SALALM and the Area Studies Community

SEMINAR ON THE ACQUISITION OF LATIN AMERICAN LIBRARY MATERIALS
XXXVII
SALALM and the Area Studies Community

SALALM Secretariat
General Library
University of New Mexico
SALALM and the Area Studies Community

Papers of the Thirty-Seventh Annual Meeting of the
SEMINAR ON THE ACQUISITION OF
LATIN AMERICAN LIBRARY MATERIALS

Nettie Lee Benson Latin American Collection
University of Texas at Austin
Austin, Texas
May 30–June 4, 1992

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Editor

SALALM SECRETARIAT
General Library, University of New Mexico
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Preface

The Thirty-Seventh Seminar on the Acquisition of Latin American Library Materials took place at a time when both traditional area studies and library structures were in flux. "SALALM and the Area Studies Community" entitled a meeting dedicated, at least in part, to exploring the implications of emerging trends in government and foundation support for area studies, the reconfiguration of library functions, and the electronic revolution. Austin, Texas, proved an excellent site for the meeting since it holds diverse area programs, a graduate school of library and information studies, and a library system with world-class collections and an impressive technical infrastructure. Between May 30 and June 4, 1992, some 300 conference participants witnessed panels, roundtables, workshops, and demonstrations on a wide range of issues. The full program appears at the end of this publication. What you have before you now is a representative sample of papers presented at those forums organized around four sub themes: The State of Area Studies, Multiculturalism, Figures in the History of SALALM and the Latin American Book Trade, and Library Operations.

The twenty-one essays published in this volume, however, do not capture the full range of activities from the sessions. Ross Atkinson and Brooke Sheldon, speaking as library administrator and library educator, respectively, made it clear that the fate of area studies in the library is far from clear. While each cited the particular skills that area librarians have brought to collections and access, both suggested a de-emphasis of collection development functions as libraries abandon collection building as a paradigm and library skills become more generalized. The second important theme not reflected in the published papers is the emergence of electronic Latin Americana. Database demonstrations of on-line services and compact disks ran for the entire afternoon of June 1. Printed versions do not appear here but recordings of these sessions reside in the SALALM Archives at the Benson Latin American Collection at the University of Texas.

David Block
Acknowledgments

I spent the last trimester of 1991 in Quito, Ecuador, leaving the organization of SALALM XXXVII to the Local Arrangements Committee. The many hours put in by Laura Gutiérrez-Witt, Ann Hartness, Jane Garner, Don Gibbs, Margo Gutiérrez, Sonia Merrubia, Hugo Chapa, and Lynette Thorn, all members of the staff of the Benson Latin American Collection, and by Adán Benavides, of San Antonio, and Greta Pasch, of the Graduate School of Library and Information Science, made the Seminar possible.

The Committee and I would like to thank Harold W. Billings, Director of the General Libraries of the University; Dean Brooke Sheldon of the Graduate School of Library and Information Science; and Peter S. Cleaves, Director of the Institute of Latin American Studies for their generous support.

And finally, I would like to acknowledge the presence of Nettie Lee Benson at this thirty-seventh meeting of the organization that she helped found. Although I have known Miss Benson since 1971 and have toiled countless hours in her library, seeing her again for the first time in five years caught me unprepared. After looking me over carefully, she allowed as how she recognized me, but thought that I looked old. She had retained her keen insight, and her nerve. Miss Benson's death in June of 1993 would mark this as the last meeting many of my colleagues and I would have with her. So as a gesture to what she meant to those of us who call Latin America our professional specialization, it seems appropriate to dedicate this publication to Nettie Lee Benson's memory.
The State of Area Studies
1. Area Studies in the Twenty-First Century

Davydd J. Greenwood

Introduction

The need for collaboration between international education administrators and the library systems and associations for mutual benefit could not be clearer in these times of increasing scarcity of resources. I welcome the opportunity to speak with you about the issues that confront us all. For today, my assignment is to set a general context for area studies and to stimulate discussions about the future of area studies and the particular role of the libraries in this future. In order to get to those points and because of my lack of expertise in library matters, I will speak to the general issues of area studies and international studies, leaving it to you to develop the implications. I also hope you will inform me how people with my responsibilities and how directors of area programs can be more supportive of your needs.

The overall tone of what I say is critical. This is born of a sense of epochal changes in international studies generally, in the position of the United States in the global system, and what are clearly upcoming transformations of our educational system. I do not think any of us is sufficiently aware of the combined impact of so many changes. We shall probably look back on the period from 1970 to 1990 as a period of remarkable stability compared with what we shall experience next. The critical tone is also born of increasing worries about a complete lack of federal policy relevant to area studies or international studies in general. There is no sense of the obvious cause and effect relationships between federal support for international education and the availability of expertise that is sorely needed. Just how long a government can live off past investments is evident from the "greying" of the foreign language and area studies community. Finally, I am intentionally critical because I am worried by the sense of complacency the area studies community seems to exhibit in the face of demandingly complex challenges. While there has been some mobilization, the area studies community is still too content to fight over scraps and not willing enough to storm the barricades in Washington and demand the attention that allies in primary and secondary education and in the
private sector would support. That said, I limit my brief comments to three themes. First I discuss the internal dynamics and wear and tear on the current area studies model. Then I review the impact of multicultural studies and "cultural studies" on area studies in higher education. Finally, I discuss the contradictory impact of internationalization fever on area studies.

Theme 1. The Internal Dynamics and Problems in the Current Area Studies Model

Despite some of the critical views I have about area studies—and I am myself an arealist—the record of area studies since World War I is a distinguished one, particularly in view of the paltry national resources devoted to it. A remarkable amount has been accomplished with modest resources and minimal administrative infrastructure. Whatever its failings, there were a number of fundamentally good ideas in the original National Defense Education Act. The National Resource Center model and accompanying fellowship program have assisted in the creation of programs of wonderful depth at many universities. These are true "national resources" and are real treasures.

Furthermore, these centers provide a kind of comprehensive areal coverage that is not limited to just a couple of disciplines. The structure has pressed universities to develop comprehensive programs, and the results are a research and teaching environment that is exceptionally rich. The kind of cross-disciplinary interactions within a geographic focus that take place routinely are one of the great strengths of the model.

In this context, we have trained new generations of arealists who, though fewer in number than needed, are a true national resource. As a logical development of this, we have also seen the creation of wonderful library collections on these world areas which make some of our universities centers for research, even for people who live in the regions we study.

No model, of course, is perfect, and, over time, the defects of this approach have also become evident. One of the difficulties is that the world area notion itself is often based on a platonistic area studies image in which an area has a character that transcends time. Much like the now much criticized national character analyses of the recent past, with their static areal frameworks, clear boundaries, and limited interactions, area studies at its worst creates a static, bounded inventory of cultural and historical artifacts that do not help very much anyone who is trying to understand the dynamics of a particular area.
Partly as a result of federal administrative structures and partly as a common outgrowth of academic politics, many area studies programs have seen themselves as mini-universities. They aim to have an area specialist for each social science and humanities discipline and obsess about coverage and competition from departments and from other world areas. This logic often substitutes coverage and political infighting for the development of a solid analytical focus and thematic agenda.

The academic arealists themselves are not solely to blame for this. The federal regulatory structures to which they report reinforce sharp boundaries, coverage logic, and a proprietary attitude. Collaboration among area programs is not rewarded in the federal evaluation scheme very much. This keeps area studies programs from developing more collaborative attitudes, except in institutions where there is strong international program management. This approach has also set the tone for foundation granting as well, reifying world area boundaries and inhibiting new combinations such as North-South, South-South, or environmental studies–area studies. It also does not reward interarea comparative work much. There is a clear mismatch between this model and the new global scene with its dynamic and sloppy boundaries and its interactive problems.

Campuses have their own problems as well. To be successful, a major area studies program requires languages plus ten to twelve faculty positions, library support, and long-term commitment to those positions and budgets. Yet we are living in a period of low, no, or negative growth in universities which works directly against maintaining such structures. In addition, we are all facing increasing demands for topical programs addressing breadth, intercultural awareness, “cultural studies,” and so on. These are pulling resources in other more politically popular directions. Area studies seems to be a ponderous investment in some distant future no one cares about, whereas multicultural issues seem real and immediate. Never mind if in twenty years we will have few if any experts in the languages and cultures of most of the world areas where we will do business or whose wealthy people will own significant parts of our economy.

The political metabolism is always short-term and shortsighted. Area studies always faces demands for responsiveness to changing political agendas, international and domestic. Now the issues are competitiveness and environmental problems. Not so long ago, they were Cold War problems and before that, Sputnik. The area studies community is rife with anecdotes about late night phone calls from Washington asking how many weeks it would take to field scores of
linguistically and culturally competent arealists to meet some short-term political need.

The internal vision from within the area studies community itself does not always take a socially realistic viewpoint. Arealists tend to see themselves as maintaining centers of expertise primarily for the purpose of research and training future generations of area specialists. While this is an important mission, many area programs are less flexible than they should be in dealing with the needs of new constituencies.

I also believe that many arealists overestimate the esteem in which they are held both by university administrations and federal agencies. Low funding, lack of guaranteed lines, and complex and immobile federal regulations should cause a more skeptical attitude. I also believe that the area studies programs underestimate the employment problems graduates are beginning to face. The tough academic job market places a premium on conservative disciplinary competencies and values.

Finally, there is insufficient appreciation of the societal needs for information and instruction about particular areas. Meeting these needs is not only an altruistic service but a source of legitimacy and funding for the future, funding that is not dependent always on such complex guidelines and rules. The area programs have to take on the issue of training comparativists and internationalists who know more than one area. Yet this makes many arealists very uncomfortable because they prefer exclusive dedication to one area for a lifetime.

With regard to the enhancement of business education and of science and technology education, only a few area programs have served as real centers for outreach for K-12 and the private sector. This goes hand in hand with the absence of a requirement for area specialists to be connected via social action to the area they study. Studying an area and taking an active role in its development are often seen as mutually exclusive. This tension has long been evident in the considerable hostility at many institutions over the years between development specialists and area studies specialists. Despite the diseconomies, they generally operate out of separate organizational structures. Training of nonspecialists, comparative and global studies, K-12 training, and other outreach are all essential to continued social support for area studies, but too many area studies programs do not want to deal with these needs.

Thus at this juncture, the issue is how to preserve the sources of area studies excellence while addressing these legitimate and pressing social demands.
**Theme 2. The Externally Imposed Need to Revitalize Area Studies Dictated by the Shifting World Scene**

Robert Reich, in his exciting book, *The Work of Nations*, entitles the last chapter “Who Is Us?” Reich notes that the “we” in most nationalistic utterances is quite problematic. In “We, the people,” who are the people and what language and culture do they carry when there are so many immigrants, nonnative speakers of English, and foreign investors and businessmen? While national boundaries have never been fully real, now they are more fully unreal than at any time in recent history. The biggest importer of “foreign” cars is Chrysler and the biggest exporter of cars made in the United States is Honda. So who is us?

