the Federal

Library Experiment in Cooperative Cataloging (FLECC). The group contracted through the Library of Congress with the Ohio College Library Center (OCLC) to provide the services for the experiment. The contract called for the addition of hardware and software at OCLC to allow federal libraries to access the OCLC data base via the TYMSHARE dial-up service, thus removing the need for costly long-distance leased lines to the federal libraries scattered throughout the country. This is an innovation for OCLC, which hitherto had provided access only by leased telephone lines. The FLECC group quickly grew to include about thirty libraries, operating on both leased lines and dial-up line service. An evaluation of FLECC is now underway. It is hoped that one of the long-range effects of the experiment will be the continued elimination of administrative barriers, real and imaginary, to effective joint action involving the commitment of financial and other resources by federal agencies to a common cause.

The General Accounting Office (GAO)—the agency of Congress which monitors the use of appropriated funds—has urged the expansion of cooperative practices. It has called for more action by the Office of Management and Budget in encouraging improved management and coordination of federal library activities. Specifically, it has suggested that federal libraries develop a storage facility for little-used material, make more use of microform publications, conduct a coordinated program of research on library operations, and establish a program of cooperative collection development and other activities such as control of serials and cooperative cataloging.[5] Because of the concept of the separation of powers, the GAO can only make recommendations to the Office of Management and Budget. Proposals from federal agencies to carry out these recommendations should be more favorably received by Congress for authorization, since they have been made originally by a part of the Congress itself.

While the three national libraries, including the Library of Congress, are actively involved in all of the activities mentioned above, cooperation among them and activities that open their resources to nonfederal libraries must be examined separately. Among other things, these libraries have a recognized mission to serve a number of public needs outside the government, and are funded accordingly. Even if this were not the case, they are such large and intellectually stimulating libraries that the results of cooperation among them take on an aura of far greater power than among other federal libraries.

Cooperation in collection development among the three national

libraries and their forerunners has long been established. The Secretary of Agriculture suggested in 1893 that the Library of Congress transfer to the Department of Agriculture Library one copy of each book in selected fields of agriculture received under the terms of the Copyright Law.[6] Such an arrangement now exists, although it took many years to establish. A similar arrangement exists between LC and the National Library of Medicine (NLM). Thus, LC limits its own acquisitions in medicine and agriculture to works in the pure sciences. Both the National Agricultural Library (NAL) and the NLM are recipients of items acquired by the Library of Congress under the terms of the Public Law 480 program (now called the Special Foreign Currency Program).

This activity carries over into the area of bibliography. The NAL and the NLM each issue book catalogs of their holdings, and entries are not duplicated in the published version of the *National Union Catalog.* The NLM and NAL catalogs thus serve as supplements to the *National Union Catalog.* Each of these libraries has its own cataloging style, but the U.S. National Libraries Task Force on Cooperative Activities has worked to modify certain practices to achieve compatibility in descriptive cataloging.

Various aspects of the work of the three national libraries have long been vital components of library cooperation throughout the United States. Because of the size of these libraries and their cooperative effort with the library community in the development of cataloging standards, the records of books in their catalogs are a national resource of major value. These libraries have worked for three-quarters of a century to make this catalog accessible to the public through local libraries.

The Library of Congress began to share its cataloging efforts with libraries in 1901 through the distribution of its catalog cards. Prior to that time the Department of Agriculture Library had been sending its catalog cards to the Library of Congress to create a union record of the holdings of the two major libraries. With the advent of the card distribution service, the Library of Congress immediately began a larger union catalog effort, making arrangements to receive and file cards from a number of the nation's major research libraries, including the public libraries of New York, Boston and Chicago, special research libraries such as the John Crerar and the Newberry Libraries, the libraries of the University of Chicago and the University of Illinois, and the federal libraries in Washington, D.C. Other libraries joined the union catalog effort as they introduced printed or processed cards in

their operations. By 1926 the union catalog had received over 2 million cards. The Library of Congress upgraded its efforts with a grant from John Rockefeller in 1926 and created the Union Catalog Division in 1932.[7] In conjunction with the Association of Research Libraries, LC began to consider the publication of the *National Union Catalog*, a program begun finally in 1942. This catalog is still being updated and cumulated in printed form. Together the catalogs of the three national libraries form the primary source for cataloging information for a large and uncounted number of libraries throughout the world.

In recent years the three libraries have begun large-scale automation projects, featuring in part an effort to apply computers to the bibliographical processes. Here the cooperative effort among the three libraries falters, not because of lack of desire, but because of the difficulties of making different machine systems compatible. The libraries created a joint task force to study compatible automation developments, and have extended the work of the group to include a wide range of cooperative ideas.

The NLM and the NAL are strongly committed to the delivery of information in their respective subject fields through cooperation with selected libraries throughout the nation. They have each enlisted medical and agricultural libraries across the country to serve as access points to bibliographical and information resources for local libraries and users. Each is basing its bibliographic activity on computer data bases. NLM's MEDLINE system provides on-line access to the MEDLARS data base in many non-federal libraries. The service has extended to foreign countries: eight foreign MEDLARS/MEDLINE centers were added to the system in 1974.[8] NAL awarded research grants to eight land-grant universities in 1974 for various investigations concerning the use of its CAIN (cataloging and indexing) on-line system in providing access to cataloging and indexing information in agriculture.[9] Both NLM and NAL conduct workshops for users of their systems. Both also provide user access to several other computerized bibliographic data bases.

Currently, the programs of the Lister Hill National Center for Biomedical Communications of the NLM exemplify the potential of a planned national library and information service. The Lister Hill Center was created in 1968 with these objectives: to speed the flow of new knowledge to application, to improve the education of medical students, to offer better communications for the continuing education of health science professionals, to facilitate the development of new knowledge, and to improve public understanding about healthful

living and preventive medicine. Although the center thus carries on a number of activities that are unusual in libraries, the nation's health science libraries are important agents in helping the center achieve its goals. Much of the information that the health sciences need is in the open literature, and the center's goals require that access to this literature be facilitated. Accordingly, the center has designated and funded eleven regional medical libraries, chiefly in medical schools, to provide the managerial and document delivery backbone of the MEDLINE network. The regional medical libraries have now been augmented with the designation of regional resource libraries to further speed access to literature. The developmental work for MEDLINE, the on-line medical literature information retrieval system, has been completed, and is now operational at the National Library of Medicine. In its planning efforts, the Lister Hill Center has worked closely with the community served, particularly the professional societies in librarianship, the health sciences, and education. The work of the center is a model for a total communication environment for special information programs that might well be emulated in other subjects in a comprehensive national library and information program. Donald Hendricks's article in this issue of *Library Trends* is devoted to the NLM program in view of its possible relevance to trends in all subject areas.

Since 1969 the three national libraries have been attempting to create a national serials system with various components for processing and bibliographical control of serials. Efforts to establish an operating automated serials system have been shifted to the Conservation of Serials (CONSER) project, which is supported and managed by the Council on Library Resources. The system will use the facilities and software of OCLC. The National Serials Data Program at the Library of Congress is now responsible for assigning key titles and International Standard Serial Numbers, and for the validation of the data in the serials file.[10]

Elements of cooperation among the national libraries in collection development have already been mentioned. In addition to receiving medical and agricultural books acquired by the Library of Congress, NAL and NLM regularly select for their own collections duplicate materials from the LC's Exchange and Gift Division. Both of these libraries also receive materials and cataloging copy through the National Program for Acquisitions and Cataloging (NPAC) of the Library of Congress. NPAC was established under the terms of Title II-C of the amended Higher Education Act. Materials are selected by

dealers in twenty-four countries. The Library of Congress operates overseas shared cataloging centers that prepare preliminary cataloging for these books. In addition, the Library of Congress operates an acquisitions program that supplies books purchased with excess currencies in a number of foreign countries to some research libraries in the United States.

The heavy investment by the federal government in research and development since World War II, with its concomitant increase in the amount of information, has created a new class of information agent: the information center or the information analysis center. There are literally hundreds of such agencies, both within and outside the government. Those outside the government are often subsidized by government funds in recognition of the forces that created the information. For years there has been controversy over the need for these centers in addition to libraries. The proponents of information centers view the libraries as archival in function, operating with techniques that are slow, underpowered, insufficiently detailed in the intellectual analysis of their collections, and generally unable to perform the large and sophisticated task of handling vast quantities of information. Libraries are judged to be oriented toward the medium and not toward information.

Regardless of the reason for the creation of this new class of agency, there is now a need for cooperation and collaboration between information centers and libraries, as well as among themselves. Interaction between these two kinds of agencies has been negligible and hard to attain, but not because there have not been mechanisms and attempts at cooperation. The National Bureau of Standards conducted a major literature review of the work that has been done on cooperation and compatibility among information systems.[11] This study clearly delineated the issues and problems of cooperation which serve to guide interactive developments. Several federal agencies designated their librarians to serve on COSATI, which was heavily populated with information specialists. The Librarian of Congress was an official observer at COSATI meetings, and the directors of the NAL and the NLM were members of the committee. Nevertheless, libraries were held as something less than front-line agencies in the cooperative efforts of COSATI.

The Federal Library Committee sponsored several studies relating to libraries vis-à-vis information centers. One such study was a thorough literature analysis of the background for the formation and programs of the two types of activities.[12] Several other studies followed

this survey, but failed to create an understanding that could remove the barriers between agencies. Perhaps all that can be said in the final analysis is that libraries and information centers are becoming more alike. The schism between librarians and information center specialists is still severe, although arguments between the groups have abated, as if there were an understanding of the value and role of each in supporting coexistence. A COSATI report on a national document-handling system suggests a mechanism for merging these two types of activities by placing responsibility for information and document-handling programs at the agency level, rather than at the information or library department level.[13] A number of federal libraries now operate information centers, such as the Food and Nutrition Information and Educational Materials Center at the National Agricultural Library, but these library activities still tend to be literature-based.

Planning for national programs of library functions and services has been occurring for more than a century. Almost invariably, one or more federal libraries are either involved in the planning effort or included as agents in the proposed national activity. Few of these plans have been put into effect or have completely achieved their goals. Several, of course, have become vital components of U.S. library service, e.g., the National Union Catalog and the NLM's Biomedical Communications Network.

In the early 1850s Charles Coffin Jewett, librarian of the Smithsonian Institution, proposed the creation of a national cataloging enterprise, wherein the Smithsonian Institution would create and maintain a file of bibliographic records on stereotype plates from which it could produce on demand printed catalogs of individual libraries' holdings.[14] Jewett's work was preceded by his inventory of U.S. public libraries based on a German model in which the holdings of the nation's public and academic libraries were summarized.[15] This list set a precedent for similar inventories that soon followed. The Jewett cataloging plan failed after a few brief sample catalogs had been issued, principally because of the lack of agreement on a national standard for cataloging rules and because the stereotype plates warped and could not create a flat printing bed.

The need to create order among the activities of the greatly expanded and vigorous information agencies of the federal government subsequent to World War II generated considerable planning effort, many proposals for the integration of various agencies' information activities, and the creation of national

information programs. By the early 1960s, at least twenty such plans proposing the establishment of comprehensive information and document handling services had been generated, the majority of them for science and technology. Most of these plans focused on information rather than on agencies. They generally proposed the elevation of information handling to the status of national priority for action, suggested an organizational framework for information handling networks, and called for the creation of administrative and operational units, products and services tailored to meet perceived needs. In only a few cases were existing federal libraries suggested as nodes in the networks, and then only with major modifications of their missions and programs.

The most comprehensive and perhaps the most fundamentally sound proposal was prepared by COSATI.[16] COSATI surveyed the nation's needs, reviewed the score of previous proposals, and issued its proposed national program for document handling in science and technology in 1965. The plan featured the concept of a "responsible agent system" suggested in an earlier study by Alvin Weinberg.[17] This is a "system concept in which a competent authority [e.g., the President] establishes a particular organization [e.g., an administrative unit of the federal government] as the agent having the primary responsibility for assuring the satisfactory performance of all tasks [but not the sole responsibility to perform the tasks] necessary to provide information services and in particular limited subset of the broad spectrum of science and technology."[18] The precedent for the responsible agent system was the work of the Atomic Energy Commission and the National Aeronautics and Space Administration in providing comprehensive information packaging and dissemination programs in their respective subject areas as an integral part of their agencies' missions. Each of these agencies established depository libraries to which it distributed indexing and abstracting services and technical reports in hard copy and microform for use by scientists throughout the country. Most of these depositories were in university libraries; many were overseas. If the COSATI report's recommendations had been put into effect, presumably many more libraries would have been involved as depository and access nodes in information networks for a vast array of subjects. The responsible agents for each of the many science subjects of concern to the federal government proposed by the COSATI report were principally the executive departments of the federal government and a number of other federal research units. The COSATI report very carefully and thoroughly reviewed the nature of library

operations as a part of its analysis of the inadequacies of the existing document-handling services before outlining a role for libraries in the national system.

In an activity directly related to federal libraries, the Brookings Institution undertook a study of the needs and deficiencies in federal library services in the early 1960s. This study, conducted by Luther Evans, pointed up possibilities for greater coordination among federal libraries and for possible reduction of duplicative services. The major conclusion of the Brookings report was that the reference libraries of the federal establishment represented a great but neglected national resource and that the change most needed was a more dynamic concept of the federal reference library. The report specifically recommended the establishment of a council to advise on policies and action needed for more effective library services.[19] The creation of the Federal Library Committee was the result of that recommendation.

Probably the most comprehensive planning effort for a total national library program is currently in progress under the auspices of the National Commission on Libraries and Information Science. Early drafts of the national program document clearly indicate a major role for federal libraries in national library service. The plan requires the utmost in collaboration and cooperation among libraries to meet national needs. By necessity, the relationship of all libraries to the national program is indicated only in general terms in the document.[20] A background study on national bibliographic and resource centers conducted to support the program statement in more detail better indicates the role of various types of libraries. Here the key position of federal libraries is shown to be essential in the creation of bibliographical support for enhancing the organization of collections and access to them. Likewise, federal libraries are particularly, but not exclusively, indicated among examples of libraries that would serve as resource centers for physical access to library materials.[21]

In many aspects of cooperation, federal libraries differ little from other libraries; they act together much like libraries in a consortium. They engage in normal cooperative practices that are well developed and widespread in library work. To the extent that they gain strength through these activities they serve non-federal libraries better in matters of cooperation. By definition, the national libraries offer services of considerable importance to other libraries both inside and outside the government. Merely by their size they attract requests from other libraries for access to their collections, although they tend to organize this activity so that they become libraries of last resort after

local resources have been exhausted. The catalogs of their holdings have become national and universal bibliographies. To support local bibliographic efforts they have developed exportable catalogs, including machine-readable products.

Both NAL and NLM have created national systems and networks for bibliographical and physical access to literature in their fields of concern. These involve other libraries in a hierarchy of resources, with well-developed protocols and special mechanisms for access. These networks can serve as models for other subjects. Several proposed plans for national library programs are, in fact, generalized descriptions of these specific models.

The entire concept of national programs for document and information handling is changing and the trend is toward systems or networks composed of many parts including libraries, information centers, data centers or clearinghouses, with federal agencies being proposed as nationally responsible for all aspects of information work in their respective subject fields. Federal libraries are organized principally to support the work of federal employees and are not free to commit themselves to a broader objective of actively serving national library needs. Before federal libraries can take on this expanded service outside their agencies, the agencies themselves rather than the libraries will have to change their missions to include national library service as a goal. This requires citizen action. Federal agencies do not set their own missions. These are determined by congressional and administration policy and action.

This does not mean that federal library resources cannot be used by the public without official administrative action. Federal librarians are sensitive to the fact that their libraries may contain unique resources, or resources arranged so as to offer special services, and that these resources may be under-utilized within present authorizations. On two occasions the Federal Library Committee and COSATI sponsored national conferences on federal library resources aimed at assessing federal library resources and clarifying issues in opening access to them.[22] The second conference was joined by the Association of Research Libraries. Various elements of the proceedings are now beginning to appear in new national plans. It is hoped that the exposure of these public resources to non-federal librarians and the new acquaintances made at the conferences have improved cooperation among individual libraries under current conditions, although there has been no assessment of such use. The pressures of national planning may require that the library community convene

similar meetings on a regular basis, not only to improve current use of federal resources, but also to gain insights on action required for future improvements in national library service.

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The Role of Professional Associations in a Network of Library Activity

EDWARD G. HOLLEY

THE ROLE PLAYED in library cooperative enterprises by professional associations—whether library associations or others—is often overlooked. Yet the fact that these organizations are overlooked may be a clue to their fundamental importance and effectiveness. Librarians simply take their professional associations for granted and expect them to be there when needed to provide the organizational framework in which to discuss future plans, organize committee activities, promote library studies and surveys, encourage the development of new cataloging and indexing tools, issue the resulting publications, lobby for legislative support, and provide the conferences, workshops, and institutes necessary for substantial accomplishment.[1] Much of this support is not glamorous, nor does it attract headlines in journals and newspapers. Nonetheless most professional advancement would be seriously handicapped without such organizations and, as Abraham Flexner noted in his now classic definition of a profession, they help us to engage in actions which develop group consciousness and respond to the public interest in ways which achieve socially desirable goals.[2]

Historically, library professional associations have given a high priority to cooperative ventures. One of the first actions resulting from the 1876 conference at which the American Library Association (ALA) was founded was the formation of the Cooperation Committee under the chairmanship of Charles A. Cutter. This committee was concerned mainly with cataloging. In the last quarter of the nineteenth century the ALA was involved in a host of cooperative enterprises; the most familiar of these are the second edition of *Poole's Index to Periodical Literature*, the *A.L.A. Index*, the *Catalog of "A.L.A." Library*, and the

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TABLE I
AMERICAN LIBRARY ASSOCIATIONS

Association	Date Founded	Membership 1974	Membership Year	Dues Rate	Governance	Membership Income	Other Income	Expenditures
American Association of Law Libraries	1906	1,850	June-May	F[d]	Exec. Bd.	$ 56,950	$ 107,450	$ 147,600
American Library Association	1876	34,010	Sept.-Aug.	F[a]	Council, Exec. Bd.	1,588,000	3,342,000	4,722,000
American Society for Information Science	1937	4,000	Jan.-Dec.		Council	130,000[b]	135,000[b]	310,000[b]
American Society of Indexers	1968	260	May-April	F	Exec. Bd.	4,300	731	3,749
American Theological Library Association	1947	559	May-April	I[e]	Bd. of Dir.	10,400	70,000	98,450
Art Libraries Society of North America	1972	805	Jan.-Dec.	F	Exec Bd.	13,122	64,824	18,036
Association of American Library Schools	1915	809	Sept.-Aug.	F	Exec. Bd.	13,450	17,750	39,000
Association of Jewish Libraries	1966	353	Jan.-Dec.	F	Exec. Bd.	1,268	1,607	1,666
Association of Research Libraries	1932	93[c]	Jan.-Dec.	F	Exec. Com., Bd. of Dir.	184,000	36,502	220,718
Catholic Library Association	1921	3,257	July-June		Exec. Bd.	31,515	117,864	159,010
Church and Synagogue Library Association	1967	487	Sept.-Aug.	F	Exec. Bd.	3,670	6,080	7,750
Council of National Library Associations	1942	15[c]	June-May	I	Bd. of Dir.	800	none	250
Council of Planning Librarians	1960	181	Jan.-Dec.	F		4,388		4,594
Medical Library Association	1898	3,500	Jan.-Dec.	F	Bd. of Dir.	141,418	210,125	365,855
Music Library Association	1931	2,036	Sept.-Aug.	F	Bd. of Dir.	47,275	36,979	95,140
Sociedad de Bibliotecarios de Puerto Rico	1961	280	Jan.-Dec.	F	Bd. of Dir.	2,500	none	3,000
Special Libraries Association	1909	8,826	Jan.-Dec.; July-June	F	Bd. of Dir.	263,200	405,000	661,100
Theatre Library Association	1937	500	Jan.-Dec.	F	Exec. Bd.	3,000	none	?

[a]Change in 1975 from income tax principle
[b]Nine months only due to change in fiscal year
[c]Institutional membership only
[d]F represents a flat dues scale for personal members in various categories
[e]I represents a personal dues scale based on the amount of salary (income tax principle)

encouragement which led to the distribution of Library of Congress printed catalog cards beginning in 1901.[3]

In the one hundred years since ALA's founding, the association has addressed itself repeatedly to the problems of centralized cataloging and classification—including active legislative efforts in behalf of Title II-C of the Higher Education Act of 1965, which resulted in the National Program for Acquisitions and Cataloging.[4] Not surprisingly, therefore, the first item in Ralph Stenstrom's annotated bibliography, *Cooperation Between Types of Libraries, 1940-1968*, is the annual report of the ALA Cooperative Cataloging Committee.[5] Of the 383 entries in Stenstrom's bibliography, thirty-eight—approximately 10 percent—relate in some way to library associations. Kleiman and Costello's 1973 supplement to Stenstrom's bibliography lists an additional sixty-two items,[6] five of which relate to association activity, including two for the recently inaugurated SLICE project of the Southwestern Library Association and one for the Southeastern States Cooperative Library Survey of the Southeastern Library Association (SELA). The SLICE project resulted in part from a national study conducted by Grace Stevenson[7] and from the J. Morris Jones-World Book Encyclopedia-ALA Goals Award project; the latter survey is a cooperative venture of SELA, state libraries, and the Tennessee Valley Authority, and is intended to replicate the Wilson-Milczewski study of twenty-five years ago.[8] Both studies are discussed in separate articles elsewhere in this issue of *Library Trends*.

Understandably, the national library associations (see Table 1) have been concerned chiefly with the expansion of library resources and services, financial support for such programs, and the sharing of resources. One thread which has run throughout the last one hundred years has been mentioned earlier: cooperative efforts to achieve greater economy and efficiency in bibliographic control. Allied to this effort is the sharing of library resources through the publication of union lists and catalogs, description of library resources, surveys, studies, development of bibliographic centers, etc. The first ALA Interlibrary Loan Code appeared in 1917[9], and has been revised a number of times since then. Since its founding, ALA has had many committees, boards and groups working on various facets of the problem of cooperation. One of the major groups was the Board on American Library Resources, which sponsored a variety of activities including the early books by Robert Downs, *Resources of Southern Libraries* (1938) and *Union Catalogs in the United States* (1942).[10] Much of the cooperative activity relating to bibliographic projects emerged

from the ALA's major divisions, most of which serve essentially as national associations themselves and whose membership and resources compare favorably with those of subject-oriented library associations (see Table 2).

As the national bibliographic center, the Library of Congress (LC) has been the particular target of various library groups interested in cooperative projects. Catalog code revision and the publication of LC catalogs have had the specific assistance of committees from the ALA and the Association of Research Libraries (ARL).[11] John Cronin has traced the history of the National Union Catalog and the various printed book catalogs of LC which have appeared since 1940.[12] Because the National Union Catalog is so closely identified with LC, many librarians are probably not aware that the catalog has also had the attention of committees of ALA almost from its inception and that the Rockefeller gift to expand it in 1926 was the result of ALA efforts. Subsequently, ARL provided the motivation for publication of the LC Author Catalog, while the ALA's Committee on Resources of American Libraries and its Sub-committee on the Union Catalog spearheaded the movement to publish the *National Union Catalog: Pre-1956 Imprints* in book form, a project now partially completed and still under the supervision of a committee of ALA's Resources and Technical Services Division.

Legislative activity, although late in getting started, has also been important. To expand resources and improve services, most of the national and state associations have developed a variety of legislative plans, some of which have succeeded because of the efforts of their members. Debate over the federal role in library support has been prolonged. The ALA program for national library service proposed in the early 1930s met considerable opposition among the ALA membership.[13] Nonetheless, a proposal for a library division in the Office of Education was passed by Congress in 1963.[14]

Beginning in the late 1940s, ALA established its Washington Office, whose success is such that few librarians today would argue that there is no federal role in library support.[15] Substantial federal aid in the 1950s and 1960s spawned a number of cooperative projects, and additional aid is a premise of most national plans for library networks which have emerged.[16]

In the late 1960s and early 1970s, library professional associations have supported three major efforts to study libraries and information services with a goal of informing citizens and appropriate legislative bodies of the need for support. The first was the National Advisory

TABLE 2

American Library Association Divisions

Division	Membership 8-31-74	Membership 7-31-75*	Expenditures 1973-1974	Budget 1974-1975
American Association of School Librarians	12,009	7,196	$94,491	$110,997
American Library Trustee Association	3,607	2,136	20,502	32,324
Association of College and Research Libraries	13,497	9,186	84,681	94,786
Association of State Library Agencies	1,491	1,081	16,100	25,608
Children's Services Division	6,792	4,833	33,785	29,441
Health and Rehabilitative Library Services Division	1,928	1,524	22,640	29,064
Information Science and Automation Division	4,770	3,183	44,322	41,875
Library Administration Division	5,249	3,865	26,541	34,030
Library Education Division	2,641	1,824	17,458	20,796
Public Library Association	9,433	5,170	47,716	53,532
Reference and Adult Services Division	10,194	6,124	40,695	52,115
Resources and Technical Services Division	9,454	6,356	53,320	59,458
Young Adult Services Division	6,899	4,387	24,482	28,644
Total	87,964	56,865	526,733	612,670
High	13,497	9,186	94,491	110,997
Low	1,491	1,081	16,100	20,796
Median	6,766	4,374	40,518	47,128

*Because of a dues change which affects divisions, these figures are likely to be significantly lower in 1975. Membership in ALA will then cost most librarians $35 per year, and each divisional membership will cost an additional $15.

Commission on Libraries, created by Executive Order of President Lyndon Johnson in September 1966. Unfortunately, the commission submitted its final report in the waning days of the Johnson administration and, although the data in that report, subsequently published as *Libraries at Large*,[17] provided excellent material for study and discussion, the subsequent administration felt no commitment to the recommendations of the commission. However, out of the recommendations of that body, and much hard work by the ALA, came the National Commission on Libraries and Information Science, a permanent but independent body attached to the U.S. Office of Education, whose chief responsibility is to develop and recommend overall plans for library and information services adequate to meet the needs of all the people of the United States.

Concurrent with those developments had come a movement for a White House Conference on Libraries and Information Services to give national visibility to the problems of libraries in serving the national interest. Many librarians believed that a White House Conference might do for libraries what similar conferences had done for education generally. After endless delays Congress passed a joint resolution calling for a White House Conference on Library and Information Services to take place before 1978. President Gerald Ford signed the bill on December 31, 1974.[18] Efforts are now underway to secure funding for conferences to take place in each of the states and territories before the national conference assembles in Washington, D.C., probably in 1977. The National Commission on Libraries and Information Science has been given administrative responsibility for planning, but the thrust of the conferences will be citizen participation at both state and federal levels. It seems clear that cooperative legislative activity will continue to be a major function of library associations in the years immediately ahead.

The above summary is merely representative of the important role national library associations have played in cooperative endeavors. A list of all the articles and books dealing with this topic would be a formidable bibliography. However, that is not the task of this article; rather, the goal here is to indicate that library professional associations do stimulate, encourage and often pioneer in cooperative efforts.

