

The Printed Book: Still in Need of CCD

by

Anna H. Perrault
Associate Professor.

School of Library and Information Science, University of South Florida

Abstract

The present state of the printed book in the “national collection” or commons of resources owned by U.S. academic libraries is reviewed. The status of collecting of foreign language monographs is emphasized. The future of collecting printed materials is considered in the context of an international information commons and cooperation beyond the North American academic library community.

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Librarians in the U.S. have spent most of the 20th century developing cooperation for resource sharing. This has been accomplished mainly through networks and consortia providing both the apparatus and culture for resource sharing. Although we have probably not yet reached the limits of “interlibrary” cooperation, in the 21st century we will need to focus on and develop types of cooperation other than among ourselves. The technological advances of the last half of the 20th century have enabled and set the stage for new forms of cooperation. The Internet has created an international free exchange of ideas. This changed and charged atmosphere of an information commons has eased the way for international cooperation. How can we as collection development specialists and research library administrators take advantage of this new culture of an international information commons?

This paper will first briefly review the present situation of the virtual book.

Then I will present some research findings on the monographic collections of academic libraries—the state of the book as a printed resource in the “national collection” or the “commons” of resources available to us. After which there will be some conclusions, interpretations and suggestions for CCD

We have just about gotten to the point at which, solving copyright problems, resources sharing of journal articles is, and will largely be, through electronic transfer. The access vs. ownership paradigm is working for journals. Sure, there are licensing and copyright problems, but for reader acceptance, electronic access to articles and reports is proving to be preferable to printed volumes. This is in a research context. The popular magazine and newspaper in electronic format have not reached that kind of user acceptance level. That level of acceptance has also not been reached for longer texts or the “virtual book.”

For the immediate foreseeable future the uses of the virtual book would seem to be:

- Research reports
In several varieties, research reports are finding wide acceptance. Theses, dissertations, pre-prints and other unpublished research reports, because of the low demand for these individual documents, can be stored on CD or sent via FTP. They can be promulgated by the author(s) and mounted on web servers. Inevitably, to be read or receive much use they are downloaded and printed out. But they are quasi, not really virtual books.
- Scholarly texts
While there has been acceptance of electronic text projects, especially in the humanities, these have thus far been very expensive projects and there is not much indication that the numbers of electronic scholarly texts will totally replace printed texts in the near future. These electronic texts are providing access points for analysis that are not afforded by printed texts. But they seem to be functioning as supplementary to print and the expense of mounting and maintaining the sites works against their proliferation. One

characteristic is that many of them are international efforts.

Textbooks

With distance education becoming a growing mode for delivery of education, the webpage is becoming more important than the textbook. While most faculty right now regard the materials placed on a course website as supplementary to the textbook, I think the printed textbook will gradually be replaced by electronic modules which make interactive learning possible. An alternative to the web-based delivery of instructional materials is an electronic book, in CD-ROM, DVD, or e-book format. This form of virtual book will initially find the widest acceptance, but in academe, rather than with the general public.

While much hard information and data, e.g. U.S. government websites of the Department of Commerce, U.S. Geological Survey, databases like LEXIS-NEXIS, are now available through the web, these are still documents to be downloaded and used in a reference nature—not necessarily in their entirety. They are not texts which we would classify as a “virtual book.” For the kind of reading and flipping around which occurs with longer texts, print or printout seems to be the preferred format.

The Internet, is used and accepted by the general public only for brief information pieces. Interest erodes when a document is “pages” long and can’t be printed or downloaded and printed out in easy format. The desired length of the document seems to correlate with the short attention span of many internet users.