This changing scene creates a very specific and immediate challenge to area studies. The issues of multicultural studies and education and now “cultural studies” in the humanities have many faculty and students dealing with materials from particular world areas without consulting the “experts.” In the old division of labor, this would not have happened. We had a neat international/domestic split and departments and other units divided their lines up according to this boundary. Area studies was international and ethnic or minority studies was domestic. Area studies focused on high culture literary and cultural studies, not on immigrants, poverty, and transnational problems. Area studies has largely had the ethos of being about “them” and not about us. Policy commentary has been considered appropriate, but the integrated study of the area, the United States, and the linkages has been rare. The integrated study of the fates of people from both areas living within each other’s borders is even more rare.

This split is irrational now. The international and domestic are linked in the lives of students, both personal and professional. Of course, the fates of these areas have also been linked to the history of the United States. Furthermore, skills for area studies and ethnic studies are mutually translatable because a good deal of both activities rests on intercultural awareness and understanding. The split is also politically irrational because it creates a competition for funding between area studies and multicultural studies. In most situations, multicultural studies will win. Furthermore, this approach has caused us to create separate organizational structures in times of cutbacks at universities, not a winning strategy for either side. Some of the competition is unavoidable. Funding is scarce and universities are diverting resources to multicultural programs after years of neglect. In addition, the political stances of area studies and multicultural studies are very different.
What will the new arealists have to be like to operate in this arena? For one thing, they will have to be more topically or methodologically sophisticated in order to pass muster in discipline-based departments and to train arealists who are also employable as disciplinary specialists. At the same time, they must become more expert in both international and domestic studies issues and more comparative or multi-areal. They must become more expert in a more diverse set of pedagogical techniques and in communicating with more heterogeneous audiences. They will increasingly have to serve as mentors to faculty and students with special expertise who need to learn about a world area for a particular purpose.

This is a considerable list of demands and reflects a world for which the current generation of academic area specialists prepared themselves. Many do not welcome it. But those who are flexible are likely to end up controlling a significant part of the agenda in the future.

Theme 3. The National Environment for Area Studies

The federal scene, despite our progress on funding increases for the Higher Education Act and the emergence of the International Security Education Act, is not very promising. We know from experience that the huge need for international expertise will not cause federal funding to flow. Our federal government completely lacks an international manpower plan and any meaningful interagency coordination. It operates on one-year time horizons with no structured understanding of what it means to invest in future capacity beyond the next political campaign. The lack of meaningful cooperation between the Center for International Education in the U.S. Department of Education, the U.S. Information Agency, and the International Security Education Act administration is well known. And there seems to be no meaningful linkage between any of these and the Department of State.

In the federal view, longitude and latitude are the principal defining elements in the administration of area programs. The Center for International Education penalizes cross-area and theoretical work by using a point system for grants that privileges those programs that are most "pure." As a direct consequence, to be good in area studies generally condemns programs to lose intellectual prestige in most social science disciplines because of the lack of theoretical and comparative work.

This approach also enhances the weakness in area studies in recognizing and analyzing the host of interactions—within the areas, among the areas, across areas—with reference to global problems. The
current world areas have murky boundaries and are highly volatile entities. One need only look at West European Studies and Soviet and East European Studies and the study of the global environment in the past couple of years to see this.

The academic community has engaged in a number of reflections in recent years aimed at helping us get our bearings. Washington State University and University of Maryland System collaborated to conduct a multiuniversity study and held a conference called “Internationalizing U.S. Universities.” At this conference, we learned that internationalization is a high priority at most campuses but that it is a mixed blessing. Under these conditions, area studies, development studies, international relations, environmental studies, multicultural education, cultural studies, and so on are all being gathered together under more hierarchically managed structures. There is much administrative talk about “priorities.” This is reasonable, but it has led to infighting.

While this is going on, few institutions have a working definition of internationalization. Only one or two have tried to measure whether or not internationalization actually happens to their students after they pass through curricula designed to have this effect.

Another thing we learned from the conference is that the increased importance of international studies has brought the arealists and international studies people into the central political arenas of their colleges and universities. This means playing with the big boys after years on the margins, competing for money and attention with buildings and properties, athletics, and big science. Many international studies leaders are not ready for this role.

Another collaborative activity recently gave us all new insight into the potential power of higher education coalitions for international education. In an unprecedented collaborative effort, a broad coalition of National Resource Center directors, international program directors, legislative affairs officers, and higher education associations, including the major library associations, brought forth proposals for the reauthorization of Title VI of the Higher Education Act. This effort gained an additional $12 million for us and demonstrated that groups that heretofore had generally competed shared to some degree a common agenda. We are trying to build on this for the future, and the collaboration of the area studies community will be critical.

A sobering byproduct of this political education, however, was our discovery of the low esteem for the Department of Education in Washington. Since this department is key to our future, it is essential for us to take action to improve its reputation and linkages to the rest of the Washington agencies.
The last national activity I wish to mention is the Coalition for the Advancement of Foreign Language and International Studies (CAFLIS). This large coalition spent nearly two years working through an international education agenda of considerable scope. Three working groups focused on different dimensions of these issues and brought together a diverse group of interested parties, including higher education, the private sector, and primary and secondary education.

From this effort, we certainly learned that the old international studies model is in deep trouble with the private sector, K-12, and state government constituencies, of whom all find the international studies establishment in universities both generally unresponsive and irrelevant to their interests. They are important friends and, in bad times, dangerous enemies. The federal government pays immensely more attention to the private sector and problems in K-12 education than to anything we do. If these groups continue to feel that we are not serving them well, our appeals in Washington will be increasingly fruitless.

The CAFLIS experience also made it clear that the federal government is not prepared to take on any significant new initiatives in international studies and completely lacks a manpower plan. We also learned that most of the private foundations are lukewarm to further support for area studies at universities. Just what their international agenda will be is unclear, but it is unlikely that past patterns of support will be any guide to the future. The conclusion is that the states and the private sector are powerful and necessary new allies for us if we collaborate with them. They are also dangerous enemies if ignored. So here, too, we must build coalitions. But these coalitions cannot be simply matters of political convenience. We must provide these groups meaningful services so they will be real stakeholders in our future. This means taking outreach seriously and serving the "public" in order to engender the kind of support that will permit us to continue to train new and better generations of experts.

My overall message can be summarized in the words of Martin Fierro:

Que los hermanos sean unidos
Porque esa es la ley primera.
Que tengan unión verdadera
en cualquier tiempo que sea
porque si entre ellos se pelean
los devoran los de afuera.
What can a cultural anthropologist conceivably tell a group of professional Latin Americanist librarians? The answer is, obviously, something about culture, and, in particular, something about recent developments in the theory of culture as they pertain to understanding the role of books and libraries in our society and the modern world. When anthropologists speak of culture these days, they are very often speaking of something that is preserved and transmitted by means of discourse—and books, as a type of discourse, are one specific embodiment of culture in the West. They have analogs in the forms of oral narrative and ritualized speech in tribal societies, about which I could tell you more, but I won’t.

Instead, I want to discuss the new ways of looking at culture and discourse and hence books through the concept of “public,” especially in the odd combination in the title, “public planet.”1 Anthropologists have recently begun thinking about culture in terms of publics and public discourse, and the concept of “publicness” or “publicity” is especially appropriate for thinking about libraries and the role of area studies.2

The term “public,” used here, has two senses: a descriptive and a normative one. On the descriptive side, public means something like “intersubjectively accessible,” that is, not bound up exclusively in the psyche or subjectivity of just one person, but available to two persons or more. In this sense, all of culture depends upon publicness or publicity, since it involves the social transmission of knowledge, especially across the generations, and that means making the knowledge outwardly accessible.

Books are vehicles of publicness in this descriptive sense, just as are myth-telling practices in tribal societies. They both make knowledge, ideas, thoughts, and even feelings open for inspection by more than one individual. Any person who would gain access to book-transmitted culture must master the language in which the book is written and acquire, in addition, the background knowledge and skills in
reading necessary to decipher it. Of course, actual encounters with books are one of the ways these skills are acquired.

Because of their ability to circulate widely, books have been principal bearers of culture in Western societies for hundreds of years. Indeed, we could not imagine the splendid cultures we have today without them. And our great libraries—the Benson Latin American Collection here at Austin among them—function as repositories of publicly accessible culture in precisely this sense. Not only do they furnish different individuals in the present access to a vast array of knowledge, but they insure publicity across the generations. They are culture simultaneously as they carry it.

What about the second, normative, sense? Here we are referring not to a fact but to a value. Public in this normative sense refers to the right of access that individuals have to discourse, and its associated information, knowledge, beliefs, and feelings. When we speak of educating a public, moreover, we refer to the duty that society has not only to make discourse available to the community but to encourage individuals to familiarize themselves with it.

The opposite of publicness, in this normative sense, is not intrapsychic or intrasubjective, but secret. Secrecy is the norm, within culture, that places value on restricting the flow of knowledge, on limiting access to ideas, thoughts, and beliefs, to certain selected individuals or groups. There is descriptive publicity here—the access that those who are in on the secret have—and there is the idea that others, not privy to the information, would want it, but there is no norm of publicity, and, on the contrary, an explicit denial of normative publicity.

Yet another norm is that of scholarly access. The idea here is not that all individuals should have access to information, nor that some individuals should be specifically denied, but rather that specialists are better equipped to utilize certain specialized information than are nonspecialists. Hence, the publicity of discourse ought to be organized around the needs of those specialists, and a prime concern is not only circulation to specialists in the present generation but preservation for specialists in the future. The scholarly norm is distinct from publicness as a norm, because the latter recognizes no boundaries of specialization and is not even concerned with preservation across time.

The norm of publicness has been spreading in the late 1980s and into the 1990s. This is true most notably in the former Soviet Union and in Eastern Europe, though we should not forget the democracy movement in China. It has also been true, though more quietly perhaps, in Latin America as well. Brazil, Argentina, Nicaragua, and
Chile have all seen major movements toward greater openness, greater publicness in this normative sense, though the attempted coup in Venezuela and the recent internal coup in Peru should give us cause to wonder about the inevitability of the spread of this norm.

So we are talking about the spread of a norm that information, thoughts, and ideas especially about the commonweal should be accessible to all. On the surface, we could be talking about seventeenth- or eighteenth-century Europe, when newspapers were proliferating, books circulating, and people organizing to share knowledge about and to debate the nature and distribution of political power. These developments gave rise to what we think of as the modern, open societies (France, Great Britain, and the United States). One condition might therefore be that the Latin American nations, and also Russia and Eastern Europe, are simply going through a process that the Euro-American nations have already experienced.

I want to argue, however, that it is not that simple, for the seventeenth- and eighteenth-century norm of publicness applied within national boundaries and involved the local separation of state from civil society. The relevant public was the nation. And it has been argued, incidentally, by Benedict Anderson and Juergen Habermas, among others, that books were especially important to the formation of nation states during that period. Indeed the nation-mediated community.

But today, or so I want to claim, the relevant “public” goes beyond national boundaries. The different parts of the world have an interest in one another, a desire to access locally circulating discourse, and to contribute to it, that makes the relevant public global and not local. Global publicity, as a norm, in effect undermines national sovereignty and vice versa.

