

Cooperative Collection Development at the Research Triangle University Libraries: A Model for the Nation

Patricia Buck Dominguez and Luke Swindler

The cooperative collection development programs of the Research Triangle university libraries are the oldest and most successful in North America. Analyzing their evolution and expansion over six decades, the authors identify the rationale and principles of successful cooperative collection development, the types of cooperation that work best for different subjects and kinds of materials, and the factors that promote cooperation over the long term.



Cooperative collection development is the flag, motherhood, and apple pie of librarianship. Everyone is for it.¹ But while library literature is full of attempts to describe what it is or explain how to do some aspect of it, there are no critical analyses of cooperation based on long-term case studies that document what has worked and why. The history of cooperation at the libraries of Duke University, North Carolina State University (NCSU), and the University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill (UNC-CH), which together form the Research Triangle university libraries, provides the opportunity for just such a study.

Librarians at Duke University, NCSU, and UNC-CH have cooperated for more than half a century. Recent statistics attest to the success of their efforts. Comparisons of nearly two million records in their shared online catalog revealed that 76% of the titles were found on only one campus, and only 7% were common to

all three universities.² Applying this percentage to their combined holdings of 9,536,556 volumes in the 1991/92 *ARL Statistics*, the number of unique volumes available to researchers at the three Research Triangle universities was 7,247,783—a figure probably exceeded only by the libraries at Harvard, Yale, Illinois, and the University of California-Berkeley.

Reflecting not only on the unique holdings but the coordinated, interdependent, and interlocked nature of the collections, a former provost at UNC-CH stated that the cooperative collection development effort of the Triangle Research Libraries Network (TRLN), the umbrella organization for library cooperation among the three universities, was the finest example of planning on campus.³ In congressional testimony on federal support for libraries, the Research Triangle consortium was the only example of successful cooperative collection development cited.⁴ Why have observers singled

Patricia Buck Dominguez is Humanities Bibliographer and Luke Swindler is Social Sciences Bibliographer in the Collection Development Department, Davis Library, University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill, Chapel Hill, North Carolina 27599-3918. Their e-mail addresses are pat_dominguez@unc.edu and luke_swindler@unc.edu. They wish to thank John Abbott, Florence Blakely, Gary Byrd, Ginny Gilbert, James Govan, Joe Hewitt, John Rutledge, and John Shipman for reading and commenting on earlier versions of this article.

out TRLN for special praise, and how has it managed to become the oldest and most successful large-scale cooperative collection development program among North American universities?⁵

Throughout six decades of trial and error, administrators, faculty, and librarians at Duke, NCSU, and UNC—CH have sought to identify the rationale and principles of effective cooperative collection development, the types of cooperation that work best for different subjects and kinds of materials, and the factors that contribute to successful cooperation over the long term. The lessons they have learned from their attempts to address these issues can help others around the country create effective cooperative collection development programs.

THE EARLY 1930s: SETTING THE STAGE

Historical and economic circumstances played a crucial role in the development of cooperation between Duke and UNC by limiting the options available to administrators, faculty, and librarians.⁶ After the Civil War, the South was the poorest region in the nation. At the turn of the century, North Carolina, which had still not recovered from the Civil War, was the poorest state in the region.⁷ Thirty years later, the Depression was reversing much of the economic progress the state had made since then.

Libraries reflected the state's economic fortunes. In 1901 the library at UNC, the largest academic library in the state, had one librarian, two student assistants, and about 40,000 volumes.⁸ A generation later, although a basic research library existed at UNC and the nation's largest tobacco fortune was building another at nearby Duke, neither institution possessed a great collection. Indeed, both libraries suffered budget reductions during the Depression, and a federal report issued in 1937 ranked the Chapel Hill-Durham area only thirty-fourth among the seventy-seven urban areas having library collections in excess of 500,000 volumes.⁹

The second factor leading to cooperation was the ability of administrators,

faculty, and librarians to see beyond the limitations of their circumstances. Frank Porter Graham, president of UNC, and William P. Few, president of Duke, knew that they did not have the resources to build great universities in the conventional way, but they shared the New South vision of uplifting the region through planning and cooperation.¹⁰

To achieve their ambitions for their universities and the region, Graham and Few were willing to entertain unorthodox solutions to the problems they faced. In 1933 they formed the Joint Committee on Intellectual Cooperation to determine how the two institutions could enhance and extend their resources. Two years later the group issued *A Program of Cooperation*, a remarkable document that asserted:

The University of North Carolina and Duke University are confronted with obligations and opportunities which they can meet adequately only through a program of cooperative endeavor.¹¹

Within the context of university cooperation, the presidents perceived the importance of library cooperation:

Although these two libraries are already the largest in the Southeastern States, neither has nor will be able to provide for a long time to come the materials for study and research which are to be found in the great libraries of the North and East. The opportunity of supplementing the resources of each library by those of the other, offered by the physical proximity of the two institutions, is one of which it is proposed to take advantage.¹²

This statement provided the philosophical framework for library cooperation.

Just as the presidents provided the vision for cooperation at the university level, library directors Robert Downs (UNC) and Harvie Branscomb (Duke) provided leadership for library cooperation. Both men were willing to risk a cooperative approach to building library collections, despite the lack of models for doing so, because of the existence of a universitywide context favorable to cooperation. For the same reason, faculty

on both campuses were willing to suggest and support cooperative projects.

The third factor that encouraged cooperation was the availability of outside funds. The General Education Board (GEB), a philanthropic agency that John D. Rockefeller endowed, played a crucial role. In the early 1930s it made the improvement of higher education in the South, particularly library and laboratory facilities, a prime objective.¹³ Influenced by sociologist Howard Odum and the Chapel Hill regionalists whose research it financed, the GEB hoped that funds spent enhancing colleges and universities would translate into improved economic well-being and eventual rehabilitation of the region.¹⁴

The *Program of Cooperation* echoed those sentiments and ambitions. Memos between administrators, faculty, and librarians at Duke and UNC mentioned the GEB, highlighted the opportunities it offered the two institutions "to assume leadership in this region," and expressed the fear that "if these two institutions can't get together, they [the GEB] seem to be seeking other institutions that might do this and their policy may be to assist some other institution more thoroughly than they would either Duke or Carolina separately."¹⁵ To a large extent, then, library cooperation came into being because a funding agency encouraged it tangibly.¹⁶

The fourth factor leading to cooperative collection development was shared bibliographic information about the collections and enhanced access to the materials. The GEB underwrote an exchange program for main entry cards in 1934. This bibliographic information was essential to the success of the cooperative programs. Indeed, until faculty and librarians knew what both libraries held, cooperation could not work. Special inter-library loan arrangements (including daily delivery service) and the extension of full library privileges to faculty and advanced graduate students at the other institution, in place by 1935, also facilitated cooperation.¹⁷

Interinstitutional cooperation therefore began because visionary individu-

als in positions of authority saw it as a way to surmount dismal economic circumstances and enable their institutions to compete successfully with richer universities. Librarians, nurtured by grant funding, needed bibliographic and physical access to each others' holdings in order to cooperate in building collections. Only when all these factors came together could cooperative collection development programs begin.

THE LATE 1930s: SEARCHING FOR WAYS TO COOPERATE

Library cooperation began in 1934, when the GEB granted Duke and UNC \$12,500 for a joint catalog that "facilitates the interchange of books and makes possible a co-ordinated development of future book collections."¹⁸ Cooperative collection development dates from the following year.

With the stage set, Downs and Branscomb began to address the major issues of cooperative collection development: What are the rationale and principles of cooperation? How do libraries cooperate? Which academic disciplines, subjects, and types of materials make good candidates for cooperation? How do librarians, faculty, and administrators work together to develop effective programs?

Following the themes outlined in *A Program of Cooperation*, the library directors agreed that the goals of cooperative collection development were to achieve excellence and serve users by providing resources for research that the libraries could not afford otherwise, rather than to save money.¹⁹ They planned to reach these goals by creating coordinated, interdependent, and interlocked collections that minimized the unnecessary duplication of materials.²⁰

After determining the goals and objectives of cooperation, Downs and Branscomb developed five principles of cooperation.²¹ In the first place, they agreed that cooperation would emphasize what a library, acting in self-interest, could contribute to cooperation. To this end they encouraged each institution to build on the strengths of its academic programs and library collections. Sec-

ond, librarians did not restrict what their cooperative partners could acquire.²² As Downs later observed, "Libraries should not be asked to give up anything but rather to assume positive responsibilities and receive direct benefits."²³

Third, the directors, who were sensitive to the potential use of items, decided to limit cooperation to materials needed for "graduate and research activities." They excluded instructional titles, whether for undergraduates or students in the professional schools, and considered duplication of basic texts, sets, and periodicals desirable. Fourth, both agreed to maximize the number of unique research materials by avoiding unnecessary duplication. Finally, the directors recognized that if agreements were to be successful, they needed to be flexible and allow for adjustment and expansion.²⁴

Regarding the question of which subjects would lend themselves to cooperative collection development, members of the Committee on Intellectual Cooperation suggested two options:

- (1) concentration in each library of materials dealing with specialized problems or fields of knowledge in which one institution is primarily interested, and
- (2) subdivision of fields in which both institutions are interested.²⁵

In addition, they asked librarians to avoid duplicating specialized research materials, particularly expensive titles, large sets, and serials, where one copy in the area was sufficient, and to divide collecting responsibility for state, federal, and foreign documents.²⁶

Downs and Branscomb lost no time applying to the GEB for a cooperative collection development grant. In 1935 they received \$50,000, which they divided equally between the two institutions.

Although the *Program of Cooperation* presented two strategies for cooperation, the librarians decided that in this grant they would focus on materials required by major disciplines that met the following criteria:

- (1) Strong departments in both institutions should be chosen both because

such departments presumably are doing highly effective work, and because the problem of coordinating the work of the two Universities must be solved in such areas. (2) The departments must be ones which have shown an interest in and ability to correlate their programs with those in the other University. (3) The departments should be those which are believed to be of special importance to this region in an economic, social, or cultural direction.²⁷

The disciplines they selected, following the recommendations of departmental chairmen at both universities, were botany, zoology, chemistry, physics, English, sociology, and economics. The librarians hoped that "these departments will become an illustration and example to others in the two institutions, and the habit of mutual dependence on the other University induced by the active use of a considerable body of materials in the other library will forward the whole movement of cooperation." Downs and Branscomb expected success in these key areas to lead to successful cooperation overall. They may also have recognized that the best strategy for winning a grant from the GEB, given its emphasis on uplifting the South, was to select disciplines "of special importance to this region in an economic, social, or cultural direction."²⁸

For this initial attempt librarians and faculty stressed two approaches. First, they divided materials on an ad hoc basis. The decision was "more or less arbitrary as regards basic sets, periodical files, and other material applying to the field as a whole." Second, they made the first of many efforts to cooperate systematically on academic disciplines. In this case they divided responsibility for books, serials, and other library materials by the major subfields of each of these disciplines according to faculty research interests.²⁹

Faculty and librarians assigned specific subfields to each library. For example, in chemistry Duke took responsibility for biochemistry, paper and cellulose chemistry, agricultural chemistry (particularly

tobacco), and food chemistry; UNC emphasized chemical engineering, petroleum products, electrochemistry, and the history of chemistry. For English, they developed complicated divisions based on chronological periods, authors, and genres.³⁰

This attempt at the systematic division of responsibility for the publications of major disciplines seemed to make sense at the time. Faculty and librarians may have chosen this approach because they conceived of academic disciplines in terms of their subfields. However, the systematic division of responsibility for books, serials, and other library materials by major subfields proved impossible, because it weakened library support for the discipline as a whole and jeopardized scholars' ability to do research in their specialties. In addition faculty interests changed over time, further undermining the stability of subfields as units of cooperative collection development. Therefore, this type of systematic cooperation did not survive the grant. Indeed, it apparently provided a model of how *not* to cooperate, because librarians never divided traditional disciplines by their major subfields again.