Activities at the regional level have long concentrated heavily on the identification of resources and the publication of union lists. The oldest regional association, the Pacific Northwest Library Association (PNLA) (1909), has the most distinguished record to its credit (see Table 3).[19] The *Subscription Books Bulletin,* now an ALA activity

TABLE 3

Regional Library Associations in the United States

Association	Date Founded	Membership 1974	Membership Year	Dues Rate	Governance	Income from Dues, 1974	Other Income, 1974	Expenditures
Mountain Plains Library Association	1948	635	Jan.-Dec.	I[d]	Exec. Bd.	$7-9,000	$ 5,600	$ 18,492
New England Library Association[a]	1963	1,000+	Jan.-Dec.		Exec. Bd., Council	10,000	20,000	32,000
Pacific Northwest Library Association	1908	1,067	Oct.-Sept.	I	Bd. of Dir.	11,693	16,513	25,866
Southeastern Library Association	1922	3,268	Jan.-Dec.	I	Exec. Bd.	24,946	22,780	63,481
Southwestern Library Association	1922	2,558	Jan.-Dec.	F[c]	Exec. Bd.	8,900	b	17,375
Total		8,528				64,539	64,893	157,214
High		3,268				24,946	22,780	63,481
Low		635				8,900	5,600	17,375
Median		1,706				12,908	16,223	31,443

[a]The New England Library Association is not an ALA chapter or affiliate

[b]The Southwestern Library Association also reports grants of $150,250 for the 1973-74 biennium.

[c]F represents a flat dues scale for personal members in various categories

[d]I represents a personal dues scale based on the amount of salary (income tax principle)

(The Middle Atlantic Regional Library Federation, Inc., established in 1969, and the Midwest Federation Library Association are federations of state associations but have no personal membership or dues.)

published in *Booklist*, started in the Pacific Northwest where the PNLA Subscription Book Committee issued two series of lists from 1917 to 1929. In addition, over a 30-year period the PNLA Committee on Bibliography undertook a sizable list of projects which culminated in such publications as Charles W. Smith's *Special Collection in Libraries of the Pacific Northwest* (1927) and *Union List of Manuscripts in Libraries of the Pacific Northwest* (1931), and John Van Male's *Resources of Pacific Northwest Libraries* (1943). As a result of such activities the Carnegie Corporation funded the Pacific Northwest Bibliographic Center in 1940. Later, in the mid-1950s, the Ford Foundation made two grants totaling $76,000 for a two-year inquiry into library services and facilities in the Pacific Northwest. Conducted as a PNLA Library Development Project, the inquiry resulted in four volumes of reports published by the University of Washington Press in 1960.[20]

As Richards has indicated, PNLA, more than other associations, took the place of weak state associations,[21] although the same might be said of SELA until recent years. The record of PNLA's cooperative bibliographic activity has not been equaled by that of any other region, although SELA—with its two massive surveys—probably comes closest. The point here is that two regions have been heavily committed to cooperative projects and have provided the organizational framework through which they could be carried out.

That there continues to be an interest in the regional approach is demonstrated by the resurgence of the Southwestern Library Association (SWLA) with its continuing education and computerized bibliographic data base projects.[22] In 1973 the Mountain/Plains Library Association held a conference on interlibrary cooperation[23] which echoed some of the remarks made by participants at the earlier SWLA Conference in 1970.[24] As a participant in that SWLA conference the author raised a number of questions about regional cooperation which still seem pertinent:[25] What is the demographic base for the region? Are there dominant states and weaker states? What about the cohesiveness of the region? Is there a community of interest in solving library problems or are the libraries so diverse that librarians feel they must utilize all their energies at home and have little left for the problems of the region? Finally, will cooperative effort benefit all states as well as give the participating libraries benefits commensurate with the effort expended?

These questions are not yet answered, but librarians must be prepared to answer them realistically and not ignore them. SELA and Mountain/Plains are both in areas with strongly developed regional

education boards—the Southern Regional Education Board and the Western Interstate Compact for Higher Education, respectively. What will be the relationship of the state governments to these agencies in the years immediately ahead? What will be the relationship of the federal government to its states, cities and regions? Does revenue sharing indicate a pattern of decentralization of services at a level lower than the federal government? Most of these regional agencies have been heavily dependent upon foundation and federal grants, which may not be available in the future. Those library associations involved in expensive cooperative projects will undoubtedly be asked to evaluate their activities more critically than they have in the past and seek continuing support from the libraries which benefit from their services. Will that occur? On one hand, the declining financial support for the bibliographic centers in Denver, Philadelphia and the Pacific Northwest does not provide grounds for much optimism. On the other hand, the emerging national plans and the emerging climate for decentralization may be reason for hope.

Library associations at the state level have worked on similar projects (see Table 4). Numerous union catalogs, local adaptations of the national interlibrary loan code, cooperative acquisitions projects, plans for upgrading librarians, development of standards, promotion of multicounty libraries, and library legislation have constituted important parts of their programs. Achievements have varied widely, depending upon the leadership and the financial resources with which to accomplish the task. Especially during the period when librarians were in short supply, a number of the state associations developed scholarship programs for library schools. State associations have also usually been involved in statewide studies of library resources even when the primary thrust has come from the state library. Yet except for the largest state associations, there have been strong criticisms of their lack of program and the fact that they sometimes accomplish little from one conference program to the next. Mary Edna Anders, in an unpublished paper containing her generalizations about the state associations in the Southeast, criticized them for not establishing developmental programs designed to achieve specific objectives.[26] She was not optimistic that they would be able to sustain long-range programs by themselves.

Meanwhile, a number of questions have periodically been raised about the relationship of ALA to the state associations, most of which hold chapter status and have representatives on the ALA Council. Members regularly ask about the possibilities of regional meetings of

TABLE 4

STATE LIBRARY ASSOCIATIONS

	Date Founded	Membership 1974	Membership Year	Dues Rate	Governance	Income from Dues, 1974	Other Income, 1974	Expenditures	ALA Members in State 1974
Alabama	1904	1,204	May-April	F[a]	Council	$ 6,522	$ 6,813	$ 10,695	303
Alaska	1960	200	Jan.-Dec.	I[b]	Exec. Bd.	1,599	3,524	5,660	75
Arizona	?	778	Jan.-Dec.	F	Exec. Bd.	8,631	4,023	12,044	350
Arkansas	1911	950	Jan.-Dec.	F	Exec. Bd.	8,123	8,162	13,304	192
California	1895	3,452	Jan.-Dec.	I	Council	81,696	95,967	153,208	2,246
Colorado	1892	981	Jan.-Dec.	I	Exec. Bd.	8,300	14,000	20,500	467
Connecticut	1891	928	July-June	I	Exec. Bd.	10,187	11,431	19,352	682
Delaware	1934	209	Apr. 15-Apr. 15	F	Exec. Bd.	1,000	2,241	1,543	104
District of Columbia	1894	709	Sept.-Aug.	F	Exec. Bd.	6,946	1,600	6,725	416
Florida	1901	1,275	Jan.-Dec.	F	Exec. Bd.	10,582	12,076	20,892	810
Georgia	1897	1,071	Jan.-Dec.	I	Exec. Bd.	3,951	6,443	11,788	593
Hawaii	1922	392	Jan.-Dec.	I	Exec. Bd.	3,349	8,000	11,000	198
Idaho	1915	325	June-May	I	Exec. Bd.	2,970	13,364	16,062	73
Illinois	1896	4,500	Jan.-Dec.	I	Exec. Bd.	39,000	60,000	100,000	2,605
Indiana	1891	1,000	Jan.-Dec.		Exec. Bd.	12,723	33,521	27,915	985
Iowa	1890	1,800	Jan.-Dec.	I	Exec. Bd.	13,944	16,360	25,269	518
Kansas	1900	674	July-June	I	Exec. Council	6,000	6,000	12,000	434
Kentucky	1907	1,253	Jan.-Dec.	F	Bd. of Dir.	6,252	13,838	20,438	365
Louisiana	?	1,218	July-June	I	Exec. Bd.	17,000	10,000	19,000	560
Maine	1892(?)	758	Jan.-Dec.	I	Council	2,000	2,500	4,300	109
Maryland	1924	1,005	Jan.-Dec.		Exec. Bd.	11,101	23,786	26,626	919
Massachusetts	1890	1,065	July-June	I	Exec. Bd.	8,101	17,072	23,735	952
Michigan	1891	1,934	Nov.-Oct.	I	Exec. Bd.	34,250	13,751	40,991	1,466
Minnesota	1891	1,129	Jan.-Dec.	I	Bd. of Dir.	10,593	2,711	11,460	641
Mississippi	1909	988	Jan.-Dec.	I	Exec. Bd.	6,843	23,802	36,269	197
Missouri	1900	1,306	Jan.-Dec.		Exec. Bd.	18,981	8,171	27,791	582
Montana	?	487	June-May		Bd. of Trustees	3,269	5,630	8,416	115
Nebraska	1895	668	Jan.-Dec.	I	Exec. Bd.	5,926		9,779	220
Nevada	1946	236	Oct.-Sept.	I	Bd. of Trustees	8,000	1,000	7,500	74
New Hampshire	1889	235	Apr.-March	I	Exec. Bd.	1,734		2,537	122

New Jersey	1890	1,750	Jan.-Dec.	I	Exec. Bd.	30,418	56,614	62,014	1,440
New Mexico	1923	482	Jan.-Dec.	I	Exec. Bd.	3,352	9,629	11,640	159
New York	1890	2,766	Jan.-Dec.	I	Exec. Com., Council	64,236	52,213	97,501	3,942
North Carolina	1904	2,300	Jan.-Dec.	F	Exec. Bd.	4,882	4,381	20,831	571
North Dakota	?	288	Jan.-Dec.	F	Exec. Bd.	2,493	3,578	4,558	74
Ohio	1895	2,200	Jan.-Dec.	I	Bd. of Dir.	36,435	50,894	84,418	1,287
Oklahoma	1907		Jan.-Dec.		Exec. Bd.	8,489	15,286	22,607	335
Oregon	1940	550	May-Apr.	I	Exec. Bd.	4,002	3,795	6,727	385
Pennsylvania	1901	2,605	Jan.-Dec.	I	Exec. Bd.	52,594	45,068	93,870	1,724
Rhode Island	1922	604	June-May	F	Exec. Bd.	2,435	5,894	8,692	160
South Carolina	1915	736	Jan.-Dec.	F	Exec. Bd.	4,271	1,629	4,392	347
South Dakota	1905	452	Oct.-Sept.	I	Exec. Bd.	2,081		2,100	91
Tennessee	1902	1,492	Jan.-Dec.	I	Exec. Com., Bd. of Dir.	10,273	8,359	14,820	507
Texas	1902	3,202	Jan.-Dec.	I	Council	34,692	11,436	46,128	1,181
Utah	1913	525	Jan.-Dec.	I	Exec. Bd.	3,140	10,000	11,103	149
Vermont	?	308	Jan.-Dec.	I	Exec. Bd.	1,485		2,000	95
Virginia	1905	1,281	Jan.-Dec.	F	Exec. Bd.	6,466	7,096	15,823	800
Washington	1905	1,487	Jan.-Dec.	I	Exec. Bd.	11,149	3,059	15,995	581
West Virginia	1914	635	Fall to Fall	F	Exec. Bd.	2,820	7,310	7,761	162
Wisconsin	1891	2,200	Jan.-Dec.	I	Exec. Bd.	21,042	28,676	57,546	760
Wyoming	?	307	Jan.-Dec.	I	Exec. Bd.	1,981		5,200	79
Total		59,671				668,319	688,676	1,302,525	32,202
High		1,500				81,696	95,967	153,208	3,942
Low		200				1,000	1,600	1,543	73
Median		1,170				16,320	16,797	25,540	631

[a]F represents a flat dues scale for personal members in various categories

[b]I represents a personal dues scale based on the amount of salary (Income tax principle)

the national associations. The critics contend that the conferences are too large, distances are too great considering the current economic crisis, and a more manageable conference might be professionally just as rewarding. Grace Stevenson's study did indicate majority support for regional conferences, but not by an overwhelming margin, while her questions on the desirability of ALA regional offices and a chapter relations office at ALA headquarters indicated a strong negative vote.[27] Her recommendations that ALA communicate more effectively with its chapters and that it develop a better working relationship with them seem more important than ever.[28] In another connection, this author has suggested federation as a way to satisfy both the general interests and the specialized interests of librarians.[29] If that goal can be achieved, perhaps the next step is to work harder on the problem of geography as it influences or hinders cooperative programs.

Whatever the criticisms of professional associations, they clearly do provide a framework within which librarians can work together on common interests. Clearly, they need to do this on the national level in order to achieve such specific goals as accreditation of professional education, intellectual freedom, library support, and bibliographic control. However, many of these functions need also to be performed at the state and regional levels. In the years immediately ahead it will be important for librarians to determine where these national and state goals intersect if all the associations are to survive as agencies for "professional conferring."

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A Regional Association Launches Cooperative Endeavors

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THE LATENT PERIOD, 1922-1968

THE SOUTHWESTERN Library Association (SWLA) of 1922-68 has been described as a "sleeping giant"[1] and as an organization that "came to life every two years when its member librarians gathered from Arizona, Arkansas, Louisiana, New Mexico, Oklahoma, and Texas, only to subside into inactivity at the close of each biennial conference."[2] Clearly SWLA had proceeded for too long on the same circumscribed course and needed not only to change directions but also to broaden its horizons.

Robert Merton has described the responsibility of any professional association today as tripartite. The association is responsible to society, to the profession it represents, and to its members. To its members it is responsible for serving as host or social agent, as protector, and as educator.[3] The responsibility of host or social agent was the first to be assumed by professional associations, according to a statement of objectives adopted by the Texas Library Association: "Historically the role of host or social agent came first: practitioners banded together for fellowship, for the exchange of ideas and experience, for the feeling of belonging it gave them, for the friends they made at meetings. The interchange of ideas and experience extends the knowledge of members and makes of them more up-to-date practitioners."[4]

For the first forty-six years of its existence, SWLA served as a host or

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social agent to its members by staging biennial conferences, but there its responsibilities as a professional association ended. In 1970, Janice Kee evaluated the impact of the Southwestern Library Association on library development in the Southwest as follows: "Its past conference programs show an alertness to national library trends and movements, a recognition of library needs of the states in the region and a special appreciation of regional history and literature. By and large, the SWLA has provided a meeting ground for exchange of reports from the states. Its professional force and activities as a regional organization have not been significant."[5]

THE PERIOD OF TRANSFORMATION, 1969-1974

In 1969 SWLA, the sleeping giant, awoke, and by 1974 it could claim three major accomplishments: (1) laying the groundwork for a regional bibliographic network, (2) launching a continuing education program for library staffs in the Southwest, and (3) planning a regional program to demonstrate the relativity of the humanities to the cultural environment, with the library serving as agent.

SWLA developed and implemented these regional programs, despite the fact that the six states comprising it were not held together by the common societal, geographical and economic factors which usually characterize a region. Mary Walker, in "The Southwestern Library Association, 1922-1954," discusses twenty-five characteristics which might be uniform or evenly distributed throughout a region.[6] Of these she found only three which were uniform in SWLA territory: temperature, Spanish exploration, and Spanish possession. She concluded:

> If the Southwestern Library Association is not based on [the common characteristics of] a region, then the reasoning that lay behind the selection of its constituency may be questioned. The founders of SWLA . . . were interested in forming a library association for the southwest. On the other hand, they were Texans, and since "southwest" is an indefinite entity, it is perhaps natural that they should have visualized the southwest from the point of view of Texas. No study was made by the founders to determine the best possible grouping. The logical measure, it seemed to them, was simply to draw together those states bordering on theirs [with Arizona added for good measure.][7]

SWLA's constituency did, however, have one bond that was strong

enough to overcome other diversities: intrastate interlibrary cooperation that begged for interstate coordination. Testimony presented to the National Commission on Libraries and Information Science at its San Antonio hearings in April 1974 stated: "Interlibrary cooperation has been a way of life in the Southwest for many years. Minimal library resources dispersed over the wide geographical area have required the early adoption of interlibrary activities. These cooperative activities have taken many forms—some formal and many informal. Thus, it was entirely in keeping with the philosophy of library services in the Southwest for the Southwestern Library Association to implement a planned and coordinated interstate library cooperative endeavor."[8]

Established in 1922, SWLA's stated primary purpose was the promotion of all library interests in the southwestern United States and Mexico by discussion, planning and cooperative action. It was the need for cooperative action that led to the founding of SWLA, and it was the continuing need for cooperative action that led to its transformation in 1969-74.

The cooperative activities of the 1970s stemmed from two events occurring in 1969: (1) the granting of the J. Morris Jones-World Book Encyclopedia-ALA Goals Award jointly to SWLA and the ALA Committee on Chapter Relationships, and (2) a workshop on interlibrary cooperation organized and directed by Janice Kee, Library Services Program Officer, U.S. Office of Education, Region VII (now Region VI).

1969 GOALS AWARD PROJECT

The J. Morris Jones-World Book Encyclopedia-ALA Goals Award of 1969 was for "A Project to Establish Effective ALA Chapter Relationships and to Coordinate Association Activities at the State, Regional, and National Levels." The purpose of the project, stated simply, was to effect cooperation between the three levels of library associations in their pursuit of common objectives.

The first step in developing strong relationships between library associations is to build strong associations, capable of carrying out any functions and responsibilities assigned to them as a member of a national library system. The Goals Award project therefore forced SWLA and the six state library associations within its region to take a hard look at themselves and to take stock of their work programs, organization, management, finances and relationships with each other and with other associations and agencies.

In carrying out the recommendations of the Goals Award project report,[9] SWLA began its transformation. Major effects were the adoption of objectives and a work program; a reorganization that permits the association to respond more effectively to the changing interests and needs of its members; a reconstitution of its management agency, the executive board, to effect better liaison with state library associations; and the achievement of a more sound financial footing.

The project also helped SWLA to establish a work program priority. The project included interviews with 321 members of the state library associations in the SWLA region; one question asked was: What association activities need to be expanded? One request for expansion of activities that was prominent in the replies from all of the states was the need for increased continuing education opportunities in a variety of subject fields and at all levels.

REGIONAL WORKSHOP ON COOPERATION AND THE INTERSTATE LIBRARY COOPERATION COMMITTEE

While the Goals Award project was investigating the cooperation of library associations, a corollary regional cooperative effort began to take form.

In October 1969, thirty-five library leaders from the five southwestern states in U.S. Office of Education (U.S.O.E.) Region VII (now Region VI) met in Dallas for a workshop on "Mobilizing State Resources to Effect Interlibrary Cooperation," directed by Janice Kee, Library Services Program Officer for the region. An outgrowth of this workshop was the appointment by Allie Beth Martin, SWLA president, of an Interstate Library Cooperation Committee which, in September 1970, with funding from the six state library agencies in the region, conducted an intensive planning retreat at the Six Flags Inn in Arlington, Texas.

What library service needs can be met by interstate cooperative effort, but not by states individually? What is the priority of these needs? What is the vehicle for meeting them? These questions were considered at what has become known in the region as the "Six Flags meeting." The meeting provided an unprecedented opportunity for communication between groups which had a common interest in library development but which never before had met jointly to consider mutual needs and the means of meeting them. The sixty-two participants invited to the Six Flags meeting included state library agency personnel, representatives of state planning offices, state library association presidents, library educators, directors of major

libraries, the U.S.O.E. Regional Library Service Program Officers of the Southwest and the Southeast, and other resource staff from outside the region. From the three-day meeting the following library service needs in the Southwest emerged: "Continuing education . . . improved access to all resources [both bibliographical and physical] . . . reaching non-users . . . shared data processing expertise and products . . . development of a library research center . . . resources directory . . . shared personnel and expertise in program development and implementation . . . project coordination . . . [a] 'clearing house' to provide information on projects planned or undertaken . . . [and] exchange of library science students."[10]

ESTABLISHMENT OF THE SLICE OFFICE

As the instrument for the promotion of interlibrary cooperation, the Interstate Library Cooperation Committee proposed the establishment of a SLICE (Southwestern Library Interstate Cooperative Endeavor) office to: "provide a demonstration of interstate services which will meet library needs which cannot be provided by a single state; determine the practicality of regional self-funding; serve as a regional clearinghouse for related projects and programs; establish the feasibility of a long-range interlibrary, interstate library agency."[11] Allie Beth Martin described the efforts of SWLA leading to the SLICE office proposal as follows: "This activity has a practical, down-to-earth, do-it-yourself approach. Building on existing strengths within the region, priority will be placed on multi-state projects which promise early returns and can be financed by the participating states or from other resources within the SWLA area. Short-term outside funds to start up a small executive SLICE office are being sought."[12]

In January 1971, SWLA submitted a grant proposal to the Council on Library Resources for the establishment of the SLICE office, with Maryann Duggan as its first director. The council approved the grant in September and, with added support from each of the six state library agencies of the region, the SLICE office opened October 1, 1971.

BIBLIOGRAPHIC NETWORK PROJECT

The Interstate Library Cooperation Committee identified improved access to library resources through improved bibliographic control as one of the most urgent needs of the SWLA region. The Bibliographic Network Project, the first to be developed by the SLICE office, was a response to that need. Its major programs have been:

1. a one-year program to stimulate the interstate sharing of MARC-based services, using the MARC service developed by the Oklahoma Department of Libraries (MARC-O) as the demonstration model;
2. a series of planning meetings, an institute, and working papers by contract on components of bibliographic networking. The institute, "Alternatives in Bibliographic Networking," was a cooperative effort between the ALA Information Science and Automation Division and SLICE. It was held in New Orleans in March 1974 and attracted 161 participants, 37 of whom were from the Southwestern states.[13] The working papers have national relevance in view of the emergence of other regional networks and the proposal for the establishment of regional library networks by the National Commission on Libraries and Information Science.[14] Topics included in the series are: analysis of present and potential need for a regional bibliographic data base and network, including requirements and services; legal and organizational aspects of a regional bibliographic network; alternative telecommunication links and configurations, suitable for an on-line system, in the six SWLA states; costs and alternative funding sources for such a network; and the relationship and interfacing of a regional bibliographic network and existing interlibrary loan networks in the six SWLA states;
3. observe and monitor the tie-in phase of the IUC-OCLC (InterUniversity Council of the North Texas Area-Ohio College Library Center) bibliographic network.

CELS PROJECT

Like the Bibliographic Network project, the CELS (Continuing Education for Library Staffs in the Southwest) project responded to the need for continuing education expressed by librarians in the six SWLA states. Through CELS the state library agencies also responded to this need by providing the necessary funds to get the project underway.

In Spring 1973, Maryann Duggan and Allie Beth Martin conducted a survey of continuing library education in the region to determine the pattern of existing activities, to identify major perceived needs, and to develop a pragmatic plan for launching a program to meet regional needs.[15] Included in the survey were state library agencies, library associations, graduate library schools, and a sample of public, school, and junior and senior college libraries.

As a result of the meetings of a CELS strategy group and a CELS advisory group the following functions of the CELS project emerged:

(1) Assess continuing education needs and solicit feedback from the six-state region.
(2) Develop a plan for the region based on these needs. The plan would require built-in flexibility to insure response to change. Continuity would also be necessary to allow individual libraries and librarians to plan ahead.
(3) Identify and generate funding for continuing education.
(4) Identify and organize a core of experts in subject fields.
(5) Coordinate activity among the states. Arrange to share expertise and package when common needs emerge in various states.
(6) Demonstrate by means of prototypes. Solicit grant applications from specific libraries or agencies and initiate contracts.
(7) Initiate experimental activity where gaps in knowledge are identified.
(8) Solicit and test learning programs.[16]

On November 1, 1974, Peggy O'Donnell was appointed director of the CELS project and of the SLICE office. In addition to the survey of continuing library education in the region, major accomplishments of the project to date have been:

1. the development or distribution of packaged programs on library services to shut-ins through volunteer service, library automation and bibliographic networking, and management methodology;[17]
2. cosponsorship of a regional institute for training in library service to the disadvantaged. Cosponsors were the ALA Advisory Committee on Library Service to the Disadvantaged and the University of Oklahoma School of Library Science. The institute was funded by the U.S. Office of Education and directed by Virginia Mathews, Director of the National Book Committee. One purpose of the institute was to promote cooperation between library associations by providing initial guidance to ALA concerning the ways it can best operate to support local and regional efforts and integrate them into a national program. A multimedia package of the institute proceedings is distributed by ALA;[18]
3. sponsorship of a two-week institute on "Continuing Education Program Planning for Library Staffs in the Southwest," conducted by the Graduate School of Library Science, Louisiana State University in Baton Rouge.

The CELS project would be a logical component of the Continuing Library Education Network and Exchange (CLENE), the establishment of which was the basic recommendation of the Continuing Library and Information Science Education project in its final report to the National Commission on Libraries and Information Science (NCLIS).[19]

NATIONAL ENDOWMENT FOR THE HUMANITIES PROJECT

In July 1974, the National Endowment for the Humanities awarded SWLA a six-month planning grant in support of a project entitled "Humanities in the Southwest Bicentennial Program," and in September Phyllis Maggeroli was appointed project director. State planning committees and a regional planning team have developed a proposal for a "Humanities in the Southwest" program to involve the libraries of the region in relating academic humanists and the humanities to the current concerns of the general adult public. An important phase of the planning procedure was an inventory by the state planning committees of statewide resources available for such a program, including the identification of academic humanists and their areas of expertise, public meeting facilities, media, and library resources.

STRATEGY OF TRANSFORMATION

The changes which took place in SWLA during the period 1969-74 can be attributed in part to the national library environment at the beginning of the period. The Activities Committee on New Directions for ALA (ACONDA), which began work in 1969, probably stimulated library associations at all levels to review their priorities and opportunity for the membership to participate in policy-making. The 1968 proposal by NCLIS for the establishment of regional library networks to promote interlibrary cooperation and the scheduling of regional hearings gave impetus to regional library planning and was conducive to grants for regional programs. The establishment in 1967 by U.S.O.E. of nine regional offices to administer the Library Services and Construction Act also promoted regional planning.

Given a favorable national environment, SWLA achieved transformation through the events chronologized in the appendix to this article. Underlying these events is a strategy for change which becomes manifest when the events are viewed collectively and interpreted.

Work projects responded to the expressed needs of the librarians, libraries, state library agencies, and state library associations of the region. The Interstate Library Cooperation Committee and the Goals Award project provided the opportunity for members, institutions and associations to identify and establish the priority of needs. Both the bibliographic network and CELS projects conducted surveys to determine perceived needs for specific programs.

The SLICE office provided an effective means of work accomplishment. A number of library associations, including SWLA, have administrative offices which are essential to the efficient management of association business and to the continuity of association work. Most library associations, however, must depend on the contributed services of members to carry out their work projects. As valuable as volunteer task forces are to associations, they cannot match the accomplishments of a permanent, full-time staff in planning and implementing work projects.

The strategy for developing work projects has taken the following pattern: (1) planning meeting, (2) determination of specific needs, (3) project model proposal (goals, structure, finance, implementation), (4) critique of proposed model, (5) refinement of project model, (6) formation of a project advisory group, (7) implementation.

SWLA has opened channels of communication among key persons and groups in the southwestern library community and promoted continuing relationships among them, to the mutual benefit of all.

The planning and implementation of work projects has involved SWLA officers and membership interest groups, state library associations, state library agencies, graduate library schools, the Library Services Program Officer of the U.S.O.E. Region VI, and numerous consultants.

The SLICE office is advised by a council, composed of the directors of the state library agencies and the vice-presidents of the state library associations in the SWLA region, SWLA officers, and consultants.

Each project of the SLICE office has an advisory group. The Bibliographic Networking and Resource Sharing advisory group is composed of networking practitioners from each of the six SWLA states. The CELS advisory group is composed of the deans and directors of the graduate library schools, the SWLA Continuing Education Interest Group chairperson, the chairpersons of continuing education committees of other professional associations, and those responsible for continuing education in the state library agencies in the region.

The reorganization of SWLA through the adoption of a new constitution and by-laws in 1972 strengthened relationships with the state library associations. Prior to that time, the state associations were represented on the SWLA executive board by delegates, some of whom were members of the state association executive board and some of whom were not. State association representation on the SWLA board was meant to provide the interchange of state and regional concerns and to coordinate the work programs of the regional and state associations. The persons most knowledgeable about state association affairs—and therefore the best qualified SWLA representatives—are the state association presidents; these people became ex-officio members of the SWLA executive board in 1973.