And we are dealing now with new forms of media—radio, television, audio cassette tapes, video cassette tapes, computer networks, floppy disks, telephones, fax machines, and more. If print forged nation states, new media are forging new publics, publics that transcend national boundaries.

It is for this reason that I have included “planet” in my title alongside “public,” for I feel that the developments in Latin America, as in the former Soviet Union and Eastern Europe, as well as China, have to be understood with respect to the global context of publicness.

The planetary norm of openness or publicness is bolstered by the media and by new technology. The world was shocked in 1988 by a murder in the Amazon basin—the assassination of ecological activist and union organizer Chico Mendes. How many newspapers and radio
and television news shows in the United States and Europe covered this event? Local Amazonian news was in this case transformed into planetary news, of interest to the global commonweal. But it is not just after-the-fact news. Chico Mendes’ original rise to planetary visibility was facilitated by the media. He became a focus of interest for British filmmaker Adrian Cowell, who was in part responsible for Mendes’ original trips to Europe and the United States, and who later featured Mendes in an hour-long segment of his influential series, *The Decade of Destruction*. Mendes’ international visibility in turn affected his local standing.

The media and especially television have contributed to forging a new planetary publicness. But computers are also aiding in this transformation. One account even attributes Gorbachev’s original moves toward perestroika as a response to the computer revolution, recognizing that the Soviet Union was falling far behind the West in this technology—computing was centralized in the old Soviet Union—and that the new microcomputer technology could not spread without some corresponding norm of publicness.

With this background, let us turn to the implications of planetary publicness for libraries. A first point: the norm of publicness can work counter to the norm of scholarship, when it comes to libraries. Perfectly open access to all can result in the disappearance and destruction of books and other materials that are the vehicles of publicness in the descriptive sense. This means that libraries, and especially research libraries, may be tools not so much of planetary publicity as of a priesthood of knowledge, designed to protect and preserve the materials for intersubjective transmission across the generations.

A second point, however: the contradiction between the norms of publicness and scholarship arises primarily because of the nature of the vehicles of publicness—the books and periodicals as physical objects, scarce commodities. We have now reached a technological phase in which scarcity need no longer be a central issue. I am referring, of course, to the ability to copy. Books and other materials can be photocopied relatively inexpensively, but even cheaper is electronic duplication. The cost of this is minimal.

A third point: despite the potential abundance of the physical commodity, some people are trying to induce scarcity in order to make information and ideas conform to the older principles that regulated the economics of physical commodities. The issues of copyright, ownership, authorship, and property rights fight against the norm of publicity in a way in which the technological basis of the public can no longer justify.
The struggle between the norm of publicness and the economics of scarce goods is perhaps the central problem for libraries as we move into the twenty-first century.

A fourth point: a revolution in libraries with respect to publicness would probably require a general social revolution. We can easily envision a time in which we no longer need the library as a physical space for individuals to go to pursue ideas and information. All of this could be handled perfectly well by means of electronic hookups and the free circulation of materials. Books and periodicals could be effectively placed on gigantic file servers and accessed by anyone anywhere on the planet. But this would require a dramatically different social order, no longer organized by the principles of our contemporary economics, based as they are on scarcity. We would need an economics of plenitude, and that is something we cannot yet quite envision.

Even if we had an information revolution, however, the norm of publicness would be only half fulfilled. We would have general accessibility, but we would still not have general education, that is, a system for guiding citizens to important discourse.

If we had a system with no guidance, we would have a flood of information. It is unclear how knowledge could be maintained as a unitary thing. And if knowledge is many different things, unique to each individual, then what kind of check is there on purely political coercion and domination? The idea of knowledge as independent of politics—much as this runs counter to poststructural, postmodern opinions—may be an important check on political power. At the present time, it would seem the wisest course for libraries to maintain an alliance with academic hierarchies, until the shape of the world based on planetary publicness can be better discerned.

At the same time, however, libraries should begin to experiment with greater publicness, as many already are. There need to be ways in which we can stretch or at least test the current limits imposed by economic scarcity principles on the principle of publicity. Some of the national databases currently do this, although they make available electronically only abstracts of articles, and they charge for those, allowing investigators to order the full articles in hard copy, which can be done, in some cases, by fax. I understand that there are also already some entirely electronic journals, and that there is a conference being planned at the University of Manitoba whose goal is the establishment of a “consortium of universities and learned societies to sponsor computer network publication of refereed journals.”

But we need more work with computer networks. Perhaps it is not too soon to introduce a second tier of publications beneath the journals
and books, whether physical or electronic. This tier would involve information somewhere between the level of books and journals, on the one side, and of what presently circulates on computer networks, on the other. Scholars who want to make their ideas publicly available could contribute to such a project. We would be dealing with the "publication" of materials that fall outside the scholar's ordinary terrain of specialization and within the concerns of a broader public.

And we should remember that the principle of publicness has two sides. On the one side, research and information that advance knowledge may be too specialized for a broad public. On the other side, what appears to a broad public in terms of openness does not necessarily advance knowledge.

Here is where area studies libraries in particular may play a crucial role in terms of planetary publicness. For what is of broadest appeal to a local public may be of only local concern. Area studies in general have had as one goal the breaking down of this parochialism, and area studies libraries in particular can play a more activist role in trying to insinuate concerns stemming from other parts of the world into local concerns of a public. The issue here is not how to appeal to or provide for whatever happens to be of interest to the broadest possible local public, but rather how to encourage citizens within locally defined publics to become participants in a broader planetary community. This would steer us toward an alignment with the norm of a planetary public.

Thinking about area studies libraries in this way, one goal would be to engage in outreach, especially as regards the media. Area studies libraries can play a more active role in ensuring that the media present informed coverage of different areas of the world. This can be facilitated by the idea discussed earlier of a tier beneath the academic-research level, in which information, especially electronically accessible information, can be more widely disseminated. And if it is information written by area specialists but for a broader public, so much the better. We might even think of this level as the "public planet database."

Of course, some effort would have to be made to sell the media (at different levels) on the idea of using the information in their presentations to the public. And I am sure there are numerous problems with the idea about which we cannot yet even dream. Media personnel would, of course, want to know whether the information they were accessing was authoritative. This problem could be partially solved by coding information about the authors—so that someone in the media might be more interested in the opinions of a faculty member than of a graduate student or a nonacademic, and they may
want, specifically, the opinions of a historian or an economist, and so forth. But there would probably have to be further selection and guidance here.

What about Latin America in particular? We have to think of two goals of publicity here. On the one side, there is the goal of bringing ideas and information from Latin America to an American public, thereby deparochializing it. The Latin American specialist has to face toward the American public, an increasing percentage of which is of Latin American origin. But at the same time, and in part in order to do so, the Latin American specialist must face toward Latin America and its publics.

We are now in a position, in the case of at least some Latin American countries, where computer hookups are facilitating electronic exchanges of scholarly information at rates never before dreamed of. We are capable of forging a hemispheric community of scholars whose specialty is Latin America. The University of Texas is currently providing Venezuela with access, through Internet, to its computerized card catalog, and projects are underway for other Latin American countries as well. It is a small but important step from here to limited computer networking with Latin America, such as might include electronic journals and even a public planet database.

But it would be foolish not to notice the perils involved. We are not yet on the doorstep of a new social and economic order, governed by laws of plenitude rather than scarcity. For one thing, the technology is not yet available in many countries for computer hookups, and that technology is still very definitely governed by the laws of scarcity. We will therefore continue to have those with access to electronically mediated public information and those without it. And we cannot yet foresee what role manipulation and coercion will play. Average Americans, for example, cannot even place phone calls to Cuba. How are we to achieve normative planetary publicness under such circumstances?

But it does not take a great soothsayer to see that changes are afoot. Anthropologists are scrambling to keep up with the radical transformations that culture—once thought of only in terms of transmission across the generations—is undergoing. To librarians is handed the task, however, not simply of understanding what is happening around them but also of bringing it about. They have the opportunity to play a major role in shaping our public planet and changing the face of modern culture.
NOTES

1. The term “public planet” was coined by a group working out of the Center for Psychosocial Studies in Chicago, where it was intended as a title of a book series. Members of the group included Arjun Appadurai (Anthropology, Pennsylvania), Michael Fischer (Anthropology, Rice), Benjamin Lee (Director of the Center), and Michael Warner (English, Rutgers).

2. See, for example, the journal Public Culture, edited by Arjun Appadurai and Carole Breckenridge out of the University of Pennsylvania.


4. By Larry W. Hurtado, whose E-Mail address is Hurtado@ccu.umanitoba.ca.
3. El V Centenario desde el punto de vista indígena en Ecuador

José E. Juncosa

El V Centenario ha dado lugar a múltiples pronunciamientos y polémicas. Pero más allá del contenido de cada una de las posiciones entorno a este evento, tal fecha ha constituido una oportunidad de considerar, de una manera profunda e incisiva, el problema indígena. Este constituye, al menos en Ecuador, la tónica dominante de las publicaciones, debates, encuentros, artículos periodísticos, pronunciamientos oficiales, y sobre todo, para los indígenas que han articulado su “Campaña Continental 500 Años de Lucha y Resistencia,” una ocasión única de hacer conocer sus demandas.

Luego de una década de consolidación de las organizaciones indígenas, los pueblos indios han visto como una creciente ola de movimientos organizados por todo el continente les daba una fuerza nueva para expresar y planificar la obtención de sus seculares demandas. Algunas de ellas consisten en la lucha por el “territorio” (ya no la tierra), la educación bilingüe intercultural, el derecho a ejercer la medicina tradicional y entre las más radicales: autonomía y autogestión, cuyo alcance y significado, más que los enfoques teóricos, dependerán de la relación que alcancen a articular los pueblos indios con sus respectivos estados nacionales.

Dentro de este contexto continental, el Ecuador ocupa un lugar importante. En mayo y junio de 1990 los indígenas de todo el país protagonizaron un “levantamiento indígena” de formidables proporciones. Cerca de un millón de indios bloquearon carreteras y caminos, tomaron la histórica y tradicional iglesia de Santo Domingo y, acaparando la atención de los medios de comunicación, plantearon sus demandas, resumidas básicamente en la obtención de territorios. Desde entonces, la CONAIE (Confederación Nacional Indígena del Ecuador), la organización indígena nacional, copó la atención y fue quien capitalizó las respuestas a las críticas gubernamentales, a las acusaciones de las cámaras de la producción (sobre todo agrícolas y ganaderas) y a las sospechas, siempre presentes, de las Fuerzas Armadas quienes los acusaban de protagonizar y liderar un movimiento separista y antinacional.
Como si esto fuera poco, a renglón seguido tuvo lugar en Quito el Primer Encuentro Continental de Pueblos Indios (17 al 21 de julio 1991) en el que nuevamente lograron llamar la atención de los medios de comunicación, esta vez con la presencia de indígenas de todo el continente: Estados Unidos, Guatemala, México, Perú, Colombia, Argentina, Chile y Bolivia.

 Esto deja muy claro que los indígenas no han querido conmemorar (si cabe el término) de manera “académica” los 500 años de lucha y resistencia. Más bien, optaron por una clara posición de lucha y beligerancia cuya expresión más clara fue la consigna: “1992: ni una hacienda más.”