Although this division of responsibility did not provide a long-term model for cooperation, the grant was successful in other ways. Librarians learned they could cooperate on an ad hoc basis for specialized and costly titles, such as multivolume sets, long periodical runs, and newspaper backfiles. Indeed, ad hoc cooperation has been one of the most successful forms of cooperative collection development over the decades and has been responsible for extending the number of unique holdings in the TRLN libraries significantly.

The grant also fostered a cooperative mentality. As Downs and Branscomb wrote, "There is now general acceptance of the idea of cooperative collections, and it is becoming general procedure to limit duplication of rare and expensive items in all fields."³¹ Cooperative collection development efforts continued and multiplied because librarians became committed to cooperation and kept searching for ways to expand it. Their efforts, in

turn, succeeded because faculty accepted cooperation as a given.

Building on the momentum of this two-year grant, librarians next considered the cooperative acquisition of foreign, federal, and state documents. Although faculty and librarians had based the cooperative proposals funded by the GEB on faculty research interests, librarians, acting on their own, proposed a systematic division of government documents in 1937. Downs suggested to Branscomb that foreign documents should be concentrated at Duke, "because of the excellent start you have made in this field." Both libraries were to remain depositories for current federal publications (with librarians at UNC taking responsibility for filling in gaps of older materials). Because of the strength of UNC's holdings, its librarians would assume responsibility for state documents.³²

But the faculty disagreed. They produced a report arguing that because researchers at both institutions were engaged in the study of both local and foreign problems, "a division of function can never be made which will allocate to one the responsibility for domestic and to the other foreign, it is the belief of this Council that a division of library materials on this basis should not be attempted. We believe that a more satisfactory plan would be to endeavor to divide each area between the two libraries."³³ The faculty version prevailed. Ultimately, faculty and librarians put into operation a more complex plan that divided responsibility systematically according to geography, subject (which often corresponded to issuing agency), and publishing format, such as legislative journals.³⁴

The initial proposal, faculty reaction, and final agreement revealed the importance of basing cooperative agreements on academic programs and including faculty in their development. It also marked the first time that faculty and librarians divided collecting responsibilities geographically, an approach that played a major role in later cooperative efforts.

The agreements for government documents worked well. Their success de-

monstrated that systematic cooperation for materials of interest to faculty in many departments worked, if the items were not central to their teaching and research specialties and were distinct in format or method of acquisition. Although modified and expanded over the decades, cooperative agreements for government publications continue to be a major focus of cooperation among the Research Triangle university libraries.

Beginning in the late 1930s, Duke and UNC received a series of grants from the North Carolina Division of Cooperation in Education and Race Relations to buy library materials on "all aspects of Negro history, literature, education, economic and social conditions, religion, health, etc." Within a few years these funds created a combined African-American collection of 10,000 volumes, with almost no duplication except for recent books that would be in demand on both campuses.³⁵ The grants demonstrated that new areas of interdisciplinary research—even those of special interest to faculty at both universities—could be fruitful areas of cooperation. Librarians included interdisciplinary cooperation in their next grant proposal, perhaps because of their success here.

In their application to the GEB in 1938, librarians recognized the tentative and experimental nature of the original cooperative agreements, the necessity of winning the support of all parties affected, and the importance of avoiding the appearance of arbitrariness. At the same time the application showed that they had assimilated important lessons from their earlier grant and the agreements for government documents. In their search for a systematic model of cooperation, librarians shifted their emphasis from disciplines that were strong at both universities to subjects representing unique academic and collection strengths. For other subjects they proposed cooperating on an ad hoc basis.³⁶

On the basis of unique academic strengths, UNC took responsibility for geology, music, Indo-European linguistics, library science, and Romance languages. Duke concentrated on forestry,

fine arts, mathematics, religion, and Oriental history, philosophy, and literature. Where both supported strong programs, librarians asked for funds to develop collections in fields involving more than one academic discipline. They chose social history, which was of interest to departments of sociology, economics, and history; political science, which included international law, and federal, state, and local government; and classical studies, which included history, literature, and art. The multidisciplinary nature of these fields represented a different approach from the previous grant, which had focused on traditional academic disciplines. Finally, building on their earlier successes, Duke and UNC proposed using grant funds to continue cooperation in government documents, bibliography, and newspapers, which were of interest to the research community as a whole.³⁷ Although Duke and UNC did not receive this grant, the hope of securing outside funding provided librarians with the impetus to develop approaches that would form the basis of future cooperation.

By the end of the decade, librarians could look back on their efforts with a sense of accomplishment. They had established the rationale and principles of cooperation that continue to this day. They had identified the two major types of cooperation: ad hoc and systematic cooperation. Librarians had successfully applied the ad hoc approach to costly items and materials for special collections. They had systematically divided books, serials, and other library materials of interest to many disciplines that were characterized by distinctive format or method of acquisition, particularly government documents and newspapers. In addition, faculty and librarians enjoyed enhanced bibliographic and physical access to each others' collections and had developed a spirit of cooperation that would motivate them to maintain existing programs and create new ones.

The librarians were aware, however, of what they had not yet accomplished. There was little intercampus communica-

tion, no ongoing coordinated growth of the collections, and they therefore had not built a well-rounded collection to be used by the whole region.³⁸ In addition librarians had not yet developed a systematic approach to cooperation for specific subjects over the long term. The creation of that model would be the achievement of the next decade.

THE 1940s: CREATING THE AREA STUDIES MODEL

In the 1940s an emerging interdisciplinary field suggested a systematic way to cooperate on a subject. As the Allies suffered reverses during the early part of the Second World War, Sturgis E. Leavitt, professor of Spanish at UNC, believed that "the hope of civilization lies in the New World. Cultural relations between the Americas are therefore more important now than ever before."³⁹ He, his colleagues, and librarians at Duke and UNC who were interested in this developing field, proposed expanding cooperative collection development to cover research materials from and about Latin America. They also suggested including a third institution, Tulane University, which had already developed strong holdings on the area.⁴⁰

On the basis of faculty interests and library holdings, faculty and librarians initially agreed to divide collecting responsibility by subject. Tulane would cover Caribbean archaeology, Indian (Native American) languages, *modernismo*, and the influence of U. S. literature on Latin American literature. Duke would collect the cultural history of the colonial period and Brazilian studies. UNC, for its part, would acquire materials on bibliography, library science, Spanish American languages, Spanish American literature in the United States, folklore, constitutional and political history, the eighteenth century, and the *cabildo*.

Of greater importance, however, were the provisions for each university to assume responsibilities based on geography, which both faculty and librarians considered "logical and fair." Building on the strengths of their collections, Tulane took the Middle American region,

including Cuba and the Antilles; Duke emphasized Brazil, Ecuador, Peru, Bolivia, and Colombia; while UNC accepted responsibility for Chile, Paraguay, Argentina, and Uruguay.⁴¹

In 1940 the Rockefeller Foundation gave Duke, UNC, and Tulane a grant of \$75,000 (\$25,000 each) to be spent for Latin American studies over a five-year period.⁴² When faculty and librarians came to work out policy and procedures for implementing the grant, they abandoned subject arrangements in favor of geographical divisions. In fact, the only mention of subject divisions was that "North Carolina will develop its collection of folklore without geographic restrictions."⁴³ The geographic model of cooperation eventually became preeminent among cooperative strategies for dividing foreign area studies.

There are many explanations for the continuing success of this paradigm. The simplicity of administering the geographic divisions was a major attraction. Faculty and librarians found it easy to remember such clean divisions.

Another reason for success was the faculty's realization that neither institution had resources to build major collections for a new area of research. They saw cooperation as the best way to acquire a wide range of materials in an emerging field the libraries could not afford to support otherwise. The continuing importance of Latin American studies over many decades ensured the survival of these cooperative agreements, even during times of limited funding.

Perhaps the major reason for success, however, was inherent in the newness and interdisciplinary nature of Latin American studies. The materials were important to faculty and students in many departments, yet no academic department had a vested interest in the area that corresponded to a standard disciplinary subfield. As a consequence, librarians had freedom to interweave the collections, creating a coordinated whole. They anticipated this goal from the start: "Subject interests of faculty . . . which reach across the geographical line of di-

vision will be met by the agreement that each library, in buying in its allotted field, will consider requests from the other faculty on the same basis as requests from its own."⁴⁴ They also instituted a liberal interlibrary loan policy to mitigate any hardships users might experience as a result of this geographic division of responsibility.⁴⁵

Finally, cooperative collection development for Latin America worked not only because it had long-term faculty backing but also because library administrators hired staff to implement it. The first provision for spending the Rockefeller money stated that "each institution will appoint a coordinator who will act as the central agent for his university. Through him all matters affecting the individual institution and the cooperating institutions will be cleared."⁴⁶ As part of the agreement, UNC sought "to employ a library assistant . . . [to] facilitate the handling of exchanges, of purchases from South American dealers, and in coordinating the work with the other two cooperating libraries."⁴⁷ Later, UNC hired a Latin American bibliographer, the first full-time collection development officer with specific subject responsibilities in the Research Triangle university libraries.