While the internet has certainly gained widespread acceptance among the general public and acceptance, if not credibility, among information professionals as a source of information, publishers, by and large, do not see the internet or “virtual book” as replacing their printed book products. As Jane Carr of the British Library said at IFLA in 1998 in Amsterdam, “For general publishers, the internet is not a publishing medium. For the more adventurous of them, it is an increasingly effective promotional medium...”¹

There are many ways in which we make use of the format of the printed book, most of which we do not consider amenable to the virtual formats now current. Research in book form is not just text on page. It is illustrated with photographs, reproductions of art works, graphics and diagrams. Not to say that these cannot also be included in electronic versions. I do think the web page format is having great influence upon the formatting of printed works. But the book as reading, visual package, we all know, is not regarded as the same thing in electronic form. Yes, we can incorporate hot links, which is one reason I think its acceptance in education is rapid, but we still can’t carry it around, mark on it, or put a bookmark in it. If the printed book disappears, it will not be replaced by the virtual book in exactly the same way—that is, the content can be made virtual, but the format can never be made virtual. In short,

The problem with virtual books is that they are not printed; and the problem with printed books is that they are not virtual.

In the new British Library at St. Pancras as part of an interactive exhibition on communication there is a computer which asks visitors their opinion on the future of the book. The results thus far are that the majority think the printed book will be around for another 50 years.² This means that most people now living do not see the printed book disappearing in their lifetime. So in a few short years, the printed work, which was formerly regarded as going the way of the dodo bird and fast falling out of favor, has made a remarkable recovery.

If the printed work will still be a staple of library collections, what will be the goals of CCD in collecting printed works? What do we hope to accomplish in a collective sense? Is it to insure that at least one copy of all publications can be found in a library somewhere? Is it to insure that all materials deemed of research value are collected by at least one academic library? Somewhere? What would be the collecting goals of an international information commons? Before we attempt to answer these questions, it might be useful to have some knowledge of the present state of collecting print monographs in U.S. academic libraries.

Academic Library Monograph Collections

With this assessment of the current situation of the virtual book, that is, that print is going to be primary format of longer monographic works for many years to come, I would like to present some research findings with regard to the present state of academic library monograph collections. Over the past 15 years, I have studied monograph collections in academic libraries. The studies have been on numbers of titles and have de-emphasized the volume count mentality. These studies have tracked the changing nature of academic library collections by subject and language. One study examined collections by median age.³

Both research and library statistical series have established that the latter 1980's was a period of low collecting intensity for monographs in U.S. academic libraries, especially in foreign languages.⁴ There are few comparative data to compare the 1980s with earlier time frames, but from the vantage point of the 1990s, the 1980s still appear to have been a low point for academic library monograph collections. There has been a gain in the number of titles added and in the number of unique titles in the 1990s. In the 1990s there is not much in the way of shifts between broad areas of knowledge, but the shifts had already taken place in the 1980s.

A few findings from recent data are presented here as a background for discussion of CCD. The data extracted are from the OCLC/AMIGOS Collection Analysis CD, 1997 edition. These are aggregated data which give us an idea of what the “national collection” is like. That is, the resources in a distributed collection of U.S. academic libraries which are ostensibly available to everyone through resources sharing. From these data, I have tracked collecting patterns in academic libraries for the period 1987-1995. The data are displayed for three peer groupings of academic libraries. The most interesting of these findings for our purposes are the data on unique titles by subject and language and proportions of collections by language.

Table 1: Unique Titles by Year for All Peer Groups – All Languages

	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	TOTAL
Peer Group 1	44,379	45,343	46,329	50,353	50,962	53,141	53,062	50,322	44,856	438,747
Peer Group 4	29,522	29,600	30,105	31,779	30,989	31,388	31,361	29,956	26,578	271,278
Peer Group 7	23,587	23,977	25,410	26,435	26,525	26,600	26,201	25,276	23,246	227,257
Peer Group 14	50,069	50,918	51,262	57,282	55,441	57,666	57,304	53,096	47,514	480,552