The reorganization of SWLA in 1972 (see figure 1) simplified association structure and provided organizational units that better respond to member needs and interests than the traditional type-of-library and type-of-library-activity divisions. In the 1972 constitution and by-laws, divisions were replaced by interest groups, which are organized by membership petition and whose continued existence is determined biennially by executive board review. Task forces may be organized to carry out specific work projects, the funding for which is authorized by the executive board. Examples of interest groups that cut across type-of-library and type-of-library-activity lines are those concerned with continuing education, public relations, and educating the library user.

SWLA has sought and obtained project funding from organizations interested in the promotion of interstate library cooperation. SWLA's only sources of self-generated income are membership dues and proceeds from conferences. The SLICE office and its projects would not have been possible without grants from the Council on Library Resources, the National Endowment for the Humanities, and the U.S. Office of Education; state library agency contracts for service with LSCA Title III funds; and the commitment of funds by state library associations.

SWLA improved communication with its membership. At the recommendation of the publications committee, the *SWLA Newsletter*, which had been published five times each biennium, became a bimonthly publication. To further cooperation between SWLA and the state library associations, the publications committee has consistently invited the editors of the state journals to its meetings.

The constitution and by-laws adopted in 1974 provide for increased accountability to the membership. The by-laws call for a report by the

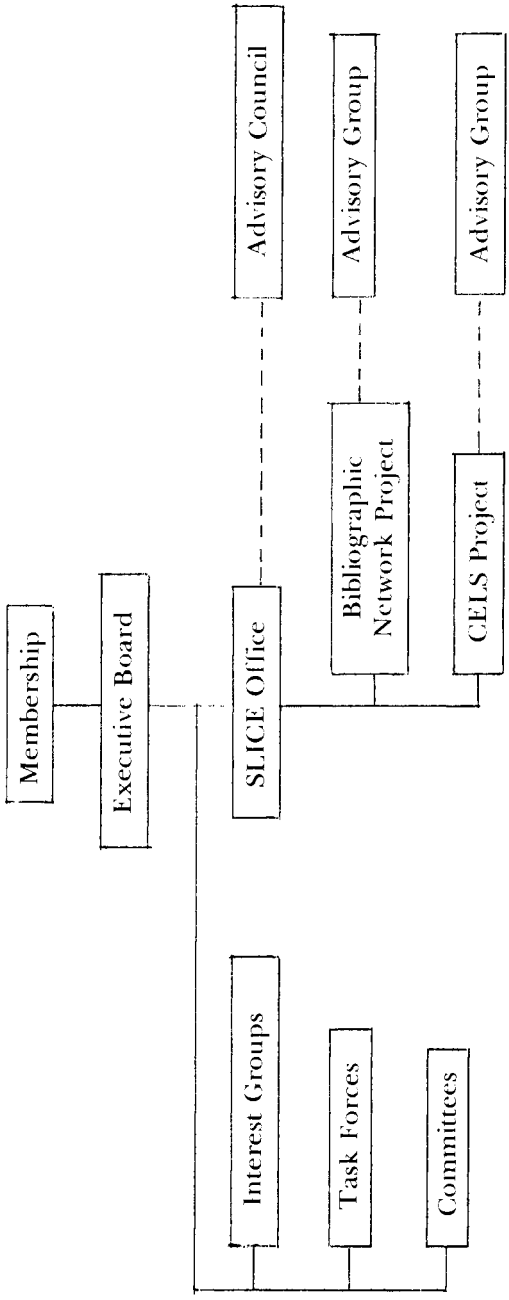

Figure 1. SWLA Organization

president to the membership at each biennial conference and the presentation of executive board actions to the membership for ratification.

In 1971 SWLA changed the basis of its individual membership, and while membership consequently decreased, the association was strengthened.

Immediately prior to 1971, members of the state library associations in the SWLA region were automatically members of SWLA. At the same time that they paid their state association dues, they also paid SWLA dues of twenty cents, although many of them were unaware of it and did not know that they were SWLA members. Such a basis of membership produced members in large number (6,729 in 1969), but did not provide a unified, supportive constituency.

One recommendation of the Goals Award project was the adoption of an independent membership program. The recommendation was effected by a revision of the by-laws in 1970, which set annual individual dues at $4.00 (to increase to $10.00 in 1976). As was expected, the membership dropped to 1,662 in 1972. By 1974, however, the number had increased to 2,287, and a membership of 3,000 is projected for 1976. Members now join SWLA knowingly and, it is presumed, because they support the SWLA program.

From 1971 to 1975 the state library associations assisted SWLA in the collection of its dues by mailing SWLA membership renewals with their own renewal notices. If members remitted SWLA dues to the state associations, the associations retained a small handling charge and forwarded the balance to SWLA. In 1974, two-thirds of all SWLA dues were collected through state library associations. Beginning in 1976 SWLA will collect its own dues in order to effect better control of membership records.

SWLA has viewed its responsibility in promoting interstate library cooperation to be one of program development, with program delivery the responsibility of the state library agencies and the state library associations. In this sense, its programs are state based and regionally coordinated. Its purpose is to make available library services which all the southwestern states need, but which can be most efficiently or economically developed and made available as a regional resource.

Interstate interlibrary cooperation, then, is the goal and sustenance of SWLA. Its strength lies in the cooperation generated by and among the state library associations, state library agencies, libraries, and librarians within its region.

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APPENDIX
THE SOUTHWESTERN LIBRARY ASSOCIATION: A SELECTED CHRONOLOGY

The following chronology emphasizes the association's library cooperation activities from 1969 to 1975.

February 15, 1969. Allie Beth Martin, SWLA President for the 1969-70 biennium, appoints Heartsill Young, Professor of Library Science, University of Texas at Austin, to chair a special SWLA committee to submit an application for the J. Morris Jones-ALA Goals Award. The application, jointly sponsored by the ALA Committee on Chapter Relationships and the SWLA, proposes to define and establish more effective relationships among ALA, the regional chapter and the state chapters within the region.

June 1969. The J. Morris Jones-ALA Goals Award in the amount of $23,632 is made to the SWLA and the ALA Committee on Chapter Relationships for *A Project To Establish Effective ALA Chapter Relationships and to Coordinate Association Activities at the State, Regional, and National Levels.* An advisory project council is appointed consisting of the presidents and ALA councilors of the six state library associations in SWLA, the SWLA president and the chairman of the ALA Chapter Relationships Committee. Heartsill Young is appointed chairman of the council and Phyllis Maggeroli, Special Programs Coordinator for ALA, is appointed as ALA liaison to the council.

September 1969. Della Thomas, former Associate Professor of Library Science and Director of Curriculum Materials Laboratory at Oklahoma State University, is selected to be SWLA's first executive secretary on a part-time basis. In addition to her general duties, her responsibilities include membership promotion, coordination of biennial conferences, and improved communication between the board and association units.

October 2-3, 1969. U.S.O.E. Region VII, Dallas, Texas, conducts a workshop related to programs under Title II, LSCA on "Mobilizing State Resources To Effect Inter-library Cooperation." Directed by Janice Kee, Library Services Program Officer, the workshop performed a library needs assessment for the region, critiqued

programs currently underway to meet the needs, and suggested means to improve interlibrary interstate library cooperation and planning in the region. The workshop identified the following as some of the major library needs of the region: public information programs, more library planning skills, identification of and need for expanded resources, clarification of the legal basis for interstate planning and programs, and the role of library education as it relates to all of these needs.

October and November 1969. Grace Stevenson is appointed project director of the ALA/SWLA Goals Award project. Survey teams are appointed by state library association presidents in the SWLA states to conduct in-depth polling of librarians in each state.

January 19, 1970. The newly appointed SWLA Interstate Library Cooperation Committee, chaired by Ralph Funk, Oklahoma State Librarian, holds its first meeting in Chicago during the ALA midwinter conference. An outgrowth of the U.S.O.E. Region VII workshop on interlibrary cooperation, the committee reviews a proposal by Maryann Duggan, Director of Industrial Information Services for the Science Information Center at Southern Methodist University, for planning, funding and initiating interstate library network development and related interstate services in the SWLA region.

January 20, 1970. SWLA approves in principle a proposed demonstration program of the Interstate Library Cooperation Committee to determine the feasibility of a collaborative program for the development of interstate library service.

February 20, 1970. The Interstate Library Cooperation Committee meets in Dallas with representatives from the six southwest states—including representatives from the state library agencies—to critique preliminary plans for an interstate interlibrary demonstration project to be known as SLICE (Southwestern Library Interstate Cooperative Endeavor). Preparations are made for a two-day planning retreat to refine and finalize the proposed SLICE demonstration project. The committee agrees to seek $500 from each of the six state library agencies to help underwrite the cost of the planning retreat. Maryann Duggan and Ralph Funk are named co-chairpersons of the committee.

September 16-18, 1970. The SWLA Interstate Library Cooperation Committee, with funding from the six state library agencies in the region, conducts an intensive planning retreat at the Six Flags Inn in Arlington, Texas. The participants identify regional library priority

needs and recommend that the SWLA executive board establish a coordinating office to further identify regional needs and projects. A poll of state library agency representatives reveals support for funding "mutually beneficial library programs in the region."

November 7, 1970. At the biennial conference in Tulsa, the SWLA membership approves constitution and by-laws revisions establishing a voluntary, individual dues schedule of $4 per year. Previously, members automatically became SWLA members upon joining one of the six state library associations. Under the new arrangement, the state associations will promote and collect dues for SWLA, and be responsible for mailing the *SWLA Newsletter*; the state associations will retain $1 of each member's dues to defray the costs involved.

The membership adopts the recommendations of the J. Morris Jones-World Book Encyclopedia-ALA Goals Award project, and charges the SWLA president to initiate action toward their implementation.

The membership approves the establishment of the SLICE office and staff as funding permits.

January 1971. SWLA submits a proposal for $25,000 to the Council on Library Resources (CLR) for the establishment of a SLICE office to "provide a demonstration of interstate services which will meet library needs which cannot be provided by a state; determine the practicality of regional self-funding; serve as a regional clearinghouse for related projects and programs; establish the feasibility of a long-range interlibrary, interstate library agency." A specific goal of the project is to stimulate sharing throughout the SWLA region of various MARC-based services such as those developed by the CLR, the participants and the Oklahoma Department of Libraries.

April 1971. The SWLA New Directions Task Force, chaired by Pearce Grove, SWLA president-elect, is appointed and charged with the responsibility of planning, implementing and evaluating the recommendations of the ALA/SWLA Chapter Relationships project report. The six state library associations initiate similar task forces to consider the report's recommendations for state associations.

June 23, 1971. The SWLA executive board adopts a statement of association objectives and corresponding program of work for the 1971-72 biennium as submitted by the New Directions Task Force. The program includes the need for funding SLICE and its related projects, the expansion of SWLA staff to coordinate regional planning, a

directory of existing library information networks in the region, establishing closer working relationships with graduate library schools and continuing library education programs in the region, a more effective communications program for the association, the incorporation and tax-exemption of the association, a restructuring of the SWLA to make it more responsive to cooperative activities, and implementation of the Goals Award recommendations.

June 28, 1971. SWLA becomes a nonprofit corporation in Texas to "promote all public and non-profit library interests and services in the southwestern United States and Mexico."

August 17, 1971. SWLA is granted an exemption from federal income tax under Section 501(c)(3) of the Internal Revenue Code, thus making contributions to the SWLA Scholarship Endowment, membership dues and other contributions to SWLA tax deductible.

September 22, 1971. CLR approves a grant of $25,000 to SWLA to implement the SLICE project. A SLICE council is appointed, composed of the six state librarians in the region and six state library association presidents (subsequently changed to vice-presidents when the presidents became members of the SWLA executive board in 1973), the SWLA president, and consultants including Janice Kee, U.S.O.E. Library Service Program Officer for Region VII, and Donald Hendricks, Library Director, University of Texas Southwestern Medical School Library (UTSMS) in Dallas. SWLA engages Maryann Duggan, Assistant Professor and Systems Analyst at UTSMS as SLICE project director and contracts with UTSMS for office space and supportive services. The SLICE council elects SWLA president Lee Brawner as council chairman and chairman of the three-member executive committee, as well as selecting Phyllis Burson, immediate past-president of the Texas Library Association, to represent state library associations, and Edwin Dowlin, New Mexico State Librarian to represent state library agencies. In addition to the CLR grant to SLICE, the six state library agencies agree to provide $2,000 each to SLICE for a survey of continuing education for librarianship in the region, with recommendations for improvement.

March 1972. U.S.O.E. approves a joint grant of $10,000 to SWLA/SLICE, the ALA Advisory Committee on Library Service to the Disadvantaged, and the University of Oklahoma School of Library Science for a model, three-day pilot Institute on Strengthening Librarians' Capability to Elicit and Respond to the Felt Needs of

Minority/Culturally Isolated/Disadvantaged Persons and Groups in the Southwest. The institute is held Oct. 4-8, 1972. Virginia Mathews of the National Book Committee is director of the institute, and Frank Bertlan, Director of the University of Oklahoma School of Library Science, is associate director.

October 31-November 1, 1972. SWLA/SLICE and the Southeastern Library Association jointly sponsor a pre-conference, partially funded by the U.S.O.E., on "Crisis in Library Management: Planning and Evaluation of Library Programs." The institute receives assistance from Ohio State University faculty specialists and is designed to acquaint librarians with new management methodology including the CIPP (Context Input Process Product) evaluation theory. SLICE produces an audiotape kit from the pre-conference for local workshops.

November 1-4, 1972. SWLA and SELA hold a joint conference for their fifteen states in New Orleans with the theme, "New faces of Cooperation" featuring programs on cooperation at the state, regional and national levels.

SWLA membership approves restructure of the association's constitution and by-laws; funding in accordance with the ALA/SWLA Goals Award recommendations for a full-time executive secretary is approved for 1973-74; the presidents of the six state library associations are included on the SWLA executive board; publication frequency of the *SWLA Newsletter* is increased from semiannually to at least bimonthly; and provision is made for members to organize into interest groups and task forces designed to cut across type-of-library lines.

January 4, 1973. The CLR approves a new two-year grant of $50,000 to the SLICE project to further its development of a systematic regional plan for increasing and stimulating the sharing of library resources, services and expertise within the region. Specifically, the SLICE project will—during the two-year period—develop design requirements and cost data for various alternative types of regional bibliographic networks, with particular emphasis on the use of MARC records. In addition to the CLR funding, the six state libraries in the region are to provide $4,000 annually in support of the SLICE project's CELS study and programs.

January 1973. Mary Clotfelter is employed as SWLA's first fulltime executive secretary, on a temporary basis. A temporary office is

established in space provided by Eastern New Mexico University in Portales. A search committee continues its efforts to find a permanent executive secretary.

February 5, 1973. The SLICE council appoints Allie Beth Martin as project director of the CELS project. She will work with Maryann Duggan, SLICE office director, SWLA officers, a CELS project advisory group of librarians and educators from each of the six states, U.S.O.E. officials, and other nationally recognized consultants. The project is largely financed by funds from the six state library agencies in the region and from the association. The purpose of the CELS project is to assess continuing education needs of library staffs in the region and to propose a plan of action designed to meet those needs.

February 26, 1973. SLICE and the InterUniversity Council (IUC) Committee for an Electronic Library Center cosponsor an invitational conference in Dallas to present the IUC proposal for replicating the Ohio College Library Center (OCLC) in the Dallas-Fort Worth region. Keynote speaker is Larry Livingston, program officer from the CLR.

May 18-19, 1973. The SWLA executive board, the SLICE council and its CELS strategy group meet in Dallas for an intensive series of working sessions. Speakers include Charles Sprague, president of the University of Texas Southwestern Medical School, who spoke on the IUC proposal to replicate OCLC and the implications of the proposal for other regional libraries, and David Clay, assistant to the president of the University of Texas at Austin, who discussed computer-based bibliographic plans.

May 19, 1973. Deans and representatives of the graduate library schools in the southwestern region meet with the SLICE council to review the second phase of the CELS project survey. Continuing education consultants from outside the region serving as resource personnel for the meeting included: Elizabeth Stone, professor and chairman of the Catholic University of America Department of Library Science and chairperson of the ALA Committee on Continuing Education; Barbara Conroy, who directed the New England Outreach Network; Peter Hiatt, Director of Library Continuing Education for WICHE; and Roderick Swartz, representing the NCLIS.

July 1973. The Public Relations Interest Group, chaired by Sue Fountaine, Tulsa City-County Library, initiates the "Round Robin" Library PR/Publicity Exchange among more than fifty libraries in the region as part of its work program.

August 3, 1973. Marion Mitchell is appointed as SWLA's first permanent full-time executive secretary, and the first permanent full-time SWLA Office is established at the University of Texas Southwestern Medical School Library in Dallas on a contract basis.

October 4-5, 1973. Another joint marathon meeting of the SLICE council and the SWLA executive board is held in Dallas. Principal actions include: acceptance of the CELS report and its recommendations by Allie Beth Martin; appointment of a CELS advisory council of regional librarians and educators; allocation of $1,500 to reproduce and distribute a summary of the report and to initiate action on its recommendations; adoption of an inter-regional exchange program for distribution of state library association publications to all state association presidents and vice-presidents, state editors and SWLA officers. In response to the participatory membership structure of the associations, the board approves membership applications for the 1973-74 biennium establishing: a Task Force on Nonprint Media chaired by Jay Clark, Houston Public Library; a Bibliographic Network Task Force chaired by David Ince, University of New Mexico Library; and a Continuing Education Interest Group chaired by John Anderson, Tucson Public Library.

February 1974. As part of the association's efforts to implement the CELS report recommendations, the *SWLA Newsletter* begins publishing a "Continuing Education Calendar for the Southwest" in each bimonthly issue, and the SWLA executive secretary's office begins serving as a clearinghouse for continuing education programs.

February 8, 1974. The newly appointed SWLA/CELS advisory group—consisting of regional library educators, state librarians, state library associations, and SWLA representatives—meets and selects to be chairman Donald Foos, Dean of Louisiana State University (LSU) Graduate School of Library Science. The participants adopt the CELS report recommendations; SWLA president Pearce Grove reports that SWLA has earmarked $6,000 for initial development of the CELS project. The group receives pledges of approximately $32,000 from state library associations (principally from the six state library agencies) for funding the first year of the CELS project, and authorizes SWLA to proceed with the submission of regionally related proposals to U.S.O.E. for Higher Education Act Title III institutes during fiscal year 1974. It reviews plans for the programing of a general session on continuing education at the SWLA biennial conference in Galveston

in October 1974, and receives a report from the newly organized Continuing Education Interest Group on its own action plans. A position description for a CELS coordinator to join the SWLA staff is approved, and a proposed increase in SWLA dues to help finance the CELS project is endorsed.

February 18, 1974. The InterUniversity Council Bibliographic Network Committee meets to further develop the tie-in with OCLC and votes on a motion by Pearce Grove, SWLA president, to recommend to the IUC board that the six SWLA states be considered the prime geographic area of responsibility for the IUC/OCLC tie-in and for local education. The committee accepts SWLA's offer to provide a demonstration and discussion of the OCLC tie-in at the SWLA biennial conference in October 1974.

April 24, 1974. Four SWLA representatives testify at the NCLIS hearing in San Antonio, Texas. Heartsill Young, SWLA president-elect, focuses on the regional planning emphasis of the association and on the role of the regional groups in the development and implementation of a national library network. Marion Mitchell, executive secretary, describes the administrative and clearinghouse role of SWLA. Vivian Cazayoux, member of the SLICE council, identifies the relationship between state library agencies and the regional association. Maryann Duggan's presentation focuses on the activities of the SLICE office and emphasizes the CELS project and the planning for a regional bibliographical network.

May and June 1974. Marguerite Cooley, director of the Arizona State Department of Library and Archives, sponsors three 2½-day workshops on library automation and bibliographic networking conducted by the SLICE project office and developed by John Corbin, Professor of Library Science at North Texas State University. A training syllabus of the instructional content is prepared by Corbin for presentation by other sponsoring agencies interested in scheduling similar workshops through the SLICE office.

July 2, 1974. SWLA receives notification that the National Endowment for the Humanities (NEH) is awarding the association a $25,000 six-month planning grant in support of a project entitled "Humanities in the Southwest Bicentennial Program." Phyllis Maggeroli, library consultant and formerly special programs director for the ALA, will serve as fulltime project director. A regional planning team of librarians, academic humanists and directors of state-based humanities

committees from the six states is established to work with the project director.

September 1974. An audiovisual packet on library service to shut-ins through volunteer service is produced by John Hinkle, outreach consultant with the Oklahoma Department of Libraries, with a $1,000 SLICE grant, and made available for purchase through SWLA. One set of the packet is provided to each state library in the region for interlibrary loan use.

October 1974. Under a new contract, the SWLA staff moves to the campus of the new University of Texas at Dallas with enlarged office space for Marion Mitchell, executive secretary, Peggy O'Donnell, CELS coordinator, and a clerical assistant.

October 15-19, 1974. The biennial conference in Galveston with the theme "The Interfaces of Librarianship" serves a continuing education function, focusing on communications systems, information sources, multimedia trends and problems, and related association interest group and task force goals. The membership adopts changes to the constitution and by-laws essentially vesting more responsibility for policy/program decisions in the membership, to whom the elected officers are responsible. Individual dues are increased from $4.00 to $10.00 annually, recognizing the need to provide more financial support for the CELS project. The membership responds to the SLICE council's criteria for producing the final report and recommendations for the development of a bibliographic network in the Southwest.

November 1974. The U.S.O.E. approves a two-week institute for March 17-28, 1975, on continuing education program planning for library staffs in the Southwest, to be conducted by the SWLA and the LSU Graduate School of Library Science. Thirty representatives from the SWLA area (five from each state) by type of library and/or association will be selected from applicants. The institute director will be Donald Foos.

November 1, 1974. Peggy O'Donnell, formerly assistant director of the Bay Area Reference Center in San Francisco, is appointed by the SWLA executive board as CELS coordinator with primary responsibility for implementing the objectives identified in the CELS study.

January 19, 1975. The SLICE council and the SWLA executive board hold their tandem meetings in Chicago during the ALA midwinter

conference. Final SLICE project recommendations for developing a southwestern bibliographic network are presented; the SWLA biennial budget is finalized; reports, including recommendations for new SWLA grant proposals, are presented on various projects.

March 21, 1975. SWLA's six-month planning project, "Humanities in the Southwest," funded by the National Endowment for the Humanities, concludes with the submission of $903,000 proposal to the NEH for an 18-month program series to be cosponsored by libraries and related institutions in twelve demonstration areas throughout the six-state region. Over 3.9 million persons are included in the demonstration areas which span rural and urban locales and were selected by planning committees of librarians and academic humanists in each state to present a cross-section of the racial and cultural diversity, the social and ethnic heritage of the region. The project will develop "humanities program models" and establish a network of library outlets in the region through which to channel and share future programming.

March 17-28, 1975. Thirty-five selected librarians from representative types of libraries and state library associations in the six-state SWLA region participate in the institute on continuing education program planning for library staffs in the Southwest. Sponsored by U.S.O.E. through SWLA and the LSU Graduate School of Library Science, the institute provides training in the processes of planning, developing, implementing and evaluating continuing education programs for library staffs. Participants are asked to form "continuing education teams" in each state to assess their respective needs, and to develop statewide continuing education networks. SWLA's CELS coordinator, the CELS advisory group and the continuing education interest group will provide support and coordination of these follow-up efforts.

June 25, 1975. The National Endowment for the Humanities awards to SWLA a grant of $120,000 in support of a one-year program entitled "The Southwestern Mosaic: Living in a Land of Extremes."

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The Regional Medical Library Program

DONALD D. HENDRICKS

IN THE DECADE since the passage of the Medical Library Assistance Act of 1965 (MLAA), the community of medical libraries has forged ahead of others in the expansion of information handling and access. The comprehensive nature of this growth is demonstrated by a worldwide approach to bibliographic control, the establishment of networks and cooperatives, the coordination of effort, and the utilization of modern technology. To date, the Regional Medical Library Program (RMLP) network has blanketed the nation with a variety of library services and has stimulated the implementation of abstract concepts such as the sharing and allocation of resources. Much of the strength of the RMLP is derived from the fact that it is based on specific federal legislation, and from its organization with a national library at the apex.

The MLAA has authorized the following programs:

1. Construction of facilities
2. Training in medical library sciences
3. Special scientific projects
4. Research and development in medical library science and related fields
5. Improvement and expansion of the basic resources of medical libraries
6. Establishment of regional medical libraries
7. Biomedical publications, and
8. Regional branches of the National Library of Medicine [NLM].[1]

This discussion will focus on network activities stemming from three of these programs—items five, six and eight above. Concerning item eight, however, NLM director Martin Cummings has pointed out: "The

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NLM has acted to implement all of these programs with the exception of establishing our own Regional Branches. We decided, instead, to try to improve existing resources rather than to create competitive federal entities."[2]

The development of the MEDLARS/MEDLINE data base and access to it will not be discussed here. Although this is an important network activity which provides bibliographic access in a decentralized mode to the world's medical literature, its design and usage has been fully treated elsewhere.[3]

It should be noted that the Regional Medical Library Program activities should not be confused with those of the Regional Medical Program (RMP). The latter program was designed to assist the nation's health personnel in making available the best possible patient care for heart disease, cancer, stroke and related diseases. The RMP has emphasized continuing education of physicians and allied health professional personnel, and the need to encourage rapid and effective transmission of vital health information to these groups. RMP legislation includes no library or specific program authorizations, but it is inevitable that some RMP funds would support various network activities of the RMLP; hence the confusion in program objectives as well as in names. David Kefauver has fully described the relationship of these programs.[4]

ORGANIZATION

The RMLP network is structured as a hierarchy with NLM as its comprehensive national resource; NLM serves as a reinforcement by providing other libraries with material not in their collections, and as a national indexing and cataloging center. The regional libraries provide interlibrary loan reference and consultation services to a broad geographic area. For individual health professionals, local libraries are the closest point for library service.

There are eleven RMLs, as listed in Table 1. These libraries are counseled by regional advisory groups, made up of librarians, medical educators and professional "users," in matters of policy and development of new services. These groups usually meet twice each year, and provide a sounding board for new ideas and feedback concerning RML progress.

DOCUMENT DELIVERY

The basic fundable activity undergirding all RMLP actions has been

TABLE 1

REGIONAL MEDICAL LIBRARIES

	States served	Operational
New England RML The Francis A. Countway Library of Medicine, Boston	Connecticut, Maine, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Rhode Island, Vermont	10-1-67
New York & Northern New Jersey RML New York Academy of Medicine	Northern New Jersey, New York	2-16-70
Mid-Eastern RML College of Physicians of Philadelphia	Pennsylvania, Delaware, Southern New Jersey	7-1-68
Mid-Atlantic RML Bethesda, Md. (NLM)	Maryland, North Carolina, Virginia, Washington, D.C., West Virginia	
East Central KOM RML Wayne State University, Detroit	Kentucky, Michigan, Ohio	4-1-69
Southeastern RML A.W. Calhoun Med. Library Emory University, Atlanta	Alabama, Florida, Georgia, Mississippi, Puerto Rico, South Carolina, Tennessee	1-2-70
Midwest RML The John Crerar Library, Chicago	Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Minnesota, North Dakota, Wisconsin	11-18-68
Midcontinental RML University of Nebraska Medical Center, Omaha	Colorado, Kansas, Missouri, Nebraska, South Dakota, Utah, Wyoming	7-1-70
South Central RML University of Texas Health Science Center at Dallas	Arkansas, Louisiana, Texas, New Mexico, Oklahoma	2-1-70
Pacific Northwest Regional Health Sciences Library University of Washington Seattle	Alaska, Idaho, Montana, Oregon, Washington	10-1-68
Pacific Southwest RML Center for Health Science University of California Los Angeles	Arizona, California, Hawaii, Nevada	9-1-69

interlibrary loan (ILL) or, more accurately, the delivery of documents in photocopy. Only a small portion of material requested in the field of medicine is in book form; thus, the major part of ILL traffic is in the form of journal photocopy. This activity represents a network approach to physical access—a key effort in ensuring that health

scientists in remote areas have access to medical literature equal to that of personnel working at or near a graduate medical center.