While developing the cooperative model for Latin America, librarians at Duke and UNC continued to search for strategies that would work for other subjects. As part of their efforts, they divided collecting responsibility for a number of fields in the early 1940s. Many of these subjects represented unique academic strengths. Duke, for example, had the only programs in religion, medicine, and forestry, while UNC had unique programs in library science, public health, geology, folklore, and linguistics. Other divisions were based on the strengths of library collections. Duke had exceptional holdings of American literature, for example, while UNC had a special collection of North Caroliniana. A few of these subjects represented the librarians' continuing efforts to find a way to divide subject disciplines of interest to both institutions. In such cases they did not assign

responsibility for subfields based on faculty interests, as they had in the 1930s, but on broader categories such as early German literature (UNC) and late German literature (Duke).⁴⁸

Librarians continued the systematic division of responsibility for publications with distinct formats and methods of acquisition that were of interest to faculty in many departments or the academic community as a whole. These materials included state government documents and the catalogs and annual reports of colleges and universities. For documents they based cooperative agreements on geography, subject/issuing agency, and format. For colleges and universities, they used issuing agency. Duke collected catalogs and annual reports from private institutions; UNC, those from public ones.⁴⁹

The 1940s were extraordinarily successful. During this decade, faculty and librarians at Duke and UNC developed one of the major types of systematic cooperation, the area studies approach. Librarians also learned that they could continue to build complementary holdings based on unique academic or collection strengths. In addition they continued agreements for many types of materials of general interest that were distinct in format or method of acquisition. Finally, these years demonstrated that the subjects and kinds of materials identified in the previous decade as good candidates for ad hoc cooperation were indeed appropriate choices and worked over the long term.

A series of grants from the Carnegie Corporation in the early 1940s helped librarians maintain and solidify these cooperative collection development agreements. They used these funds not only to honor Duke and UNC faculty requests, as they had done with the earlier Rockefeller grants for Latin America, but to meet the needs of faculty throughout the region within their respective areas of responsibility.⁵⁰

THE 1950s: EXTENDING GENERAL COOPERATION

When grants for cooperative collection development ended in the late 1940s

and no new outside funds replaced them, enthusiasm for new cooperative initiatives waned as well, although existing forms of cooperation continued.⁵¹ Then, in 1953, the presidents of Duke and the UNC system (which included the State Agricultural and Mechanical College at Raleigh, later NCSU, the Woman's College at Greensboro, and the Chapel Hill campus) appointed faculty and librarians from each of their institutions to an Inter-University Committee on Library Cooperation. Their purpose was to reinvigorate and expand the cooperative programs.⁵² Representatives from the State Library joined them soon after.

Librarians from the five institutions tried to coordinate their acquisitions policies.⁵³ They contributed information about their holdings to union lists of periodicals and agreed to allow faculty and graduate students to borrow books directly from each other.⁵⁴ Staff from the four universities also agreed to meet regularly to implement the policies of the Inter-University Committee.⁵⁵

Despite these initiatives with nearby libraries, only Duke and the Chapel Hill campus were involved in cooperative collection development programs. In 1956 librarians at the two institutions codified their existing agreements. The results, which were remarkably similar to those existing in the early 1940s, underscored the success of the original principles and types of cooperation over two decades.

Librarians retained a systematic division of responsibility for government documents but revised specific components of the agreements. Because "UNC has since developed more aggressive and extensive collecting," it took responsibility for all state documents. Duke, which had recently established a Commonwealth Studies Center, agreed to be responsible for Canadian government documents, with the exception of geological publications (which UNC continued to collect comprehensively).⁵⁶ This division is remarkably similar to the one the librarians proposed in the 1930s, but which faculty did not accept, be-

cause it seemed too arbitrary and was based only on collection strengths. This time, however, faculty could accept such a division, because it matched academic programs as well as library collections.

There were also some new initiatives. Librarians divided depository responsibility for the publications of various international agencies. In addition they attempted to divide responsibility for census statistics and ethnographic publications geographically, following the successful model for Latin American studies. Duke was to collect material for the Far East west to India, the British Isles and the Commonwealth (again building on its Commonwealth Studies Center), its Latin American countries, and the USSR. UNC agreed to collect titles from the Near East (west of India to Europe), its Latin American countries, Africa, and the areas of Europe not covered by Duke.⁵⁷ These agreements were superseded by more comprehensive arrangements, as area studies gained in importance in the 1960s.

The rapid growth of microform publishing in the 1950s presented librarians with a financial challenge that they turned into a major cooperative success. They coordinated the purchase of major microform sets on an ad hoc basis to reflect faculty interests and collection strengths. In a few cases, such as the *Landmarks of Science*, they shared the cost of a set and placed it in the most appropriate library. The cumulative results of these cooperative efforts became evident when the TRLN union list of microform collections appeared in 1986. Only 3 percent of its nearly 1,200 entries represented materials held at more than one institution, and only about 1 percent was held at all three.

Librarians' attempts to cooperate sometimes ran afoul of the faculty's need for materials. Faculty at Duke vetoed a proposal to divide responsibility for expensive foreign government serials, in this case, the British sessional papers and the French *Journal Officiel*. They said they needed both subscriptions on their own campus. But Gertrude Merritt, chief of the Processing Division at Duke, over-

ruled them. She urged Harry Bergholz, the chief bibliographer at UNC, to continue subscribing to the *Journal Officiel*, while Duke subscribed to the sessional papers.⁵⁸

This incident illustrates one of the major dilemmas of cooperative collection development. Is it better to allocate resources to meet cooperative responsibilities and thereby build a more comprehensive joint collection, or to satisfy immediate faculty needs by giving priority to local needs? In this case librarians were able to realize broader cooperative objectives. In other instances, faculty pressure has been so strong that librarians have had to duplicate expensive materials. On the whole, however, faculty have been willing to support cooperation.

THE 1960s: EXTENDING AREA STUDIES COOPERATION

The growth of national programs for cooperative acquisitions in the 1960s led librarians to review existing agreements between Duke and UNC. In particular they weighed their obligations to continue local cooperative programs against participation in national endeavors, such as the Farmington Plan.

In 1961 Benjamin Powell, university librarian at Duke, wrote to Jerrold Orne, his counterpart at UNC, asking him whether the two libraries should jettison their cooperative agreement for Latin America in favor of a national program. According to their existing agreement, Duke and UNC covered all the Latin American countries selectively. Under the Farmington Plan, they would work with only a few countries, but in greater depth, and rely on other libraries in the United States for research materials from other nations. Orne's response illustrated the value that librarians in the Research Triangle placed on their local arrangements:

... I do believe that we both have, first, a responsibility for mutual accord on the division of fields in the Latin American countries closely tied to our teaching programs and, secondly, that any participation in a national pro-

gram must be related to our individual responsibilities first. . . . If what we do fits into the Farmington Plan, I will be happy to be named with it, but if it does not, I cannot be too much concerned.⁵⁹

Duke and UNC did not participate in the Farmington Plan, which lacked roots in the participating institutions and ultimately withered away.⁶⁰ By contrast, the Duke/UNC cooperative program for Latin America met faculty needs at both universities and thrived. Indeed, librarians at Duke and UNC joined the Latin American Cooperative Acquisitions Program two years later, because they could build their national contribution on local cooperative agreements.⁶¹ The different fates of these projects demonstrate the importance of the principle of self-interest as the foundation for cooperation. Cooperative ventures that do not grow out of the academic programs or collection strengths of individual institutions will not survive.

During the 1960s, new area studies programs came into existence at both universities. Faculty and student needs for materials from and about Africa, East Asia, Eastern Europe, and South Asia, in particular, strained available funds. In meeting these new demands for resources, librarians drew on their experience with a geographical division of Latin America as a model for successful cooperation.

Faculty developed a joint Duke/UNC-CH graduate program in Russian and East European history in the early 1960s. Librarians supported it by dividing responsibility for Russian and Soviet materials in the humanities and social sciences, while limiting the acquisitions of books and serials from other East European countries to titles related to Russian studies.⁶² Later, they divided responsibility for the Slavic countries of Eastern Europe. Librarians at Duke took responsibility for Polish materials; their colleagues at UNC did the same for Czech publications; while librarians at the University of Virginia agreed to cover titles in South Slavic languages for certain subjects.

About the same time, librarians formalized agreements for Africa. As in the

case of Latin America, they based their cooperative responsibility on academic and collection strengths. Because Duke had supported a Commonwealth studies program since the mid-1950s and its libraries held many publications from these countries, librarians there took responsibility for the English-speaking areas of Africa. Librarians at UNC complemented Duke's efforts by collecting specialized materials for the Arab north and some of the French-speaking areas of sub-Saharan Africa. Eventually, they assumed responsibility for nearly all the non-Anglophone countries of the continent in order to divide costs equitably.⁶³

By the end of the decade, librarians began to cooperate on Asian materials. Here again the geographic model prevailed. Although they decided that both institutions would acquire titles to support East Asian studies in Western languages, librarians divided responsibility for materials in Chinese and Japanese.⁶⁴ Eventually, librarians at UNC accepted responsibility for acquiring and processing titles in Chinese, while those at Duke did the same for Japanese.

Librarians also formulated agreements for other areas of the world. Because of Duke's commitment to acquire Commonwealth materials and its large-scale participation in the PL-480 program, its librarians assumed responsibility for building research collections in South Asian studies and hired a South Asian bibliographer during this period.⁶⁵ Following the same logic, Duke's librarians eventually assumed responsibility for Australasia, Canada, and the English-speaking countries of the Pacific and West Indies. In response, librarians at UNC reduced their collecting of materials from all these Commonwealth countries to a basic level.

The geographical model of cooperation worked as well for these areas as it had for Latin America, and for the same reasons. One measure of the extent of the success of this model is evident in the latest union list of current foreign newspapers at Duke and UNC-CH, which dates from 1988. It revealed that only 21 percent of the 192 subscriptions were

duplicates—and these tended to be heavily used items such as *Le Monde*. Moreover, the duplication rate drops to only 4 percent when West European newspapers are excluded.

THE 1970s: PROVIDING A STRUCTURE FOR COOPERATION

The decade began inauspiciously with minor elaborations and expansions of the agreements for area studies. This situation changed a few years later, when library administrators and staff created a new framework for cooperation, and outside agencies contributed major funding for cooperative projects.

In response to inflationary increases in serials prices and concern about whether collections could support research in the rapidly growing Research Triangle Park, university librarians James Govan, UNC-CH, and Connie Dunlap, Duke, appointed a committee to explore additional cooperative ventures.⁶⁶ The group soon invited librarians at NCSU to participate as full partners, and together they established the Triangle University Libraries Cooperation Committee (TULCC). Within a few years TULCC became the Triangle Research Libraries Network (TRLN), the current umbrella organization governing all cooperative endeavors, including collection development, bibliographic and physical access, and automation.⁶⁷

These organizations provided a structure for regular communication that nurtured cooperation. During the course of increasingly frequent joint meetings, librarians became aware of shared interests and opportunities for cooperative action. As a consequence, they believed they were in a strong position to secure grants for collection development, bibliographic control, user studies, and program evaluations.⁶⁸

Librarians received two cooperative collection development grants for \$250,000 each from the Title II-C program; one during 1978/79 and another for 1980/81. They followed the successful cooperative models of the past in spending these funds. Librarians purchased materials in areas of unique aca-

demic and collection strengths. At UNC-CH, for example, they purchased specialized grammars and dictionaries to support research in linguistics. Librarians also made a number of ad hoc purchases of expensive titles, especially microform collections and newspaper and periodical backfiles. At NCSU, for example, they purchased the U.S. patents collection in microform. Finally, librarians at Duke and UNC-CH used the funds to enhance foreign area studies holdings, concentrating on the countries for which their institutions were responsible. Following the pattern of earlier cooperative collection development grants, these acquisitions represented unique additions to the consortium's collections.