Figure 1: Unique Titles by Year for All Peer Groups – All Languages

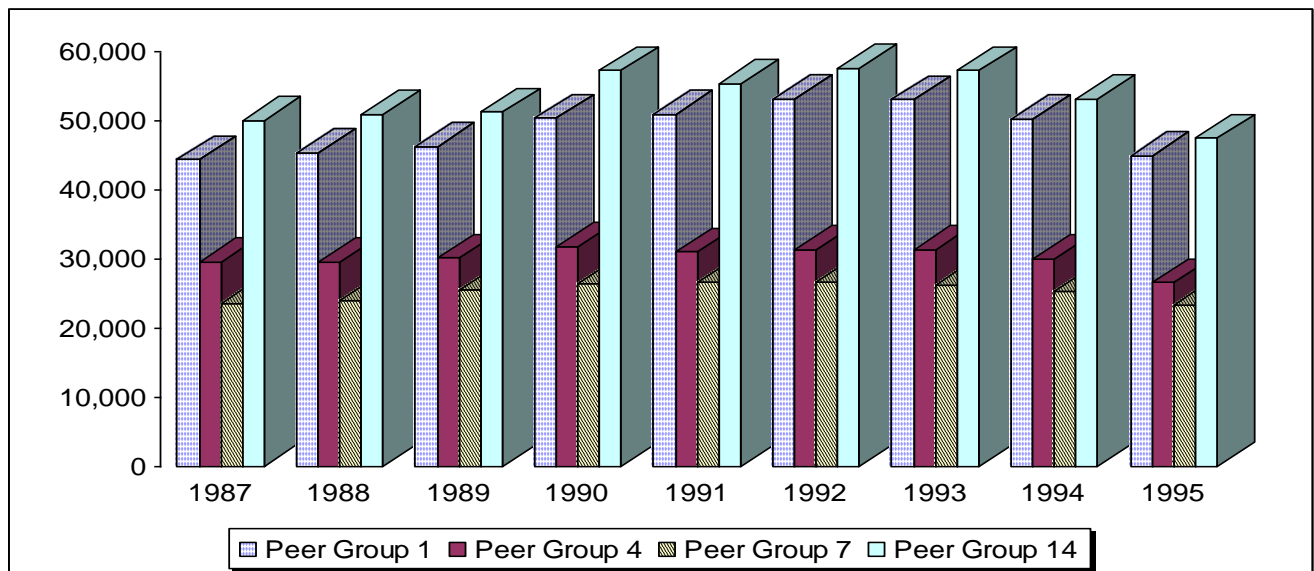


Figure 1 displays the number of unique titles within three peer groups of academic libraries compared with the number of unique titles in the aggregated database of the OCLC/AMIGOS CACD.¹ From this graph we can see that the number of unique titles in the ARL peer group corresponds closely to the number of unique titles in the CACD database (peer group 14). The ARL (peer group 1) owns a large proportion of the total number of titles in the database. In fact, it can be said that the ARL library holdings “drive” the database. The ARL group titles are contained within the number for the whole group, so we can see that most of the unique titles can be accounted for by the ARL group. This is not surprising, since these are the largest research libraries in the database and they would be expected to have the largest number of unique titles—that is more diverse collections than the smaller size academic, public and special libraries which make up the remainder of the library holdings in the CACD.

The other two peer groupings, 4 and 7, have a much lower level of numbers of titles. Peer group 4 (Large) is the next grouping in size of collections to the ARL group, 123 academic libraries, most of which are from institutions that would be considered research in that they grant doctoral degrees. The number of acquisitions are far below those of the ARL peer group. The third peer group (Medium) is composed of 227 more libraries from even smaller institutions, mainly four-year undergraduate or college libraries with a few graduate programs. There is a wide variety of mission, but these are predominantly not research institutions. The number of libraries in peer group 7 is larger than peer group 4, but the average number of unique titles is lower than for peer group 4.

We would like to think that the non-ARL institutions would make their own contributions to the information commons, but the data I have show that the contribution is mainly in increasing the number of holding libraries overall, not in contributing to the diversity of unique titles.

Since the purpose of this paper is to ultimately make suggestions for some changes in thinking and the data are provided for background, I am not going to show numerous graphs, but instead will summarize the findings with regard to unique titles by subject and by languages. In comparing the number of unique titles by three broad subject groupings of humanities, social sciences, and sciences, some interesting patterns emerge.