Table 2 shows the pattern of document delivery since the last region was organized in 1970. It will be noted that virtually all regions report clearing 100 percent of the documents within four calendar days. This statistic is misleading, however, since it does not indicate how long it took for the requester to receive the material.

Most requests received at the resource libraries come by mail; materials are returned in the same way, and are thereby subject to the vagaries of the postal service. The receipt and distribution as well as the gathering of mail at a university medical school, or in any medical complex, may therefore be uncertain. To illustrate the point, a user may submit a request at a local hospital on Monday; the request would be processed, mailed and received in a resource library by Thursday. It may then be filled within twenty-four hours, only to have it miss the Friday postal pick-up. Thus, the needed material could not enter the U.S. mail process before Monday, and under the best of conditions it would not be received before the following Wednesday or Thursday. A reliable study needs to be done on the elapsed time the average user must wait this delivery method. The resource libraries use TWX to communicate requests so that a minimum time loss is experienced for that part of the transaction.

Several other network activities stimulate the delivery of documents. Bibliographic access is a concomitant of physical delivery: the literature has been indexed through MEDLARS/MEDLINE and has been located through union lists of serials and library catalogs. A national computerized union list, SERLINE (Serials On-line), has now been developed. Beginning attempts have been made to organize serial literature in a logical framework for optimum availability of the resource on at least a regional scale. These efforts have aided the delivery while stimulating the demand for hands-on medical literature. Predictably, this demand has exceeded the funds available for its support.

On a national basis, approximately $1,431,000 were available in 1973-74 for document delivery reimbursement. Reimbursable requests totaled $579,108, excluding the Mid-Atlantic Region and NLM. At an average of $3 per request—which is below average for all ten regions—more than $1.7 million would be required. As the NLM staff has often stated, it was never the intention of the RMLP to fund all of the document delivery traffic in the nation. A series of definitions has been legislated or mandated in an effort to reduce the number of

TABLE 2

Individual RML-Funded ILL Activity
Summary of Fiscal Years 1972 and 1973

		Regional Medical Library										
	NLM *	New England	New York	Mid-Eastern	Mid-Atlantic	East Central	South-eastern	Mid-west	Mid-continental	South Central	Pacific Northwest	Pacific Southwest
TOTAL REQUESTS RECEIVED												
FY 72	93,471	47,661	73,395	47,096	57,238	79,029	43,187	22,113	24,053	32,559	29,854	51,905
FY 73	102,589	44,323	83,033	49,828	62,658	67,396	55,362	32,220	34,270	48,992	36,133	62,140
TOTAL REQUESTS ACCEPTED												
FY 72	85,898	46,113	70,165	46,006	54,253	NA	42,217	22,019	23,846	32,510	29,606	51,225
FY 73	94,137	42,607	80,497	49,101	58,882	66,941	52,939	31,345	33,740	48,872	35,305	61,523
TOTAL REQUESTS FILLED												
FY 72	74,583	38,606	54,116	38,101	45,579	46,966	34,187	14,654	20,431	27,491	25,979	39,662
FY 73	73,462	34,556	63,260	40,020	45,928	52,428	43,296	19,318	28,043	40,015	30,189	46,879
% FILLED WITHIN 3 CALENDAR DAYS												
FY 72	84	94	97	99.5	86	NA	95	84.5	93	98	65	97
% FILLED WITHIN 4 CALENDAR DAYS												
FY 73	77	85	98.7	98.4	80	95.9	88	94.3	87.3	97.4	75.3	94

Data is generalized and not strictly comparable due to different reporting cycles, etc., but does show trends.

Gratitude is expressed to NLM for sharing data.

loans considered eligible for reimbursement. The first restrictive rule is that the program was designed to supplement, not supplant, existing loan arrangements (the language of the original MLAA). Thus, all loans which fall under pre-existing network or consortia agreements should not be considered refundable under RMLP grants or contracts. Since medical libraries have always worked closely together, this definition exempts a great deal of business from the reimbursable category.

In order to preclude a small but aggressive number of institutions from receiving the major portion of refundable documents, most regions have instituted limits on the number of "free" ILLs each network participant on the next lower level will receive. Although there is considerable variance among the regions, thirty documents per month is a commonly used figure. Network participants can make more requests but they are required to pay an equitable cost for those delivered. In some cases, the larger library may elect to absorb the costs of delivering documents to those over their quota, but this is unusual. Maximum limits of thirty pages per request are normal; the user is required to pay for pages exceeding this amount.

Another definition designed to reduce the quantity of documents considered reimbursable is the net landing concept—a concept that was promulgated by the NLM staff. In effect, each lending institution must reduce its reimbursable requests by the number of items it borrows. This policy deters some libraries from contracting to provide service, since only a library with a rather large collection can maintain a favorable balance. Network activity is based on a select number of strong libraries rather than diffused among libraries which could not fill 75-80 percent of their requests.

One of the hardest definitions to interpret is that of service to affiliated or local institutions. The purpose behind the MLAA was to promote equal access to materials for users who are remote from the graduate centers or urban areas. If this view is accepted, it hardly seems fair to support document delivery to health scientists who have immediate access to a contracting library. In order to equate this service, participating libraries have adopted the rule that documents delivered to campus affiliates or within city limits of the contracting library will not be considered for reimbursement.

In view of the extension of many corporate limits, some suburban hospitals may actually be closer to a medical library than those within city boundaries. When requests come from institutions that are eight, twenty or more miles from a medical library, yet still within the city limits, there is a tendency to regard the institutions as

geographically disadvantaged. Teaching hospitals, or those otherwise affiliated, may be quite removed, and the "campus" definition of service may be far ranging. These definitions, or other service limits defined by a radius, have been established by contracting libraries on an ad hoc basis and are fairly effective in making the RMLP a true outreach program. Many services under this definition would fall under the "previously existing" category or would be charged as the providing library deems appropriate.

A list of common or supposedly "most available" medical journals has been developed for each region. Some regions have two lists—one of 20 to 30 journals that are not provided to any institution, and an expanded list of 50 to 100 journals that are not delivered to larger institutions. These restrictions have several purposes: (1) local institutions are encouraged to build a core collection to meet their minimum information demands; (2) the network is not loaded with requests for what should be readily available, and reimbursable loans can be reserved for the more esoteric or expensive research materials; and (3) these lists have encouraged the development of local consortia which promote self-sufficiency on a subregional level.

As local collections become stronger and demands on network funds continue to exceed the supply, there is a tendency to increase the list of prescribed journals. This concept could be projected ad infinitum, but since a relatively small number of journals in medicine are heavily used, a practical limit is soon attained. Again, under this restriction local libraries can receive material on the restricted list by paying the costs involved. In special situations—e.g., for especially small or new institutions—the contracting library may agree to furnish the materials free. If a library elects to do this, it must recognize that it is absorbing the cost and may not charge this activity to the reimbursable account.

It is unfortunate that there is no way to determine the effectiveness of each restriction. If a graph could be depicted with one line showing the total growth in reimbursable requests, and another line indicating the effect of each definition, presumably there would be a diminution of distance between each line. The expansion of service and network stimulation due to factors such as extension programs and bibliographic indexing has stimulated overall growth to such an extent that these definitions seem to have little effect. In a real sense, however, the network would be overwhelmed without efforts to broaden the base of responsibility for information delivery and to distribute the funding sources.

UNION LISTS

Several of the decentralized regions in the RMLP have compiled union lists of serial titles. Other regions depend on the catalogs of one or more large medical research libraries. These lists have taken much of the loan burden from NLM. The network management staff at NLM has not been supportive of union list efforts, especially since the development of the SERLINE data base. This data base, accessed through the MEDLINE system, was compiled from tapes submitted by each RML and indicates by region the location of "substantial" runs of each journal. Neither generalized nor exact holdings are given, and this omission has caused some concern among users. The network staff maintains that if a library has a substantial run, the chance of it having any given issue on the shelf at a specific time is as great as it is for those libraries whose exact holdings are known. This is probably true, for even in libraries where journals do not circulate, some percentage of materials will be off the shelf, at the bindery, lost, or otherwise unavailable when needed. The cost of maintaining a more precise list, NLM claims, does not justify the benefits. Certainly, any such printed list would need constant updating. These factors are of small comfort to interlibrary loan librarians, who feel they are merely fishing when they send a request to a library for which only a title listing is given.

Users experience other problems when depending on machine access. A printed book can be distributed widely to all levels of libraries participating in the network. The small library can usually afford to purchase a union list and can then direct requests to the most promising location. Data base access points are relatively scarce, and those that exist must serve as switching or referral centers for other requesting libraries. Although the cost of accessing the MEDLINE and SERLINE data bases is modest in comparison to other such services, continual access for journal locations would be neither practical nor cost effective. Requests to be processed on SERLINE may be batched when the terminal is in use, computer lines are busy, or the equipment is inoperative. However, batching adds another step and delay in the process when compared with the use of a printed guide. Finally, any attempt at rationalizing serials on a regional basis is virtually impossible without a full union list. Decisions by library personnel to subscribe to a title can only be made with full information, including length or completeness of run. The relocation of back issues to consolidate runs and simplify storage problems and record keeping would involve an inventory check for each title under consideration at each participating library.

These are some of the advantages and disadvantages of union lists; one cannot argue convincingly against the fact that there are several functional factors in operation that will probably cause the demise of regional union lists. First, although SERLINE will not be available in every small library, the present number of 200 terminal nodes probably will double. The formation of local hospital consortia with central access to the data bases may be a nationwide compromise between access at every health science library and access at only the large graduate or research centers. Second, as consortia are formed, local union list production seems to have high priority. By sharing access to readily available titles, the loan burden is removed from the network. Consortia of hospital libraries with local union lists and access to SERLINE at a central location will accommodate demands on the nation's medical literature.

Finally, the sheer cost of assembly and production of a union list is becoming too great. Many initial efforts were funded by outside sources; without this aid, participating medical libraries find it difficult to justify this expenditure. In Region IX (South Central), for example, computer costs were initially donated by a participating institution; these chargees would now have to be passed on and would strangle any effort to produce another edition.

MONOGRAPHIC UNION LISTS

NLM has never supported the concept of union lists for books. It was felt that a request for monographic material not available in the local library should be transferred to NLM immediately as the speediest and most cost-effective procedure. Some regional libraries have taken the network view that, given a local source, the book could be obtained more quickly and at less cost from a library in the area. The union lists have taken the traditional form of a main entry card indicating the location of each library having the title. In Region IX, a file has been microfilmed twice and distributed to the libraries which submitted holdings. Other copies were made to sell, although there has been little demand. The file has been maintained in Region IX through contributions by the RML, and more recently by a grant from the RMP in Arkansas. The latter grant will enable another microfilm production. Region VII, the Midwest Medical Library Network, has had a research grant from NLM to maintain and test the effectiveness and cost benefit of a union list of monographs. Several working papers have appeared, and the final report will be issued in 1975. The development of NLM's participation in national data bases such as the

Ohio College Library Center (OCLC) will, it appears, soon eliminate the need for regional union lists. Although access to the data base via terminal will not be universal, sufficient points of entry should exist to ensure that both location and "switching" will be satisfied.

PLANNING

To an outside observer, the RMLP might appear to be the result of a well-planned process with a scheduled step-by-step implementation. This view would not be shared by the participants, for the planning of network activity has probably been the weakest segment of the RMLP. Surprisingly, the network has succeeded despite this weakness, being largely the result of trial and error in the early days. Several major changes in the program attest to the irregular progress in attaining successful plateaus in network expansion.

The expansion of the MEDLARS/MEDLINE system was delayed a year or more due to a disastrous contract with a commercial firm which could not perform the technical work required to amplify the computer capacity and enlarge the user base. The shift of the funding mechanism from grants to contracts was the cause of considerable confusion in the RMLs. A concomitant of the change in funding procedures was the requirement that key personnel in the RML staff find "hard" money, i.e., institutional support, for part, and in some cases virtually all, of their salaries. This situation was demoralizing, to say the least.

One of the saddest events was the parallel development by two federal agencies—the Library of Congress and the NLM—of machine-readable bibliographic data bases in non-compatible terms. This took place while representatives of both institutions were meeting regularly in Federal Library Committee sessions. NLM is presently reformatting the CATLINE data base in MARC format so that post-1965 records can be accessed via the OCLC system.

Another problem has been diverse opinions regarding centralization or decentralization of RML services. Support for centralized service may be traced to the 1965 MLAA statement which authorized regional branches of the NLM. In a centralized RML national network, NLM would deal directly with only ten to fifteen libraries across the nation, and funding support would be used to develop collections and provide services from those institutions. In a decentralized pattern, especially in a region where one library is not patently stronger than the others, funding and service opportunities are distributed to each participant, and the strength of the network is

judged by reviewing the composite resources and services of the participants. A mixture of both kinds of organizations has now developed in the form of a national network pattern which satisfies the needs of various regions. Discussions of these patterns have been presented by Oppenheimer[5] and Hetzner.[6]

These uncorrelated or independent efforts consumed the limited resources available, as well as considerable time and effort. One cannot say what progress was made; perhaps the problems described in the oversimplified characterizations above had to take place as evolutionary steps to the present program of operation. Had the medical library community been more involved in the earlier planning stages, some of the problems may have been avoided, the issues would have been better understood, and any failures shared by that larger community.

This survey of activity points to one over-arching problem—the lack of a clearly stated national plan which has goals and defines the specific objectives of the RMLP. A guideline such as the one now being developed by the National Commission on Libraries and Information Science (NCLIS), imperfect as it may be, would provide a statement on the systematic sharing of resources to improve service with efficient utilization of available resources. Such a guideline would assist the various regions in carrying out the charge given them by NLM—that of developing their own regional plans. There was no fixed structure in which all RMLs had to fit, which is in itself a credit to the federal system of representative government. Rather than being subject to a rigid unchanging pattern, the RML formation was allowed to develop according to the political, technological, fiscal, bibliographical and manpower strengths identified in each region as the network formation took place. This is not to say that a general codification of national goals sought by RML formation would not have alleviated some groping and anxiety.

In 1973-74, the NLM staff began forming small advisory or task force committees from the RML director's group. These committees are charged with planning in specific areas such as cooperative acquisitions and cataloging, resource sharing, serials rationalization, cooperative storage, continuing education and the extension services, network interfacing, document delivery, MEDLINE coordination, reference services, and AV/CAI networks. The formation of these committees has greatly strengthened the planning process and will help to avoid many communication problems and other frustrations that the participants experienced when decisions concerning network

developments were made in a vacuum. The task force organization also has been used quite successfully on the subregional level to deal with problems beyond the scope of the RML.

RESEARCH

Research on library networking is a much needed element, and can be supported under NLM's program. Unfortunately, few of the projects funded under the MLAA have related to network applications. A current investigation of the costs of various library services being carried out in Houston at the Texas Medical Center Library may have network implications. Another study concerning the supply of interlibrary loan requests in hard copy in lieu of photocopy from a duplicate periodical collection may have significance, especially in view of an adverse decision in the copyright suit.

The East-Central Regional Library (Region V) has issued a series of working papers, now numbering fifteen or more, on various problems and aspects of medical librarianship, management and operation, some of which deal with network management and operation. Generally, however, few research efforts have been aimed at RMLP operations.

COMMUNICATIONS

One important element in any library network is the unrestricted flow of information in the communication process. As described earlier, this information flow ranges from the purely technical to the highly philosophical. The TWX has become the main instrument for the rapid transmission of interlibrary loan requests and other technical messages. On-line bibliographic searching is a reality and marks a new level in library and network communication. There are predictions that on-line searching can be expanded to allow one to initiate a request from any geographical location for a desired bibliographic item.

For the purposes of this discussion, however, communication is taken in its broadest sense to include all elements. Most of the regions have developed newsletters to keep users informed of developments, procedures and policies. These newsletters range from those published irregularly to monthly issues, with the scope varying from a full treatment of network affairs to calendars of events attached to the new book list of the regional library. In addition to the newsletters, there are regular mailings to inform participating libraries and regional advisory committees of revised procedures, new policies, and statistical reports.

Several of the regions have developed attractive brochures that outline the services of the RMLP. These are sent in response to mail inquiries and distributed at workshops and other meetings.

A major factor in the communication process has been the development of the extension or field librarian. This process has enabled the RML and the participating libraries to effectively extend the medical library network to the most remote user. The extension concept was initiated by NLM through the grant program, with grants normally given for a three-year period to enable the network library to explore all potential aspects of this type of service and become knowledgeable about its user population. Major emphasis in this part of the program was placed on: (1) consultation in the field with library supervisors, hospital administrators, directors of medical education, and chair-persons of library committees; (2) training of library personnel, primarily through workshops at various locations in the region; (3) bringing the existence of the program to the attention of potential users; and (4) gathering information about available resources.

In the later period of these grants, work was directed to the development of hospital library consortia. This development was spearheaded in Boston and was immediately replicated by other medical units throughout the country.

Since the original grants for extension services have expired, it has been up to the participating libraries to continue support. There was a great deal of criticism concerning the cost-effectiveness of the extension grant program. It is true that results were intangible and that extension personnel were frequently frustrated by the lack of a base on which to build, and even by a lack of expressed interest in library services. Travel monies were not sufficient to support the full potential of the program. Grants did give the libraries an opportunity to inventory resources, inform the medical community of the program, and identify those nodes of strength that were potentially active contributors to the network. A definite benefit was the identification of possible hospital consortia and the recognition of a potential headquarters facility for each.

Since the grants have expired, many libraries have continued the extension programs on a part-time or on-demand basis. The preliminary period was used for intensive exploration, while extension librarians now respond to requests and wherever it appears that time invested will result in expected program development, e.g., workshops, grant proposals, and the formation of consortia. Rather

than have an extension librarian at each major network node, a regional extension service which serves as a back-up for subregional efforts may be utilized.

The lack of travel funds will be a major deterrent to continued extension work. Travel funds for any library are usually limited, and would be so even if medical school administrators viewed their commitment to community service as broad geographically as those established in the RMLP. Other funding sources and even prorated contributions by participants may maintain some extension work beyond what the major medical libraries are willing and able to support.

RESOURCE SHARING

Probably the most sophisticated of network activities would be resource development, shared acquisitions, and cooperative purchasing. The sharing of acqusitions suggests the pooling of funds for the joint purchase of a resource by two or more libraries. This purchase would probably be an expensive reference set, an extensive journal file, or film. This cooperative venture has not yet been undertaken by medical libraries. Distances may be too great to make effective use of materials purchased jointly, and purchasing practices may be too cumbersome to accommodate this type of cooperation. Cooperative resource development, in which each library buys an item on behalf of other libraries in a network, has great potential, however. This practice has been adopted in at least one RML region and has been described by C. Lee Jones.[7] Although the entire scope of library resources is a potential subject for such discussion, Jones has restricted his concern to the more expensive journal and serial titles, coining the term "serials rationalization" to describe the exercise. In brief, each major library in the region agrees to make a commitment to certain titles. Thus, if cuts have to be made, other libraries know with certainty that the title will be available at a certain library. This element is supported by the circulation of drop-and-add lists as well as lists of subscriptions to new titles. A further refinement has been the shifting of back files from library to library to fill gaps, complete runs, and eliminate the storage of partial and relatively useless incomplete files. NLM has encouraged this kind of resource allocation.

Only a small percentage of medical journal titles fulfill the greatest part of the demand. If a coordinated plan of resource development were maximized, funds would be free for other services and other forms of educational resources, such as audiovisual media, which are

poorly presented in most medical schools. It would also allow possible support of medical education on a broader geographic base. The concept of cooperative acquisitions and use has brought to a head the conflict between publishers of medical journals and the library community. This conflict has culminated in the copyright suit brought against NLM by the Williams & Wilkins Company; it is currently being argued in the federal courts. Whatever the decision, the case will have a tremendous impact on all aspects of library networking and other cooperative endeavors.

This inventory of experiences demonstrates the vicissitudes and accomplishments in the formation of a national library network. The effective linking and development of the subunits in the larger network still need to be accomplished. Nevertheless, the foundation has been laid for the national goal of equal access to knowledge, which will lead to better health care. The Regional Medical Library Program is a primary vehicle for increasing this spread of knowledge for the improvement of the nation's medical welfare.

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Continuing Education and Institutes as a Function of Interstate Library Cooperation

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OF ALL THE issues facing the library profession today, probably the most important and urgent is the need for an effective program for continuing library and information science education. Responding to the increasing informational needs of society, in 1972 the National Commission on Libraries and Information Science (NCLIS) conducted a series of regional hearings designed to identify the concerns and opportunities involved in meeting future information requirements. Repeatedly identified at these hearings was the need for continuing education programs designed to develop and maintain the skills needed by library and information science personnel who must deliver the information services demanded by the social, institutional and research activities of the nation.[1]

In response to the commission's request for "a nationwide program of continuing education for personnel in the library and information science field,"[2] Elizabeth Stone was commissioned to direct a study project in this area. The final report of the project, presented to the NCLIS in May 1974, recommended the establishment of a Continuing Library Education Network and Exchange (CLENE). This proposed national structure would aim to encompass all facets of continuing education by providing a facility useful to all at every level.[3]

Respondents in the Stone report felt that continuing education had the following qualities:

1. It implies a notion of lifelong learning as a means of keeping an individual up-to-date with new knowledge; it prevents obsolescence

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2. It includes updating a person's education (e.g., makes an individual's education comparable to that of a person receiving a like degree or like certificate at the present time)
3. It allows for diversification to a new area within a field (e.g., supervisory and management training)
4. It assumes that the individual carries the basic responsibility for his or her own development
5. It involves education activities which are beyond those considered necessary for entrance into the field.[4]

A universally acceptable definition of continuing education has not been agreed upon by members of the profession. In 1973, when members of the Committee on Continuing Library Education of the Association of American Library Schools wrote their position paper on continuing education for the Continuing Library Education Network (CLEN), no precise definition was included because an acceptable definition of continuing education could not be found. Nevertheless, the working statement of the committee has gained increasing acceptance: "Continuing education is essential for all library personnel, whether they remain in a position category or are preparing to move to a higher one."[5]

The need for continuing education within the discipline of library science is usually listed as a first priority by members of the profession, but often is considered less important by members of the library science education field. In the Stone report, regional library associations (100 percent) and school libraries (88 percent) gave continuing education high priority, whereas national libraries, academic libraries, and accredited library schools ranked it as a medium priority item. Of the thirty-nine accredited library schools that reported, seventeen (44 percent) ranked it high; twenty-one (54 percent) medium; and one (3 percent) low.[6]

This view of continuing education by members of the library education community is not unusual. Library schools are organized within institutional frameworks dedicated to formal graduate and undergraduate education and research. They are often confined to an organizational structure which does not encourage or even permit continuing education activities. Consequently, most library schools consider continuing education in its broadest sense as off-campus or extension instruction. For the most part, library schools have limited their involvement to library and information science credit courses in the late afternoons, early evenings, or on Saturdays.

Continuing Education and Institutes

Continuing education activities within the university or college are usually delegated to a branch of the institution that has the responsibility for extramural, external or off-campus instruction. In their 1973 study of the Southwestern Library Association (SWLA) six-state area of Arizona, Arkansas, Louisiana, New Mexico, Oklahoma and Texas, Martin and Duggan found that the main contribution of library schools in the SWLA region was off-campus or extension instruction.[7] This kind of instruction is often equated with vocational or remedial education or personal enrichment and is not considered continuing education. Higher education budgetary restraints often hamper the library schools' involvement, with emphasis being placed on formal graduate education and research. Faculty members of graduate library schools are professionally prepared to function at the graduate instructional level within the time limits of their institution. Apparently they do not have the motivation or institutional support to reduce or modify library and information science education to an instructional pattern of short courses, institutes and workshops.

In its study of professional education in library and information science, the Task Force on Education of the Center for the Study of Information and Education at Syracuse University agreed that the present one-year or fifteen-month curriculum in library and information science is outmoded. Not only must professional education programs be devised to provide for the development of a broad range of competencies, but students must be made aware of the need to participate regularly in programs of continuing education.[8] There is little evidence that library schools are making a concerted effort to make their graduates aware of the need to refresh and expand their professional training once the professional degree is attained.

There are several excellent bibliographies providing a state-of-the-art review of continuing education in library and information science. The massive CLENE report has an equally massive 83-page bibliography[9] as well as six pages of abstracts, "Selected Readings in Continuing Education."[10] The June 1974 issue of *Illinois Libraries* has an excellent annotated bibliography compiled by Mary Michael and Cathleen Palmini.[11] Lawrence Allen's *Continuing Education Needs of Special Librarians* provides additional background information on continuing education in librarianship.[12]

Interest and action in continuing education are manifest in other professions. Engineers, bankers, physicians, dentists and nurses have vigorous programs of continuing education for their professions. These programs not only provide a means of updating the

individual's professional competency, but also provide a reward system and recognition for those who participate. The Engineer's Council for Professional Development awards national achievement certificates; the American Institute of Banking has three levels of certification; the American Medical Association has established the Physician's Recognition Award; and the American Nurses' Association has endorsed the use of the Continuing Education Unit. In addition to goal-oriented continuing education opportunities, some professional associations publish journals featuring continuing education. The bimonthly *Journal of Continuing Education in Nursing* and the American Dental Association's quarterly publication, *Continuing Education*, are outstanding examples.

In contrast, there is no recognized reward for continuing education in the field of library and information science. The Public Library Association is exploring developments in other professions with the intention of making recommendations on a system of recognition or reward for participation in continuing education programs to the library community.[13] The Southwestern Library Association's CELS (Continuing Education for Library Staffs) project is awarding certificates of attendance for participation in continuing education programs sponsored by the association. Several state library associations award their own certificates for such state-association-sponsored activities. The Southwestern Library Association (SWLA) is also exploring the use of the Continuing Education Unit as a reward for participation in its workshops, institutes and seminars.

Despite the lack of a reward system, the need for some form of continuing education in library and information science is increasingly evident. Recognizing this need, state library agencies and public libraries developed and funded continuing education activities in the form of institutes, seminars, workshops and short courses as a result of the Library Services Act (LSA), and later under Title I of the amended Library Services and Construction Act (LSCA). A highly structured continuing education program was found by Foos in his study of nine southeastern state library agencies regarding their involvement in adult education activities.[14] The federally funded program was most successful and served as the basis for the established continuing education program presently maintained by many state library agencies.