A pesar de ello, se preocuparon de expresar su visión de las cosas en este V Centenario, formando en Ecuador un comité interinstitucional que aglutinó a las principales organizaciones indígenas: ECUARUNARI, CONAIE, CONFENIAE y FENOC. Lo denominaron “Comité Nacional 500 Años de Lucha y Resistencia.” Uno de los cometidos de este grupo es la animación cultural de la perspectiva indígena en este evento, también mediante publicaciones.

En marzo de 1989, editaron un pronunciamiento oficial, titulado Campaña Nacional 500 Años de Lucha y Resistencia, donde figuran los principales contenidos y aspectos programáticos. Dicho pronunciamiento fue reeditado luego por algunas publicaciones especializadas en el temática indígena. El sello de esta editorial indígena interinstitucional fue TINKUI, y a ella le debemos las siguientes publicaciones: Campaña 500 años de resistencia indígena y popular (Quito, 1989) y Declaración de Quito y resoluciones del Encuentro Continental de Pueblos Indígenas (Quito, 1990).

Este comité quiso incursionar en un plan ambicioso de ediciones sobre la realidad indígena. Es así como crearon la “Colección 500 años de resistencia india.” La prioridad de las luchas políticas hizo que esta colección alcanzará sólo dos volúmenes que son: Randi Kaarhus, Historias en el tiempo, historias en el espacio: dualismo en la cultura y lengua Quechua/Quichua (Quito, 1989) y CONAIE, Nacionalidades indígenas del Ecuador: nuestro proceso organizativo (Quito, 1990). El primero fue tesis de grado de la autora y aborda la revelación entre lengua y realidad en los pueblos de habla quichua de Bolivia, Perú y Ecuador, relacionando el habla con la cosmovisión, la estructura social y con la concepción de la historia y el espacio. Como tal constituye un excelente intento por difundir y editar material “académico.” En el acto de lanzamiento del libro convirtieron los discursos de lingüistas y antropólogos junto a los cantos y proclamas de los indígenas. El segundo volumen es una reedición de la lanzada por ILDIS (Instituto
Latinoamericano de Investigaciones Sociales) el año anterior. Hoy llega a su cuarta edición, y debe considerarse la autobiografía de cada una de las organizaciones indígenas regionales y provinciales, anexas a la CONAIE.

Fuera de esta colección la CONAIE coeditó, junto con Abya-Yala, el número 14 de KIPU, un boletín semestral que recoge y reproduce todos los artículos de la prensa nacional sobre los indígenas del Ecuador. Esta vez corresponde al semestre enero-junio de 1990, seleccionando todos los artículos referentes al levantamiento indígena. Se hicieron tres ediciones sucesivas (en junio, agosto y noviembre) y hoy se encuentra agotado.

Otra serie muy interesante de publicaciones dio cuenta del hecho indígena e intentó, a su modo, explicar desde muy variados puntos de vista las causas del levantamiento. He aquí una breve reseña de ellos:

1. V.H. Jijón y R. Stavenhagen, Levantamiento indígena y la cuestión nacional (Quito, 1990). Esta obra constituye un análisis sobre las repercusiones del levantamiento indígena de junio de 1990 y una compilación de instrumentos jurídicos internacionales en favor de las minorías étnicas y declaraciones de las organizaciones indígenas del Ecuador (edición agotada).

2. Indios (Quito, 1991, 1992). Autores de todas tendencias pertenecientes, por ejemplo a las organizaciones indígenas, el congreso nacional, el ejército, a las ciencias sociales, dan cuenta del hecho indígena de junio como un suceso clave en la historia nacional.

3. Pueblos indios, estado y derecho (Quito, 1992). Motivado por el levantamiento indígena, presenta los puntos de vista de diversos especialistas indígenas y no indígenas que analizan la relación entre los pueblos indios y el estado. Proponen alternativas sobre las formas de autogestión y participación política que reconozcan la heterogeneidad sociocultural del Ecuador.

Pero no todo ha quedado allí. Los indígenas quichua amazónicos, bajo el liderazgo de la OPIP (Organización de Pueblos Indígenas de Pastaza), protagonizan a inicios de mayo una marcha hasta la ciudad de Quito. Nuevamente, pero dos años después, los indígenas vuelven a ser noticia. Luego de intensas negociaciones con el gobierno se llega a un acuerdo histórico. El Presidente Rodrigo Borja otorga los títulos de propiedad por cerca de 1,500,000 hectáreas de bosque amazónico. Esta decisión ha destacado nuevamente (al igual que en concesiones anteriores) desiguales reacciones, pero es indudable un hecho sin precedente. Sin duda, estos hechos y los de junio de 1990 hacen pensar
en la madurez del movimiento indígena, que ha pasado de rebeliones desarticuladas y sin efecto a acciones articuladas, planificadas, calculando bien la coyuntura, como en este último caso, el ambiente pre-electoral en vista de las elecciones presidenciales. Los frutos editoriales de este último evento (la marcha de los indígenas amazónicos) todavía no se dejan ver, pero es de esperar que el KIPU número 18, correspondiente a enero-junio de 1992, ofrezca un dossier completo. Asimismo se esperan nuevos congresos y simposios que tratarán indudablemente sobre esta problemática más profundamente.

Otro género de publicaciones ha abordado estos 500 años desde una perspectiva no tan coyuntural. Me refiero a aquellas que son una suerte de reflexión y balance (cuando no un juicio) sobre la legitimidad o no de la conquista, las cuales incluyen: Max Ontaneda, *Es interesante elencar algunas: 500 años del re-encuentro de la humanidad* (Quito, 1991); *La interminable conquista* (Quito, 1991); *Nuestra América y el V Centenario* (Quito, 1990); Rafael Quintero López, *El significado del Quinto Centenario del descubrimiento de América* (Quito, 1991, 1992).

Como es de esperar, los 500 años han motivado y cobijado unas series de publicaciones que sin tocar expresamente el tema, han querido relevar la problemática indígena. Es así que Ediciones Abya-Yala comienza en 1988 la Colección 500 Años, la cual se propone ofrecer un conocimiento serio y completo de los pueblos indios de América. Su enfoque quiere ir más allá del concepto de “descubrimiento” o “encuentro de dos mundos” para reivindicar los valores de culturas que han sido marginadas. Esta colección, inusual por su amplitud y extensión para un país andino, quiere ser una suerte de espacio de libertad y autoexpresión para los pueblos indios. Hoy día tiene 53 volúmenes y aspira alcanzar al número 60 en octubre de este año. Abarca la historia, las lenguas, la antropología, el arte, y los más variados estudios sobre los pueblos indios del continente. Sin duda, es el esfuerzo editorial sobre los pueblos indios más ambicioso y amplio. Ofrecer aquí un listado completo es imposible, pero vale la pena notar que la colección aparece en el catálogo de la Editorial Abya-Yala que se publica a menudo.

La pregunta que todo editor se hace, sobre todo quienes permaneceremos con la temática indígena, es la siguiente: “¿Y después del 12 de octubre de 1992, qué . . . ? Pensamos que la situación de los pueblos indios no es un asunto sujeto a modas y que luego de esta fecha nadie más se interesará por ellos. El surgimiento y consolidación de la causa india viene desde mucho antes de 1992 y, sin duda, quedarán muchos problemas por resolver después.
Lo que sí sabemos, es que el mundo vuelve a considerar los esquemas étnicos y las realidades culturales luego de haberlas ignorado con visiones filosóficas y políticas omni-abarcantes y pretenciosamente universales. Esta nueva articulación entre los pueblos, más relativista en respecto a las fronteras políticas y más cuidadosa en relación con las realidades étnicas, será, sin duda, el problema del futuro. Si la reflexión sobre las clases sociales dominó el panorama intelectual y político del siglo veinte, la cultura y las etnias constituirán los puntos críticos de la reflexión del siglo veintiuno.

Ojalá los proyectos editoriales tengan en cuenta este problema que América arrastra hace siglos (cinco, exactamente). A pesar de tanta valoración de las raíces, no alcanzamos todavía a identificarnos con ellas. Miramos con angustia el pasado pero no parece surgir una perspectiva de futuro... Este continente de mezclas apresuradas y síntesis inexistentes necesita mucho tiempo de reflexión y encuentro consigo mismo... a esta paciente tarea, mucho puede contribuir un proyecto editorial que recoja y estimule todas las facetas de esta crucial reflexión.
4. Miami and the Cuban Revolution: Ties across the Straits of Florida

Tony A. Harvell

Historical Background of Cubans in the United States

Probably no foreign political revolution has affected the character of one North American city so much as the Cuban Revolution of 1959 and its impact on Miami. Florida, however, actually had been providing a place of refuge for Cuban exiles since the late nineteenth century. In 1868, at the beginning of Cuba's Ten Years War, Cuban political exiles began migrating in large numbers to Key West. By 1870, more than 1,100 Cubans had settled there, and constituted a majority of the population. By 1869, it was estimated that over 10,000 Cubans had sought refuge in Florida. During the 1869 Cuban War for Independence, Key West became a major area of support to the revolutionary effort and was considered a revolutionary stronghold by José Martí. By the mid 1880s, more than 5,500 Cubans had come to Key West, where they established a thriving cigar industry. In addition to support of Cuban revolutionary activities, Cubans also took a very active role in local politics. Key West's first Cuban mayor was Carlos Manuel de Céspedes, son of a former Cuban president. A similar Cuban influx to Tampa took place in the 1880s, as a second cigar-making center emerged. Tampa had almost 2,500 Cuban-born residents in 1890 and over 5,000 by 1930. A third center of Cuban émigrés grew in late nineteenth-century New York City, where Martí provided exile leadership in the establishment of the Partido Revolucionario Cubano, representing a political union of Cubans in New York and Florida. In addition to these cities, there was significant Cuban migration to Ocala, St. Augustine, Jacksonville, and West Palm Beach. Many remained on in those cities after Cuba gained its independence in 1898.

During the first five decades of the twentieth century, smaller groups of Cuban migrants came to the United States to escape the political turbulence in Cuba. In the late 1920s and early 1930s, a small group of political and student activists opposed to President Gerardo Machado found refuge in Miami and New York. A new Cuban exile community began to emerge in Miami in the wake of the Cuban Revolution of 1933. By 1940 over 1,100 Cuban-born immigrants lived
in Miami, a colony that gradually grew over the next two decades. After Machado’s overthrow, most returned to Cuba and were replaced in exile by Machado loyalists and the former president himself. The same cycle was repeated during the presidencies of Ramón Grau San Martín, Carlos Prío Socarrás, and Fulgencio Batista.

Militant anti-Batista exiles were active in New York and Miami in the 1950s. Even before the success of Castro’s revolution in 1959, a concentrated area of Cuban settlement had begun to take shape in Miami’s central city, and the neighborhood was already being called “Little Havana.” The 1959 Revolution, though, triggered the largest migration ever of Cubans to the United States. Over 600,000 settled in Miami, and tens of thousands went elsewhere in the country. Analysis of Eisenhower cabinet papers of the 1950s identifies a fairly steady migration of Cubans to Florida, from a low of 1,893 in 1951 to a high of 14,953 in 1956, leaving a total of about 65,205 living in Florida as of the end of 1958.¹

It is clear, however, that many Cubans were living in Dade County, particularly those with ties to U.S.-based multinationals. Throughout the 1950s, flights between Miami and Havana were frequent, with many Miamians going to Havana for an evening of gambling and entertainment.