- Until 1991, the entire database contained a larger number of unique titles in the humanities than did the ARL group. In other words, other libraries were contributing unique titles. But, beginning in 1992 the ARL peer group goes slightly ahead of the aggregated database, indicating that there are not many unique titles in the database that are not owned by some ARL library. Or put another way, the majority of the unique titles

¹A title is unique within a peer group if only one library within the group owns that title. A title may be unique in more than one peer group—that is, one library in each peer group could own the same title, but it would be unique in each peer group because only one library in each group owned the title. Thus, the number of unique titles in the CACD database means that only one library of all of the libraries in the database owns a title.

in the humanities are owned by ARL libraries.

- For the humanities both peer groups 4 and 7 have much lower numbers and proportions of total in unique titles than the ARL and the CACD database. For peer group 7, the proportion of unique titles is even lower than in peer group 4.
- In the social sciences², for the ARL group, in all years, there are fewer unique titles in the social sciences than in the entire database, which means that there are quite a few titles in the database for which no ARL library had a location symbol in the database. The pattern for the other peer groups of smaller size academic libraries is similar in that there are a larger number of unique titles in the social sciences than in the humanities but a smaller proportion than for the aggregated database.
- In the sciences, the ARL group has fewer unique titles than the database until 1994. For the last 2 years of data, the ARL group and the entire database are even.
- The pattern in the sciences for both peer groups 4 and 7 are very similar. The number of titles each year does not fluctuate a lot and the absolute numbers for both groups are very close.

My earlier research in the composition of ARL collections in the latter 1980s showed a decrease in unique titles in the humanities. This dataset presented here shows an increase in unique titles in the early 1990s. For the humanities in peer group 1, the ARL libraries, there is a low of 15,639 unique titles in 1987 to a high of 18,769 in 1993. In 1987 and 1988, the ARL libraries had fewer unique titles than the aggregated database, i.e., there were titles in the database that no ARL library owned. Beginning in 1991, the ARL libraries have more unique titles than the database. The small differences in the number of unique titles between the database and the ARL group mean that the majority of the unique titles are owned by ARL libraries. From the devastating years in the late 1980s, there seems to be some recovery in that the number of unique titles does rise in the early 1990s.

² History is included in the social sciences.

To summarize for unique titles, the ARL libraries hold the preponderance of unique titles in the humanities, with the large and medium-sized academic libraries tending to have more unique titles in the social sciences than in the humanities. For all peer groups the number of unique titles in the sciences declines moving forward in time.

We may be seeing a pattern of fewer unique titles in the sciences because of electronic information sources or publication patterns. These data can be interpreted as there being much more of an agreed upon core of materials in the sciences than the humanities and social sciences. This pattern also obtains in approval plan data which show the universe of titles in the sciences to be rather small. Thus, in the sciences, everyone buys the same titles. Since monographs in the sciences tend to summarize established research findings, a low number of unique titles in the sciences may be an appropriate collecting pattern.