The Missouri State Library cites two major forces which stimulated its sponsorship of statewide continuing education programs. The first,

beginning in 1944, was the state's own effort to extend library service to the unserved. The second was the LSA, which provided funds to finance an educational program for personnel in public libraries serving rural populations.[15]

Continuing education is a high priority in Ohio where activities are sponsored by the state library, by professional library associations including the Ohio Library Association, the Special Library Association chapters, and the Ohio Association of School Librarians, and by library schools, multi-county groups and individual libraries. LSCA grants by the state library have funded and provided a strong statewide impetus to many of the continuing education efforts.[16]

Three campuses of the University of Wisconsin offer graduate library programs. Sixteen universities and colleges offer undergraduate minors, and one technical institute has a two-year program to train library/media assistants for all types of libraries. In addition to this formal course work, the state library offers jointly with schools and universities a range of institutes, workshops and seminars. Statewide institutes of longer duration are held regularly, often using LSCA funds to defray costs. Many of the eight certified library systems in Wisconsin are a direct result of the utilization of LSA and LSCA funds to begin areawide services.[17]

The Illinois state library (ISL) has recently named twenty-seven prominent Illinois library leaders to serve on the new ISL Advisory Committee on Education and Training. The group will assist the state library in planning for the coordination of educational and training activities to meet the needs of the library community in Illinois.[18] This is one of the more recent activities of the state library, which continues to maintain a leadership role in continuing education. The new advisory committee proceeds from a Study Committee on Education and Training of the ISL Library Subcommittee for LSCA Titles I and II in 1968. This study committee surveyed continuing education activities from 1966 to 1970 conducted by the eighteen library systems within the state and by the state library. From the data collected, the state library and the state systems developed a series of recommendations which continues to affect continuing education activities in Illinois.[19]

Joint appointments of library school faculty members to state library agencies and library schools for the purpose of developing continuing education programs were made in Indiana, Kentucky and Kansas. In Kentucky, this type of appointment led to the development of a series

of continuing education programs for the state funded under Title I of the Higher Education Act (HEA) with matching funds from the Kentucky department of libraries.[20]

Support for an institute program of continuing education for school librarians and media specialists was made possible under Title XI of the National Defense Education Act (NDEA) and provided programs to update the education of practicing school library personnel. In fiscal year 1968, Section 225 of the HEA repealed the institute portion of NDEA while the Title II-B library training program was expanded to include an institute format. Richard Darling felt that the termination of the institute program under NDEA would cause great damage to school library programs unless the institutions were continued under HEA Title II.[21] Fortunately, many school library institutes have been funded under HEA Title II-B since fiscal year 1968.

The institute program of HEA Title II-B provides long- and short-term training and retraining opportunities for librarians, media specialists, and information scientists, and for persons desiring to enter these professions. It appears to have had a profound impact on a majority of participants. Through fiscal year 1973, 333 institutions offered continuing education programs for 11,070 participants throughout the nation (see Table 1).

These institutions have given experienced library, media center, and information center personnel the opportunity to update their skills and to advance themselves in problem or subject areas not usually covered by the curricular library schools. An examination of the types of institutes offered for the period 1967-74 illustrates the nontraditional aspects of study included in institute programs. The appendix to this article lists many specific study areas which provide continuing library and information science education opportunities for working library personnel, i.e., the urban child and the public library; improvement of American Indian use of libraries; selection, organization, and use of materials by and about the Negro; cable television for librarians; and needs, priorities and directions concerning library service to the Spanish-speaking in the United States. Until fiscal year 1973, these institute programs were offered only through institutions of higher education which included graduate library schools.

Many institutes offered for the period 1967-74 have implications for programs of interstate cooperation (see appendix) and could be repeated or replicated today for an interstate continuing education program. They could be utilized by regional library associations, i.e.,

TABLE 1
HEA TITLE II-B INSTITUTE PROGRAM

Academic Year	Participants	Institutions	Fiscal Year
1967/68	2,084	66	1967
1968/69	3,101	91	1968
1969/70	1,347	46	1969
1970/71	1,557	38	1970
1971/72	981	39	1971
1972/73	654	24	1972
1973/74	1,346	29	1973
TOTALS:	11,070	333	

Source: Stevens, Frank A. "Higher Education Act, Title II-B, Library Education." *In* Madeline Miele, ed. *The Bowker Annual of Library and Book Trade Information, 1974.* New York, R. R. Bowker, 1974, p. 153.

Southwestern Library Association and Southeastern Library Association, and/or regional or national cooperative library endeavors such as the Western Interstate Commission for Higher Education (WICHE), the Association of American Library Schools, and the Special Library Association—both nationally and through its local chapters.

Institutes with national implications include Ruth Rockwoods's 1969 institute on "Personnel Utilization in Libraries" at Florida State University; Irene Braden's 1969 institute on "Quantitative Methods in Librarianship" at Ohio State University; and Patrick Penlard's 1970 institute on "The Floating Librarian in the Underprivileged Community" at the University of Pittsburgh. Institutes of longer duration—e.g., Lotsee Smith's 1973 institute on "Training Library Aides in Pueblo Indian Schools" at the University of New Mexico; Vernon Gerlock's 1971 institute on "Training for American Indians as School Library Media Specialists" at Arizona State University; and Donald Riechman's 1971 institute on "Improvement of Library Services to Spanish-Speaking Americans" at the University of New Mexico—have implications for interstate cooperative library continuing education programs, especially in the Southwest.

In fiscal year 1973, library agencies other than institutions of higher education became eligible for institute programs. Institute proposals were received from state libraries, state departments of education, public library systems, school library systems, and library organizations.[22] As a result of this change in direction, the SWLA, in

cooperation with the Louisiana State University Graduate School of Library Science, applied for and received a grant for 1974-75 to present an institute on "Continuing Education Program Planning for Library Staffs in the Southwest."[23] This was one of the first of such grants made to a library association as a sponsor of a continuing education program. The institute proposal was developed utilizing the guidelines of the Martin-Duggan study, and in direct support of the Stone report on continuing library and information science education. In October 1975, SWLA will sponsor another institute funded under Title II-B of the Higher Education Act of 1965 as amended. This institute, to be held at the University of Texas at Austin, is entitled "Developing Skills in Planning Humanities-Based Library Programs," and will be under the direction of Peggy O'Donnell, the CELS coordinator.

The involvement of SWLA in interstate interlibrary continuing library education was first called for in a historic conference held at Arlington, Texas, in September, 1970. This conference led to the establishment of a funded office in SWLA—the Southwestern Library Interstate Cooperative Endeavor (SLICE)—with monies being pledged by SWLA and each of its six state library agencies. Although the office was initially preoccupied by automation and networking services, continuing education was recognized as the region's greatest single need. A formal structure was created by the approval of a CELS Advisory Council by the SWLA executive board in October 1973.[24] The CELS advisory council was composed of heads of state library agencies, presidents-elect of state library associations, SWLA representatives, consultants, the SWLA/SLICE office director, and deans and directors of graduate library schools in the region; it met for the first time on February 8, 1974, in Dallas. In addition to the dedication of funds from SWLA for the initial development of the CELS project, financial pledges were received from other members of the CELS Advisory Council, from state agencies through their directors, and from state associations through their vice-presidents/presidents elect, to support the first twelve operational months of the program. A full-time CELS coordinator was appointed in October 1974 and is presently organizing an interstate continuing library education program for the Southwest.[25] All facets of interstate interlibrary cooperation will be utilized by the CELS project in developing the regionwide continuing education program, including proposals for future HEA Title II-B institutes.

The HEA Title II-B institute program, with its expanded base of

educational opportunities, provides training and retraining in the principles and practices of library and information sciences. Institute programs are not usually covered by the traditional curricular or library schools. As changes in library service create new needs, institute programs must be devised to meet these needs. The timeliness and flexibility of institute programs are advantages that are difficult to match by more stable curricular programs. Alan Knox of the Office of Continuing Education and Public Service, University of Illinois, has stated: "Some of the most innovative and effective programs of continuing education have been supported by grants from philanthropic foundations or governmental funding agencies. In addition to providing outside resources, persons associated with such grantors occasionally serve as idea brokers."[26] The Leadership Training Institute funded under HEA Title II-B and directed by Harold Goldstein of Florida State University has become such a broker.

The institute program of continuing education opportunities is a vitally important part of the continuous upgrading of the competency level of both professional and paraprofessional personnel. The current expansion of the institute program to include a variety of sponsors allows the development of highly effective programs involving collabortion among different agencies. The recent (December 1974) WICHE institute on "Training of Trainers in Training for Interlibrary Cooperation and Networking" brought together librarians from all types of libraries in the large WICHE region for six days of intensive training and sharing of experience and expertise. The institute was designed in three phases to meet the need to improve library service through training library leaders for interlibrary cooperation, and to train these leaders to teach these processes of resource sharing to other librarians in their respective states. Gathering a group of this size from such a vast area would have been difficult without the institute program.

Similarly, the SWLA institute of March 1975, "Continuing Education Program Planning for Library Staffs in the Southwest," sought to recruit and train thirty representatives from the SWLA states in the planning, development and implementation of continuing education programs for library staffs. The training program was designed for transfer by the institute participants to their states where they could conduct similar training sessions on the state and local levels. As part of the institute's activities, the participants divided themselves into state groups for the purpose of developing a proposal

for statewide continuing education programs tailored to the specific needs and services available in each of the six states. As a result of this institute, the state groups continue to meet and work toward augmenting and implementing the basic programs developed at the institute.

The possibilities are great for wide scale cooperation between SWLA and WICHE to establish a network of continuing education expertise and information exchange. Geography as well as personal ties between the groups would seem to foster a climate where interstate interlibrary cooperation in continuing education could flourish.

The emphasis on continuing education continues to grow. Both the Stone and Martin-Duggan surveys demonstrate a similarity of needs for continuing education cutting across types of libraries and across legal boundaries. Interstate interlibrary cooperation in creating effective continuing education programs constitutes the maximum utilization of resources. Institute programs represent a reservoir of material from which to draw. The positive implications are obvious.

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15. Davis, Kay. "Continuing Education in Missouri," *Illinois Libraries* 56:462, June 1974.
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22. Stevens, Frank A. "Higher Education Act, Title II-B, Library Education." *In* Madeline Miele, ed. *The Bowker Annual of Library and Book Trade Information, 1974.* New York, R. R. Bowker, 1974, pp. 153-54.
23. "Higher Education Act Title II-B Grant," *SWLA Newsletter* 23:1, Oct. 1974.
24. "Executive Board Action," *SWLA Newsletter* 22:2, Oct. 1973.
25. "CELS Advisory Group Report," *SWLA Newsletter* 23:6, Dec. 1974.
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APPENDIX

SELECT LIST OF HEA TITLE II-B INSTITUTES WITH IMPLICATIONS FOR INTERSTATE COOPERATION

"Interpersonal Relations in Libraries," Immaculate Heart College, 30 participants, Nov. 1969 (1 wk.).

"Library Service to Young Adults with Emphasis on Mexican-American Youth," Immaculate Heart College, 25 participants, Oct. 1969 (1 wk.).

"Training for Library Work with the Culturally Disadvantaged," University of Southern California, 35 participants, Oct. 1969 (1 wk.).

"Service for Public Patrons Between Libraries: An Institute for Interlibrary Loan Librarians," University of Colorado, 60 participants, Oct. 1969 (1 wk.).

"Personnel Utilization in Libraries," Florida State University, 40 participants, Oct. 1969 (1 wk.).

"Librarianship for the Emerging Adolescent," Ball State University, 30 participants, Sept. 1969 (acad. yr.).

"The Urban Child and the Public Library," Drake University, 40 participants, Aug. 1969 (1 wk.).

"Upgrading Knowledge and Skills of Regional and State-Wide Library Periodical Editors," University of Kentucky, 30 participants, Sept. 1969 (1 wk.).

"Middle Management in Librarianship," University of Maryland, 40 participants, June 1969 (1 wk.).

"Planning Public Library Building Projects," Wayne State University, 50 participants, Oct. 1969 (2 wks.).

"Public Library Service to the Black Urban Poor," Wayne State University, 45 participants, June 1969 (2 wks.).

"Acquisition of Non-Western Library Materials for College Libraries," Columbia University, 15 participants, June 1969 (6 weeks.).

"Quantitative Methods in Librarianship," Ohio State University, 30 participants, Aug. 1969 (2 wks.).

"Institutional Librarianship—Analysis and Challenge," Central State College, 30 participants, July 1969 (2 wks.).

"Improvement of American Indian Use of Libraries," University of Oklahoma, 30 participants, July 1969 (3 wks.).

"Interlibrary and Interagency Cooperation," George Peabody College for Teachers, 30 participants, Oct. 1969 (1 wk.).

"The Academically Gifted Child," Texas Women's University, 32 participants, June 1970 (5 wks.).

"Libraries and the Unreached," University of Washington, 35 participants, Aug. 1969 (1 wk.).

"Problems in Academic Library Building Construction," University of California, 30 participants, Sept. 1970 (1 wk.).

"Development and Administration of Slavic and East European Library Resources," University of Illinois, June 1970 (6 wks.).

"Training of School and Public Librarians to Work in Communities with large Numbers of Mexican Americans and Indians," New Mexico State University, 30 participants, June 1970 (4 wks.).

"The Floating Librarian in the Underprivileged Community," University of Pittsburgh, 25 participants, July 1970 (3 wks.).

"Nonconventional Reference Sources and Services," Drexel Institute of Technology, 20 participants, April 1971 (1 wk.).

"Selection, Organization, and Use of Materials by and about the Negro," Fisk University, 25 participants, June 1970 (6 wks.).

"Training in Librarianship for Drug Education," Alabama A & M University, 30 participants, June 1971 (2 wks.).

"Multimedia Selection and Production of Environmental and Ecological Materials," California State College, 30 participants, Aug. 1971 (2 wks.).

"Public Library Service to the Urban Disadvantaged," Atlanta University, 12 participants, Sept. 1971-Aug. 1972 (12 mos.).

"Improvement of Library Services to Spanish-Speaking Americans," University of New Mexico, 30 participants, Sept. 1971 (2 wks.).

"Library Materials for Minority Groups," Queens College, 30 participants, July 1972 (3 wks.).

"Training Minority Persons as Paraprofessionals," Highline Community College, 12 participants, Sept. 1971-June 1972 (9 mos.).

"Library Social Action Programs," University of Wisconsin, 14 participants, Sept. 1971-Aug. 1972 (12 mos.).

"Graduate Library Education Leading to M.S.L.S. for Mexican-American School Library Media Specialists," California State College, 15 participants, Sept. 1972-Aug. 1973 (12 mos.).

"Training for American Indians as School Library Media Specialists," Arizona State University, 15 participants, Sept. 1971-May 1972 (9 mos.).

"Cable TV for Librarians," Drexel University, 100 participants, Sept. 1972 (1 wk.).

"Academic Internship in Black Studies Librarianship: A Pilot Project," Fisk University, 7 participants, Sept.-Dec. 1972 (4 mos.).

"Planning and Evaluation of Library Programs," University of Texas, 300 participants, Oct. 1972 (2 days).

"Needs, Priorities and Directions Concerning Library Service to the Spanish-Speaking in the United States," University of Arizona, 200 participants, June 1973 (2 days).

"Indian Librarianship Education Program," University of Arizona, 18 participants, Aug. 1973-Aug. 1974 (12 mos.).

"Training Library Aides in Pueblo Indian Schools," University of New Mexico, 8 participants, Aug. 1973-July 1974 (12 mos.).

"Institute to Train Veterans for A.A. Degree in Library Science," Voorhess College, 20 participants, Aug. 1973-May 1974 (9 mos.).

Sources: *The Bowker Annual of Library and Book Trade Information*. New York, R. R. Bowker, 1970-74.

Accrediting Agencies and Library Cooperation in Education

JOHNNIE E. GIVENS
and
WANDA K. SIVELLS

THE UNITED STATES is unusual in the degree of autonomy that its educational institutions exercise. Nationally administered educational programs are the rule in most countries; while "the accrediting of secondary schools and institutions for higher education in the United States is the responsibility of both state and independent cooperative agencies."[1]

"Each state has the legal power to determine its own educational standards. However, independent associations of institutions, acting voluntarily and cooperatively to achieve or exceed certain minimum levels of excellence, have been a unique feature in American education"[2] for more than one hundred years.

The nation grew, schools increased, and educational quality began to differ, which in turn created a need for the evaluation of institutional quality. Although there are more than forty recognized accrediting agencies,[3] the best known, most frequently mentioned, and pervasively influential are the six regional ones. Even these, however, are unlikely to be linked with library cooperation. A literature search under either accrediting agencies or library cooperation produces not one entry specifically identified as such or relating one to the other. Because of the impact accrediting agencies exert on the development of library programs at many levels and in various types of institutions, an examination of library cooperation would not be complete without determining what relationship exists and in what direction it may be moving. The focus of this article will be on the six regional accrediting associations and their patterns for academic institutions.

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The history of the organization of these six associations—New England Association of Schools and Colleges (est. 1855), Middle States Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools (1887), North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools (1895), Southern Association of Colleges and Schools (1895), Northwest Association of Secondary and Higher Schools (1917), and Western Association of Schools and Colleges (1924)[4]—chronicles one of the earliest and most continuous instances of inter-institutional cooperation in education. From the beginning, they have been unique in bringing together representatives from educational institutions to perform peer group evaluation. "At the first annual meeting of the North Central Association in April 1896, President James Burrill Angell of the University of Michigan, who also served as the first president of the Association, called for more cooperation between colleges and schools."[5] Burns noted in 1971 that "Cooperation among the regions began early. For many years the National Committee of Regional Accrediting Agencies regularly brought together representatives of the regional commissions of higher education to talk about common problems and to learn from each other."[6] In recognition of the broader need to cooperate in coordinating the activities of nongovernmental accrediting agencies, the National Commission on Accrediting was formed in 1949.[7] From its inception, the commission had no legal authority, but expressed its influence by placing on its list no accrediting agency which it was not willing to recommend to its more than 1,400 member institutions.[8] It cooperated with the regional associations rather than assuming authority over them, and never actually became a comprehensive supervisory association for all academic accreditation.[9]

Recognizing the need to strengthen the values which had accrued from the somewhat unstructured sharing characteristic of the National Committee of Regional Accrediting Agencies, the six associations consolidated this relationship after World War II to form the Federation of Regional Accrediting Commissions of Higher Education (FRACHE).[10] One of the first acts of FRACHE was to commission the Puffer report which reiterated its need "to establish and promulgate common principles and practices, and to review and coordinate the activities of the commissions of the regional associations."[11]

The most recent development in expanding the scope of cooperative coordination among all accrediting agencies was the unification early in 1975 of FRACHE and the National Commission on Accreditation, including representation from specialized agencies

which accredit programs of study in regionally accredited institutions and from other agencies recognized by the U.S. Commissioner of Education.[12] Given this background for the commitment to the concept of coordination and cooperation, parallel concern might be expected in the evaluation and recognition of the qualities of each institution participating in membership or petitioning for accreditation. No accrediting agency of any type seems to minimize the value of a library to the institution's educational program, and each of the regional associations gives it special attention in the evaluative structure used to assess the quality of the program. Regardless of the extensive movements in the 1960s toward library cooperation as a possible solution to almost everything from the impoverished budgets of the 1940s to the opulence of federal funds in the late 1960s, direct recognition of the interaction which libraries seem to require in the 1970s seems conspicuous by its absence.

In a tabulation of criteria used by accrediting agencies in evaluating institutions for accreditation, Herman L. Totten[13] found that interlibrary cooperation did not appear as a consideration per se for any agency, either regional or special. Any oblique references which appear refer to interlibrary loans. General reference is also made to cooperative participation by librarians and other faculty in institution-wide educational planning.[14] The criterion statement on the library in the August 1974 revision of the Western Association's *Handbook of Accreditation* is significant because of its uniqueness. It recognizes cooperative use of library resources by stating that: "while neighboring and available libraries may augment resources, no institution should rely exclusively, or even largely, on resources they do not control or to which they do not have irrevocable access."[15]

These standards or measurements of evaluation can be judged to have affected inter-institutional development of libraries only insofar as efforts to gain and retain accreditation have produced improvements in resources, funding and staffing. Evidence of interaction among the regional associations is apparent in the similarity of language used to establish measurements for evaluating libraries for both the accrediting process and the periodic institutional self-study. Interesting differences do occur. Brief and general statements are used by the New England Association[16] and by North Central.[17] The Middle States Association provides a clear conceptual statement describing the interaction of library services with the instructional program of the institution.[18] However, even this statement makes no reference to cooperation with other libraries, such as the statement

regarding interlibrary loans in the directions for self-study of the New England Association.[19] Only the Northwest Association makes any reference to national standards, indicating that standards of the American Library Association serve as useful guidelines.[20] A comparison of statements and questions included in the six regional association guidelines and standards indicates strong emphasis for traditional library holdings and activities (see Table 1).

The Southern Association remains the last regional association that continues to use the term *library* without the addition of some instructional and support term. The other associations have recognized the changing philosophy and activity of libraries by name if not by recommendation and evaluation. Library committees are specified by the Middle States, North Central, and the Southern associations. Both the Middle States and the Southern associations consider the faculty library committee to be advisory, with liaison activity. General references to staff, collections and facilities are included by each association. The Middle States Association lists the greatest number of specific questions which could be used in assessing the value of a collection, while the Northwest Association suggests thorough documentation of quantitative and qualitative collection evaluation. The Northwest Association was the only one to recommend the use of ALA standards. The Southern Association was the only association in this comparison to recognize a need to indicate the number of students which can be seated in a library at a given time.

Most of the associations seemed to agree on the importance of usage of the library. However, none has faced the realistic problem of measuring the use of open-shelf material. Specific assignments to classes may leave materials worn from use but unstamped by circulation procedures. Service was mentioned by four associations, with only the Southern Association suggesting how service might be evaluated. All of the associations join in the final thrust of assessment with the agreement that faculty should participate in selection, weeding and collection building in general. The Western Association contends that there should be a specialized staff for the learning resources operation. Five associations mention instructional materials but do not indicate any method or criteria for evaluation. Only the Southern and Western associations mention funding for nonprint material. The Middle States and Western associations suggest a total program of support and usage. The Western Association had the most complete description of the components of a total instructional system in its specification for junior colleges, but did not mention nonprint

functions in university or college standards. Few of the associations are prepared to be accountable for audiovisual materials, nor are they ready to encourage the evaluated institution to be accountable. Since the associations recognize learning resources and other nonprint instructional activities, one would have expected more specific recommendations for the nonprint activity. It appears that resources were frequently termed "adequate" for lack of clearly defined criteria.

Certain characteristics of the accreditation process have become common to each association through the process of exchange and sharing, which has been a continuing pattern of improvement. Statements of standards or guidelines for evaluation are based on the qualitative rather than the quantitative minimum. Each institutional unit, e.g., the library, is measured to determine to what degree it effectively meets the general and educational objectives established for the institution. The evaluation is made by experienced people who can only measure the degree to which the characteristics being examined conform to good standard practice. The total evaluation process follows a normative model. Steps are generally the same for each institution applying for accreditation. The institution attempts to continue the activities which achieved accreditation. Periodic self-study, usually on a ten-year cycle, is the technique employed to accomplish this goal.

It is a point of pride among the regional accrediting associations to utilize the qualitative evaluation directed to the objectives, goal and purposes of the institution; it is a generally held concept that this provides a regional determination of adequacy for library programs which is suited to regional needs. This procedure is in contrast to the quantifying measurements which were part of the 1959 standards for college libraries developed by the Association of College and Research Libraries (ACRL).[21] Interaction between representatives from the regional accrediting associations and FRACHE with the ACRL committee working to revise the 1959 college standards focused in detail on the advantages and limitations of trying to combine qualitative evaluation with quantifying measurements. Extensive discussion has led to an understanding that, while quality can be stated per se in concept, in actual practice of on-site evaluation the definitions for "enough" or "adequate to support the educational objective" were inevitably developed against the nationally accepted measurements of quantity. This tacit but generally accepted practice of evaluators provides substantiation and justification for the development of base-level measurements of quantity within national standards. The

TABLE 1

Regional Accrediting Associations

Comparative Data for Three Titles

Titles—Questions	Middle States	New England	North Central	Northwest	Southern	Western (College & Univ.)	Number with items in common
1. Title of Unit Being Compared	Library or Learning Resources	Library & other Learning Resources	Library Resources and other Instructional Facilities	Library or Learning Resources	Library	Library Resources & other Instructional Facilities. Junior College Learning Resources	
2. Question—statement concerning traditional library operations							
a. Library committee	x		x		x	x	4
b. Staff	x	x	x	x	x	x	6
c. Collections—print	x	x	x	x	x		5
d. Facilities—equipment	x	x	x	x	x	x	6
e. Budget—finances	x	x	x	x	x	x	
f. Services	x			x	x	x	4
g. Usage—records	x			x	x	x	4
h. Faculty participation in sel., eval. and weeding	x	x	x	x	x	x	6
3. Question—statement concerning audiovisual and instructional support in relation to library operation							
a. Media committee							0
b. Staff						x	1
c. Collections	x	x	x	x		x	5
d. Budget—finances					x	x	2
e. Facilities—equipment		x	x			x	3

f.	Services	x				x			2
g.	Usage—records					x			1
h.	Faculty participation in sel., eval. and weeding.								0
4.	Question—statement concerning additional duties and responsibilities								
a.	Interlibrary loan	x							1
b.	Networking—coop. activity		x						1
c.	Individualized student					x			1
d.	Instructional support								0
e.	Telecommunications								0
f.	College archives								0
g.	Oral history								0
b.	Faculty and service training								0

Southern Association's position serves as a particular example of this. Its attitude is perhaps strongest of all in refusing both the use of quantifying measurements in the regional statement and reliance on the national standards of ACRL, yet in its illustrations and interpretations of its standards for libraries it warns that institutional authorities should see the U.S. Office of Education's *Library Statistics of Colleges and Universities, Institutional Data,* and consider the library to be in danger whenever it falls in the lowest quarter of any of the categories analyzed.[22]

Noticeable differences among the associations do exist in the composition of the periodic visiting committees. Committees asked to visit an institution vary in size and makeup depending on the type of institution, its objectives, educational program, and which phase of the association's schedule it is engaged in. Early in its visitation program, the Southern Association became aware that to evaluate the use of resources in the learning process requires special expertise; the evaluator must understand and measure the library program as it pervades all aspects of the institution. The Southern Association responded by including on each team a librarian charged with specific responsibility for the library. No data has been gathered on the effects this has had on the improvements and development of the library programs among the member institutions, but positively expressed member satisfaction has validated the concept. The other five associations have adopted the procedure to varying degrees. In contrast to the practice of the Southern Association, the North Central Association is noticeable for the frequency and consistency with which it fails to include librarians as members of the visiting committee.

The absence of data relating to the results of visiting committee reports in affecting the total accrediting process precludes any conclusion as to the weight attached to the committee's determination of the adequacy of library programs. Information obtained from sharing experiences with members of visiting committees in various regions indicates that judgment about library adequacy is likely to be more severe when the institution is applying for initial accreditation than when the status is being reaffirmed. It has long been a cherished concept held by librarians that the danger of loss or withholding of accreditation serves as a wedge to encourage the allocation of ever-increasing amounts of institutional funds to support library improvement; in fact the process is generally somewhat different. All of the associations provide programs of assistance to institutions applying for accreditation, and recommendations for improving the library are

likely to be made at this stage rather than allowing the library to become the focal point of denial. Once an institution is granted accreditation—unless the library falls into patterns of declining support—the responses of visiting committees often contain suggestions for development rather than recommendations for warning. This practice probably explains the fact that a number of libraries in the mid-1970s do not yet meet the minimal numerical measurements established in 1959. Developed on a normative base, the 1975 revision of the standards for college libraries adopted by the Association of College and Research Libraries of ALA at its annual conference in July should provide a pattern which can be readily adapted to regional interpretation.[23]

A review of the criteria and guidelines used by the six regional associations finds little guidance for those librarians being evaluated and for those library members represented in the visiting team and assisting in the evaluation. The following should be of concern to all who participate in an accrediting endeavor: (1) Several of the associations indicate that lists of qualified persons are used to select those who are to serve on visiting teams. Should this indicate that a librarian is to be requested to evaluate the library/learning resources program for these associations? (2) What criteria does the association provide for the team member who is not a library/learning resources person but who must evaluate this type of program? (3) What criteria are used in evaluating a total instructional support program, of which the library is a part?