The importance of these joint collection development grants for advancing cooperation between Duke, NCSU, and UNC-CH cannot be overstated. They led to a reaffirmation and refinement of previous agreements, the extension of cooperation to new areas, and the full integration of NCSU into the cooperative programs. They also helped make cooperation a central concern of collection development.

In order to implement the grants most effectively, a broad representation of selectors from all three campuses met quarterly to discuss their projects. In the past, cooperation had been the prerogative of library administrators. For the first time, as a result of these grants, librarians at the operational level began to participate directly in planning cooperative programs. By coincidence the TRLN institutions were installing new collection development staff around this time. The Title II-C grants enabled these individuals to develop a cooperative mentality that they now consider a normal—rather than exceptional—way of going about their collection development duties.

Finally, these grants enabled cooperation to proceed at a much faster pace than would have been possible otherwise. As John Shipman, university bibliographer at UNC-CH, pointed out in his final report on the second Title II-C

grant, "there have been few periods during which [cooperative] activities have reached the level of those of the past three years."⁶⁹

In order to guarantee continued cooperation, Shipman has allocated an average of \$50,000 annually since the first Title II-C grant, solely for this purpose. These funds and others that have since become available for cooperative purchases have proved to be an excellent, continuing incentive. Over the past dozen years they have totaled close to a million dollars at UNC-CH alone.⁷⁰ The availability of this money heralded the intensification of cooperative collection development efforts during the next decade.

THE 1980s: EXPANDING COOPERATION TO CORE AREAS

The success of the cooperative programs for area studies and the enthusiasm generated by regular meetings led the bibliographers with major responsibility for Western Europe and the United States to develop cooperative programs for their areas of the world. Because materials published in Europe and North America are so central to the scholarly enterprise in this country, cooperative decisions for publications from these areas have been more complex.

The cooperative ventures for Western Europe took place during the middle of the decade. The bibliographers for Western Europe at UNC-CH and Duke planned cooperative programs for French regional history and German literature.⁷¹

The first program, established in 1984, covered French regional materials for the Triangle by assigning collecting responsibility based on a geographic division of France.⁷² It applied only to lower priority titles. UNC-CH accepted responsibility for *départements* in the southern half of France and Paris; Duke, for the rest of the country.

A proposal to cooperate on German *belles lettres* also dated from that year. In order to expand the coverage of contemporary German literature, John Rutledge, bibliographer for Western European resources at UNC-CH, suggested that both

universities collect major authors, but that Duke acquire works by secondary authors whose names began with the letters A-L and Austrian writers, while UNC-CH took responsibility for those whose names began with M-Z and East German and Swiss writers.⁷³

Both programs ran into problems. By the late 1980s, when funds could no longer cover higher priority titles in major fields, librarians stopped buying minor French regional histories. They revised the program, however, to divide responsibility for major regional publications along the same geographical lines.

The proposal to collect German authors cooperatively foundered when Helene Baumann, West European bibliographer at Duke, recognizing that Duke did not have the academic programs to justify such a broad scale of collecting, stated that her "primary mandate is to buy what Duke faculty and students need now and in the future." In the same letter she suggested building to strengths at each institution, with Duke buying specialized materials on German Baroque literature and German-Americana, because of the library's strong holdings in these areas, while UNC-CH emphasized German language, pedagogy, and folklore, which built on its academic and collection strengths. Rutledge agreed with her suggestions, and cooperation on this basis has worked.⁷⁴

The success of the revised agreements for German language and literature and for French regional history once again revealed the importance of tying cooperation closely to academic programs and collection strengths rather than using abstract or arbitrary criteria. The experiment in French regional history also demonstrated that successful long-term cooperative programs cannot include subjects and materials that are too marginal to survive periods of tight funding.

During the late 1980s librarians made their first attempts to cooperate in a major way on materials related to the United States. The need to increase coverage of the American South arose when faculty and administrators at

UNC-CH proposed an institute of Southern studies modeled on the foreign area studies programs. Realizing that UNC-CH did not have the funds to acquire all the relevant materials its researchers would need, librarians turned to their colleagues at Duke and NCSU for help. Their common goal was to build a joint collection for Southern studies that would become the major center for scholars and students undertaking comparative and multistate research on the region.

Because this initiative covered all subjects and formats and involved dozens of selectors in many disciplines at three universities, staff met together for two years to exchange information and discuss possible agreements for various subjects and formats. They learned the strengths and weaknesses of each other's collections, where they duplicated one another, and where there were gaps. Once again, the prospect of outside funding acted as a powerful incentive for them to agree on divisions of responsibility for materials from and about the region.

Several factors complicated the discussions. In the first place, for historical and cultural reasons librarians in the Research Triangle have always collected intensively on the region. In addition, faculty and students at the three institutions have had strong research interests in the South for decades. Whenever people care deeply about an area or subject, cooperative collection development agreements are more difficult to negotiate.

Logistically, cooperative agreements for the South presented a challenge, because most of the scholars doing research on the region were at UNC-CH. By contrast, Duke had the largest endowment with which to purchase Southern Americana, but fewer faculty studying the South. NCSU wanted to be involved, but was not sure how its emphases on science and technology would fit in with the usual cooperative focus on the social sciences and humanities.

The organization of the libraries, their selectors, and selection sources also

complicated the negotiations. Up to this point, formal cooperative agreements had been limited to collections in the main libraries. Because of the all-encompassing nature of collection development for Southern Americana, cooperative efforts had to involve librarians in both central and branch libraries. In developing these agreements, librarians needed to be sensitive to the complex relationships between faculty and staff in branch libraries and their lack of experience with cooperation.

The types of selectors at the three institutions further complicated the process. Until this project, cooperation had involved primarily full-time collection development officers who covered many fields. The scope of their responsibilities gave them a broad perspective on subjects, users, and overall library resources. They also had enough autonomy and authority to develop cooperative agreements. Most librarians involved with Southern Americana were part-time selectors responsible for one discipline. Because of the nature of their responsibilities, their perspectives, and their lack of experience with cooperation, they were also less aware of the ways it could benefit the larger community.

In addition, the sources that selectors used to identify items for acquisition had an impact on the materials they could cover. Librarians at UNC-CH and NCSU used Library of Congress proofslips and cataloging-in-publication forms, which encompass a broad array of materials related to the South and include many nontrade and other specialized titles. Duke's selectors relied primarily on vendor forms, book reviews, and user suggestions, which provided narrower coverage of the universe of publications, but met their collection development needs.

Finally, collecting priorities differed, resulting in varying commitments from each institution. Duke's selectors emphasized special collections—and had the endowed funds to afford such materials. NCSU's collection development officers preferred to concentrate on a limited number of academic and collec-

tion strengths, such as climatology, and a few formats, such as dissertations. Librarians at UNC-CH decided to focus on title-by-title selection, because of their ability to identify a broad spectrum of publications and because of the wide range of topics their faculty and students were researching.

The cooperative agreements for the American South that emerged from these meetings covered all subjects and formats and incorporated lessons librarians had learned over the decades. The divisions of responsibility met the priorities and needs of each institution and were therefore likely to continue. Where a university had strong or unique academic programs or collecting strengths, librarians based responsibilities on them. Because NCSU had a college of textiles, for example, librarians there assumed responsibility for materials on this topic. Their colleagues at UNC-CH took responsibility for folk music, because of that library's special collection of those materials.

Where more than one institution had academic or collection strengths, librarians divided responsibility on an ad hoc basis for expensive titles, such as microform sets, or systematically, by geography (for newspapers) or format. In the case of regional *belles lettres*, for example, Duke agreed to collect small press materials, while UNC-CH concentrated on little magazines. The agreements represented an equitable division of costs, as they had for the area studies programs.

More broadly, the cooperative agreements for Southern Americana revealed that librarians could cooperate in interdisciplinary areas of intense interest to many constituencies and do so even in times of financial austerity. Indeed, when programs are organic and build on academic programs and collection strengths, library priorities, and organizational structures, they are more likely to be successful in the long run than are arbitrary divisions of responsibility that ignore these crucial factors.

The success of the cooperative efforts for Southern Americana bore fruit in 1991/92 and 1992/93, when the three

libraries received two Title II-C grants of nearly \$600,000 to acquire materials documenting the contemporary South. In particular, readers of the grant liked the cooperative nature, detailed planning, and comprehensiveness of the proposal. Librarians are expanding on this success by pursuing other grants for Southern Americana.

The ability of librarians to work together on cooperative projects for Western Europe and the American South was significantly enhanced by a shared online catalog that became operational mid-decade. Just as library cooperation in the 1930s owed its success to bibliographic and physical access to the collections, cooperative collection development in the 1980s advanced for similar reasons. A joint online union catalog made the resources of the three libraries available to all their users. During this period TRLN librarians also extended direct borrowing to undergraduates; expedited inter-library borrowing, including the faxing of priority requests; and wrote special lending agreements for East Asian vernacular materials related to cooperative programs.

Advances in shared automation also made ad hoc cooperation possible for a wider range of materials by significantly lowering the cost of determining what each library held. These developments contributed to the increasing importance of collection strengths in influencing cooperation. Finally, they made library cooperation more acceptable to faculty, students, and librarians, and helped users and selectors view the TRLN collections as ultimately one.

THE 1990s: LOOKING TO THE FUTURE

Although the sciences had been part of the first cooperative collection development grant in 1935, they vanished almost immediately as an area of cooperative endeavor. For fifty years cooperation remained confined to the humanities and social sciences. In response to a lack of funding for acquisitions and the tremendous increases in the number and cost of scientific, techni-

cal, and medical serials in the mid-1980s, librarians took a renewed interest in cooperative collection development in the sciences. The pressures generated by these forces led selectors of scientific materials to begin meeting together in 1988.

Cooperation in the sciences received a further boost when administrators at NCSU, the university with the strongest focus on science and technology, appointed full-time science bibliographers with responsibilities for large subject clusters. Like the subject and area bibliographers for the humanities and social sciences, these full-time collection development officers assumed a leading role in planning and coordinating cooperation.

Science selectors have been supported in their efforts by the creation of a structure for incorporating specialized areas into the cooperative collection development organization. In order to broaden the scope of cooperation, the TRLN Collection Development Committee added roundtables covering nonprint materials and government documents in 1990. The following year it established a roundtable for medical, scientific, and technological fields. Now the science librarians have a forum and context to develop cooperative agreements.