Cuban Emigration to Miami as a Result of the Cuban Revolution

From the first day of the Cuban Revolution, some 500 followers of Batista entered the United States and were granted asylum. Appendix A contains a table showing Cubans arriving in the United States by years, 1959-1980. Cuban immigration to the United States after 1959 has been categorized into five main stages.²

Stage 1: January 1959 to October 1962.—Early supporters of Batista, landowners, industrialists, and managers of expropriated U.S. enterprises, as well as professionals and smaller merchants.

Stage 2: November 1962 to November 1965.—When the Cuban Missile Crisis of October 1962 nearly halted Cuban immigration, most exiles came through Mexico, Spain, and other countries. In September 1965, the Cuban government did allow a boatlift to bring about 5,000 new exiles from the port of Camarioca.

Stage 3: December 1965 to April 1973.—In December 1965, the United States and Cuba reached agreements on an airlift from Varadero Beach to Miami, which brought in more than 340,000 new refugees. These “freedom flights” reflected declining socioeconomic origins of the immigrants, with increasing lower-middle and urban
working classes. Most were of urban origin and the proportion of blacks and mulattoes was much lower than in the island’s population.

Stage 4: May 1973 to April 1980.—In April 1973, the Cuban government terminated the airlift, leaving clandestine escapes and travel to third countries, mainly Spain, as the only means of leaving Cuba.

Stage 5: May to September 1980.—The occupation of the Peruvian embassy by disgruntled Cubans in April of 1980 was followed by an announcement from the Cuban government that anyone who wanted to leave the country could do so through the port of Mariel. This boatlift resulted in over 125,000 Cubans arriving in Florida.

Clearly, few major cities in America have experienced a more rapid or profound transformation as a direct consequence of immigration than has Miami in the past forty years. The Hispanic population of Dade County, Florida, has increased from 4.0 percent in 1950 to 49.2 percent in 1990.3

Early Cubans in Miami

Although Miami today is a bilingual and bicultural city, it had practically no Hispanic influence during the 1800s and early 1900s when it was a sleepy fishing village. As early as 1896, however, Miami began to have significance with regard to the U.S. role in Latin America, when about 7,000 soldiers were posted in the city of 1,500 inhabitants to defend the city in the country’s War with Spain. It was only after 1913 when Latin American tourists began coming to Miami, and after 1927 when Pan American Airways began flying between Miami and Key West that the two Americas were connected.

The political emigration of Cubans to the United States in this century can be said to have begun in 1917. In that year, the second president of the Republic, General José Miguel Gómez, was forced to leave Cuba to settle in Miami. He had opposed the reelection of the third president, Mario García Menocal and started a revolution to oust him. In time, three other Cuban presidents would come to settle in Florida: Gerardo Machado (who died and is buried in Miami), Fulgencio Batista, who lived in Daytona Beach, and Carlos Prío Socarrás who also died in Miami.

The years 1933 to 1940 established Miami as a definite center of Cuban influence: exiles fleeing the Cuban 1933 revolution against Gerardo Machado made Miami their major place of residence. A “Little Havana” existed in northwest Miami, in what is today Miami’s Little Haiti and Overtown areas. This originally tranquil strip housed largely middle-class skilled laborers with a few wealthy Cubans living
among them. In 1928 Miami’s first Cuban market opened. The Cuban Consulate was also located in this area. In the early 1930s Cubans bought property, mainly small apartment houses, in what is present-day Little Havana. Many of these Cubans came and went as the political situation in Cuba changed. Others maintained residences in both countries. Some estimates of the Cuban population of Miami in the pre-Castro years have established a figure of some 20,000. Other demographers estimate the number much smaller, more likely at five or six thousand Cubans in 1950. These Cubans, by their presence and the inroads they made in the social and economic community of Miami, would eventually attract other Cubans to the area.

At the end of Batista's first term in office (1944), another group of wealthy individuals with influential American contacts quickly became established in the Miami business community. Reportedly, “they invested in Florida real estate and their financial accomplishments were publicized in the local news media.” In 1952, after Batista ousted Carlos Prío Socarrás, yet another wave of Cubans came to Miami in search of asylum. Estimates indicate that between 1950 and 1958, ten to twelve thousand Cubans arrived in Miami.

**Cuban Exile Politics Immediately Prior to the Cuban Revolution**

Cuban exile politics in Miami did not begin with the post-Castro Cuban refugees but with the immigrants who came to the area prior to 1959. At that time Miami was becoming a major staging area for revolutionaries. Most of the exile activity of the period was motivated by anti-Batista sentiment. The exile colony was divided into several groups.

The Directorio Revolucionario, whose members attacked the Presidential Palace in 1957, were the first group. Many of these were young students eager to go back to the island to join the underground struggle. The Directorio counted among its membership Jose Alemán, the millionaire son of a former education minister of Cuba, who owned the Miami Stadium and a major Miami Beach Hotel, which he operated as a kind of asylum for fellow members of the Directorio who got into trouble in Cuba. Probably the most well-established exiles were the politicians deposed by Batista’s coup, either the Auténticos or Ortodoxos.

Chief among the Auténticos was former president Carlos Prío Socarrás, the last constitutionally elected president of Cuba. Prío had arrived in Miami shortly after the bloodless coup that brought Batista to power in 1952. In 1954 he was indicted, along with seventeen others, on charges stemming from the purchase and export of arms to Cuba.
Prío did not contest the charges and was fined $9,000. He subsequently returned to Cuba in 1955. In May of 1956, Prío left Cuba again when told by President Batista to either get out or go to jail. He chose to come to Miami. While in the city, he was under close observation and was ordered to minimize his political activity or face revocation of his political asylum grant.

The third group of exiles was the Asociación del Movimiento del 26 de Julio, the pro-Castro faction. This group was headed by Mario Llerna, Felipe Pazos, and Lester Rodríguez. There was debate as to whether this group was simply a youthful offshoot of the Ortodoxo Party or a separate entity. The debate was to continue for some time.

Exile Leadership

Prominent exile leaders included former Minister of State, Roberto Agramonte, a presidential aspirant, and Antonio de Varona, long-time Auténtico leader and member of the Prío cabinet (Primer Ministro 1948-1950 and President of the Cuban Senate until 1952). Other prominent Miami Cubans included former Cuban Congressional President Lincoln Rodón and Manuel Bisbé, former college professor and leader of the Ortodoxo Party.

Fidel Castro chose Mexico for his exile. From there, he followed the tradition of seeking economic support for Batista’s overthrow by visiting North American cities and organizing patriotic clubs of the Movimiento del 26 de Julio. He visited Miami sometime in October 1955 to help raise money, following in the footsteps of Martí, who had made a similar fund-raising trip eighty years earlier. Castro’s plan was to organize Patriotic Clubs of the 26th of July among the 26,000 Cubans living in the United States. Folktales still abound in Miami about the coral rock house on Flagler Street where he supposedly “lived,” but there is nothing to substantiate the fact that he was in Miami for more than a few days. Just before leaving Miami on December 10 to return to Mexico, Fidel issued “Manifesto No. 2 to the People of Cuba,” thanking those in the United States who were helping him. He left Juan Manuel Márquez in Miami to serve as his main representative to the exile community.

In 1956, Castro sent his friend, Teresa Casuso, “Tete,” to Miami for five days to meet with exiled President Carlos Prío Socarrás, who was reportedly “eager to meet with Fidel.” This meeting eventually took place in a McAllen, Texas, motel room in August 1956 and arranged for the transfer of $100,000 across the Mexican border to supply Castro and his guerrillas in the Sierra Maestra. Later, in 1957, Castro sent Haydeé Santa María and Celia Sánchez to elicit support
and donations. It was reported that they collected between $12,000 and $15,000 in Miami and elsewhere.

By 1957, Miami had established itself as a center of revolutionary activity. Over $50,000 in arms bound for Cuba were captured in mid-1957. A yacht carrying twenty-seven armed revolutionaries left Miami headed for Carbonico Bay in Cuba. When it was intercepted, sixteen of the rebels were executed. A plane leaving nearby Fort Lauderdale dropped fire bombs on sugar fields in Cuba. Also in the summer of 1957, Dr. Rolando Pozo Jiménez, son of Havana’s mayor and a close Batista associate, was beaten savagely on the streets of Miami. Miami appeared to be a major staging ground of the revolutionary movement developing in Cuba.

The Miami Pact

On November 1, 1957, twenty-one representatives of exile organizations against Batista, meeting in Lincoln Rodón’s house in Miami, signed a charter setting up the Junta de Liberación Cubana, whose purpose was to organize and implement armed action against Batista. This would include the incorporation of revolutionary forces into the regular army after his downfall and eventually a provisional government to reestablish democracy in Cuba. Seven anti-Batista political parties were represented including: (1) the Partido Revolucionario Cubano (the Auténticos) represented by Carlos Prio and Antonio de Varona; (2) the Organización Auténtica; (3) the Partido del Pueblo Cubano (Ortodoxos); (4) the Federación Estudiantil Cubano; (5) the Directorio Revolucionario; and (6) the Directorio Obrero Revolucionario, a trade union opposition organization.

Most of the leaders of these organizations subsisted under Prio’s financial umbrella. Prio had been pouring money into arms for revolutionary groups in Cuba since the beginning of his exile. A conservative estimate was set at $5 million between 1952 and 1959. In fact, Prio claimed to have spent his entire fortune buying arms to fight Batista and then Castro. The last group represented was the Movimiento del 26 de Julio, represented by Mario Llerna. This document became known as the Miami Pact.

Fidel Castro found out about the Pact through reading the New York Times and was reportedly furious that the representatives would have acted without specific authorization from the Dirección Nacional of the Movimiento. In a scathing letter of December 14, he announced that the Movement “did not designate or authorize any delegation to discuss such negotiations,” and that “the 26th of July Movement claims for itself the function of maintaining public order and reorganizing
armed forces of the Republic,” and that “while the leaders of the other organizations who endorsed the pact are abroad fighting an imaginary revolution, the leaders of the 26th of July Movement are in Cuba, making a real revolution.”

The junta floundered. Without the support of the Rebel Army, it would be weak. The various constituent groups asked Castro to reconsider his opposition, but to no avail. Fidel also made new enemies in the opposition, especially in the Directorio Revolucionario, whose leadership had signed the Miami document. And he would continue to have problems with their political leadership. However, he did win points with Che Guevara for his rejection of the Miami Pact.

In 1958, partly as a response to the disorganization and lack of discipline in the Movimiento’s exile groups, Castro implemented the Committee in Exile to direct the activities of groups or centers of Cuban exile activity, with the authorization to expel intransigent organizations and individuals. Nevertheless, the ideological gap between Movement leaders in Cuba and Miami widened. Debate broke out over the need to organize a government in exile and the methods for overthrowing Batista. When the Junta wanted to choose Felipe Pazos, former President of the Banco Nacional de Cuba, as provisional leader, Fidel sent an angry letter insisting that Judge Manuel Urrutía, in exile in New York, should serve.