Several of the accrediting associations call for adequate support for the educational program, an adequate staff, and an alertness to curriculum changes and instructional needs. One association thoughtfully specified additional budgetary allotments for audiovisual materials. Adequacy is a general concept at best, and leaves much discretion in the determination of what is enough for one program and too little for another. It seems desirable that guidelines be broadened to include recommendations for a total support program and not just library operations. Until the accrediting agencies invite ACRL, the Association for Educational Communications and Technology, and other professional associations to share in the responsibility for assessing the total instructional support program, teams will continue to struggle through the evaluation of instructional media programs which include production, telecommunications and other special activities that have been ignored in accrediting guidelines. Accreditation is considered to be "an effective catalyst for

improvement and general raising of standards in institutions and their programs."[24] With this definition of accreditation, it is hoped that each association will give priority to the concept of a total resource program for study and inclusion in its guidelines.

Since the associations are membership organizations operated by staff responsible for implementing the policies adopted by the membership, staff members assert that they try to accomplish what the membership wishes to achieve. It is generally understood by staff representatives that the associations consider themselves not regulators but consultative leaders, assisting in the development of incentives which lead to educational improvements.

Most associations strive for a type of quality control based on experienced judgment, and while they tacitly agree that a basic core of library materials must be held in a collection, no one has recently been willing to identify this core by number, title or subject. Associations allow the existence of library cooperation for which no written documentation is presented, and interpret this with some pride as providing the flexibility for a visitation committee to examine each cooperative plan and project on its own merits. This very lack of documentation has created concern among the professional associations, especially in determining the level of excellence of a program. A redefinition of purpose for these agencies is proposed, as a period of transition is expected.

Program deficiencies, minimal resource standards accepted by regional accrediting associations, and evaluation techniques are among the problems stated by professional accrediting agencies. Other problems of concern include: (1) the need for reducing the duplication of effort by all accrediting agencies; (2) a constant review of the groups involved in the support of an accrediting operation; (3) the determination of the best specificity of an accreditation operation—whether it is an examination and accrediting of a program, an institution, or a combination of both; and (4) the "finding of ways to be reasonably explicit and definitive about all aspects of accreditation operation, including the standards to be met, and yet be universal enough in posture and practice to be able to adjust"[25] to the many differences found throughout the nation.

Some instances have occurred, probably in each of the six associations, in which cooperation between two or more libraries has been the determining factor in the accrediting decision. Staff members are ready to state that in a review of higher education, shared use of resources may vary but the use must be contracted to ensure that

expected resources are readily accessible and will not be withdrawn without mutual knowledge and lead time for planning.[26]

Profiled as they are, these associations find it difficult to escape either reflecting or projecting the factors of society which challenge higher education in general and the member institutions in particular. Writing from his own self-study point of view, William Selden, then executive secretary of the National Commission on Accrediting, was an early prophet of change in 1962 as he pointed to the relative unimportance of regional accreditation.[27] On the premise that the total enrollment of those few institutions which are not accredited is insignificant when compared to that of the accredited colleges and universities, and that a student's admission depends more on his scores on objective tests now than in the past, he concludes that better institutions need have little concern with the accredited status of the high school. It is a defensible position—except for those without. Timely and appropriate to the relationship between libraries and the accrediting agencies is Haywood's exploration of the third myth of accreditation, in which he somewhat explodes the idea that a major goal of an accrediting agency is to foster innovation and improvement of the existing program.[28] These are both areas often cited by librarians which can affect and be affected by cooperation among libraries.

Maintaining that regional accrediting associations no longer can afford to avoid the importance of providing students with the opportunity to learn, Felix Robb proposed that FRACHE would have the power to conform standards, policies, and procedures in a way that would allow regional accrediting associations to cover all education, thereby ensuring articulation and maintaining the capability to meet any challenge.[29] Inter-institutional cooperation in the mid-1960s was examined by Bunnell and Johnson to present the advantages and limitations for possible planning in the future.[30] The realization that a full decade later no positive position existed regarding the potential of the movement raises the question as to whether it does reflect the intent of regional accrediting associations to allow maximum flexibility, or whether the time lag is widening the gap. Leadership of other regional groups, e.g., the Southern Regional Education Board,[31] could help design the way future accreditation may be influenced by interlibrary cooperation.

Conceding that the regional accrediting associations are the composite of the institutional members and their representatives, it is unwise to neglect the leadership influence of a creative mind. This

influence should be forthcoming from Kenneth Young, president of the Council on Postsecondary Accreditation, the latest cooperative organization formed by the merger of FRACHE and the National Commission on Accreditation. The council has on its board of representatives members of seven national associations of higher education in addition to the general public.[32] Only a few weeks after taking office, Young candidly expressed his wish not to speak directly for the council without greater in-depth background, which was impossible to achieve in so brief a time. He did mention without enhancement some problems which he saw to be in obvious need of solutions. These problems, which seem to have direct implications for interlibrary cooperation, are: When an institution develops satellite operations outside the boundaries of its own campuses, perhaps even in another state, does or should the accreditation of the main campus carry over to the satellite operation without review or evaluation of the latter? Is the only way to provide adequate resource services for a satellite operation, in order to achieve accreditation, that of the traditional delivery format of an on-site collection? When the main campus is accredited by one regional association and the satellite operation is located within the jurisdiction of another regional association, which association does the accrediting, and what are the implications for cooperation? The direction of these questions seems to point to a high probability that the council may soon have more flexibility by design of options rather than by default.

The regional associations are working with a similar type of program by accrediting American-sponsored schools abroad. "The Middle States Association serves Europe, the Middle East, Central and Western Asia, Puerto Rico, Panama, the Canal Zone, and military-based American schools throughout the world; the Southern Association accredits schools in Mexico, Central America, South America, and countries in the Caribbean not designated to one of the other regional associations; and the Western Association covers Southeast Asia and the islands of the Pacific."[33] If boundaries such as these can be crossed, surely guidelines for cooperative programs can be developed.

Gordon Sweet represented the Southern Association for a number of years in which the library and the role of librarians in the academic community had priority attention. As executive director, he is well aware of various past and present library programs. His attention to future needs became evident in 1973 when he authorized and initiated a review of the ten-year-old "Standard VI—The Library," allocating

staff and budget to support a committee of librarians and administrators to review and update the standard where needed. Because of the joint development of this revision of the association's statement of library standard, the Southern Association may once again assume leadership among its peers in giving stated recognition to the various ways in which cooperation among libraries must become a factor in evaluating educational programs, now as well as in the future. In regard to the future challenge of relating library cooperation to the accrediting processes, Sweet stated:

> The greatest cooperative venture we have experienced in our Association is the way in which we benefit from the efforts and time of librarians serving on our visiting committees. They have played a strong role in the writing of our standards, not only during the current review but also in 1963 and 1958. We expect librarians to bring to our attention the needs of libraries as they see and respond to them and we respond to librarians. We develop our programs on the assumption that the broadly developed framework is the most satisfactory approach to relate sharing of resources, staff, technology, physical facilities, whatever it may be to the objectives of the institution. We cite and endorse the leadership of librarians everywhere accreditation should go.[34]

These words resound with a confidence which seems to indicate that two can go anywhere together.

The most exciting look into the future is a study in its initial stages being undertaken by Norman Burns, executive director of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools.[35] Funded by a grant from the Danforth Foundation, and to be completed in 1976-77, the study is intended to develop improved techniques for institutional evaluation. According to Burns, the present institutional evaluation process is to examine the characteristics of the institution to determine to what extent they conform to standard practice. The study provides an opportunity to look for ways to make use of the best judgments of people—not to judge conformity to standard practices, but to tap their experience and judgment to set up techniques to assess the outputs of the institution. These techniques should be designed in ways that will allow measurement of the outputs against the desired purposes of the institution. While he spoke about the inability to deal with specifics of the nature of interlibrary cooperation until the study was well underway, his vocabulary was library-oriented and the expected results will probably be the same approaches to measurement that

librarians are now discussing. This study could become the foundation of much working and sharing together.

The man with a dream, perhaps the most visionary of all, is Robert Kirkwood, who has guided the changes of FRACHE in its important developmental field. Articulate and convincing, he easily stimulates and inspires his listeners to join him in moving toward his goal. Kirkwood explains that "the accrediting process is designed to promote institutional accountability to its own purpose and objectives."[36] His words on resource sharing and accreditation may be our keynote challenge for the future:

> In his list of objections to resource sharing, John Fetterman omitted the concern that many institutions have about jeopardizing their accreditation if they enter into cooperative agreements. Either this reflects a misunderstanding about the nature of accreditation, or a misuse of it. Too often, when an institution wants to preserve the status quo, it uses accreditation as an excuse to camouflage its timidity. There is no danger to an institution's accreditation when it participates in a soundly conceived sharing program.
>
> The major measure of a good academic library is the use it gets. Where a library is truly integrated into the teaching and learning activities on any campus, there will be little need to worry about accreditation. The concern of accreditation is excellence, and, rather than being an end in itself, accreditation is a means to the end of strengthening and improving the quality of education. When resource sharing can amplify the range and dimensions of learning materials available, what could be more consistent with the purposes of accreditation?[37]

Looking toward the 1980s, Alvin Eurich calls for a reassessment of colleges and universities and the important role of library services in 1980. Eurich considers the solution to building resources as not "more buildings, more books, and more librarians, but a change in the concept of what a library is. The library will cease to be a depository of books and become a source of information, multiplying the usability of every informational unit and extending the geographic and physical limitations of the library building."[38] He predicts a cooperative banding together of the smaller libraries in statewide systems for centralized ordering and processing, and a reduction of the multiplication of holdings and the utilization of storage centers for little-used materials, with a greater use of microforms to increase a library's capacities. Computer sharing with a number of networking

possibilities and utilization of telecommunications systems in instruction and media searching were part of this prediction. Added to this sense of sharing could be the awareness on the part of many librarians of the need to share personnel through programs of continuing education or specialization. Some institutions and states have shown success with many of these types of cooperative endeavors. Encouragement from the accrediting agencies could open avenues to strengthen existing programs and develop others.

Concluding observations would encourage one to join Herbert Kells in the recognition of the many problems higher education is expected to face in the next several years.[39] Significant adjustments are expected in view of the changing demands and economic pressures. Issues of the time are predicted to include due process, public involvement, scrutiny of demographic patterns, student unrest, a leisure-stricken society, environmentalism, and consumerism—accountability. The process of institutional accreditation will be a part of the public assessment of education. New forms of self-study are evolving from the associations. Perhaps these studies will soon recognize the changes of duties reflected in total support programs and library operations, the duel roles of personnel, and budgetary problems experienced by instructional support operations, because none of the present guidelines offer support for this area. Robb mentions the non-traditional study concept, with emphasis on the individualization of this type of study.[40] Should this program be assessed as a part of the library responsibilities in the new era of instructional services?

There is no consolation for educators in the joining of ranks and the coordinated effort now being undertaken to make accreditation more effective. John Proffitt, presenting a paper before the 66th Annual Congress on Medical Education, stated that: "Time is running out, and we are called up to chart our course for the future intelligently. A comprehensive study might well serve as a valuable chart, facilitating our ability to meet the needs of both the present and the future."[41] His call for a national study of accreditation recommended the involvement of appropriate educational groups both within and outside of the allied health professions. This is another welcome trend to coordinated efforts. The results of accreditation are quite visible and voluntary accreditation has been shown to be a viable concept. By in-depth commitment to cooperation at every level of higher education, these associations can join together and begin a new era of evaluation.

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Cooperation in Latin America

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IT IS OBVIOUS that library cooperation embraces a great many different types of activities, e.g., joint acquisition and sharing of resources, establishing centers for technical processing, sharing of staff, joint programs and activities among different types of libraries, and cooperation in administrative and promotional aspects of library service. To review these and other developments in interlibrary cooperation in Latin American would require far more extended treatment than is possible here.

As the observer of the book and library scene in the countries south of the United States becomes familiar with the many diverse trends in library development, he comes to realize that there are relatively few instances of cooperation which reach across the entire area. However, just as library cooperation in the United States often crosses state boundaries, in Latin America a considerable portion of the cooperative activities centers around regions like the Caribbean and Central America. In addition, there are presently relatively few specific examples of the kinds of cooperation mentioned above. In fact, much cooperative activity in Latin America still consists of personal arrangements such as discussion, sharing of information, and exchange of ideas and procedures rather than of formal programs, interinstitutional agreements, and contractual relationships. Thus, it should come as no surprise that library associations and conferences are probably two of the most-used vehicles in cooperative efforts to improve library service in Latin America.

These conditions have largely determined the focus of this article. Rather than attempting to record many local activities—useful in their immediate areas but of less importance in the overall dimensions of library development in Latin America—this paper attempts to report

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on cooperation which, for the most part, embraces several countries making up one of the regions. Probably the two most active of these areas in recent years have been the Caribbean and Central America. Joint efforts have also taken place in the River Plate area (Argentina, Uruguay, and Paraguay) and, more recently, among the Andean countries. Cooperation involving Brazil, the largest and most populous country, has been mainly internal, although the work of the Federation of Brazilian Library Associations (FEBAB) resembles that of other associations.

One of the most active and continuing cooperative efforts has been that of the Latin American Commission of the International Federation of Documentation (FID/CLA). At the twenty-sixth meeting of FID in Rio de Janeiro in 1960 (the first such meeting in Latin America), FID/CLA formulated the following objectives: (1) to disseminate the objectives and activities of FID, (2) to foster the creation and development of documentation in Latin America, and (3) to promote collaboration and stimulate the coordination of documentary work in these countries.[1] Membership centers on a single institution of each country—usually the one most closely linked with scientific and technical documentation, although in some cases the national university. By 1975, membership had grown to include thirteen countries: Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Cuba, Ecuador, Mexico, Nicaragua, Paraguay, Uruguay, and Venezuela. FID/CLA conducts its activities primarily through its president and secretary, who each serve a four-year term (originally the period was three years). Successive presidents and secretaries have come from Argentina, Chile, Brazil and Mexico. Although annual meetings began in 1960, a new element was introduced in 1967 when these sessions were broadened, in alternate years, to serve as the framework for regional documentation congresses, four of which have now taken place: Mexico, 1967; Rio de Janeiro, 1969; Lima, 1971; and Bogotá, 1973. One of the largest Latin American conferences devoted to libraries and/or documentation took place in 1969, when almost 1,200 delegates and observers from thirteen Latin American countries, the United States, Canada, and Denmark assembled in Brazil; this was also the first congress for which FID/CLA published annals, as it has subsequently done for the 1971 and 1973 meetings.

Another important activity of FID/CLA is its Commission on the Universal Decimal Classification (FID/CLA/CDU), which has assumed responsibility for translating and issuing the classification schedules in Spanish and Portuguese; in this activity it cooperates with the main FID

Committee on Classification (FID/CCC) and also the national FID members in Spain and Portugal.

FID/CLA has met its objective of disseminating information not only by publishing the annals of the regional documentation congresses (in its series entitled "Special Publications"), but also by issuing, since 1964, a newsletter entitled *Informaciones/Informações FID/CLA* several times each year. Another series, "Folletos de Difusión," irregular in frequency, has reached eighteen numbers; the conclusions and recommendations of the FID/CLA regular meetings appear in this series.

THE CARIBBEAN

In examining the Caribbean area, it is clear that Alma Jordan's study forms the obvious starting point for any discussion of library cooperation.[2] Covering only the ten English-speaking territories which formed the short-lived West Indies federation (Jamaica, Trinidad and Tobago, Barbados, Grenada, St. Lucia, St. Vincent, Dominica, Antigua, Montserrat, and St. Kitts-Nevia-Anguilla) and emphasizing public libraries, the study provides a thorough review of the period up to the mid-1960s and an admirable backdrop for any consideration of library cooperation since then, not only for that area but also for the Caribbean in a wider geographic sense.[3]

Jordan devotes Part IV of her study to West Indian library cooperation; she examines the background and leading agents in cooperation, cooperative library organization, cooperative technical services, cooperation for library resources, cooperative readers' and bibliographic services, public and school library cooperation, university and special library cooperation, cooperative library staffing and training, and administrative and promotional aspects of library cooperation.

Probably the most important project on which she reports in terms of influence on the entire framework of interisland cooperation was the pioneering Eastern Caribbean Regional Library (ECRL), which came into being as a result of the Savage and Sydney reports (1934 and 1947)[4] and of financial assistance from the Carnegie Corporation and the British Council. Described by Jordan as "the first full flowering of the spirit of library cooperation,"[5] ECRL played an important role in the 1940s and 1950s through its work in reorganizing libraries, persuading governments to introduce legislation for free library service, providing technical services, and donating processed books to island libraries. In addition, following the recommendations in

Sydney's report, ECRL provided many bibliographical services: a union catalog, interlibrary loans, supplementing local resources by collecting books not ordinarily purchased by the smaller islands' libraries, and acting as a bibliographic information center. Its role, in Jordan's opinion, resembled "the American state library service center in its early stages. It was not, however, supported in the same way, since there has been no equivalent level of government, except the short-lived federal government of the West Indies which it preceded."[6] The West Indies federation, however, "went out of existence in 1962 without ever adopting it [ECRL] officially,"[7] and the outside funding ceased. The result was a breakdown in library cooperation, but Jordan nevertheless sums up its accomplishments in these words: "A whole new concept of library service was gradually brought forcibly home to governments and people alike, and a century-old regime was subtly replaced."[8]

Still another, quite different cooperative library came into being in the area—the Caribbean Regional Library. Originally started as the Library of the Caribbean Commission with headquarters at Port-of-Spain, it moved to Puerto Rico in 1961, when the Caribbean Organization succeeded the Caribbean Commission. When the organization ceased its operations in 1965, it was decided to keep the library intact for the benefit of all Caribbean countries, and it was turned over in trust to the government of Puerto Rico. The administration and care of the library were, in turn, given to the newly created Caribbean Economic Development Corporation (CODECA) with three main tasks: "to keep up and enlarge the collection, to give service to the Caribbean area, and to bring up-to-date the publication of the *Current Caribbean Bibliography.*"[9]

A third important instance of library cooperation is in the university library field, where the libraries of the University of the West Indies (UWI) reflect the cooperative nature of the institution itself, which receives support from various governments in the British Caribbean. The libraries are located on three UWI campuses: Mona (Jamaica), St. Augustine (Trinidad and Tobago), and Cave Hill (Barbados). Although the Mona campus has by far the largest collection (about 70 percent of the total holdings, which exceed 250,000 volumes), some division of collecting responsibility reflects the varying academic offerings on the three campuses. In addition, this library provides a noteworthy cooperative service, the "collection and cataloging, for itself, U.W.I. (St. Augustine), and the Library of Congress, of copies of current book, pamphlet, journal, report, and government publications

of the twelve island and two mainland territories of the English-speaking Caribbean."[10]

In the field of cooperative bibliography and indexing, a paper presented at the San Juan conference in 1969 traced the various projects, of which the most important is the *Current Caribbean Bibliography*. In her paper, Zimmerman found relatively few other projects that had progressed significantly. She listed desiderata as: (1) broadening coverage of the Caribbean area, (2) giving more attention to periodicals and newspapers, and (3) improving retrospective bibliography.[11]

We now turn to one of the most important developments in recent years. Jordan, writing of the conditions which she had reviewed, concluded that there would be no better means to promote library service than a formal library association serving the entire region. She observed that, while "the potential scope of the [proposed West Indies library] association activities is almost as wide as that covered [by associations] abroad . . .," a first undertaking might well be regional conferences. Jordan maintained that: "[these conferences] could be rotated in location, and followed up by regular local meetings, seminars, and workshops, all devoted to achieving definite goals mutually agreed upon. Where local associations already exist, their activities could fit into this over-all pattern in addition to pursuing specific local aims and meeting interest group needs."[12] Secondly, such an association might have "a publication program to promote greater communication between unit members. . . . A third responsibility to be assumed in the interest of library development concerns research on local library problems. . . . The association's distinctive contribution to library development may consist, however, of a concerted attack on problem facets of local library services such as support, staff, and committee administration. . . . Education for librarianship and related functions will demand close attention. . . . The channels of library promotion for extension and development open to a West Indian Library Association, especially through links with larger and more developed bodies abroad, are legion."[13]

Such an association did appear shortly after the period in which Jordan made her study. Although it embraces primarily university and research libraries, these terms have been interpreted broadly in order to bring together personnel from most of the region's important libraries. The Association of Caribbean University and Research Libraries (ACURIL—the "I" in the acronym being a survival of the phrase "Research Institute" in the first form of the name) came into

being in 1969 as an outgrowth of the cooperative movement among universities in the Caribbean, which had received formal structure as the Association of Caribbean Universities and Research Institutes (UNICA). It is clear that the Association of Research Libraries (ARL) also furnished useful precedents for structure and possible goals; the new group decided that, like ARL, membership would consist primarily of institutions from the Caribbean islands and from countries (or states of the United States) bordering on the Caribbean Sea or the Gulf of Mexico, although it also provides for personal members. ACURIL's constitution states its purposes as follows: "to facilitate the development and use of libraries and the identification of library collections in support of the whole range of intellectual and educational endeavour throughout the Caribbean area, to strengthen the profession of librarianship in the region, and to promote co-operative library activities in pursuit of these objectives."[14] As Jordan had anticipated, one of the association's chief activities has turned out to be its annual conferences (scheduled for the last quarter of the year), each of which centers around a theme and features sessions devoted to presentation and discussion of working papers related to the theme. Themes and locations of conferences to date are as follows: (1) San Juan, Puerto Rico, 1969, acquisition of library materials; (2) Bridgetown, Barbados, 1970, government documents; (3) Caracas, Venezuela, 1971, library resources for research in the Caribbean; (4) San Juan, Puerto Rico, 1972, personnel administration in libraries; (5) Miami, Florida, 1973, the role of the library in the development of a country; and (6) St. Thomas, Virgin Islands, 1974, centralization of technical services in academic and research libraries.[15] Papers from the first two conferences have been published,[16] and those of the third and fourth are in process; the association hopes to continue this practice. Another important step in furthering communication among ACURIL's membership was the establishment of a quarterly bulletin in 1973: *ACURIL Carta Informativa/Newsletter.*

ACURIL also moves toward its goals through ten working committees: (1) Committee on Acquisitions—Spanish-Speaking Area, (2) Committee on Acquisitions—English-Speaking Area, (3) Committee on Bibliography, (4) Committee on Indexing—Spanishing-Speaking Area, (5) Committee on Indexing—English-Speaking Area, (6) Committee on Microfilming, (7) Nominating Committee, (8) Committee on Personnel, (9) Committee on Publications and Promotion, and (10) Committee on Constitution and Bylaws; an ad hoc Committee on Resolutions functions for each

conference. The wide separation of constituent members has made it difficult to assure a viable committee structure which could allow for adequate working sessions between the annual conferences. The membership of the larger committees is now concentrated in one country, with either a few additional members or a smaller subcommittee in other countries; this appears to be a reasonably effective compromise.

Perhaps the best testimonial to ACURIL's effectiveness lies in a membership which has grown from 35 to nearly 100. Although the executive council determines acceptance of applicants, it has interpreted "research libraries" in a generous fashion, recognizing that public libraries on smaller islands and special libraries in government and industry should be encouraged and included in membership. The enthusiasm shown in the annual meetings and the genuine interest in exchanging ideas is truly impressive, especially considering the range in institutions—from large university libraries in Florida to public libraries on small Caribbean islands—and the language barrier (the association functions in both Spanish and English). The 1974 membership of ninety-one institutions showed a wide range of countries and territories which border on the Caribbean, but it is interesting to note that more than one-half of the members (forty-eight) are located in Puerto Rico and Venezuela; there are six from the United States, but no other country furnishes more than four; Cuba is conspicuous by its absence. To have achieved participation of institutions in twenty-five countries in a few short years is an accomplishment. (In addition, six associate and forty-four personal members make a grand total of 141 members).[17]

CENTRAL AMERICA

In Central America, just as in the Caribbean, the movement toward library cooperation received powerful stimulus from the general steps taken in the direction of regional integration on political and economic as well as educational and cultural levels. In the field of higher education, one important agency is the Central American Superior University Council (Consejo Superior Universitario Centroamericano, CSUCA), which aspires not only to improve each of the five national universities (in Costa Rica, Nicaragua, El Salvador, Honduras and Guatemala) composing its membership, but also to promote specialization through the development of regional schools and centers, and consequently to avoid duplication of effort. Recognizing

very early the importance of cooperation among the libraries of its members, CSUCA sponsored the first meeting of Central American university librarians in San José, Costa Rica, in March 1962; twenty-nine persons attended, including delegates from the five countries and experts and observers from outside the region. Authors of the working papers assembled concrete information on the staffs, finances, collections, technical services, and circulation at the libraries of the five institutions; one study dealt with the establishment of a regional library school. The meeting concluded, however, that cooperation among these libraries was nonexistent, and it proposed a program of action centering around the exchange of publications (especially those of the parent institutions), publication of a journal or newsletter by each library as a means of improving communication, preparation of a list of Central American reference books, and the interchange of staff.[18]

Three years later CSUCA, with the collaboration of the U.S. Agency for International Development's Regional Office for Central America and Panama (ROCAP), sponsored a further study of Central America's university libraries. Carried out by three American experts, the report divided its suggestions into two groups: (1) recommendations for the improvement of libraries in each university, and (2) recommendations for the improvement of libraries on a regional basis. The latter group consisted of twenty-nine proposals centering around five major areas: the administration of the program, training of personnel, resources and technical services, use of libraries, and buildings and equipment. A sixth group of four recommendations dealt with matters related to libraries—e.g., a regional library association, an advisory committee for CSUCA, textbooks, and university presses. In effect, these recommendations constituted a broad program for regional library cooperation.[19]

In the following year activity seemed to shift to the school library field. As background, one should remember that for some time, under the leadership of the Educational and Cultural Council of the Organization of Central American States (ODECA), a number of activities had taken place to integrate primary and secondary education in the five countries, including the development of common textbooks. It was therefore logical to see school libraries receiving attention; a UNESCO expert spent the last three months of 1966 studying the region's need for school libraries. He recommended starting a pilot project for library development in Honduras which would emphasize school libraries and the creation of a regional

training center which would offer intensive courses of four- to six-week duration for groups consisting of three or four teacher/librarians from each country. The latter program, he suggested, could begin in 1971, contingent upon acceptance of the first recommendation.[20] As a result of this survey, a ten-year School Library Pilot Project began in Honduras in 1967, jointly conducted by that country and UNESCO in two stages: an intensive stage (1968-72) under the direct guidance of UNESCO experts, and a second stage (1973-77). Based primarily upon the 1966 proposals, the goal of the first stage was the installation of a total of 396 school libraries of four different sizes by 1973; the first of these began operations in June 1969. The cooperation embraces not only UNESCO (which provides support in the form of specialists, equipment and books) and the government of Honduras, but also UNICEF, the Spanish Ministry of Education, and the Central Bank of Honduras. It is hoped not only that the program will develop libraries in Honduras but that, by serving as a pilot project for the region, the experience gained will assist the remaining countries in Central America.[21]

In 1968 UNESCO sponsored a meeting on school library development for the region; twenty participants assembled at Antigua, Guatemala, and examined the role of school libraries in education, planning library services, principles for organizing school library networks, staffing and training, finance, and the need for an educational documentation center. As a result of these deliberations, the participants made suggestions and recommendations for the development of school libraries in the region through joint efforts on the part of the governments, UNESCO, UNICEF, the Oficina de Educación Iberoamericana (Spain), and various organizations within the region; ODECA; the Central American Institute for Educational Administration and Supervision (ICASE); and the Institute for Educational Research and Improvement (IIME).[22]

Apparently little activity took place with regard to university libraries for several years, but in 1973 the Association of Private Universities of Central America and Panama (Federación de Universidades Privadas de América Central y Panamá, FUPAC) with the collaboration of the Oficina de Educación Iberoamericana (OEI) and the Universidad Católica Madre y Maestra, sponsored a meeting in Santo Domingo on the coordination of library and information services in these institutions. Since the six member universities (four in Central America, one in Panama, and one in Santo Domingo) were all established in the 1960s and have relatively small enrollments and

limited resources, they face similar problems in attempting to improve their library collections and services. Among the topics considered at this meeting were coordination of standards for cataloging, cooperative development of library resources, interlibrary loans, and the use of computers for information storage and retrieval. The meeting participants felt that all of these topics needed further study before concrete proposals could be made. In the area of library resources, it was suggested that, given the distances between the universities represented and slow communication, it would be wise for discussion of cooperative acquisitions to take place first at the national level, bringing in those universities not members of FUPAC (i.e., the national universities, already working together in CSUCA in the case of Central America) before attempting to coordinate collection development for the entire region.[23]

In 1974, additional discussion on the problems of Central American libraries took place at a workshop on the acquisition of foreign materials for Central American and Caribbean libraries. Sponsored by UNESCO, sessions were held in April at the University of Texas in Austin, immediately prior to the nineteenth meeting of the Seminar on Acquisition of Latin American Library Materials (SALALM). Twelve specialists on Latin American materials from the United States joined an equal number from Central America, the Caribbean, and Mexico in considering the topic. Since the majority of the non-U.S. participants came from Central American university libraries, considerable discussion centered around their problems in the selection, acquisition and organization of materials. Cooperative solutions, especially in the processing of materials, were stressed as the most efficient means of attacking many problems. It is expected that a final report on the workshop's deliberations will be published.[24]

THE ANDEAN COUNTRIES

Regional cooperation, in the sense generally used in this paper, has come to the Andean countries only recently. However, with the signing in 1970 of the Convenio Andrés Bello for educational, scientific, and cultural integration among these six nations (Bolivia, Chile, Colombia, Ecuador, Peru and Venezuela), such movements received a strong stimulus. Under the joint sponsorship of Spain's Oficina de Educación Iberoamericana, UNESCO, and the government of Venezuela, fifteen specialists, observers and advisors from these countries and elsewhere met in Caracas, Venezuela in November 1971 to consider improving

library service and scientific and technical information in the region.