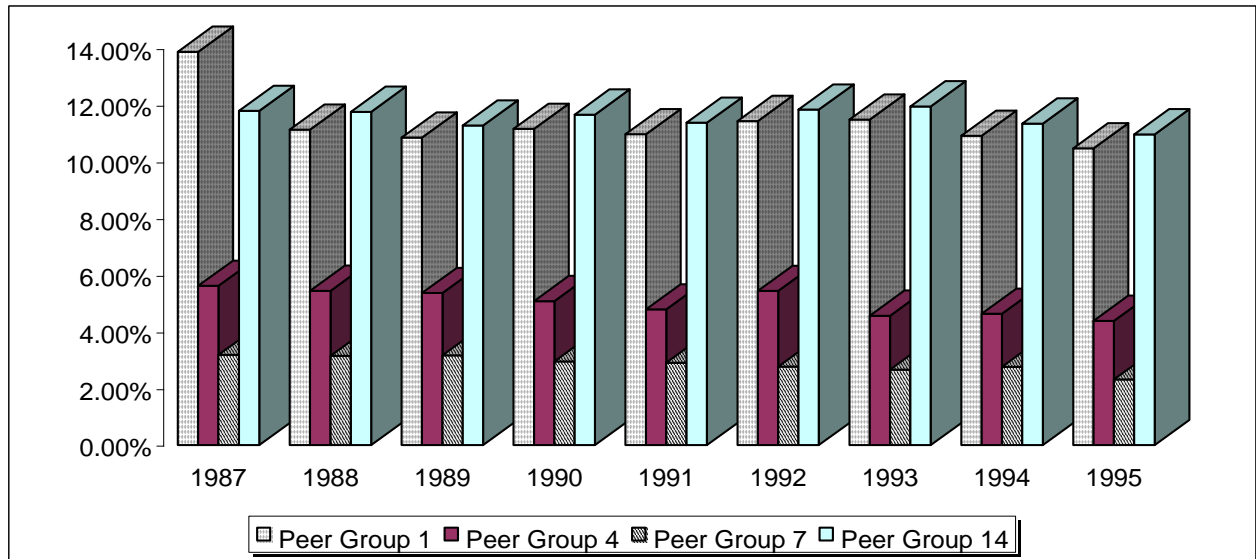
For measurements closer to the present, the data become less reliable. The very materials which should be quickly entered into the bibliographic databases, i.e. unique titles and foreign language titles, are customarily the last to be cataloged. Thus we see a diminution in the number of unique titles as we move forward in time. It cannot be said that a decline is taking place. The data could be a function of cataloging lag. The easy copy cataloging with just adding holdings symbols is the body of materials which show up in the bibliographic databases. The unique materials take much longer --an opposite situation from what is desirable for CCD and resource sharing, not to mention research.

Now, a few findings with respect to foreign language titles. In the latter 1980s as the acquisitions situation for monographs continued to deteriorate, foreign language acquisitions were the hardest hit. No one would dispute this today. Without giving a great deal of detail, I will simply summarize the major points with respect to foreign language collecting that can be ascertained from the same dataset as the findings on unique titles presented above. Figure 2 shows the percentage of foreign language titles which are unique by year and peer group.

Table 2: Percent Total Titles That Are Unique – Non-English

	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	TOTAL
Peer Group 1	13.89%	11.14%	10.86%	11.16%	10.97%	11.44%	11.49%	10.92%	10.48%	438,747
Peer Group 4	5.62%	5.45%	5.37%	5.09%	4.79%	5.44%	4.57%	4.64%	4.39%	271,278
Peer Group 7	3.19%	3.15%	3.17%	2.96%	2.91%	2.77%	2.67%	2.77%	2.32%	227,257
Peer Group 14	11.80%	11.77%	11.28%	11.67%	11.38%	11.84%	11.96%	11.35%	10.97%	480,552

Figure 2: Percent Total Titles That Are Unique – Non-English



- Proportionately, for the CACD database (peer group 14), non-English language unique titles make up 11% of all titles. All unique titles, that is all languages, comprise 23% of the CACD peer group 14 by publication year. Slightly less than half of all unique titles are foreign language titles.
- For the ARL group the percentage of total in foreign language unique titles was near 14% in 1987, but fluctuates in a downward trend to less than 11% in 1994, 1995. The ARL group overall unique titles increased from 1987 to 1995, but the non-English unique titles decreased in that time span.

More specific analysis not shown in Figure 2 reveals that

- The numbers of unique titles in the foreign languages are small in all but French, German, and Spanish. The numbers for Arabic and Japanese are too low to comment upon.
- From 1987 to the early 1990s, the number of unique titles in non-English acquisitions in ARL libraries increased in the humanities and social sciences, but began to decrease in the sciences beginning in 1992
- In peer group 4, the number of foreign language unique titles in the social sciences and sciences steadily decreases beginning in 1987. The humanities show slight variation in the number of unique titles with the exception of a much larger number in one year, 1992
- In peer group 7, the number of foreign language unique titles in the sciences is very low; the number in the humanities and social sciences remain relatively constant until 1993 in

which the social sciences begin to decline.