A major power struggle broke out within the Junta over its goals and directions and the influence that Carlos Prío should have. A military plan costing $90,000 was proposed, and Prío offered to pay two-thirds if the Movimiento paid the rest. This was unacceptable to the Movimiento, which continued to support Urrutía and the position that the Movimiento would assume the sole direction of the fight against Batista. Throughout 1958, exile anti-Batista groups remained bitterly disunited. When Movimiento leaders called for a general strike on the island, most exile groups supported it, except for Carlos Prío, who announced that his followers would refuse to participate unless they were given representation on the central strike committee. When interviewed in February 1958, Fidel told the correspondent, “Prío represents the past; we are the future.” Other Cuban exile groups in Miami, such as Roberto Agramonte's Ortodoxos and members of the Directorio Revolucionario, expressed full support for the general strike, and scoffed at Prío’s aloofness, lamenting the fact that his lack of support undermined their unity of purpose to overthrow Batista. In addition to exiles, top rebel leaders on the island, such as Armando Fleites from the Segundo Frente del Escambray, a fledgling guerrilla band in the province of Las Villas, had already visited Prío in Miami in
early 1958 to get weapons. The Frente wanted Prio to go to their hideout in the Escambray Mountains and set up a government in exile, claiming legitimacy as the last democratically elected president of Cuba. They offered him a luxurious farmhouse with a nearby airstrip. Though Prio turned down their offer, he donated about $100,000 to buy hand grenades, Garand rifles, and ammunition. While in Miami, Fleites also bought an old U.S. Air Force B-26 for $4,500. In February 1958, Prio and eight other Cubans were indicted for conspiring to attack Cuba, in violation of U.S. neutrality laws. At this time, Prio was believed to have more than $50 million in the United States and was the principal backer for an expedition with training camps in Florida, the Dominican Republic, Mexico, and Haiti.

Street violence continued in the Miami area throughout 1958, and Cuban Congressional Representative Rodolfo Masferrer was attacked on the streets of Miami in April. Meanwhile, Miami continued to develop as a base of arms shipments to rebels in Cuba. In February 1958, thirty persons were charged with conspiracy to export arms and instruments of war to Cuba. In April 1958, 254 Cubans were ordered deported, due to their involvement in arms shipments to the island. Also in April, the Cuban House of Representatives formally filed a protest with the Florida Governor and Legislature, charging that Miami had become a center of “gangster activities” of Cuban revolutionaries, and that the exiles were “... continuing their activities without difficulty in Miami, a center of the violent internal struggle.”

Throughout the summer of 1958, there were several interceptions of arms shipments from Miami bound for Cuba. By late 1958, there were between four thousand and five thousand political exiles in Miami, collecting money for the cause, hiding weapons in their rented homes until they could be smuggled into Cuba, and, of course, arguing politics for hours upon hours. Castro’s Movimiento del 26 de Julio seemed to be growing in number and financial support, with new members attracted by the boldness of its youthful leaders. Some of the other anti-Batista groups were struggling along, losing members to the 26 de Julio movement. Tony Varona spent a great deal of his time visiting the Cuban cafeterias of Miami in search of support for the Auténticos and the place that they would have in the Revolution. He also visited Washington frequently, urging the State Department to withdraw support for Batista and perhaps give him some sign of support.

Another Miami exile, Justo Carrillo, was heading another organization, the Montecristi Movement, composed of a few liberal intellectuals, many of them from the generation of 1933, who were convinced that the way to overthrow a military tyrant such as Batista
was from within the Army. He was convinced that Colonel Ramón Barquín, imprisoned on the Isle of Pines for having attempted a coup against Batista, was his man. His scheme was to lead a commando raid on the prison in two C-47 planes, carrying fifty armed men. Carrillo purchased the planes for $70,000 and looked for support in Washington to allow them to take off from Florida. In the end he was persuaded that such an invasion would backfire and would violate U.S. neutrality laws. 

In September 1958, customs authorities captured thirty-one men and $10,000 in arms on a boat leaving just north of Miami. The insignias on the men were those of Prío’s Auténticos and the Movimiento del 26 de Julio. Prío acknowledged that they might have been part of an operation under joint leadership with Fidel Castro. In November 1958, Carlos Prío and four other persons pleaded not guilty to charges of conspiring to finance military expeditions against the Cuban government. The Miami Herald estimated that in 1958 alone a quarter-million dollars in arms passed through Miami to support rebel causes.

Meanwhile, Tony Varona was coming up with his own scheme in late December. This “third force” was an attempt to undermine Castro’s influence in the new regime. He would use his contact with an old friend in Camaguey to lead an uprising that would establish control of that province. Fidel would then have to negotiate with the Auténticos for power in the new government. Prío agreed to furnish the plane for the trip. However, the “third force” never got a chance to work. By New Year’s Eve 1958, Batista could no longer maintain control in Cuba, and left Havana on a private plane bound for the Dominican Republic. Another plane carried two of his children, bound for New Orleans. Within a week, Fidel arrived in Havana.

Early Post-Revolutionary Exile Activity

In Miami, Jacksonville, Key West, and New Orleans the first group of Batistianos, economic and political elites associated with the Batista government, arrived. Among the more notorious non-Cubans arriving were casino mobsters Meyer Lansky, Santo Trafficante, and Charles “The Blade” Tourine. The number of early Cuban pro-Batista exiles was estimated at about 3,000. From mid-1959 through early 1960 another 7,000 people arrived, mostly economic elites who would suffer from the reforms being enacted, such as agrarian reform, the nationalization of oil refineries and sugar companies, and Castro’s increasing orientation toward Marxism. From the very beginning, there was tension among the various exile groups represented in Miami.
The wealthier Cubans settled in Miami Beach, Key Biscayne, and Coral Gables, while most exiles settled in cramped low-rent neighborhoods southwest of downtown. Most Cubans arrived in dire economic conditions, due to Castro’s restrictions on leaving the country with assets. Miami, at the time, was in the midst of economic recession, and there was a surplus of run-down housing in what is now Little Havana. Many Cubans settled in apartment buildings in this area.

Tensions were high among the exile community. Throughout early 1959, various shipments of anti-Castro arms were intercepted in Miami, including a cache of dynamite. In June and July 1959, street fighting broke out between pro-Castro and pro-Batista factions. It should be pointed out that not all of the early exiles were supporters of Batista or against Castro’s revolution. A survey of Cuban exiles living in Miami, conducted in 1963, found that 70 percent of the people interviewed were in favor of the overthrow of Batista\(^{15}\) and that about 23 percent had participated in some anti-Batista activity.\(^{16}\) Other surveys in the early 1960s indicated that between one-third and one-half of the Cuban exiles at one time supported Castro’s revolution.\(^{17}\)

By 1960, Cuban exile organizations were beginning to mobilize. One that received a great deal of attention was the Anti-Castro Liberation Alliance, lead by former Castro military officers Pedro Díaz Lanz and Nino Díaz. It maintained strong ties with the anti-Castro guerrilla forces in Cuba. In 1961, political activities continued to increase among the exile organizations and on January 23, 1961, a meeting was held in Miami in an attempt to organize approximately sixty exile groups into an effective force for the overthrow of the Castro government. True to form for Cuban exile organizations, the participants failed to produce a strategy or to agree on what would replace the Castro regime and who would lead the opposition movement.

Two of the strongest organizations, the Movimiento Revolucionario del Pueblo and the Frente Revolucionaria Democrática, merged to form the Junta Revolucionaria Nacional, headed by a former Castro premier, José Miró Cardona. It had as its goals: (1) the overthrow of Castro; (2) the holding of free elections for a new government; (3) the return of property confiscated by the Castro government to its former owners; and (4) the continuation of economic and social reform in Cuba.

**The Bay of Pigs Invasion**

Miami, of course, served as an important staging point for the Bay of Pigs invasion in April 1961. As early as 1960, CIA agent Richard M. Bissell began organizing the Bay of Pigs project, which, in addition to
the armed invasion of the island, involved training radio broadcasters to mobilize the population on the island once the invasion was underway. A transmitter was to be established on Swan Island in the Western Caribbean, off Honduras, with the broadcasting done from Miami. In addition, training camps for soldiers were being established in Homestead, near Miami. It was difficult to keep this information secret, as nearby residents often heard drill orders transmitted by loudspeakers and saw Cubans marching.

In April 1961, it was made public that Cuban exile forces, training in the United States (near Miami in the Everglades) and in Central America (Helvetia, Guatemala) were preparing for an invasion of Cuba. The Junta Revolucionaria was allegedly directing the operation, with Central Intelligence Agency advice and funding. The plan was to put the Junta Revolucionaria exile government under Miró Cardona into office, once the invasion succeeded. The CIA was operating under the cover of the Gibraltar Steamship Corporation and was busily interviewing arrivals of Cuban refugees, pumping them for intelligence information.

CIA director Jay Gleichauff had a list of almost 700 anti-Castro groups conspiring in the Miami area. The CIA had established “safe houses” and front businesses around Miami, but all of their attempts to keep the operations secretive were to no avail. The Miami Cuban community was abuzz with the “secret information,” and local media reported extensively from the military camps in South Florida, and ran pictures of Cubans lined up at recruiting stations and of sightseers at Opa-Locka Airport in Miami watching the steady flow of blacked-out planes leaving for Guatemala.

When the April 17 invasion was announced, Cuban males flocked to the various exile organizations to volunteer their services. Among the 1,500 or some members of the Brigade, were members of Miami’s most prominent exile families, the sons of Miró Cardona, Antonio de Varona, Antonio Maceo (all members of the Junta Revolucionaria), as well as sons of former Batista cabinet ministers and ambassadors. Although it was mostly composed of predominantly middle-class and upper-class men, the force contained a remarkably representative cross-section of those opposed to Castro.18

While the invasion was going on, the leadership of the Junta Revolucionaria was kept at Opa-Locka Airport in Miami, to be transported to the island, once it was safe to do so. The Bay of Pigs invasion was a disaster, with most of the rebels either captured or killed. Those captured were later ransomed for medical supplies and cash. In April 1962, the Bay of Pigs prisoners returned to Miami’s
Orange Bowl, with a hero’s welcome, attended by President and Mrs. Kennedy. Throughout 1962 there were other attempts to invade the island, including that of the William Morgan Brigade (named for a U.S. expatriate who supported Fidel but was later executed). This Brigade attempted to organize another training camp east of Miami but was unsuccessful. During the end of 1961 and early 1962, arms were transported to Cuba, and many small-scale raids took place, including one in August 1962, where twenty-three Miami exiles attacked a Cuban ship at port and returned safely by boat to Miami.