From the countries' responses to a questionnaire, and from the discussions at the conference, the group drew a number of conclusions. It felt that library and information service had reached varying levels in the Andean countries and that, despite a number of basic shortcomings, the region provided notable examples of effectiveness in such areas as school libraries, educational documentation, public libraries, establishment of a structure for a national information system, and the compilation of a national bibliography. Nevertheless, slow progress in creating integrated library and information service in individual countries and in the region could be accelerated through the development and application of standards. As a cooperative project, each country might study the question of standards for one type of library or information service and present the results at a second regional conference. At this meeting it was judged that the countries' educational systems did not provide sufficient training for users in the handling of information sources. There was general agreement that the lack of a current regional bibliography was not only a serious obstacle to cultural understanding, but also was depriving libraries of an adequate selection source. Recognizing the difficulties which the countries would face in the initial phase of the development of library service and scientific and technical information, the meeting attendants believed that it would be helpful to request from the United National Development Program (UNDP) or the Organization of American States (OAS) a regional expert to provide assistance during this time.

After presenting its general conclusions, the group made six recommendations: (1) that the government of each country take the necessary political, administrative and financial measures to integrate library and information services into its plans for socio-economic development; (2) that such services be conceived as coordinated systems, compatible among the countries of the region so as to facilitate information transfer and regional international coordination with the UNISIST program of UNESCO; (3) that each system be planned within national and regional development plans, so that priorities can be determined and national and regional resources be utilized rationally in both individual countries and the larger area; (4) that governments determine the proper financial support for the planning recommended above; (5) that each government establish such an agency for this work as it considers appropriate; and (6) that a second meeting take place in Colombia late in 1972, devoted to studying the

structure and functions of national library services and scientific and technical information systems, to addressing the definition of goals, and to specific studying of the problems relating to statistics, training, and library legislation.[25]

This meeting took place in Colombia (Bogotá, Río Negro and Medellín) in November 1972, with forty participants. Ten working papers presented information on such topics as objectives and functions of national library and scientific/technical information services, statistics applied to the planning and development of such services, library legislation, training of librarians and specialists in scientific and technical information, standards for school library service, standards for public library service, and the format for mechanizing current bibliographies. After considering the papers and discussions heard at the meeting, the group formed committees to study most of these topics, with the final recommendations including plans for short- and medium-term programs of action. In relation to cooperation, of special interest is the recommendation that the OEI consult with the general secretariat of the Convenio Andrés Bello to arrange for a meeting at which OEI, UNESCO, and the Pan American Union could study the coordination of their efforts in the Andean countries.[26]

EDUCATION FOR LIBRARIANSHIP

The typical program of education for librarianship in Latin America has usually evolved by passing through six successive stages, from the short course given to meet immediate needs for improving the organization of libraries in the area to the full professional school whose students receive a university degree after three or four years of study.[27] In other words, each program has, until recently, functioned in relative isolation from similar national and foreign institutions. The library school seldom concerned itself with cooperating with other schools; for obvious reasons it showed more interest in working with libraries in the area which hired its graduates. One institution, however, did not follow this pattern: the Inter-American Library School (Escuela Interamericana de Bibliotecología, EIBM), at the University of Antioquia in Medellín, Colombia, was founded for the specific purpose of serving as a regional training center. It is probably the most conspicuous example of cooperation in the field of education for librarianship; in fact, the school owes its very existence to the cooperative efforts of the University of Antioquia, Colombia's Fondo

Universitario Nacional, and the Rockefeller Foundation. Certainly the inter-American nature of the school aroused the interest of the Rockefeller Foundation and was partially responsible for its continuous support (a total of $557,690) during the years 1956-70. Also, from the outset the school was assisted by the OAS in all matters relating to program and staff, and with the termination of the Rockefeller grants the school has received financial support as a multinational project of the OAS since 1971. The EIBM has drawn students from all over Latin America, especially for the more than twenty special courses or workshops which it has offered since 1960. These courses have had cooperative support from the students' own institutions and grants from their governments, the Pan American Union and the Pan American Health Organization. Similarly, it has drawn many of its faculty from outside Colombia. Although the largest number has come from the United States, other countries represented include Argentina, Brazil, Cuba, Panama, Peru and Uruguay.[28]

However, the most important venture of the EIBM which involved cooperation with other library educators was the special project in the 1960s on the present status and future needs of the library profession and of library science teaching in Latin America. One part of this project resulted from joint efforts on the part of an appropriate body in each Latin American country which gathered factual data (including information on the training available through library schools and other types of courses, resources and needs of the schools, working conditions, library legislation, and the overall need for librarians in the next ten years) and EIBM, which arranged for the analysis of these reports (published in 1965).[29] In addition, three study groups, each consisting of about seven persons active in library education in various countries, met in Medellín for two-week sessions in November 1963, August 1964, and November 1965. The first study group made suggestions regarding library schools and the minimum curriculum in terms of class hours and course content; the second and third study groups examined each of the proposed courses in detail, then prepared an outline and compiled a bibliography.[30] These evaluations represented not only an attempt to raise the level of courses but also to make available the consensus reached by leading library educators from several countries. The most important result of the project was, however, the first set of standards for Latin American library schools—a series of qualitative statements on administration, organization and financial support, curriculum, faculty, quarters and equipment, and professional library.[31] These standards have received

wide dissemination in the following years and have undoubtedly influenced later study and discussion in a number of countries. In Brazil and Argentina, for example, several schools reviewed their curricula, staffing patterns, facilities, and financial support in light of the so-called "Medellín standards," which have also proven helpful in the discussion of these matters with university administrators. The fact that library educators from several nations could arrive at a consensus on standards for evaluating their programs ranks as an important accomplishment in cooperation.

Ten years later an evaluation of the merit and impact of the work of the three study groups and of the Medellín standards was prepared for a meeting on the OAS's programs in library education. The author concluded that the studies and publications of the project, while not of equal value, were on the whole both necessary and useful at the time. With the passing of a decade, developments in technology and socio-economic and political changes which occurred in Latin America have inevitably influenced the objectives and goals of library and documentation service. Indeed, many changes in the profession would make it both easier and more promising to undertake a similar project now than in the 1960s. Of the ten recommendations made, the most important is probably the one which suggests that some agency, preferably an international organization, sponsor a study on the present state of education for librarianship in Latin America; this would include not only a revision of the suggested minimum curriculum but also the necessary updating of the bibliographies, the training of library science teachers, and the place of research in library education.[32]

We have seen that the association often functions as an important vehicle for cooperative activity in Latin America. The call for an association which would reflect the special concerns of library educators dates back to the first Assembly of Librarians of the Americas, held in Washington, D.C., in the spring of 1947, and found its voice in a resolution: "[Resolved] That a Latin American Association of Library Schools and Library Science Professors be established, for the purpose of promoting uniformity and cooperation in the training of librarians. [Resolved] That this association should also act to insure the realizing of proposals and recommendations of this Assembly relating to education for librarianship."[33] Thus, an association came into being as a permanent committee of the assembly, but it appears to have been inactive. The present association of library schools—Asociación Latinoamericana de Escuelas de Bibliotecología y

Ciencias de la Información (ALEBCI)—was not organized until 1970, during the 35th meeting of FID in Buenos Aires. The founders were able to draw upon the experience of the Brazilian Association of Library Schools (Associação Brasileira de Escolas de Biblioteconomia e Documentação, ABEBD), founded in 1967; an older model was obviously the Association of American Library Schools (AALS). Like the latter, ALEBCI consists primarily of institutional members, of which there are now approximately twenty. ALEBCI's statutes set forth its purpose—"to contribute, in an organized and progressive manner, to the improvement of education for librarianship and information science in Latin America"—and list nine specific ways for doing so.[34] The successive meetings of the association have taken place in connection with the FID/CLA sessions in Lima (1971), Mexico City (1972), and Bogotá (1973). At the last of these a specific program of goals was considered, including revision of the Medellín standards. ALEBCI's interest would seem to offer the possibility not only of collaboration, but also of wider participation in and support of the standards than was possible in the 1960s.[35] During the term of the first president (1971-73) the secretariat functioned at the Federal University of Minas Gerais, Belo Horizonte, Brazil, and for the period 1973-75 it is located at the Autonomous National University of Mexico in Mexico City. Since September 1972, ALEBCI has issued a quarterly newsletter, *Boletín Informativo*, with announcements and brief news items on programs of library education in Latin America; in 1974 the first supplement carried statistical information on enrollments and graduates of these programs.[36] It is clear that this young association has much potential, and the interesting possibility of a cooperative working relationship with AALS seems to hold promise.

THE LIBRARY DEVELOPMENT PROGRAM OF THE OAS

Even from the selective and limited overview presented above, it is apparent that many organizations are actively cooperating to further the development of library and information services in Latin America. In fact, information assembled ten years ago revealed that approximately eighty different agencies—international and national, official and nongovernmental—were operating programs beneficial to libraries in Latin America. This assistance was taking such forms as advisory services, compilation and publication of bibliographic works, donation of books and periodicals as well as of money for the purchase of library materials, translation of works into the languages

of Latin America, development of school and public libraries, training and exchange of librarians, production of tools for librarians, construction of library buildings, improvement of library organization and administration, and centralization and coordination of different types of services.[37]

Although no recent survey presents similar information for the mid-1970s, there is little doubt that the organization which is most active in cooperating with many agencies for library development is the Organization of American States, working through the Library Development Program of its general secretariat, the Pan American Union. Therefore, it seems appropriate to comment on these operations, even though the OAS has been previously mentioned in this article.

The creation and maintenance of the Columbus Memorial Library clearly demonstrates the interest of the inter-American system in matters relating to books, but the present Library Development Program of the Pan American Union apparently did not emerge as a distinct program until 1956, when a modest beginning took place with the creation of a two-member staff and the beginnings of a publication program. Of at least equal importance was the fact that the program began to assemble a great deal of information relating to the state of library and information services in Latin America, so that it has become one of the most important clearinghouses for such information—itself a very useful cooperative activity, since the program depends upon a multitude of organizations and individuals to supply data. Unfortunately the systematic dissemination of much of this information decreased with the demise of the newsletter, *Inter-American Library Relations,* formerly published quarterly.

At present, the Library Development Program has responsibility for the Inter-American Program for the Development of Libraries, Bibliography and Archives. The activities of this sub-program fall under three headings: "1) activities of benefit to libraries and archives in general in Latin America, in support of Latin American area studies programs in the United States, and Latin America; 2) activities related specifically to improving and extending school and university libraries; and 3) activities in support of scientific and technological research and information services required for technological transfer in Latin America."[38] The means for carrying out such programs are divided into those carried out at the General Secretariat and those conducted in the field. Almost invariably the latter group involves cooperation with other organizations, usually national institutions such as government

agencies and universities. A few examples of cooperation between the Library Development Program and other agencies are: its continuing work in the field of education for librarianship, carried out in cooperation with the Inter-American Library School; technical assistance to the government of Colombia for the development of a unified national plan for library and documentation services; technical assistance to study the library needs of Nicaragua following the devastating earthquake of December 1972; technical assistance provided to individual institutions (e.g., University of the West Indies, Universidad Nacional de Asunción, Universidade Federal de Santa Maria); sponsorship of the Inter-American Seminar on the Integration of Information Services in Archives, Libraries and Documentation Centers; and continuance of the program to produce necessary tools for library organization.

This article has reviewed some of the current trends in library cooperation in Latin America but, as stated at the outset, it has concentrated on developments which relate to significant portions of this area; even so, no pretense is made at having been complete in this coverage. Nevertheless, the evidence clearly suggests that cooperation is a growing movement within Latin America, and indeed that this movement is in a relatively early phase of development. As cooperation continues it is bound to move into a period of greater utilization of specific devices; it will then be important to remember that what will succeed in one part of Latin America may very well need to take a different form in another region. Adaptation is one of the keys to success in cooperative library endeavors throughout Latin America.

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Cooperation in Canada

ELIZABETH HOMER MORTON

VISITORS TO CANADA from the United States frequently say that Canada is "British" or "French," and British visitors dub Canada "American"; neither assessment is correct. Explaining Canada has taxed the ingenuity of Canadian newsmen, educators, historians, writers and politicians. Three quotations seem particularly relevant in providing a background in which to set this short discussion of some Canadian cooperative projects. In addition, a list of sources for further research is appended.

Hugh MacLennan, one of the best-known names in Canadian literature, declares of Canada: "I value this country precisely because it is too subtle an organism for anyone to make an 'image' of it—unless an artist of the Picasso school went to paint a perfectly coherent face turned inside out and outside in and looking in three directions at once."[1]

William Lewis Morton, author of many historical works, summarizes in *The Candian Identity*:

> Canada exists in America by the operation of geography, the needs of imperial strategy, the development of an historical tradition, and the conscious will of the Canadian people. It is not, more than other states, an historical accident or an artificial creation. It is an attempt to develop in a particular North American environment a civilization European in origin and American in evolution. Certain factors in its history and circumstances give a distinctive character to the development and existence of Canada. It is an attempt to maintain a modern nation-state, with an industrialized economy using a high technology, on a semi-continental scale, in a climate ranging from north temperate to arctic. It is an endeavour to allow two cultures to flourish in one political nationality. It is, finally, an effort to

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preserve a slowly evolved independence as the intimate neighbour of a great world power under the stress and novelty of the power politics of the nuclear age."[2]

Henry Marshall Tory, president of four Canadian universities, differentiates between the creeds of the English, the Americans and the Canadians: "The English creed: 'As it was in the beginning, is now, and ever shall be, world without end, Amen'; the American: 'As it was in the beginning, is now, and by gosh it's got to stop'; the Canadian: 'As it was in the beginning, is now, and ladies and gentlemen, if we are going to make any changes we will appoint a Royal Commission to tell us how it is to be done.' "[3]

Canada won its political independence without using revolutionary means and without losing its sense of respect and affectionate regard for its motherland, probably a legacy of its Loyalist influx from the United States, 50,000 of whom settled in Canada, and most of whom had approved of many of the aims of the American Revolution, but found themselves on the wrong side because they believed that with patience, reforms would come without civil war. Canada's pattern of confederation has been of particular interest to other Commonwealth countries. With the second largest area in the world, a small population (approximately 22 million), two official languages, forty publication languages and more than fifty spoken dialects, Canada has learned to solve its problems by various methods of consultation and cooperation, using the instrument noted by Tory—the Royal Commission.

Canadian library cooperation began as early as 1850, instituted by Egerton Ryerson, founder of the educational system of Upper Canada (now Ontario) and Joseph Howe, Nova Scotia's Provincial Secretary, who was responsible for education and famous for his championship of the freedom of the press. These men developed liaison between schools and communities to establish the school district libraries "so that if a county possessed five thousand volumes, each district in it could have access to the whole."[4] The scheme was moderately successful in Ontario, but less so in Nova Scotia. The Ontario scheme was phased out in 1880, and the Nova Scotia one became inactive even earlier, due in part to unsuitable book selection.

With the passage of the British North America Act, education became a provincial responsibility. The first free public libraries were established in 1883 in Ontario. Shortly thereafter, James Bain, Jr. was urging that, in the interest of Ontario and its capital (Toronto), a common, provincial, free reference library be maintained and accessible to every person in the province and that students in all parts

of the province share in the use of the books. He suggested that books from the Toronto Public Library, the Ontario Legislative Library and the Canadian Institute be combined in a nucleus collection. The results of this plea were negligible, as were the efforts in 1900 to form a Canadian library association. In 1901, however, the first provincial library association, the Ontario Library Association (OLA), was established. The OLA provided a platform for airing library problems, for discussion, and eventually for sponsoring some cooperative enterprises. Article 2 of the Constitution, adopted in 1901, stated the association's goal: "furthering of such cooperative work as shall improve results." E.A. Hardy advocated issuing special bibliographies, gathering and preserving local history, library depositories of newspapers, and library affiliation with county historical societies.

A noteworthy cooperative experiment took place in 1930 in British Columbia's Fraser Valley Union Library, where varieties of government units (cities, district municipalities, villages and school districts) united to provide library service. This experiment promoted the idea of the larger unit, now an accepted pattern in the Atlantic and Pacific provinces, the northern territories and parts of Quebec, and gaining acceptance throughout the Prairie provinces and Ontario.

Before World War II, Canadian library collections had developed slowly. In university, special, government and large public libraries, there was much dependence on interlibrary loans. Except for some serial collections there was no union catalog. The developing scientific library services—led by Tory, the first full-time president of the National Research Council (NRC) of Canada, and Margaret S. Gill, the council's librarian—were generous in loans not only to all types of libraries but also to private researchers. The newly established NRC library in turn depended heavily on loans from the university libraries, and particularly on the cooperation of G.R. Lomer, librarian of McGill University, W.S. Wallace, librarian of the University of Toronto, and libraries in the United States and overseas. A commission of enquiry, which issued a report in 1933, recommended the establishment of a national library association as a "rallying point for all Canadian library activity, a clearing-house for library information."[5]

With the outbreak of World War II, cooperation with overseas and U.S. libraries dwindled. Canadian action was called for. The Canadian Library Council Inc., was incorporated in 1943, "to promote library service and librarianship in Canada, to give consideration to all matters submitted by its members, and generally to provide counsel, guidance, and leadership in all matters pertaining to or affecting library

development throughout the Dominion." The council included in its membership the library associations of Alberta, British Columbia, Manitoba, the Maritimes, Ontario, Quebec, and Saskatchewan. A full-time office was opened in the NRC and on August 2, 1944, a brief was presented to the House of Commons Special Committee on Reconstruction and Re-establishment. The brief included a section on coordination and cooperation which stressed problems of interlibrary loans, photostats, microduplication and cooperative purchasing. An appendix by Elizabeth Dafoe discussed the need for a union catalog of holdings across the nation.

The Canadian Library Association (CLA) was created in 1946 at a conference of the Canadian Library Council; Freda Farrell Waldon, chief librarian of Hamilton Public Library, was named president. Waldon made the national library the association's priority and invited the learned societies of Canada to join the CLA in presenting a brief to the Prime Minister of Canada on December 18, 1946. This brief was discussed with the Secretary of State on January 25, 1947, by representatives of the Royal Society, the Social Science Research Council, the Canadian Historical Association, the Canadian Political Science Association and the CLA. The brief was very practical; discussion concentrated on the immediate services to be instituted, with estimated costs. Groups throughout Canada cooperated in sending resolutions and letters to the government, and in studying the services given by national libraries of bilingual countries with situations comparable to the one in Canada—e.g., Switzerland. In 1948 the government appointed W. Kaye Lamb, librarian of the University of British Columbia, to the post of Dominion Archivist, with the special assignment of establishing a National Library Advisory Committee. This committee included representatives from every province. Staff was recruited and on May 1, 1950, the Bibliographic Centre was established to begin work on a union catalog as the first step toward a national library. The libraries of Canada gladly cooperated.

Until 1950, Canada's national bibliography was compiled by Toronto's Public Reference Library, with cooperation from libraries across Canada. Under the direction of Jean Lunn, editor and head of technical services for the Bibliographic Centre, this function was transferred to the center and a section on government documents was included. The title chosen for the new national bibliography was *Canadiana.*

Prior to this development, the CLA, in cooperation with the libraries of Canada and with funds from the Rockefeller Foundation, engaged

in scholarly microfilming for research purposes of Canadian newspapers of historic interest. This microfilming has continued as a cooperative enterprise. The Rockefeller grant provided equipment, a film bank, and preliminary research. The undertaking has received occasional grants from the Canada Council and the Centenary Council to film specific groups of papers—e.g., those of New Brunswick and the eastern townships of Quebec, and papers giving accounts of the pre- and post-Confederation years. Otherwise, the enterprise has been conducted on a pay-as-you-go basis. The project has provided a new perspective on Canadian history and the attitudes of the people. Canadian libraries seldom had complete newspaper files; newspapers were short-lived and publishers often went out of business with their publications. A CLA committee was appointed to establish a cooperative effort to locate the newspapers. Assistance was sought from libraries, historians, and university departments of political science, economics, the social sciences, and history in the U.S. border states as well as Canada. The national collections in Washington, D.C., the United Kingdom and France were also contacted. Two considerations determined the choice of titles to be microfilmed: the subject matter contained in the paper, and the physical condition of the files. The earlier papers, chiefly of greater interest to reference and historical workers are often well preserved, having been printed on paper of high rag content. Newspapers of the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries are not in as great demand, but they are quickly disintegrating having been printed on paper manufactured from wood pulp. A durable record should be made to preserve them for future study. Eventually newspapers of both periods will be microfilmed. The titles listed in the first catalog were those for which the association could locate fairly complete files and which are not likely to be filmed commercially. The list selected by the association's microfilm committee, after discussion with newspaper authorities, included those journals which gave leadership in political thought, reflected the opinions of the various sections of the country, and recorded its settlement, commercial enterprises, railway development, etc. In order to make the films easy to use, each reel contains a prefatory title card giving the title of the newspaper, frequency of publication, years filmed, sources of the copy, reel number, and size of the original. Each year is preceded by a frame giving its year of issue. Notes are also inserted to indicate indexes, missing pages, repeated pages, pages with blurred printing, the end of the run, number of exposures and feet of film, inclusive dates of photographing and

names of the operators. French titles and signs have been used for all French language newspapers. A blank exposure has been left on the film where there is an issue missing so that if it is ever located it can be spliced in. Blank frames at regular intervals aid the reader in locating particular dates on the film. It was expected that this undertaking would inspire the provinces to begin microfilming their own papers; several provinces did so. However, there is still a need for CLA to continue filming. Recently, some early Canadian periodicals, scrapbooks and government documents have been included in the program.

In 1948 the CLA produced an enlarged monthly *Index to Canadian Periodicals and Documentary Films*, edited by Dorothy Chatwin, formerly with the University of British Columbia Library. This publication was a successor to one formerly compiled by the University of Toronto Library, and was financially assisted by the Carnegie Corporation for three years. The success of these cooperative undertakings may be ascribed to the enthusiasm of the members throughout Canada and the hard-working, dynamic leadership given by those responsible for the various projects.

In 1949, the government appointed a Royal Commission on National Development in the Arts, Letters and Sciences. The commission reported in 1951 on the eventual character and scope of the National Library, the activities, the manner in which they should be conducted, financed and controlled, and other relevant matters. Members of the commission traveled 10,000 miles, held 224 meetings (of which 114 were public sessions), and received 462 briefs in the presentation of which more than 1,200 witnesses appeared for examination. The commission was impressed by "the sturdy self-reliance of local communities." More than ninety organizations discussed in detail the need for a national library and called for better service and collections, cataloging, procurement and bibliographical services, periodical guides, national depository collections, microduplication of out-of-print Canadiana, maps, music (including unpublished items), recordings, films, etc.

The Royal Commission recommended that a National Library be established without delay. The National Library Act was passed by Parliament as an all-party measure in 1952 and became law on January 1, 1953. W. Kaye Lamb was appointed the first national librarian and Guy Sylvestre, formerly with the Library of Parliament, succeeded him in 1969. A National Library building was officially opened in June

1968 during the twenty-third annual conference of the Canadian Library Association.

The Association of Universities and Colleges of Canada sponsored a report by Robert Downs on the resources of seventy Canadian academic and research libraries. When the 1968 Montreal Libraries for Tomorrow Conference convened to discuss the report, the National Librarian agreed to the universities' request that a subject survey be made by the library's Office of Library Resources. The survey of the humanities and social sciences collections began immediately and was the first attempt to produce a subject quantitative analysis on a nationwide scale. The report of the survey is entitled *Research Collections in Canadian Libraries: I, Universities*, and is issued in both English and French. It has been followed by *Research Collections . . . II, Special Studies, Part 1, Theatre Resources in Canadian Collections*; and *Part 2, Federal Government Libraries Collections.* A nationwide study of collections in law libraries is in progress. These studies owe their existence to the cooperation of the libraries surveyed and the National Library Resources Survey Division (formerly the Office of Library Resources). The university survey is statistical, with the subjects arranged by the Library of Congress classification. The report provides evidence of the collection's strength or weakness for those dealing with the rationalization of graduate research.

The National Research Council, mentioned earlier for its leadership in the interlibrary lending of scientific and technological works, was declared the National Science Library in 1966; in 1974 it became the Canadian Institute for Scientific and Technical Information (CISTI).

The foregoing examples demonstrate the random cooperation up to the late 1960s. Several universities—e.g., Laval, Toronto, Saskatchewan, Simon Fraser and Guelph—had experimented with automation and were generous in sharing their experiences and results. With the 1970s came a trend toward systematized cooperation, mainly centered around the National Library and CISTI. The National Librarian, Guy Sylvestre, appointed specific task forces comprised of librarians and specialists from the Canadian library community to study and make recommendations on specific projects. Certain problems peculiar to Canada received attention and solutions were devised, such as the development of a list of subject headings in English and French on Canadian topics, classification schedules of Canadian history and literature, and the classification of Canadian law in Library of Congress class KE. Papers on these topics were presented

at a joint workshop of the Canadian and Ontario Associations of College and University Libraries on October 29, 1973.

The union catalog currently includes approximately 13 million cards, and the rate of reporting is 1.5 million cards annually, with about 320 libraries reporting. The methods of reporting acquisitions and withdrawals differ. For example, the province of Nova Scotia has a provincial union catalog of printed materials, films, records, microfilms, etc., held by the eleven regional libraries, the legislative and provincial libraries and the cooperating university, college, special and government libraries of the province. As acquisitions and withdrawals are reported to the province, this information is forwarded to Ottawa. In recent years there has been discussion of automating this catalog, but action has been delayed awaiting decisions regarding the automation of the National Union Catalogue. With on-line services from the National Union Catalogue to the Provincial Union Catalogue, a great deal of manual work may be avoided and service may be expedited for both catalogs. In provinces without provincial union catalogs other reporting methods are used. While the usefulness of the National Union Catalogue as an aid to library resource sharing can hardly be overrated, its enormous size and continued growth present a considerable maintenance problem. A critical look at the catalog was badly needed.