Cooperative collection development in the sciences received additional encouragement from a two-year grant the Council on Library Resources (CLR) awarded TRLN in 1991. Under this grant administrators, faculty, and librarians are identifying the obstacles to cooperation in the sciences, determining how to overcome them through advanced technology, creating new organizational arrangements that ensure ongoing faculty participation, and discovering the kinds of strategies that might enable TRLN to provide advanced electronic information services.⁷⁵

Another aspect of the CLR grant involves the development of administrative structures to formalize cooperative agreements. When the cooperative programs began in the 1930s, they were part of an overall institutional emphasis on intellectual cooperation. Since then, the

heads of the universities have continued to encourage library cooperation. *The Memorandum of Understanding* establishing TRLN bears the signatures of the universities' presidents and chancellors, and the provosts serve on its governing board. Although university administrators have supported all general cooperative agreements, librarians have never asked for—nor received—faculty or official administrative approval for specific cooperative collection development programs.

Over decades of cooperation librarians have run into problems on two counts because they lacked faculty involvement and formal administrative approval. In the first place, faculty have occasionally exerted pressure to change agreements that did not match their research needs. In the second place, administrators and faculty have established academic programs in areas that librarians had ceded to cooperating institutions and therefore could not support adequately. In such cases, university administrators would have been better served if they had been aware of the cooperative agreements and the economic consequences of abrogating them. TRLN librarians are using the CLR grant to create a way for faculty to participate in the development of cooperative agreements and for university administrators to endorse them formally. This type of faculty and administrative involvement should increase the likelihood of successful long-term cooperation.

The continuing proliferation and growing importance of interdisciplinary research throughout the academy presents librarians with many new opportunities for cooperation. Librarians at Duke, NCSU, and UNC-CH, for example, are using the CLR grant to discover if the recently created Center for World Environment and Sustainable Development—which involves over 150 faculty from all three Research Triangle universities—might provide a model for cooperative collection development in the sciences.

OBSERVATIONS ON SUCCESSFUL COOPERATION

For more than half a century librarians at the Research Triangle universities

have wrestled with the key issues of cooperative collection development: Why should librarians cooperate? Which academic disciplines, subjects, and types of materials make good candidates for cooperation? How do librarians, faculty, and administrators work together to develop viable programs? In this article we have analyzed our efforts to answer these questions. We offer the following synthesis of the insights we have gained as a guide to help others create equally effective cooperative collection development programs.

Rationale for Cooperation

The goals of cooperative collection development are institutional excellence and enhanced service to users. Administrators, faculty, and staff rarely have the resources to support academic programs and library collections at the level they envision. They must therefore seek innovative approaches to advance local aspirations and meet local needs over the long term. Cooperative collection development is the best—and increasingly the only—way to realize these goals. If cooperation is to succeed, it must therefore emphasize institutional advancement and enhanced service to users rather than saving money.⁷⁶

Librarians can achieve these goals by developing cooperative programs that build interlocked collections. This strategy extends the number of unique titles available to users. Materials that librarians at one institution cannot afford or think are inappropriate may be available from other members of the consortium. This approach also minimizes the unnecessary duplication of materials. By coordinating their collections, librarians do not need to duplicate specialized research materials and can use their funds to buy titles that are more central to academic programs and collection strengths.

The resulting interdependent collections provide a breadth and depth of coverage that would be impossible for individual institutions to achieve on their own. Eventually, cooperating libraries become resources both for their

institutions and the entire country. These ideas have been central to cooperative collection development among the Research Triangle university libraries from the beginning.⁷⁷

Principles of Successful Cooperation

Librarians at the Research Triangle universities have identified several principles that have served their cooperative programs well. They include institutional self-interest, academic and collection strengths, audience and level of use, the centrality of subjects and materials to the local scholarly enterprise, and the way programs change over time.

Librarians have learned that cooperation must spring from institutional self-interest and that agreements must grow organically out of academic programs and collection strengths. Only by grounding cooperative responsibilities in this way can librarians create viable programs.⁷⁸ If they divide responsibilities too abstractly or arbitrarily and do not tie them to programs or collections, cooperation will not survive.⁷⁹ It follows, then, that because each participant must believe that cooperative programs serve its self-interest, cooperative programs must be viewed as mutually advantageous by all involved, although the benefits do not have to be absolutely equal. Librarians should therefore accept collecting responsibilities within regional or national cooperative programs only when they base them on the needs of their local institutions, because only then can their institutions be held truly accountable for fulfilling their obligations.⁸⁰

Following this principle, librarians have discovered that they need to build agreements on what their library can and wants to contribute to cooperation. Colleagues at cooperating institutions cannot force each other to assume obligations nor restrict what they can acquire.⁸¹

Librarians have also learned to limit cooperative efforts to research materials. They specifically have excluded undergraduate and heavily used graduate titles, and considered the duplication of basic texts, sets, and serials desirable.⁸²

Through decades of trial and error, librarians have come to realize that the subjects and materials covered by cooperative agreements must not be so central to research that faculty insist they be available locally, nor so marginal to it that tight funding jeopardizes a program's existence. If librarians accept cooperative responsibility for areas that are too peripheral to academic programs or library collections, the agreements will not survive the hard financial times that institutions periodically face. No matter how well intentioned, when funding cuts threaten major programs, cooperative agreements for materials at the periphery perish.

Finally, if the cooperative programs are to remain viable, librarians have recognized that they must be flexible.⁸³ As programs on campus change, new faculty research interests develop, or new collecting opportunities arise, cooperative agreements require modifications.

Types of Successful Cooperation

Over the years librarians have identified two major kinds of cooperation. The ad hoc approach is one of the most basic forms of cooperative collection development; it is also one of the most successful. Systematic cooperation is more complex and more limited in its applications.⁸⁴

The earliest attempts at cooperation used the ad hoc approach. While it can be applied to all subjects and kinds of materials, ad hoc cooperation works best in exceptional cases, primarily for expensive titles. Appropriate candidates include large microform collections, costly periodical subscriptions, domestic and Western European newspapers, extensive serial backfiles, substantial multivolume sets, and items for special collections.⁸⁵ The high cost of materials in these categories justifies the time librarians must spend negotiating the decision to purchase them. The ad hoc approach to cooperation is not efficient for the regular, ongoing selection of books and serials, however.

Systematic cooperation for books, serials, and other library materials works

where institutions have unique academic programs or library collection strengths.⁸⁶ It is also viable in instances where more than one institution supports strong academic programs or library collections that are of interest to many disciplines but not central to any single one. Because these materials are important but not crucial to disciplinary subfields, it is politically possible for librarians to build cooperative programs for them. Materials that lend themselves to systematic cooperation include those that are distinct in format or method of acquisition, those that support foreign-area studies, and those that are interdisciplinary in nature. In all these cases, once librarians agree to cooperate, they do not need to consult with their cooperative collection development partners on each title.

One of the models for systematic cooperation consists of materials that are distinct in format or method of acquisitions. Government publications are excellent examples of this type of cooperative collection development. Librarians can divide responsibility by geography, subject, format, or issuing agency. Electronic resources may also provide opportunities for systematic cooperation.

Area studies materials also make excellent candidates for systematic cooperation, particularly titles published in foreign countries. Librarians can accept—or avoid—responsibility for these areas, based on academic programs or collection strengths. If they decide to share responsibility with another institution, a geographical division works well, because it is clearly defined and easy to remember. Indeed, with a few minor adjustments, the geographical division of responsibility for materials from and about Latin America, for example, has been successful for half a century.⁸⁷

Systematic cooperation is more difficult for Western Europe and the United States, because materials from and about these parts of the world are more central to the scholarly enterprise in this country. One possibility is to develop an interdisciplinary approach to books, se-

rials, and library materials that divides coverage according to academic and collection strengths, format, and geography, as we have done with Southern Americana and hope to do for environmental studies. As new areas of interdisciplinary research become more prominent, librarians will have more opportunities to explore this type of cooperation.

By contrast, agreements based on major academic subfields and specialties will not work, except on an ad hoc basis. Faculty need to have materials that are closely related to major subfields available locally. For conventional disciplines, then, there is still no successful model for systematic cooperation. In short, it seems to be impossible to divide academic disciplines in an academic way.

Factors Contributing to Successful Cooperation

Looking back over decades of cooperative effort, we have identified seven major factors that promote successful cooperative collection development. They include propitious circumstances, visionary and committed individuals, supportive organizational structures, appropriate staff participation, bibliographic and physical accessibility to collections, outside funding, and a history of successful cooperation.

First, circumstances have to be conducive to cooperation.⁸⁸ When the economic, social, political, cultural, or academic environment limits an institution's ability to provide resources, a joint effort becomes the best way to meet local needs. The situation at Duke and UNC-CH in the 1930s provided the impetus for cooperative collection development. Given the South's poverty, administrators, faculty, and librarians knew they did not have the resources to build major research libraries competitively, so they decided to meet the need for materials cooperatively. Over the decades, each major new cooperative initiative has begun for similar reasons—a need for library resources without adequate funds to acquire them locally. Now, al-

most sixty years later, the rising costs of library materials, the appearance of new electronic formats, and inadequate funding create new imperatives to expand cooperative collection development.

Second, key individuals must share both a vision of what cooperation can accomplish and a commitment to pursue cooperative options. While administrators, faculty, and librarians understood the limitations imposed by circumstances in the 1930s, they also had a vision of what they could accomplish through cooperation—not only for their own institutions but also for the region. Since then, library staff have continued to search for new ways to cooperate, while library administrators have supported them. Their vision and commitment have been crucial to success.⁸⁹

Third, administrators must establish formal organizational structures that encourage cooperation.⁹⁰ Library cooperation in the Research Triangle began in the context of "cultural relations between the two institutions,"⁹¹ and involved university administrators, faculty, and librarians. University administrators and faculty have continued to participate, but only up to a point. Librarians have never asked faculty or university administrators to ratify specific cooperative collection development agreements. Intra-institutional structures that provided for greater faculty involvement and specific administrative endorsement would lend more credibility to cooperative agreements, because all parties concerned would have worked together to create them. These groups would therefore have a greater stake in maintaining them.

Interinstitutional structures are also important, because they foster an environment in which cooperation can take place. Cooperative collection development among the Research Triangle institutions began and has been periodically revitalized and expanded because university or library administrators created new organizations to promote it. The regular meetings of collection development staff, which began under the auspices of TRLN in the

1970s, provide opportunities for librarians to maintain old cooperative programs and create new ones. These meetings also encourage honest and open communication between librarians from different institutions, help selectors coordinate practices, and thereby socialize staff for cooperation.⁹²

Fourth, the involvement of staff at the operational level is essential. No matter how much administrators promote cooperation, the key to success lies ultimately with individual selectors. They, and not administrators, create and operate the actual cooperative programs. Selectors therefore need to be intimately involved in all aspects of the cooperative process for their areas of responsibility.⁹³ The resulting participatory relationship among selectors ensures they will make realistic commitments and meet their obligations to each other.⁹⁴

Selectors also need support and time.⁹⁵ A major reason the area studies programs have been successful is because full-time bibliographers have overseen their development from the beginning and have devoted considerable intelligence, creativity, and energy to maintaining them. Where cooperative programs for Western Europe and the United States exist, it is because full-time collection development officers have taken the initiative and worked with their part-time colleagues to bring such programs into existence. Cooperation in the sciences has not yet emerged. If it does, it will be partly because recently appointed full-time science bibliographers can nurture its development.⁹⁶

Fifth, the experience of TRLN and other cooperative consortia demonstrates that librarians must provide information about the holdings of cooperating libraries and maximize the availability of their collections.⁹⁷ Bibliographic accessibility, faculty and student access to collections, and special document delivery have been critical to successful cooperation. In the 1930s, librarians duplicated main entry cards and created a union catalog. Shortly thereafter, they added direct faculty borrowing and daily document delivery.