Throughout the sixties, there were various attempts on the part of exile organizations to land in Cuba. Many were arrested, and at least four persons were executed. By 1963, it was estimated that there were as many as 200 anti-Castro exile organizations in Miami, including military, paramilitary, economic, social, political, professional, and conspiratorial groups. This period is often referred to as the “Golden Age of Exiles.” About this time, many of the organizations became more civic and social in nature, as the Cuban exile community became more integrated in the U.S. political and social system. Among the more visible organizations were the Municipios en Exilio, organized along the lines of cities and towns in Cuba from which exiles had come. Only the more militant organizations such as Alpha 66 and Omega 7 were actively promoting acts of violence and took particularly strong stands against trade and diplomatic relations with Cuba. Miami businesses with ties to Cuba were bombed, including a travel agency, a cigar factory, and a local Spanish-language newspaper that supported trade relations with Cuba.

Though the focus of this paper has been the period immediately preceding and following the Cuban Revolution of 1959, it is apparent that the Cuban Revolution has continued to have a dramatic impact on Miami. The Mariel boatlift of 1980 had a profound effect on the social fabric of Miami, and racial disturbances in Miami in the early 1980s have been attributed in part to this immigration and the strains it created on the job and housing markets in Miami. Miami experienced a dramatic increase in crime in the early 1980s, partly due to the criminals who arrived in the Mariel boatlift. The exodus also created serious strains on the health care and social services system in Dade County. Though the Mariel refugees were quite successfully integrated in Miami, it was not without its strains on the system.

The events of the 1990s, with the breakup of the Soviet Union and its attendant problems for Cuba, could have a tremendous impact on Miami. Almost immediately after the collapse of the Berlin Wall, Florida’s governor appointed a panel to study the potential collapse of
the Castro regime and its impact in South Florida. Already, Cuban-American business leaders are mobilizing for the potential market on the island. Migration flows could dramatically change the social fabric of Miami once more. Cuban exile political leaders are actively organizing political parties in hopes of assuming a role in Cuba’s government, should the Castro regime collapse. Some exiles even hold to the illusion that they will reclaim their property and businesses lost in the Cuban Revolution. Miami’s local politics are decidedly influenced by events in Cuba, and it is difficult to be elected to public office without a strong anti-Castro position. City commission discussions are often related to foreign policy issues concerning Cuba.

Aside from the Cuban American National Foundation, attempts to unify exile groups have been largely unsuccessful. There is still wide divergence on methods and purposes for replacing Fidel. Even looking ahead to a post-Castro era, the various political parties forming in Miami have widely differing agendas and political platforms. And all have different agendas and platforms from those being formulated on the island. There is considerable speculation about what kind of interaction will take place between Miami Cubans and those on the island, should the Castro regime collapse.

The Miami Herald described Miami in 1963 as a kind of Cold War outpost, somewhat like West Berlin. “The City was elected, because of its geography, to become an instrument of U.S. foreign policy, without ever having been consulted in advance.” Miami has enjoyed a unique role in U.S.-Latin American relations. Its relationship with Cuba is a long one, by Miami standards, and could be characterized by the words of a song popular in Miami in the early 1980s, “Only in Miami, Is Cuba So Near, Yet So Far Away.”
APPENDIX
Cubans Arriving in the United States, 1959-1980

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Total 793,856

NOTES


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5. San Antonio: Capital of Insurgent Mexico

William Beezley

San Antonio, Texas, has a multitude of reputations; one might say, the city has numerous forms of beauty depending on the eye of the beholder. Of course, for all true Texans, it’s the Alamo City, cradle of everything symbolized by the ole’ Lone Star. For tourists, it’s the most popular destination in Texas, at least the River Walk is. For Western music fans, it’s the inspiration of Bob Wills’s classic, “San Antonio Rose,” and for neo-Western music fans, the sardonic, feminist rebuttal from Tish Hinojosa, “San Antonio Romeo.” For Air Force enlisted personnel, it’s the weekend pass from basic training at Lackland Air Force Base, and for the bizarre subculture of roller coaster fanatics, it’s the home of Fiesta Texas, with the Rattler, a wooden coaster with the longest drop, steepest incline, and highest speed (about 70 miles an hour) of any thrill ride in the U.S.A.

But all these aspects aside, for a brief period early in this century, San Antonio represented the center of revolutionary activity for Mexicans planning to seize control of their national government. Using a Southwestern city as a base of operations for a revolution in Mexico had happened before. The precedent for this development in San Antonio occurred in 1876, with the intersection of the political aspirations of General Porfirio Díaz and the economic schemes of several motley, unrelated U.S. investors, such as banker James Stillman and ranchers Richard King and Mifflin Kenedy. Díaz, with financial backing and vague promises of political support from these American capitalists, launched his successful revolution in 1876 from Brownsville, Texas.¹

In the quarter century that followed, San Antonio replaced Brownsville as the economic and political capital city of the borderlands. During the same years, this region increasingly witnessed a booming economy and burgeoning population on both the Mexican and U.S. sides. San Antonio became the distribution head for Mexican workers coming into the United States and then fanning out for seasonal jobs. Functioning as the information and recruitment hub, San Antonio soon developed the major barrio in the United States on
the west side of town. Completion of the railroad ties through Laredo south to Monterrey and then on to Torreón, made traffic easier between the two countries, and San Antonio soon became the service and shopping center for Mexicans throughout the northeastern section of the country.

The Anglo and Tejano (or established Hispanic-American) residents had a double response to Mexican visitors to the city. For the most part, they held an anti-Mexican view of those who came in search of work; on the other hand, they welcomed those well-to-do Mexicans who arrived for periodic shopping trips for the women, medical examinations for the men, and boarding schools for the children. These responses by city fathers and society stalwarts relied on opinions formed on social gradations, and they used them to guide reactions to Mexican revolutionaries as well.

For example, the first revolutionaries arrived in San Antonio in 1905. These were the three Flores Magón brothers, founders of the Partido Liberal Mexicano or PLM. Journalists in Mexico, the brothers, especially Enrique, had utter faith in the written word. But this approach faltered. Words, the magic used by newspaper writers, did not inspire the people to overthrow the president, no matter how cleverly used and no matter how precisely they outlined the abhorrent policies of Porfirio Díaz. These words led only to the closing of the Flores Magóns' newspaper, the jailing of the brothers, and the decision of Jesús to retire from politics and of Ricardo and Enrique to seek refuge across the northern border.

Leaving their older brother behind, the other two Flores Magóns moved briefly to San Antonio, Texas. In the Alamo City, they met a cold reception from nearly everyone, even those workers whom they hoped to organize. After an assassin hired by the Mexican government attacked their print shop and stabbed Enrique—who survived the assault—they fled to St. Louis, Missouri, in 1905.

The Flores Magóns found no haven in San Antonio because they lacked social ties to the city's network of Anglo and Hispanic town society. They resided in the poverty-racked west side and associated with seasonal workers and pecan shellers. From the social periphery, their strident political statements seemed like caustic calls for destruction and violence and their emotional commitment only an inducement to reckless disorder. Throughout the years of PLM efforts to launch a revolt, 1905 to 1909, the Alamo City offered little to these exiles, who ultimately found their greatest support in East Los Angeles—the barrio of Los Angeles—where socialist, anarchist, and union organizers had already laid a groundwork for PLM activities.
San Antonio emerged as the insurgent capital of Mexico during the anti-reelectionist revolution, during the era of Francisco Madero, 1910-1911, a brief, but crucial, moment in the course of the Mexican revolution. After an abortive presidential campaign that climaxed in his arrest, Madero abandoned Mexico to make a revolution. The newly minted rebel Madero escaped to San Antonio, Texas, in July, 1910.

The Flores Magón brothers had arrived in the United States without American friends or connections. This was not the case with Madero. He stepped down from the train in San Antonio to a town he knew as well as any city in Mexico. Here he banked with Franz Groos and Company and the Lockwood National Bank and did business with many other companies, but particularly the Frost Brothers. Here his wife and women relatives not only shopped, but also had accounts with the town’s dressmakers at the Joske Brothers. Here the entire extended family placed its health in the hands of San Antonio doctors Ferdinand and Adolf Herff. He had long before become a part of the web of business, social, and political networks that stretched back to the time when his grandfather built the family fortune doing business with Texas Confederates in San Antonio. The Flores Magóns came to the United States as strangers and exiles; Madero was welcomed by social acquaintances and business associates—other men and families of the border, who recognized him and would tolerate his cause.

For Mexicans throughout the borderlands, San Antonio at this time was the principal shopping and social center, the so-called Paris of the Southwest. A town of over thirty nationalities and ethnic groups—Mexicans, Anglos, Germans, and blacks being the largest. One of only four cities in the United States in 1910 with a Mexican population of 5,000 or more, San Antonio’s Mexican population had jumped from 13,722 in 1900 (25.7 percent of the city’s total) to 83,373 in 1910 (30.5 percent of the city’s total), with most of this group jammed into the west side barrio. The west side gave San Antonio the largest population of Mexican extraction in the United States until it was surpassed by Los Angeles in the 1930s. Madero had left only the Mexican national state behind, not the Mexican culture.

From July to November, 1910, the seemingly sun-drenched, superficially placid society of the borderlands hid complex and contradictory crosscurrents. The rebels, forming the San Antonio junta, still calling themselves Anti-reelectionists, held clandestine meetings, raised money from countrymen on both sides of the line, recruited troops, and plotted strategy, while Mexican secret agents and private investigators in the hire of the Mexican administration followed every lead, staked out the homes of exiles, and called on the U.S. government for help. The
United States relied on its consular officials along the border, military intelligence officers, Bureau of Investigation agents, postal inspectors, and well-intentioned informants. Everywhere, everyone bumped into one another and quickly looked the other way.

Not just Madero, but his circle of advisers constituted a different group than the PLM members who surrounded Flores Magón. A U.S. secret service agent, Joe Priest, described the “many well-dressed” Anti-reelectionist leaders who gathered at the Hutchins House, located on Main Street “among the Blue Stockings of San Antonio.”

This dapper council, directed by Madero, sent agents into Mexico with 5,000 copies of a proclamation, called the San Luis Potosí Plan, that set November 20, 1910, as the starting date of the revolution. The announcement also carried Madero’s bland proposals for a new Mexico that lamely skipped over economic and social problems, emphasizing democratic politics and municipal autonomy as the keys to the appropriate reform of Porfirio’s authoritarian centralization. It sounded reasonable—and still does—but, as a practical matter, rebel recruits wanted political power, not elections; land and fair wages, not laissez faire economics; and social justice, not well-meaning administrative paternalism.

Madero did not even make promises to break. Once settled on his course of action, he established a revolutionary committee, made up of his political allies, including a number of northerners active on both sides of the border. Abraham González, who assumed a prominent role in Madero’s inner circle, was typical of these allies. While González conferred with Madero in San Antonio, he recruited rebels in his native state of Chihuahua and smuggled arms and ammunition to them. The exile committee began an ambitious campaign of raising money, recruiting fighting men, buying and smuggling arms, and planning an invasion of northern Mexico. The embryonic revolutionaries operated within a generally favorable climate in San Antonio, where the local citizens and the newspapers supported them. Still, the rebel committee faced enormous difficulties, including the efforts of Mexican government agents to eliminate them, U.S. and Texas government harassment, double loyalties, factionalism, intrigues and, above all, inexperience. The U.S. and Mexican governments, through their myriad agencies, recognized in practice that San Antonio had become Mexico’s insurgent capital, and both focused their efforts there.