- In the sciences and technology the ARL group and peer group 14 show the same pattern and the numbers are close together; peer group 14 does have slightly higher numbers than the ARL group, indicating that there are a few sci/tech unique titles in foreign languages not held by ARL libraries
- In almost all non-English languages, the humanities have the largest number of unique titles in all peer groups and all languages. The exceptions are in German and Spanish, in peer groups 1 and 14 in which there are more unique titles in the social sciences than in the humanities.
- In Russian language materials, for both peer groups 1 and 14, in the early years, the majority of unique titles are in the social sciences, but this reverses in the 1990s to a majority in the humanities in most years. Chinese displays an almost opposite pattern to Russian.

An attempt can be made to ascertain the percentage of book production being acquired by geographic publishing area. Redd-Scott summarized a number of studies conducted under the auspices of the ARL of library collecting patterns according to area of publication.⁵ This is a comprehensive summary of area studies collecting in U.S. and Canadian academic libraries. The ARL study, research by Perrault, and studies on literature loss conducted by Schwartz⁶, all confirm the decline in the acquisition of foreign language publications. A few examples of the percentage coverage of book publication output in the first half of the 1990s are provided below.

Using the same OCLC/AMIGOS dataset as above and book production or approval plan figures an approximation of the percentage of coverage can be arrived at.

- For German language imprints, the ARL libraries have approximately 14,000-15,000 titles per year. From approval plan figures for German academic books, the number of books judged suitable for academic libraries hovered around 22,000.⁷ The ARL libraries collectively acquired approximately 68% of the German academic books.
- For French language imprints, in the years 1987-1994, the ARL libraries have approximately 10,000 titles per year. Total book production for France in those years averages 41,000 to 45,000 per year.⁸ Thus the ARL libraries acquired approximately 22-25% of French book production. Another indication of coverage for French language imprints is from RLG. In adding current cataloging records from the *bibliothèque nationale de France* for monographs cataloged since 1997, 90% percent of the records described items that were unique to the RLG union catalog.⁹ This is a further indication that the coverage of French language materials by U.S. libraries is low.
- From approval plan coverage for U.S. and British English language materials the coverage by ARL libraries ranges from 67%-70% from 1991-1994.¹⁰ Indicators are that

book production and sales in the U.S. leveled off or decreased in the early 1990s. In fact, 1987 was the high point in volume of book production in the U.S. since World War II, with 1990 being the lowest point. Beginning in 1995, there have been large increases in U.S. book production.¹¹

Thus, it appears that U.S. academic libraries in the aggregate were acquiring 67-70% of approval plan offerings in 1991-1994. The average for German language books is in the same range with respect to academic approval plan offerings. The figures for French language are not comparable, because the total is overall French book production, not approval plan offerings, but there are indications that a much lower percentage of French book production is being acquired by U.S. libraries than English and German language publications. Coverage for other languages is lower than for the three predominant language groupings.

The percentage coverage is naturally higher when it is measured by approval plan statistics since these are for titles appropriate for academic libraries. The percentage coverage is naturally lower when measured against total book production by country.

There is one non- U.S. study which pursued the question of the coverage of books by language. The National Library of the Netherlands sponsored a study to assess the current state of collection development in the Netherlands. The research project aimed to assess the coverage of the aggregate collection of Dutch libraries. The collections of foreign publications of an academic nature published in the 1990s in some 20 subject areas were compared with the collections of several authoritative German libraries. For German language publications, on the average, the coverage was around 50% with some disciplines in the humanities lower yet. After subject specialists examined the lists of publication not held by any Dutch library, those eliminated as not necessary raised the coverage to 70%, which the researcher considers to be low. The same study found that the German libraries were adequately covering German language publications. The researcher makes the point that probably neither the Dutch nor German libraries are adequately covering major U.S publications..¹²

We don't know what the unique holdings of the major European, Latin American, Asian, etc. national libraries or universities look like. In fact, we don't know what percentage of national publication is acquired and preserved by foreign national and university libraries. The problem of achieving both national and foreign language coverage for academic libraries is recognized abroad as well as in the U.S. Elizabeth Chapman, in an IFLA paper in Copenhagen in 1997 says, "National self-sufficiency is a concern throughout Europe." She suggests that "the most likely area for cooperation is the purchase of Non-English language publications."¹³

International Cooperative Collection Development

The libraries of individual countries are having a difficult time assuring the archiving and availability of publications published in their own countries, much less attempting international coverage, except in comprehensive special collections. It seems best to admit that U.S. research libraries and consortia cannot attempt comprehensive international coverage. I am not suggesting we abandon the cooperative projects we have nourished so carefully. CRL, ARL, RLG, have accomplished a great deal working in conjunction with area studies associations and foreign national and university libraries. I am suggesting that this cooperative collection development needs to become an international agenda that matches the new spirit of the international information commons.