During the 1980s, they created a joint online catalog, expanded borrowing for faculty and all students, and improved interlibrary loan (including the faxing of rush requests and free or subsidized photocopies of articles). New technologies offer even greater opportunities to link libraries in cooperative endeavors in the 1990s.⁹⁸ Indeed, although the proximity of the TRLN libraries aided cooperation in the past, advances in telecommunications and the appearance of electronic library resources reduce the significance of distance, both for the Research Triangle university libraries and for other institutions around the country.⁹⁹

Sixth, librarians need to recognize the importance of outside funding both for initiating new ventures and revitalizing old ones. Although the TRLN cooperative programs began during the Depression when the economy could not have been worse, financial need alone did not lead to cooperation. As a matter of fact, a recent survey of cooperative collection development programs among members of the Association of Research Libraries found only one other program dating from the 1930s.¹⁰⁰ Rather, outside funding was the catalyst that brought cooperation into being and contributed to its success.¹⁰¹ From their beginning in the 1930s, through the development of cooperative programs for area studies in the 1940s, 1950s, and 1960s, to the revitalization and expansion of cooperation in the 1970s, 1980s, and 1990s, every major cooperative initiative by TRLN librarians has come about because of the existence of outside funds used either as

seed money or to lock in embryonic cooperative agreements.

Finally, a history of successful cooperation encourages its continuance and expansion.¹⁰² In the case of TRLN, the cooperative programs are solidly established, well-known throughout the universities, and widely accepted by administrators, faculty, and librarians. After half a century members of the consortium have built formidable complementary collections. Any attempt to abrogate these arrangements would entail significant political and economic costs. Therefore, just as historical circumstances provided the impetus that led to cooperation in the 1930s, they are now influential in ensuring its survival.

Approximately two-thirds of a century ago, during the depths of the Depression, administrators, faculty, and librarians at Duke and UNC-CH realized that they would never have enough money to build two separate comprehensive collections. By working together, however, TRLN librarians have built coordinated, interdependent, and interlocked collections of far greater breadth and depth than they could have achieved alone.

Currently librarians across the country face similar problems. They cannot afford to acquire all the materials scholars need for research, nor will they be able to document fully contemporary civilization. By cooperating, however, librarians can build local, regional, and national collections that serve both their institutions and the world.

REFERENCES AND NOTES

1. Indeed, Joe Hewitt and John S. Shipman found that "the theoretical necessity and potential benefits of cooperative collection development are almost universally recognized," and even "libraries reporting no cooperative collection development activity seemed as favorably disposed to the *idea* of cooperative collection development as those in libraries actively engaged in programs." "Cooperative Collection Development among Research Libraries in the Age of Networking: Report of a Survey of ARL Libraries," *Advances in Library Automation and Networking* 1 (1987): 191, 198.
2. Database Overlap Study (Chapel Hill, N.C.: TRLN, Oct. 31, 1988), and TRLN Database Overlap Study (Chapel Hill, N.C.: TRLN, May 1992).
3. Quoted in Minutes of the Department Heads Meeting (Academic Affairs Library, UNC-CH), Oct. 24, 1989, 2.

4. U. S. House, Subcommittee on Postsecondary Education, *Hearing on the Reauthorization of the Higher Education Act of 1965: Library Programs* (Serial No. 102-35) (Washington, D.C.: Govt. Print. Off., 1991): 42.
5. Hewitt and Shipman found only one cooperative collection development program among ARL institutions older than that of the Research Triangle university libraries—and it is confined to the field of religion. 202.
6. Before the creation of the university system in 1963, "UNC" consisted only of the Chapel Hill campus; after that date the formal designation of "Chapel Hill" was added.
7. Robert Estall, *Population Change: The American South* (London: John Murray, 1989), 5.
8. Louis R. Wilson, *The Library of the First State University: A Review of Its Past and a Look at Its Future* (Chapel Hill, N.C.: University of North Carolina Library, 1960), 23, 27.
9. For statistics on collection size, growth, and expenditures during this period, see Robert E. Molyneux, *The Gerould Statistics, 1907/08-1961/62* (Washington, D.C.: Association of Research Libraries, 1986) and U.S. Advisory Committee on Education, *Library Service*, report prepared by Carleton B. Joeckel (Washington, D.C.: Govt. Print. Off., 1938): 91.
10. For concise discussions of regionalism and the New South ideology, see Charles Reagon Wilson and William Ferris, *Encyclopedia of Southern Culture* (Chapel Hill, N.C.: Univ. of North Carolina Pr., 1989): 1113-15, 1121-22.
11. (Durham-Chapel Hill, N.C., 1935), 7-8.
12. *Program of Cooperation*, 9.
13. General Education Board, *Annual Report 1947/48*, 45. See also its *Annual Report, 1933/34*, 23-25, and *1934/35*, 33.
14. Raymond B. Fosdick, *Adventure in Giving: The Story of the General Education Board: A Foundation Established by John D. Rockefeller* (New York: Harper, 1962), 269-73.
15. E. Morrell, letter to Frank [Porter] Graham, Apr. 6, 1934, and R. B. House, letter to [Robert Diggs Wimberly] Conner, May 14, 1934, Chancellor's Records, R. B. House Series, Faculty Affairs, Special Committees: Intellectual Cooperation with Duke, 1929-1934, University Archives, UNC-CH: 1.
16. Proposed Principles of Procedure for Cooperative Buying Program on the Part of the Libraries of Duke University and the University of North Carolina, n.d., Academic Affairs Library, Librarian's Records, Duke University-University of North Carolina Library Cooperation, 1930-1933, University Archives, UNC-CH.
17. UNC, *Report of the Division of Library and Library School 1935/36*, 1.
18. General Education Board, *Annual Report 1933/34*, 33.
19. Memorandum to President Graham on Application to the General Education Board for Funds for Library Research Materials, May 2, 1935, 3, Chancellor's Records, R. B. House Series, Committee on Intellectual Cooperation with Duke University, University Archives, UNC-CH; and Request for Aid in Developing Reference and Research Facilities in the Libraries of the University of North Carolina and Duke University (and its appendices) [May 4, 1935], 15, Libraries Records, Cooperation with UNC Library, AEB Acquisitions, University Archives, Duke University.
20. Robert B. Downs and Harvie Branscomb, "A Venture in University Library Cooperation," *Library Journal* 60 (Nov. 15, 1935): 877-79; and Harvie Branscomb and Robert B. Downs, "A Plan for University Library Cooperation," *School and Society* 42 (July 13, 1935): 64-66.
21. These principles and the specific guidelines for interpreting them are embodied in the Proposed Principles; see also articles by Downs and Branscomb, cited in n.20.
22. "Desiderata," *Library Notes* (Duke University), no. 15 (Dec. 1945): 13.
23. Robert B. Downs, "American Library Cooperation in Review," *College & Research Libraries* 6 (1945): 415.
24. *Ibid.*
25. *Program of Cooperation*, 10.
26. *Ibid.*, 10-11.
27. Request for Aid, 12.
28. *Ibid.*
29. *Ibid.*, 13.
30. Request for Aid appendices.
31. Report to General Education Board on Expenditure of Grant to Duke University and the University of North Carolina Libraries for Research Materials, Nov. 16, 1937, 2,

- Libraries Records, Cooperation with UNC Library, AEB Acquisitions, University Archives, Duke University.
32. [Robert Downs], letter to Harvie Branscomb, July 6, 1936, Duke Documents, 1936-1959, University Archives, Duke University.
 33. Cooperation with the University of North Carolina Library in the Collection of Public Documents, Duke Documents, 1936-1959, University Archives, Duke University.
 34. See UNC, *Report of the Division of Library and Library School 1936/37*, 10; Memorandum of Conference with Mr. Nuremberger of Duke University Documents Department, Sept. 21, 1939, Duke Documents, 1936-59, University Archives, Duke University; and C. E. Rush, Concise Outline: Agreements and Understandings between the libraries [sic] of Duke University and the University of North Carolina Relative to Library Cooperation [Dec. 1, 1941], 2, Academic Affairs Library, Librarians' Records, Duke-UNC Cooperation: Memoranda, University Archives, UNC-CH. See also G. F. Sherperd, Jr., Carolina-Duke Cooperative Plan for Acquisitions of Documents, Apr. 10, 1942, Academic Affairs Library, Librarians' Records, Duke University-UNC Library Cooperation: 1942, University Archives, UNC-CH, in which the geographical division for state documents becomes more prominent.
 35. UNC, *Report of the Division of Library and Library School 1936/37*, 2; and Academic Affairs Library, Librarians' Records, Carolina-Duke Cooperation, [1941?], Committee on Intellectual Cooperation, 1934-52, University Archives, UNC-CH, 1; see also Howard E. Jensen, "The Race Relations Collection of the Duke University Libraries," *Library Notes* (Duke University), no. 23 (Jan. 1950), 9-10.
 36. Request for Aid in the Further Development of Materials for Advanced Study in the Libraries of Duke University and the University of North Carolina, [Jan. 1938], 2-3, Chancellor's Records, R. B. House Series, Committee on Intellectual Cooperation with Duke University, University Archives, UNC-CH.
 37. Request for Aid in the Further Development, 5-6.
 38. Carolina-Duke Cooperation, [1939?], 1-2, Academic Affairs Library, Librarians' Records, Duke-UNC Cooperation, University Archives, UNC-CH.
 39. Quoted in *Friends of the Library* (n. d.), 1; reprinted from *The Alumni Review* (UNC) (July 1940).
 40. See Sturgis E. Leavitt, "University Cooperation," Paper delivered at the Bibliographical Conference, Washington, D.C., Feb. 21, 1942, in his Papers Presented at Various Meetings, 1935-1955, North Carolina Collection, UNC-CH.
 41. "Cooperation in Advanced Instruction and Research," in *Development of Library Resources*, 42; and Cooperation in Latin American Purchases Duke-UNC-Tulane, [Oct. 1939] and Cooperation in Library Purchases between Duke University, Tulane University, the University of North Carolina: Policy and Procedures [1940?], Academic Affairs Library, Librarians' Records, Latin American Cooperative Program, 1938-41, University Archives, UNC-CH.
 42. "A Grant for Books on Latin America," *Library Notes* (Duke University) no.9 (Oct. 1940), 4; and Rush, 5.
 43. Cooperation in Library Purchases, 1-2.
 44. "Grant," 4.
 45. Cooperation in Library Purchases, 1-2.
 46. *Ibid.*, 1.
 47. UNC, *Report of the Division of Library and Library School 1939/40*, 2.
 48. University of North Carolina and Duke University Program of Library Cooperation, [May 1, 1942], 2, Libraries: Records of Cooperation with UNC Library, University Archives, Duke University.
 49. University of North Carolina and Duke University Program of Library Cooperation, [May 1, 1942], 2-3. See also E. Carl Pratt, "Library Cooperation at Duke and North Carolina Universities," *College & Research Libraries* 2 (1941): 142-45.
 50. "A Grant from the Carnegie Corporation," *Library Notes* (Duke University), no.10 (May 1941): 5.
 51. Memorandum on University of North Carolina and Duke University Program of Library Cooperation, Oct. 8, 1952, 1-2, Chancellors' Records: R. B. House Series, Committee on Intellectual Cooperation with Duke, University Archives, UNC-CH.