The Canadian Union Catalogue Task Group was appointed on October 14, 1972. It recommended—and agreement has followed—that the existing card catalog be closed and a new automated catalog system developed. In the first phase, only the National Library staff will be able to access the catalog on-line, but gradually other Canadian libraries will be directly connected by terminals. Eventually, offices and homes could be incorporated in the network, which would include books, periodicals, films, recordings, maps and other audiovisual materials. Its bibliographical records would be complete up to the minimum Canadian MARC reporting level, known as mini-MARC. The system would eventually provide for a national cataloging support program; it would also provide a back-up service for the SDI (Selective Dissemination of Information) program, and would be bilingual. There would be a number of regional bibliographic centers—for example, the Provincial Union Catalogue of Nova Scotia. It was suggested that the present National Union Catalogue be published and disseminated throughout the country and that entries for the future National Union Catalogue begin with the cutoff date of the old one. It was also suggested that this system be on-line for ease

and speed of maintenance, and accessible to other libraries on-line.

The task force had learned that scores of union list projects were in preparation across Canada, with some duplication. Coordination was recommended. A subgroup had already been established "to study the problems associated with the development of a Canadian national serials data base and to make recommendations to the Canadian Union Catalogue Task Group for its creation and use in connection with national and regional union lists"—all of which must be related to the International Serials Data System (ISDS) and to the CONSER (conversion of serials) project. As in the case of other studies undertaken under contract for the planning of the national bibliographic data base, the National Library involves other libraries as much as possible in its planning and development work. A contract with York University led to the establishment of an international project for the creation of a serials data base. The National Library, together with the Library of Congress and other large North American libraries, will be participating in the CONSER project which aims at creating a serials data base of 200,000 to 300,000 titles in two to three years. This data base will be made available to the project participants. The National Library will use the machine-readable records received from the CONSER project as the basis of a Canadian serials bibliographic data base. The data base will be used to produce national, regional or local union lists as required by Canadian libraries.

In January 1973 the National Library was designated the ISDS national center for Canada and was in operation by mid-1974. In 1972, the Canadian MARC Task Force submitted to Guy Sylvestre its recommendation for Canadian MARC formats for monographs and serials. The *Canadian MARC Communication Format: Monographs* was published in 1973, the *Canadian MARC Communication Format: Serials* in 1974. The format structure, the character sets, and the magnetic tape labeling specifications in the Canadian and LC MARC formats are compatible. The major difference between Canadian and LC MARC formats is the Canadian use of additional fields and subfields to provide bilingual record access points.

The Canadian MARC Tapes Pilot Distribution Project was devised in 1973 to assess the benefits of a regular distribution of Canadian MARC records to the Canadian library community. Participating Canadian libraries were limited to those subscribing to the LC MARC tape service and those with representation on the MARC Task Group; a total of seven universities, two government departments, one university library system and one college cooperative system

participated. The following statement was reported in December 1974:

> Since January 1974 the National Library has been distributing weekly Canadian MARC tapes to the participants in the Canadian MARC Tape Pilot Distribution Project. A report on this project, which ended in December 1974, will be available in 1975. A Canadian MARC Tape Distribution Service was established in 1975 to distribute Canadian MARC records on a weekly basis to subscribers. Further plans of the National Library include. . .the distribution of MARC records received from other national libraries. The purpose of this service is to make these foreign MARC records available to those Canadian libraries which want to use them in their cataloguing systems.
>
> The National Library is now planning the development and implementation of a national data base of machine-readable bibliographic records in the Canadian MARC Format which will integrate the Canadian Union Catalogue. As one of the first steps in the development of this data base, retrospective MARC data bases will be acquired for British Library and Library of Congress MARC records. Arrangements are being made to exchange current Canadian MARC tapes for current British Library and LC MARC tapes. MARC tapes of other countries will be exchanged when they become available. Canadian MARC records and records in mini-MARC format received from Canadian libraries for the Union Catalogue will be added to the data which will be searchable by ISBN, LC card and other national control numbers and author/title compression codes. Libraries will be able to obtain copies of current tapes or specific records from the National Library for use in their processing systems.
>
> Thus, bibliographic information issued by countries producing national MARC tapes will be available to Canadian libraries in machine-readable form through this MARC records distribution service. It is expected that subscribers will have two basic options. They (1) receive one tape each week containing the cumulations of all tapes received at the National Library during the previous week; or (2) select records from a complete file of MARC records in the Canadian national data base.
>
> The benefits of this MARC records distribution service are obvious. In the context of the Universal Bibliographic Control, the National Library will provide Canadian libraries with MARC records

supplied by various countries. MARC records submitted to the Canadian Union Catalogue by Canadian libraries could also be available for distribution. This service would greatly reduce the original cataloguing done by individual libraries, cut processing costs and avoid duplication of work.[6]

This MARC records distribution service is expected to be available soon. A survey of possible users will be undertaken in the near future to determine how the service should work and which are the most practical options to provide. Agreement has been reached regarding the exchange of Canadian and LC MARC tapes "to make the widest possible distribution and use of each other's tapes for the benefit of all libraries."[7]

While the National Library is responsible for the humanities and the social sciences, the pure and applied sciences are the responsibility of the National Science Library of Canada (NSL), which began as a small resource collection serving the scientific staff of the newly organized laboratories of the NRC. In 1953 it was agreed that the NRC Library would strengthen its resources in science and technology to keep pace with the council's growing requirements and to meet the needs of individuals and libraries outside of Ottawa.

The library in fact, if not in name, was already the National Science Library. This 1953 agreement was ratified by legislation in 1966 and further strengthened in 1970 by a Cabinet directive. Its present mandate is "to develop, under the general direction of the National Librarian, a national scientific and technical information (STI) system, or more correctly a national network of scientific and technical information services."[8] Jack E. Brown, director since 1957, notes that over the years, the NSL's resources have been continuously developed in close cooperation with all major libraries in Canada.[9] These resources and services are designed to complement and supplement local resources, and to provide essential back-up to the information services provided by the NSL's staff of information specialists. The linking of these national STI resources into a national library network was achieved by 1957, through publication of the *Union List of Scientific Serials in Canadian Libraries.* By 1974 the resources of 245 university, federal, provincial and industrial libraries had been linked and made nationally available through the *Union List*, issued both in printed and microfiche form, and with the NSL serving as its keystone. Canadian scientific and technical communities have ready access to the contents of some 46,000 different serial publications and journals which

account for at least 80 percent of the world's scientific and technical literature.

A second network within this developing national system was inaugurated in 1969 with the establishment of the Canadian Selective Dissemination of Information Program (CAN/SDI). This computer-based service continuously alerts subscribers to the existence of recently published papers covering their specific fields of interest. At present, the interest profiles of 2,010 subscribers are searched against fourteen data bases to serve approximately 6,000 end-users seeking information in the various fields of science, engineering and medicine. This system is unique for several reasons: it is national in scope; the technique enables users to access any of fourteen source tapes with one interest profile, to switch from one tape to another and to tap the information content of several tapes without major changes in search terms or search logic; and the service is a decentralized one wherein some 500 search editors, trained by the NSL and located in all parts of Canada, serve as an interface between the CAN/SDI services and the ultimate users. The NSL ensures that all papers cited on the tapes are available either at the NSL or other, readily accessible centers in Canada and provides photocopies of cited papers which cannot be obtained from local sources.

During 1974, the CAN/SDI program was augmented by the Canadian On-Line Enquiry system (CAN/OLE). This third network, a system for on-line retrospective searching of large bibliographic files, presently operates through fifteen terminals throughout Canada. Users remote from Ottawa are thus able to search the world's scientific and technical literature and quickly determine what has been published during the past four to five years in all the major fields of science and technology. The program differs from similar systems in other countries particularly because it is national in scope and can be accessed in both French and English.

The National Science Library also serves the Health Sciences Resource Centre of Canada, and in collaboration with the U.S. National Library of Medicine provides medical communities through ten MEDLINE centers direct access to the contents of 2,400 medical journals. It maintains a center for translating foreign language scientific papers into English or French. Its pollution data base covers world literature published since September 1968. The reference and research staff, using both computerized and manual methods, carries out literature searches and compiles bibliographies. The NSL serves as a national lending library and provides loans and photocopies of

material not available in other parts of Canada. These requests are currently processed at the rate of approximately 600 each working day. The library publishes a wide variety of reference tools designed to facilitate the use of Canadian scientific and technical literature; for example, it offers a *Directory of Canadian Scientific and Technical Periodicals,* a directory of *Scientific and Technical Societies of Canada*, and a periodic *Bibliography of Scientific Policy, Research and Development in Canada.* Finally, the NSL serves as the national referral center or last resort when seekers of scientific and technical information do not know whom to contact, or when local resources are inadequate.

New quarters for the NSL were officially opened in October 1974; they were designed to utilize the latest mechanized techniques to facilitate the storage, retrieval and dissemination of information—essentially making it unnecessary for seekers of information to leave their home base. The library's four stories of stacks have a capacity of 2 million volumes. During the construction of the new building, steps were taken by the NRC to develop an organization which would more clearly indicate its responsibility for the development of a national network of STI services. A division for Scientific and Technical Information Service was established, and the building was named the Canada Institute for Scientific and Technical Information. The complex of services and activities performed by the National Science Library will be continued. Other services to be continued through CISTI are the alerting, searching and delivery systems for pre-evaluated published information provided through the technical information service; this information is directed primarily to small and medium-size industry. Through the union of these two services, the NRC is even better equipped to be a leader in developing new methods for the dissemination of information and to fulfill its mission as planner, promoter, and major participant in the evolving Canadian network of scientific and technical services.

The activities and services provided by CISTI are based on coordinated cooperation and are: reference and research—unified literature searching service; photocopying and interlibrary loan service; CAN/SDI—Canadian selective dissemination of information; CAN/OLE—Canadian on-line enquiry; MEDLARS/MEDLINE service; health sciences resource center; union list of scientific serials in Canadian libraries; information exchange center for federally funded research in universities; pollution information project; translations services and translation index; depository of unpublished data; UNESCO/UNISIST—cooperative services; U.N. international

referral service for sources of environmental information; publications to facilitate the use of Canadian resources in the fields of science and technology; information services for small and medium-sized industry—delivery of pre-evaluated published information, field offices in each province, CAN/TAP (Canadian technological awareness program), CAN/SRP (Canadian subject retrieval program); and library resources to complement and supplement related resources in Canada and to support CISTI services and NRC activities.

Looking ahead, Brown observes that: "In the future, as now, CISTI will place increasing emphasis on innovation and in carrying out research leading to the development of new techniques to facilitate the dissemination and transfer of information in Canada. It is hoped that CISTI will be relieved of many of the problems relating to strictly 'Library' operations by being able to depend on bibliographical standards, cooperative cataloguing, cooperative acquisitions and similar activities now being developed by the National Library."[10]

A selective group of cooperative undertakings within the provinces as well as nationwide are detailed in *Canadian Library Systems and Networks; Their Planning and Development*, which includes papers on the Atlantic provinces, Quebec, Ontario, the Prairies, and British Columbia. These papers were prepared for a CLA symposium on library systems and networks in Winnipeg, June 25, 1974. In the symposium summary, Basil Stuart-Stubbs points out that Canada does not yet have a national network but is capable of developing one because of manageable geography, the small population and the friendly communications between members of the Canadian library community. In his opinion, the needs of a national network are five-fold: community cooperation, an accepted plan, agreement on standards, money and legislation. Meanwhile, Canada moves toward a national scheme and membership in international ones by solving regional and interregional programs with imagination and expertise.

Interlibrary loan and location requests are handled by TELEX, TWST, telephone and mail. Mail deliveries are uncertain, so the university libraries of Ontario and Quebec have organized motorized delivery systems, with the National Library serving as the transfer point from one system to the other. Thus, the delivery of borrowed items and/or duplicated materials is hastened. A provincial academic library to support the studies of all Ontario universities engaged in graduate research has been established in Toronto—the John Robarts Library, directed by Robert Blackburn. The nucleus collection is that

of the University of Toronto. Study rooms, carrels and automated services are available for out-of-town faculty and students.

In British Columbia a new academic organization—TRIUL (Tri-University Libraries)—appeared in 1970. It is a coordinating agency for a variety of matters of mutual interest and concern to Simon Fraser University, the University of British Columbia, and the University of Victoria. Although TRIUL in its present form has no legal identity, is not officially recognized by its parent institutions and thus cannot be publicly funded for research capability or other functions, the interest and enthusiasm engendered among the professional staff of the three institutions is such that this voluntary enterprise has accomplished perhaps more in its three and one-half years than it might have done in a longer period as an official institution. Structurally, TRIUL works on a system of standing committees and subcommittees which in turn create ad hoc committees and task forces.

The three university librarians and the members of the four main committees of TRIUL meet twice each year for two-day sessions in which the working units report on their assignments from the previous session and the entire group discusses a wide range of topics of interest primarily to academic libraries, but often expanding to involve library services in general as they affect one another. It has become a general rule to invite to these sessions representatives of the Vancouver and Victoria Municipal Libraries, the Library Development Commission, the Academic Board of British Columbia, and the libraries of the community colleges. TRIUL is an original grouping of interests of three fast-growing academic libraries that has evolved into a structure with its own life and purpose.

The 300 special libraries in Canada have not been mentioned specifically here other than in a reference to the law and theater libraries. All are active in interlibrary lending and in particular in undertakings relating to fields of information of interest to their firms, faculties, and/or associations. They have cooperated in the compilation of directories of special libraries and of special library collections. In addition, the map librarians are sponsoring several cooperative projects.

The area of library cooperation in Canada is so active that only the highlights could be mentioned in this article. In the deliberate fashion which marks the Canadian character, the nation has moved—through voluntary cooperation, the recommendations of a Royal Commission,

and dynamic leadership—into an era marked by coordinated cooperation. The future looks hopeful; the difficulties ahead do not appear insurmountable, particularly if necessary changes can be made in the federal-provincial agreements governing education. In the meantime cooperative enterprise flourishes.

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Cooperation in England

JEAN M. PLAISTER

THE MOST important event in library cooperation in England has undoubtedly been the formation of the British Library. It has brought together the former British Museum Library, the National Reference Library for Science and Invention, the National Central Library (NCL), the National Lending Library for Science and Technology (NLLST), and the British National Bibliography. These institutions are now in one organization under the British Library Board, with the resources to create a national library service probably without rival in the world.[1]

The British Library operates in three divisions. The reference division constitutes the largest and most important book and manuscript collection in Great Britain. Its functions are to collect not only all British books, but as much as possible of important foreign material in all subject fields; to make this material available to users who wish to consult it; and to extend facilities to others by means of catalog services, photocopies and information services.

The lending division has developed an interlibrary lending service—based on the former National Central Library and the National Lending Library for Science and Technology at Boston Spa, Yorkshire—whose function is to support the library system of the country by providing a loan and photocopy service to other libraries. It achieves this mainly by its extensive acquisition program which includes all significant periodicals regardless of language, all important worthwhile English-language monographs, and all available report literature. It supplements its own stock with a union catalog of other libraries' holdings and by cooperation with regional interlending organizations in the United Kingdom. During 1973-74, 1,832,000 requests were received by the British Library Lending Division (BLLD) as compared with 1,757,000 by the NCL and NLLST in the previous

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year. In addition to demand from libraries in the United Kingdom, it received 160,000 requests from overseas.

A significant recent development has been the involvement in interlibrary lending of libraries which had not previously cooperated to any great extent. The most important of these are the libraries enjoying legal deposit under the Copyright Act (excluding the British Library Reference Division) and libraries with significant special collections such as the library of the Royal Society of Medicine and the British Museum (Natural History) Library.

The United Kingdom center for MEDLARS (Medical Literature Analysis and Retrieval System) is housed in the BLLD at Boston Spa, is responsible for British input to the data base in Washington, D.C., and organizes searches within the United Kingdom.

At the International Federation of Library Associations (IFLA) Conference in Washington, D.C., in November 1974, the Committee of International Lending and Union Catalogues recommended the establishment at Boston Spa of an Office for International Lending; this recommendation now goes to the executive board of IFLA.[2]

The bibliographic services division of the British Library (BLBSD), which has as its nucleus the former British National Bibliography (previously run as a commercial company), has as its functions the production of the British National Bibliography, the processing of acquisitions of the British Library, and the development in the United Kingdom of a computer-based system for the storing and handling of bibliographic information for use by libraries. The computer-based service, known as the British Library MARC Service,[3] is being offered to libraries and consists of: (1) the retrospective UK MARC file, 1950-74; (2) the current UK MARC file, 1975- ; (3) the retrospective Library of Congress MARC files, 1968-74; and (4) the current Library of Congress MARC files, 1975- . The services being offered are: (1) a comprehensive tape file service, in which libraries will receive one or more of the above files (or subset files), either direct from BLBSD or through an intermediate processing agency; (2) a selective record service, in which BLBSD will carry out a search of the MARC files for specific bibliographic records requested by a library; and (3) a full catalog service, based on the selective record service, in which BLBSD will undertake to produce updated computer-based catalogs for individual libraries. Such catalogs would be derived primarily from the MARC files but would also include local data and local variations and would not necessarily contain all the data held on the full MARC record.

The U.K. National Serials Data Centre has also been established within the BLBSD and is responsible for registering and numbering serials published in the United Kingdom and for fulfilling requests for the International Standard Serial Number for any serial.

In April 1974, most of the functions of the Office of Scientific and Technical Information (OSTI) were transferred from the Department of Education and Science to the British Library to form the nucleus of the Research and Development Department. The department promotes and supports research and development related to library and information operations in all subject fields. Many of the developments taking place independently in library cooperation owe their original impetus to grants from OSTI.

One of the most interesting of these is the Birmingham Libraries' Cooperative Mechanisation Project (BLCMP).[4] Established in 1969, its aim has been to design and develop a system to utilize centrally produced machine-readable bibliographic records in MARC format in local libraries, and to assess the practicability of a regional data bank, accessible to a number of libraries, using these records as well as locally produced records. A union catalog data base of the original three participants—the Universities of Aston and Birmingham and the Birmingham Public Libraries—was established in 1972. This data base efficiently provides the following products and services to these libraries: catalog cards for author, classified and title catalogs for Aston University; a hard copy book-form author catalog for Birmingham Reference Library, and author catalog for the lending library; and COM (computer output microfilm) author catalog for the union catalog and Birmingham University. Hard copy and COM subject catalogs are produced for Birmingham University and Birmingham Public Libraries. BLCMP has also created a serials data base of some 20,000 titles. The libraries of the Birmingham Polytechnic, Aalborg University (Denmark), and the University of Bradford are now members of BLCMP, and use of the union catalog data base is being extended to other libraries in the West Midlands area.[5] An automated cooperative order system is being designed by the BLCMP staff and will be tested at Birmingham Polytechnic.[6]

Of importance to the lending of books among libraries has been the creation of a National ISBN Interlending System.[7] It is an extension of the International Standard Book Number system, designed by the London and South Eastern Library Region (LASER) with the aid of the British Library, to all U.K. Regional Interlending Systems, and marks a significant new phase in the interlending system of the country. The

participating libraries list ISBNs of English-language books added to stock of the regional headquarters every two months according to a prearranged timetable. The library location numbers and ISBNs are punched onto 80-column data cards, and are read into an IBM 360 computer every eight weeks. Records failing validation generate error reports and are rejected, while all valid numbers are sorted into ISBN order and the master file is then updated. Output is on COM and copies are sold to libraries which use it for the purposes of direct interlending, thus speeding up the interloan of books and reducing the pressure on regional headquarters.

As a result of its success with the ISBN system, LASER was asked by its member libraries to convert its conventional author union catalog, containing some 1.25 million entries, to machine-readable form to be used as a data base for the creation of local catalogs. A feasibility study was undertaken in 1972 with the aid of an OSTI grant,[8] and the full-scale restrospective conversion was begun in June 1973 and should be completed by April 1976. As part of this project, LASER, with the financial assistance of the British Library (formerly the British National Bibliography, BNB), converted the BNB entries for 1950-68 to MARC compatible form, and this material is now available from the British Library. In addition to providing a service for its own libraries, the LASER data base will be used as the base for retrospective conversions by libraries outside the area.[9]

LASER is presently engaged in a research project on Cooperation in Library Automation (COLA), supported by a grant from the British Library's Research and Development Department. It is the first stage of an extended project with the objective of providing answers to the following questions: To what extent is collaboration between libraries in the use of computing systems both feasible and economical? Is it practical to envisage computing systems devoted primarily to library use rather than the current situation, where libraries are peripheral users of equipment acquired for other purposes? How should the position of libraries in relation to the British Library develop insofar as the dissemination of bibliographic data is concerned, and what role might LASER and other library centers play in the development of library computing services? This stage of the project is limited to searching literature, technical evaluation of published material, visits to centers experienced in this area, and proposals for the extension of the project into the design (or identification if pre-existing) of model systems for collaborative automation and their practical evaluation.

From the study it appears that collaborative systems for library

automation, and cooperation at all levels of development and use of computing systems in libraries, are practical and economical.

The high cost of library automation systems indicates that any library considering automation must seriously consider the re-use of existing software. The role and function of central bibliographic and cataloging agencies (BLBSD, BLCMP, and Cooperative College Library Center) are well established, and their automation systems are comprehensive. There is no need to develop more than marginal extensions to existing bibliographic center software.

There is considerable potential for the use of both isolated and network-based minicomputer systems in libraries. An interesting development in academic library cooperation is the South West Academic Libraries Cooperative Automation Project (SWALCAP).[10] Since 1969 a research team at Bristol University Library, in collaboration with Exeter University and University College, Cardiff, has been working on the establishment of a central library computer system of three cooperating libraries linked on-line to a central unit. The first part of the project will develop circulation systems in the three libraries; the later stages will be concerned with cataloging and acquisition systems. The configuration will use a Rank Xerox 530 computer with Computer Automation Alpha LSI-2/20 terminal minicomputers, visual-display units and Automated Library Systems book-charging terminals.

A joint study (Project LOC) to provide access to the early books in the colleges of Oxford and Cambridge was set up in 1968 with a grant of $55,000 from the Old Dominion Foundation. A recent report shows that the catalog entries for pre-1801 holdings in the British Museum would number 570,000, in the Bodleian library 210,000, and in Cambridge University 145,000, while those in the college and other libraries in Cambridge would number 240,000 and in Oxford 490,000.[11] The project team has investigated the problems involved and techniques required to compile a machine-readable union catalog and to record and match books; they settled for a transcript using only title page and colophon, plus a "fingerprint" consisting of the last two characters on three specified lines close to the bottom of each of three specified pages of each book. The likely cost of the total project would be £750,000 to £1 million over a period of eight years, excluding printing and publication costs.

To return to the twentieth century, librarians are increasingly aware of the need to provide nonbook materials for their users. Many forms of information on records and cassettes can be borrowed from public

libraries, including poetry, drama, music, languages, sound effects, etc. To achieve full coverage of items issued in Britain and to make them available for lending, the thirty-three London public libraries have recently established the Greater London Audio Subject Specialisation Scheme (GLASS). This scheme of cooperative purchase and storage highlights the need for adequate bibliographic records of this material.

The problems of improving information and cataloging services for nonbook materials in the United Kingdom have been under discussion since 1970, when work was begun by the Council for Educational Technology (CET) in cooperation with the National Libraries Automatic Data Processing Study.[12]

The British Library and CET have established a joint study of improved bibliographic service for audiovisual materials; the report of the study is to be presented to the British Library Board and the CET Executive Committee.[13] The study will cover the needs of audiovisual cataloging agencies, patterns of existing bibliographic provision, the technical feasibility of creating a cooperative system built around computer-based facilities, and the operational and management options and costs for such a system.

In the field of indexing and the retrieval of information, one of the most interesting recent developments has been PRECIS. The standard manual of PRECIS was published in 1974[14] and was developed by the BNB with support from OSTI. It is a chain classification system for subject indexing using natural language, with provision for auxiliary annotations. PRECIS is used by the British and Australian national bibliographies and by various other indexing agencies in the United Kingdom and abroad.

In this article, it has been possible to give only an outline of the recent trends in library cooperation. Other developments, notably regional and national transport networks between libraries, are being investigated; for example, a limited regional transport system was set up in the Yorkshire region in April 1974.

It is evident that as economic conditions worsen and the effects of inflation become more apparent, the sharing of library resources by cooperation and collaboration becomes more attractive.

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Complete List of Library Trends Issues in Print

				Title	*Editor*	*Date*
V	1,	N.	1	Current Trends in College and University Libraries	R. B. Downs	July 1952
	1		2	Current Trends in Special Libraries	H. H. Henkle	Oct. 1952
	1		3	Current Trends in School Libraries	Alice Loher	Jan. 1953
	1		4	Current Trends in Public Libraries	Herbert Goldhor	April 1953
V.	2,	N.	1	Current Trends in Libraries of the U.S. Government	Verner W. Clapp Scott Adams	July 1953
	2		2	Current Trends in Cataloging and Classification	Maurice F. Tauber	Oct. 1953
	2		3	Scientific Management in Libraries	Ralph R. Shaw	Jan. 1954
	2		4	Availability of Library Research Materials	Dorothy M. Crosland William P. Kellam	April 1954
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	3		2	Services to Readers	Leslie W. Dunlap	Oct. 1954
	3		3	Library Associations in the United States and the British Commonwealth	David H. Clift	Jan. 1955
	3		4	Current Acquisitions Trends in American Libraries	Robert Vosper	April 1955
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	4		4	State and Provincial Libraries in the United States and Canada	Paxton P. Price	April 1956
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	6		2	Research in Librarianship	A.A.L.S. Committee on Research	Oct. 1957
	6		3	Building Library Resources Through Cooperation	Ralph T. Esterquest	Jan. 1958
	6		4	Legal Aspects of Library Administration	John B. Kaiser	April 1958
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	7		2	Aspects of Library Public Relations	Len Arnold	Oct. 1958
	7		3	*Current Trends in Library Administration*	Ernest J. Reece	Jan. 1959
	7		4	Current Trends in Bibliography	Roy B. Stokes	April 1959
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	9		3	Current Trends in Bookmobiles	Harold Goldstein	Jan. 1961
	9		4	Current Trends in Antiquarian Books	Hellmut Lehmann-Haupt	April 1961
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	10		2	Future of Library Service: Demographic Aspects and Implications, Part II	Frank L. Schick	Oct. 1961
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	16	3	Abstracting Services	Foster E. Mohrhardt	Jan. 1968
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V.	24	N. 1	Federal Aid to Libraries:	Genevieve M. Casey	July 1975
	24	2	Library Cooperation	Pearce S. Grove	Oct. 1975

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Forthcoming numbers are as follows:

January, 1976, *Community Analysis and Libraries.* Editor: Larry Earl Bone, Director, Burrow Library, and Associate Professor of Bibliography, Southwestern at Memphis, Memphis, Tennessee.

April, 1976, *Commercial Library Supply Houses.* Editor: Harold L. Roth, Director, County of Nassau Reference Library, Garden City, New York.

July, 1976, *American Library History, 1876-1976.* Editor: Howard W. Winger, Dean, Graduate Library School, University of Chicago, Chicago, Illinois.

October, 1976, *Collective Bargaining in Libraries.* Editor: Margaret Chaplan, Librarian, Institute of Labor and Industrial Relations, University of Illinois, Urbana-Champaign, Illinois.