Earlier in this paper, I used the phrase “national collection.” This phrase is used in Australia but has never really caught on in the U.S. There is an implication in this phrase that there is some common ownership— that these resources in the bibliographic utility databases are national resources —same with the “distributed collection.” With the concept of an international information commons, there is the idea that whatever resources exist are available for the shared use of all. Is it possible that the Internet is engendering a mind set that makes the concept of an information commons more acceptable? The Internet exists and grows through the unfettered contributions of millions. With the exception of passwords on corporate or for fee sites, the commons is for use by everyone. In an international information commons, every person and every library will acquire and use those units of information in which they are most interested and share all resources, especially the unique resources. But the resources, e.g. printed books, are not electronic.

A more restricted concept of an electronic information commons as a membership organization, which mounts indexes, and archives electronic research documents, was proposed by Gregory and Perrault at NASIG in 1997.¹⁴ The commons is a membership organization that retains copyright for all commons materials. The commons licenses and sells products, such as CD-ROM course books. The CIC consortia for the publication of electronic science journals is a similar concept.

The collecting goal in the research library community in North America for most of the latter half of the 20th century has been cooperative collection development. That is, the emphasis was on the acquisition of materials through the designation or acceptance of collecting responsibility by an institution according to subject or area study. This collecting responsibility was comprehensive. And the logical corollary to cooperative collection development is that the unique materials be shared with the users of other institutions who participated in the CCD program. The mentality in this cooperative collection development/resource sharing philosophy is that the universe of research materials would be covered through this division of collecting responsibility. It has come to the point that we, the U.S. institutions, need to realize that world publication output cannot be comprehensively covered by U.S. libraries alone. In the last 25-30 years, academic librarians have first had to admit that no library can collect comprehensively and

then to convince faculty of this impossibility. We now have to realize that the collective collecting ability of North American research libraries is limited in the same way. As Milton Wolf said in a CRL online discussion, "...whether we know it or not, all libraries are building a worldwide collection right now—only rather poorly."¹⁵ We cannot collectively acquire even one copy of world publication output. The emphasis needs to shift to international resources sharing with acquisitions responsibility both at home and abroad. I don't think it is abdicating our mission to admit that we cannot financially cover all domestic and foreign book production. The answer has to be increased international cooperation both within and without the library community.

It is time to turn to libraries in other countries and ask the question, are you acquiring and maintaining collections of publications from your country? And furthermore, would you consider this a responsibility of yours as a contribution to the furtherance of knowledge and to the information commons of world publication output? CCD cannot be just the US acquiring materials from all over the world. The "world" has to agree that it is everyone's responsibility. And furthermore, the "world" involves more players than just libraries. Publishers need to be part of the solution.

Publishers as Partners

Although SPARC and JSTOR have begun publisher partnerships with respect to journals, much more remains to be accomplished in this avenue of cooperation. US libraries cannot be sure that everything published in the US finds a home in at least one library. Yes, that's what the copyright copies to LC program is supposed to accomplish. But there are trade titles that LC doesn't seem to own. Publishers (all kinds, types, sizes) should be encouraged to select a depository library, a partner, whatever term becomes fashionable, to receive copies of all of that publishers' output. Most University presses have such arrangements with their university libraries. Since this is for archival purposes, the material need not be transferred until disposal of inventory, or some designated time period, say 5 years, in which the peak sales period has passed. This would include all material licensed or sold by unit or subscription. The publisher would agree to hold one copy of each title published until the title is no longer offered for sale by the publisher. At that point, the titles would be transferred to the partner library which would agree to archive the material and to make available any material requested for research. If in digital form and copies are sold from archival copies, the depository library could both make a little money and pay a royalty to the publisher/copyright holder. The fees to buy the archival copies would be much lower than the fees for licensing current material. JSTOR is an example of a centralized preservation clearinghouse for electronic journal backfiles. Libraries can belong to the consortia and not purchase and provide server space indefinitely for journal backfiles. In other words, it is not just the publisher giving assurances that the materials will be permanently archived, but also the consortia or library partner.