52. See B. E. Powell, "Library Cooperation between Duke University and the University of North Carolina," *Library Notes* (Duke University), no. 31 (Nov. 1955): 13-15.
53. Duke-Carolina Cooperation and Its Extension (DCCE), July 1, 1956, 2, Cooperative Programs Files, Collection Development Department, Academic Affairs Library, UNC-CH [source hereafter cited as CPF].
54. Cooperative Lending Program of the Libraries of Duke, North Carolina State College, the University of North Carolina and the Woman's College of the University of North Carolina, Aug. 26, 1955, 1, Libraries Records, Cooperation with UNC Library, University Archives, Duke University.
55. DCCE, 2-3.
56. *Ibid.*, 3.
57. *Ibid.*, 3 and 5. After Tulane dropped out of the cooperative program for Latin America, Duke assumed responsibility for materials from Central America; UNC, for those from the Caribbean islands.
58. See correspondence between Gertrude Merritt (Duke) and Harry Bergholz (UNC) in the fall of 1959, CPF.
59. Benjamin E. Powell, letter to Jerrold Orne, June 9, 1961, and Orne, letter to Powell, June 22, 1961, CPF.
60. See Hendrik Edelman, "The Death of the Farmington Plan," *Library Journal* 98 (Apr. 15, 1973): 1253.
61. Duke University, *The University Libraries: Report to the President 1963/64*, 9.
62. John S. Curtiss, letter to Benjamin E. Powell, Apr. 17, 1962; and University of North Carolina-Duke University Cooperative Program in Russian and East European History, n.d.; both from Slavic Bibliographer's Files, Collection Development Department, Academic Affairs Library, UNC-CH.
63. Duke University-University of North Carolina Working Agreement on Africana Library Materials, [June 1, 1965], CPF; see also, Duke University, *The University Libraries 1964/65*, 5-6.
64. Tentative Selection Guidelines for Asian Materials, Mar. 15, 1972, Duke-UNC Cooperation, Administrative Offices, Academic Affairs Library, UNC-CH. These agreements were originally formulated in the fall of 1970.
65. Duke University, *The University Libraries 1960/61*, 6; and 1961/62, 4; and 1971/72, 2-3.
66. Duke-UNC Committee on Cooperation, Report of Meeting, Apr. 30, 1976, 1-2, CPF; see also Joe Hewitt, "Triangle Universities Library Cooperation Committee," in his Selected Unpublished Papers and Presentations 1976-1980 ([Chapel Hill, N.C.], n.d.).
67. On the last aspect, see Gary D. Byrd et al., "The Evolution of a Cooperative Online Network," *Library Journal* 110, no.2 (Feb. 1, 1985): 71-77.
68. Minutes of UNC-CH/Duke Meeting, Jan. 27, 1977, 2, CPF.
69. Memorandum to Miss Florence Blakely, from John S. Shipman, Re Final Report, Title II C, Strengthening Research Libraries Resources Program, Oct. 28, 1981, 1, CPF.
70. "Notes from the Hanes Meeting of October 15, 1981," 1, CPF, and John Shipman, "Total Materials Funds Associated with Cooperative Purchases, FY 1979/80-FY 1991/92" (Chapel Hill, N. C.: UNC-CH, Academic Affairs Library, Collection Development Department, Jan. 8, 1992).
71. See John Rutledge's articles: "Collecting French Regional History Cooperatively," *Collection Management* 8, no. 2 (Summer 1986): 63-77; and "Collecting Contemporary European Literature for a Research Library," *Collection Management* 5, no.1/2 (Spring/Summer 1983): 1-13.
72. Program for Cooperative Collection of French Regional Materials, Mar. 2, 1984, 1, West European Bibliographer's Files, Collection Development Department, Academic Affairs Library, UNC-CH.
73. James Rolleston, letter to John Rutledge, May 17, 1984; and Proposal for the Cooperative Collecting of Contemporary German Belles Lettres between UNC-CH and Duke University, [July 23, 1984], West European Bibliographer's Files, Collection Development Department, Academic Affairs Library, UNC-CH.
74. Helene Baumann, letter to John Rutledge, Jan. 11, 1989, and Rutledge, letter to Baumann, Jan. 27, 1989, West European Bibliographer's Files, Collection Development Department, Academic Affairs Library, UNC-CH.

75. See the CLR grant proposal: Cooperative Information Resources Development: A Constituency Based Policy Analysis [Chapel Hill, N.C.], Oct. 10, 1990.
76. David Stam agrees, citing the experience of the Research Libraries Group (RLG). "Collaborative Collection Development: Progress, Problems and Potential," *IFLA Journal*, 12, no. 1 (1986): 18. Richard M. Dougherty also shares this view: "To a financially strapped administrator, cooperation may be seen as a way to generate real dollar savings or to justify future budget reductions. But dollars saved is the wrong measuring rod—library cooperation rarely generates identifiable dollar savings. Cooperative programs in resource sharing and/or shared collection development are better viewed as strategies to enlarge the universe of titles available to library users and/or to speed up the delivery of documents through interlibrary lending/borrowing systems. These two criteria, availability and delivery, are more appropriate measures of the success of cooperative programs." "A Conceptual Framework for Organizing Resource Sharing and Shared Collection Development Programs," *Journal of Academic Librarianship*, 14, no. 5, (Nov. 1988): 287. See also Sheila T. Dowd, "Library Cooperation: Methods, Models to Aid Information Access," *Journal of Library Administration*, 12, no. 3 (1990): 66.
77. Hewitt and Shipman found that the expansion of the range of materials available to users, followed by a reduction in duplication, were also major objectives of cooperative programs among research libraries. 207.
78. Paul H. Mosher and Marcia Pankake in particular stress that "programs must be responsive and minimally threatening to local priorities" and that "emphasis should be on nonthreatening models which protect and recognize substantial and long-term institutional program commitments and seek to build on these." "A Guide to Coordinated and Cooperative Collection Development," *Library Resources & Technical Services* 27 (1983): 425. Donald Simpson agrees. "Library Consortia and Access to Information: Costs and Cost Justification," *Journal of Library Administration*, 12, no. 3 (1990): 96. Librarians in New York successfully established their cooperative collection development efforts on the assumption that "what libraries were actually doing in collection development in their institutions' self-interest, they would be willing to continue to do in the region's interest No monitoring or enforcement had been built into the State's program. Enlightened self-interest was, therefore, both the only motivation for following the regional plan and a very appropriate one in a cooperative system." Joan Neumann, "Impact of New York's Collection Development Funds on Resource Sharing," *Bookmark* 45 (Fall 1986): 26-29. Self-interest, coupled with financial incentives, has also been crucial to cooperation even for institutions within a system. See George J. Soete and Karin Wittenborg, "Applying a Strategic Planning Process to Resource Sharing: The Changing Face of Collaborative Collection Development among the University of California Libraries," *Advances in Library Resource Sharing* 2 (1991): 56-57.
79. George Jefferson says that one of the early attempts at library cooperation in the British Isles failed because "allocation of purposely narrow subjects fields to encourage participation was done arbitrarily," and that "large libraries found . . . it was difficult to reconcile this obligation with their duties to local readers." A more successful attempt in Wales assigned subject groups "after participating libraries had submitted their choice of subject." Eventually, however, there were so many objections "to the arbitrary allocation of subject fields," that librarians eventually retreated to an ad hoc method of acquisition. Jefferson attributes the success of a later experiment in the Newcastle area to the fact that "cooperative projects [were] founded on the realism of local circumstances and characterized by pragmatism rather than neat theoretical abstractions." *Library Co-operation*, 2d ed. (London: André Deutsch, 1977), 35-36 and 123. Librarians in Australia are also basing their cooperative efforts on collection strengths as related to local university programs, an organic and therefore successful strategy. See Margaret A. Cameron, "Evaluation and Inter-institutional Cooperation in Collection Development," *Australian Academic & Research Libraries* 20 (Mar. 1989): 23-28.
80. When librarians base cooperative commitments on local needs, they obviate Middel's concerns about accountability in national efforts. "Accountability in Cooperative Collection Development: The Elusive Ingredient," in *Academic Libraries: Myths and*

Realities: Proceedings of the Third National Conference of the Association of College and Research Libraries, ed. Suzanne C. Dodson and Gary L. Menges (Chicago: Association of College and Research Libraries, 1984): 245-48.