There could even be a symbol which the publisher could place on all works which indicates that the publisher is a participant in the publisher/library archiving project. This proposal posits an international system of library/publisher partnerships and an international spirit of cooperation to supply research materials worldwide.

I would especially like to see this implemented in Europe because the U.S. libraries are not able to acquire foreign language publications at the rate they could 10, 20, 30 years ago. There are many foreign publications which no U.S. library will own, and many U.S. publications which no foreign library will own. The number of scholars globally will probably remain small, which is all the more reason to rely on libraries in the country of origin to collect and lend those printed materials from their country. Such a global view is needed in the library community to encourage true internationalism.

My point in proposing this is to point out that we have always talked about CCD in terms of libraries cooperating with libraries. While there could still be more cooperation among libraries, we need to look outside of our own circle for assistance and cooperation in preserving recorded human knowledge. The dialogues that began as a result of the pricing crisis in the 1980s served to make the research arms of the publishing industry more aware of the difficulties libraries and universities face in acquiring publication output in order to provide access and preserve the materials. More consciousness raising remains in terms of the corporate conscience. If publishers are going to generate books, they need to be concerned about that final step—what happens after the sales have stopped. What happens if someone wants to read a book that was published 20 years ago? It is somewhat akin to having to restore the landscape after you have mined out the pit. With profits come some responsibility to contribute to the world good. And libraries can say “We’ll assure that your publications become immortal. Just give us a copy to keep forever.” And 20 years from now we wouldn’t have to ask why a copy of a certain title can’t be found anywhere in the world. There would be a least one copy in a library publisher archive somewhere in the world.

Marianne Scott, in a paper given at the 64th IFLA conference in Amsterdam in 1998, reviewed the many types of cooperation between libraries and publishers, many of them international in scope. These include collaboration in the development and establishment of standards, the ISBN, ISSN, ISMN, etc.; the adoption of CIP; and the, although not universal, widespread use of alkaline paper. Scott outlines six challenges that lie ahead for libraries and publishers in the future that need to be resolved in collaboration for the welfare of both groups. These include copyright and licensing issues, the development of standards for electronic data access and management and the preservation of digital media and archiving of digital documents.¹⁶ I would add to this list the challenge of assuring the archiving and preservation of at least one copy of printed works. The assurance of this by direct deposit from the publisher to the depository source with a minimum of selection decision, middle-men, etc, would go a long way toward solving this dilemma..

We have worked very hard at CCD for specific areas of the globe, specific subject areas within consortia, but this has almost all been within the library arena and within the U.S.. OCLC and RLG have accomplished a great deal in which bibliographic and collecting programs initiated in the U.S. have been extended to major universities and some national/public libraries abroad. Although more remains to be accomplished with these and similar programs, the mentality of cooperation for the preservation of knowledge through acquisition and preservation of both print and electronic resources needs to become a global effort. Not just that libraries in a few advanced countries acquire and preserve certain subjects, but that the publishing industry must realize that they can no longer assume that libraries are able to comprehensively in the aggregate without cooperation and assistance on their part. As information professionals we have been concerned with acquiring materials by individual unit selection or the entire run of journals title by title for quality and local needs. What I am advocating here is the acquisition of material by publisher origin, much as area studies acquire by region, regardless of individual unit worth or expense.

What is different about what I am proposing is:

This cooperation is not limited to the library circle

It is international, not limited by country or region

This calls for an international effort on the part of librarians and other information professionals, including the originating publishers. It also calls for cooperation by governments that have responsibility for the archiving and the preservation of their output of government information. This is truly a Herculean task of consciousness raising, planning, and cooperation worthy of the new millennium!

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