81. David Stam points out that all cooperative efforts by the founding members of RLG "were entirely voluntary, thereby recognizing the continued autonomy of each institution." "Collaborative," 10. This approach has been essential to the success of other cooperative programs. See Karen Krueger, "A System Level Coordinated Cooperative Collection Development Model for Illinois," in *Coordinating Cooperative Collection Development: A National Perspective*, ed. Wilson Luquire (New York: Haworth Press, 1986), 53-54; Soete and Wittenborg, 56; and Mosher and Pankake, 425.
82. Such a user-oriented approach allows cooperative programs to work even when institutions vary greatly in the breadth and depth of collections, as in the case of ILLINET libraries. See Krueger, 50-51.
83. In fact, Mosher and Pankake state that cooperative agreements should be reviewed every three to five years and modified to reflect any changes in practice. 429. Martha Smith stresses the same point. "Cooperative Collection Development for Rare Books among Neighboring Academic Libraries," *College & Research Libraries* 46 (1985): 160-67.
84. Hewitt and Shipman found ad hoc agreements on expensive research materials and the selection and cancellation of serials to be the most common form of cooperation among research libraries, while systematic divisions of responsibility based on subject, language, country of origin, or format were rare, and when they existed, they were narrow in scope. 191 and also 211-15.
85. Other cooperative ventures have had similar experiences. See Soete and Wittenborg, 53, 55, and 57, and Elizabeth Roberts, "Cooperation, Collection Management, and Scientific Journals," *College & Research Libraries*, 48 (1987): 247-51.
86. Elizabeth P. Roberts gives an example of such a program between the libraries of Washington State University and the University of Idaho, where UI has responsibility for journals in forestry and mining; WSU, for veterinary medicine, because the other institution does not have academic programs in those areas. "Cooperation," 247-51, and "Cooperative Collection Development of Science Serials," *Serials Librarian* 14, no. 1/2 (1988): 19-31. More broadly, David Stam, among others, states that the North American Collections Inventory Project's *Conspectus* was designed "to present a composite picture of collection strengths and current collection practices in participating libraries." Librarians are using information about these unique collection strengths to build systematic cooperative programs on a national scale. "Collaborative," 11.
87. This was the approach that the Farmington Plan and its national-level successors later adopted. More recently, local and regional cooperative programs, such as the Northwest Regional Consortium for Southeast Asian Studies, have assigned specialized collecting responsibilities for specific foreign countries to their member libraries. On the latter, see Marian Ritter, "Four Paradigms for Sharing Library Resources," *College & Research Libraries News* 52 (1991): 367.
88. David C. Weber noted that timing is often critical to successful cooperation and that economic motives are found in every example he cites. "A Century of Cooperative Programs among Academic Libraries," *College & Research Libraries* 37 (1976): 215, 219. More specifically, Stam states that "RLG was founded in a time of relative financial austerity in US libraries." "Collaborative," 18.
89. Smith also found that administrative support of cooperation is essential, because it helped to ensure the continuance of the policy. "Cooperative," 160-67. Conversely, one of the major reasons for the failure of cooperation in Louisiana was the lack of support from library administrators and governing bodies. Beverly E. Laughlin, "Barriers to Regional Collection Development," *Louisiana Library Association Bulletin* 52 (Fall 1989): 45-50. George Jefferson, analyzing the Newcastle approach to cooperative activity, states that "co-operation in the last analysis depends for success upon personalities who induce the wish to co-operate." He also points out "that the authority for projected co-operation should come from a broader base than just the actual libraries concerned and involve the highest executive level of the institutions." *Library Co-operation*, 122.
90. The administrative link of the libraries of the University of California system via the Office of the President, coupled with an official policy of "One University, One

- Library," was the key factor in bringing about cooperation in that state. Soete and Wittenborg, 52. Based on a review of papers presented at a conference on cooperative collection development, Carl W. Deal concluded that "a governing authority should be established to coordinate efforts and respond to and set priorities." "A Model Criterion for Statewide Plan/Process/System," in *Coordinating Cooperative Collection Development: A National Perspective*, ed. Wilson Luquire (New York: Haworth Press, 1986), 217. Conversely, Hewitt and Shipman found that the lack of an appropriate organizational mechanism was one of the major reasons that research libraries failed to cooperate. 198.
91. *Program of Cooperation*, 5.
 92. On the importance of these processes to successful cooperative programs, see Kurt Pond and Dwight F. Burlingame, "Library Cooperation: A Serials Model Based on Philosophical Principles," *College & Research Libraries* 45 (1984): 299-301. Conversely, communication breakdowns have contributed to the failure of many cooperative endeavors. Weber, 211.
 93. The involvement of those actually selecting materials was also crucial in expanding cooperation within the University of California/Stanford consortium from a one-time, ad hoc Shared Purchase Program to the Shared Collections and Access Program, which also includes on-going and systematic ventures. Soete and Wittenborg, 56-58. Moreover, Mosher has observed that "collaboration is achieved by working ahead, planning, reflecting, and talking with both users and colleagues about the collections, the programs they serve, and about aspirations for the collections of the future. The accomplishment of working collaboration among people doing selection and making collection management decisions is more central to effectiveness than distribution of subject, language, discipline or format." "Collaborative Collection Development in an Era of Financial Limitations," *Australian Academic & Research Libraries* 20 (Mar. 1989): 12-13. See also his "Cooperative Collection Development Equals Collaborative Interdependence," *Collection Building* 9, no. 3/4 (1988): 29-32.
 94. Mosher cites psychological studies showing that "effective cooperation is most readily achieved by forming small working teams" and that "such groups tend to foster cooperation rather than competition, and collaboration has been shown to strengthen such groups and encourage them to complete more challenging tasks." "Cooperative Collection Development Equals Collaborative Independence," in *Collection Management: Current Issues*, ed. Sarah Shoemaker (New York: Neal-Schuman Publishers, 1989), 31. See also his "Collaborative Interdependence: The Human Dimensions of the Concept," *IFLA Journal* 16 (1990): 329. This atmosphere of honesty and trust helps promote accountability on the personal level and thereby addresses Cason's concern about the lack of accountability in cooperative collection development. "Accountability," 245-48.
 95. On the importance of allocating staff and time for cooperative activities and providing means of continuous interaction through formal and informal meetings, see Mosher and Pankake, 425, and Deal, 217. Conversely, one of the major problems of cooperative programs is the lack of communication between partners. Hewitt and Shipman, 221.
 96. Administrators at other libraries have recognized the importance of full-time staff to run cooperative programs. In 1986 the Illinois State Library established the position of Coordinator of Cooperative Collection Development to supervise cooperation in Illinois. "The establishment of this office has directly influenced the course of cooperative collection development in Illinois." Terry L. Weech, "Networking and Cooperative Collection Management—The Illinois Experience," *Collection Building* 10, no. 3/4 (1989): 55.
 97. Bibliographic and physical accessibility have been central to the success of every cooperative program. See, for example, Deal, 219-20. According to Hewitt and Shipman, 95 percent of the ARL institutions provided special physical access or interlibrary loan privileges to users of partner libraries as part of the cooperative collection development agreements. 219-20. In fact, Mosher and Pankake state that cooperation "presumes easy bibliographic access and delivery in a time frame rapid enough not to have detrimental effect on the work of institutional users." 428.

98. Hewitt and Shipman consider advances in national bibliographic networks in the late 1970s to be one of major factors behind the surge in cooperative programs that occurred during that time. 190 and 203. On the other hand, based on visits to nearly four dozen charter members of OCLC, Hewitt concluded that "coordinated collection development does not arise automatically simply because of the existence of a successful network," but that "strong independent initiatives are necessary." "Impact of Networks on Collection Development," *Library Acquisitions* 1 (1977): 213.
99. As an indication of how significant they might be, RLC's Conoco Study revealed that selectors in the humanities were willing to change 40 percent of their selection decisions "and rely on collections at other institutions if they could be reasonably sure of both bibliographic access and physical availability of items in those collections (maximum of seven days for delivery of materials)," while science selectors were willing to change up to 50 percent of their decisions if items could be obtained within three days. Mosher, "Cooperative Collection Development," 31.
100. Hewitt and Shipman, 202.
101. In his survey Kraus considers outside financial assistance to be essential. 179. Deal also emphasizes the importance of seed money in initiating cooperative collection development, but considers that "long-term maintenance of programs of cooperative collection development depends upon incorporating their support into ongoing budget allocations." 218-19.
102. See, for example, Bernard G. Sloan, "Resource Sharing among Academic Libraries: The LCS Experience," *Journal of Academic Librarianship* 12 (1986): 28.

A BETTER WAY TO SEARCH DATABASES

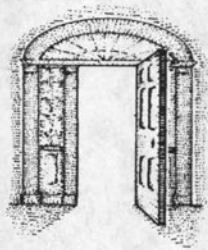
We started in 1985, database searchers committed to better search software design. We became the premier vendor of Medline, then expanded our catalog to other databases. Last year we won Information World Review's PRODUCT OF THE YEAR for faster, easier search

software. But a better way means meeting the evolving needs – individual and campus wide – of today's library users.

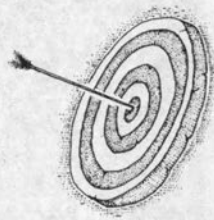
Announcing OVID: a database interface so flexible it molds itself to your search environment.



With OVID you're free to move from one operating system to another without retraining. OVID's Common User Interface assures identical functionality in DOS, Windows and UNIX.



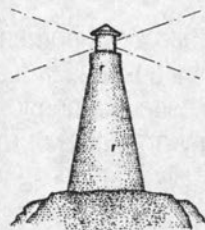
A haven for beginners, OVID's Easy Mode has on screen prompts. The more experienced can pull-down menus showing an array of search options. Experts will feel at home using online syntax.



Search with natural language if you like. OVID mapping cuts through the mystery of controlled vocabularies, homing in on precisely matching subject headings.



There's an unprecedented array of search tools – indexes, thesauri, limits and fields – many never before available in an interface. They're all standard OVID features.



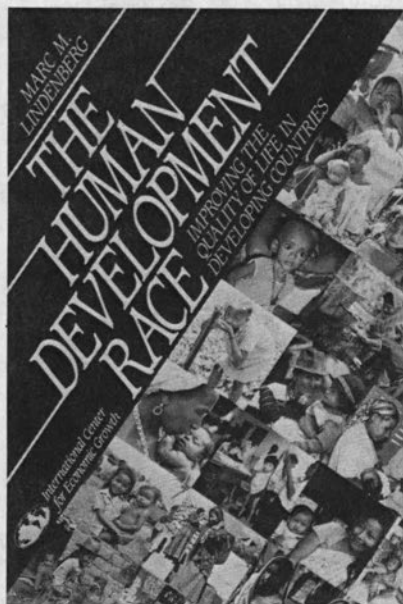
HELP for every search function is context-sensitive and on screen, never more than a key-stroke or mouse click away.

OVID. A better way to search ERIC, Current Contents, PsycINFO*, Medline, Readers' Guide Abstracts, EMBASE and more.

CD PLUS Technologies

New York 800-950-2035/212-563-3006 London 44-(0)81-748-3777 Amsterdam 020-672-0242

ANNOUNCING



The Human Development Race

explains why some developing countries have readily succeeded at improving the health, education, and income of their citizens while others seem mired in failure. After examining economic and social factors in the performance of ninety countries, Lindenberg focuses on the experiences of six Central American countries, furnishing wide-ranging, and sometimes surprising, conclusions.

Marc M. Lindenberg is currently senior vice president of programs for CARE, on leave of absence from his position as a public policy lecturer at Harvard's John F. Kennedy School of Government.

1993, 233 pages, Cloth ISBN 1-55815-277-6, \$29.95
Paper ISBN 155815-278-4, \$14.95

PUBLISHED BY **ICS** PRESS

"The Human Development Race combines human resource issues and quality of life issues in a creative fusion that allows a richer analysis than the usual economic approach. Lindenberg successfully tackles the thorny problems of measuring improvements in a practical and theoretically compelling way."

— **William Ascher**
Professor, Sanford Institute of Public Policy
Duke University

Order with MC or VISA: (800) 326-0263 in the United States
(415) 981-5353 outside the United States Fax: (415) 986-4878



INTERNATIONAL CENTER FOR ECONOMIC GROWTH

720 MARKET STREET, BOX L1 SAN FRANCISCO, CALIFORNIA 94102