Clearly knowledgeable about the North, Madero had no understanding of his nation. This would lead within three years to Madero’s death, but would result in the greatest strength of the Mexican revolution through 1937, the ability of people to negotiate programs
and policies for their benefit. Politically it was disastrous in the short run, yet vital for the nature and character of the revolution that occurred under the northerners and that was then revised under Cárdenas and was completely concluded in the last days of the Alemán regime.

Neither Díaz nor Madero recognized in the countless small uprisings the revolution to come. Madero, even more than Díaz, looked, but could not see. Prepared to command the national government but not a revolution, Madero left San Antonio and returned to Mexico for the first day of the revolution. He journeyed by way of Cotulla to Carrizo Springs, Texas. Along with three others, Madero expected to meet his uncle Catarino Benavides with 400 to 500 men near the outskirts of Ciudad Porfirio Díaz (now Piedras Negras), Coahuila, on the banks of the Rio Grande. Mexicans as far north as San Antonio repeated stories about Catarino Benavides. Madero’s selection of him demonstrated that family ties at times overcame sound judgment. His uncle was widely known throughout Coahuila for his follies. In the most widely repeated story, people recounted his claim to have invented a “flying machine,” whose wing size he determined by using the proportions he derived by measuring the wings of hundreds of canaries that he kept in his home. His reputation possibly hurt his recruiting efforts.

When Madero joined his uncle, he found only a handful of expectant rebels. They were all mounted, but between them had only four carbines, some pistols, and a little ammunition. Madero’s personal uprising was stillborn. He returned to San Antonio where he made plans to go into European exile and soon departed by train on the roundabout route to New Orleans through Dallas. He believed the revolution had been no more than café talk in the Alamo city. Nevertheless, others in San Antonio kept the faith. These revolutionaries formed a committee in exile that became the headquarters for information, recruitment, and supply. After hearing about some small rebel victories, Madero returned from New Orleans, and his efforts from San Antonio to encourage recruitment, finance the campaign, and gain popular support in the United States became more intense.

Prorevolutionary newspapers popped up in profusion in the Alamo city. Of special interest was the effort of Andrea Villarreal who edited La Mujer moderna, a journal that espoused contemporary feminism for Mexican readers. Her efforts so impressed the editor of the San Antonio Light (and suggested opportunities for success of Villarreal’s approach) that he dubbed her the “Joan of Arc of Mexico.”
The revolution's success in northern Mexico focused attention on Madero and the junta in San Antonio. It resulted in growing pressure from Mexican agents, U.S. government officials, and Texas officials and eventually persuaded the committee to move to El Paso, more centrally located in the borderlands, closer to the successful rebel troops in Chihuahua, and the pivot of competing political jurisdictions (El Paso is located in the remote corner of Texas, abutting both the Mexican state of Chihuahua and what was then the federal territory of New Mexico). The complex legal jurisdictions provided ample space for rebel maneuvering in and around international, federal, state, and territorial laws. Moreover, the twin cities of Juárez–El Paso (with a combined 1910 population of 114,280) comprised, by far, the largest, most dynamic urban center on the border.6

El Paso in 1910 was the largest city between San Antonio and Los Angeles. As a center for subversive activity, the twin cities shared unique socioeconomic problems that lingered from 1906, and as the dispersion point for thousands of Mexican immigrants coming north, it offered large numbers of potential recruits.7 Together these two towns soon replaced San Antonio as the unofficial, but popularly recognized, capital of the borderlands.

But even as the center of rebel activity shifted away from San Antonio, the city played a role in one more major incident, the little-known affair surrounding the Plan of San Diego. This proclamation, bearing a 1915 date and a San Diego, Texas, location, called on Hispanics to rise up and recapture the lands lost to the Anglos through the Texas rebellion and the United States–Mexican war. Later versions also called on Texas and southern blacks to join the war against the Anglos, with the promise of Alabama and Mississippi becoming a new black nation.

San Antonio's service region became the scene of Hispanic attacks on Anglos, lynchings of blacks and Hispanics, and general ethnic fears resulted. These events enabled Venustiano Carranza’s plan to pressure Woodrow Wilson into extending diplomatic recognition to succeed, but almost too well. The combination of provocations in 1915 and 1916 brought Mexico to the edge of war with the United States, a situation in which bloodshed seemed inevitable. Mexicans made raids throughout the Lower Valley. The best organized and equipped band was the Fierros Brigade of 450 Mexican and Mexican-American troops—with six Japanese volunteers—that infiltrated the region north of Nuevo Laredo and headed toward San Antonio. General Pablo González coordinated these activities and directed Fierros. Once Carranza had obtained all he could from pressing the United States
with these troops, he disappointed González by allowing the invasion plans to wither in the Valley region. A few cadres continued renegade actions, but the war threat declined and with it the possibility of Mexican government support for rebellion in Texas.

The San Diego furor subsided once the United States government extended recognition to the Carranza government. General González halted the incursions from south of the river. The call for social revolution they had made was now ignored by the Constitutionalist commanders. Both national governments, in uncoordinated programs, began decisive campaigns against those involved in the Plan of San Diego. Unrequited social revolution left Hispanics in the greater San Antonio area vulnerable. Anglo Texans turned on them. They found in the San Diego Plan, especially its exhortation to slay all Anglo males over sixteen years old, a clarion to race war in the borderlands. Anglos in the region between San Antonio and the Rio Grande used this possibility as a rationalization for vigilante strikes. They abused and, in some instances, murdered Mexican Americans. The Texas Rangers turned on Hispanics regarded as being troublemakers or who were disrespectful of Anglo authority or who were independent in actions or who were simply in the wrong place at the wrong time. A wave of repression swept across the counties of deep south Texas.

The violence resulted in both Anglos and Hispanics quitting the lower valley. Mexicans headed south to Tampico, most dramatically from the two southernmost counties of Texas, where some 40 percent of the Mexican population left in 1915. The Anglos went north to Corpus Christi, some even returning to the midwest. Mexican Americans sought refuge in San Antonio. The brief, but bloody, Anglo rampage in South Texas soon ran its course. The death toll officially reached as high as 150, and one witness reported finding the corpses of Mexican Americans who had been lined up, executed, and left to rot in the chaparral on several occasions. The failure of long-standing Anglo political bosses (with the exception of Archie Parr in Duval County) to protect their Hispanic patrons from Ranger vengeance broke boss rule in South Texas, allowing politicians posing as reformers to seize political control and develop their own economic interests in these southern counties.

The lower Rio Grande Valley offered the opportunity for the Carranza government to demonstrate that it could maintain order, justifying diplomatic recognition, while events at the other end of the river boundary resulted from an effort to show that this Mexican regime could not provide security along the frontier. That latter incident, of course, refers to Pancho Villa’s raid on Columbus, New Mexico.
Pushed by the violence of the revolution and pulled by work opportunities, the Mexican population (by birth or descent) in the United States zoomed from 100,000 in 1900 to 1.5 million in 1930. Of the latter number, 64 percent had immigrated since 1915. During the 1920s, the population of the barrio in Los Angeles tripled, making it second only to Mexico City as a home to Mexicans. The numbers increased in the same ratio in the traditional barrio of San Antonio.

With the flood of Mexican refugees, San Antonio became increasingly conservative in nature, especially in the barrio. The Mexicans fleeing their homeland composed two groups: wealthy Porfiran supporters, who opposed the revolution and soon established in San Antonio an exile community hostile to the revolutionary regimes, and poorer Mexicans forced to flee from the violence, whose desperate conditions forced them to forego revolutionary interests to focus on the daily struggle to make a living in what was widely recognized as one of the most awful slums in the United States, the west San Antonio barrio. Only with the efforts at worker organization and federal government programs during the New Deal would these horrible living, working, and health conditions be improved in Hispanic San Antonio.

Today, San Antonio's link to the initial success of the Mexican revolution through its first revolutionary president, Francisco I. Madero, has faded from most memories. The hotel used by the rebel junta still stands just a few blocks from the renovated town center around the Alamo, but the building has been abandoned and its broken windows boarded up. Symbolically, it stands as a monument to San Antonio's history as a revolutionary center—that is to say, it is present, but ignored. Perhaps with the North American Free Trade Agreement now imminent the city will once again become the capital of revolutionary change.

NOTES

1. This is the subject of the first section of John Hart's exploration of U.S. ness and its relationship to the revolution; see Revolutionary Mexico: The Coming and cess of the Mexican Revolution (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1987), esp. 105-129.


4. Ibid., p. 97, n. 23, citing Castillo, Historia de la revolución, p. 260.
5. Ibid., “Madero in San Antonio,” pp. 185-186, citing the Light, Oct. 23, 1910. Andrea’s sister Teresa edited El Obrero, expressing views similar to those of brother, Antonio who had been a member of the PLM and later joined the Madero cause.

6. Oscar J. Martínez, Border Boom Town; Ciudad Juarez since 1848 (Austin: University of Texas Press, 1975), tables 1 and 2, pp. 158-159.


6. Commentary

Henry Schmidt

In commenting on Beezley and Harvell's papers, I begin with some trivia and then work my way into some ideas, linkages, frameworks, contexts, and meanings. On the matter of sources, I would have expected to see some of Jorge Domínguez's writings on Cuba, Coever and Hall's book on Texas and the Mexican Revolution, and Raat's Revoltosos.

I think Beezley's date of 1876 for the beginning of the role of U.S. cities in Mexican revolutions could be pushed back further, certainly to the 1850s and 1860s, when New Orleans and other U.S. cities formed part of a triangle with Europe and Mexico over liberal/conservative issues.

These papers could clarify and interpret more the structured pattern they present of Latin American revolutions and U.S. cities such as: arrival, accommodation, friction with established communities; possible organization of revolutionary activity, interfactionalism; neighborhood change; money and supply funneling; relations with the federal government; cultural infrastructure; economic changes. These papers never really break away from their story lines to move into an interpretative mode regarding the data they present.

For expansion and publication, the authors may want to include more examples of the impact on San Antonio and Miami of refugees and immigrants arriving from Latin American revolutionary circumstances. The founding of La Prensa in San Antonio and the generation of bicultural contexts come to mind.

One of the ideas these papers suggest is the ongoing, reciprocal, interactive dimension of inter-American history. Immigration, forced migration, business exchange, educational and religious exchange, entertainment, and sports comprise a large area of hemispheric relations that is seldom treated alongside the formal, diplomatic relations of textbooks and traditional, disciplinary concerns.

Another theme these papers suggest and seem to comment on is at the very heart of U.S. immigration history. It is a history of disinterested principle, a political policy, of both. There seems to be the hint in Harvell's paper, though this is not his main focus, that
from the Ten Years’ War to Castro, Cuban immigration to the United States was closely tied to U.S. interests. In other words, how does immigration history become an instrument of national politics?

Also, these papers indicate how immigration to the United States is reflective of U.S. geo-history. One presumes that Cubans for a century had a better time of it in Dade County, not to mention Key West, than in St. Paul or Albany. Mexicans found an ancestral home in San Antonio, and Central American refugees found a liberal Anglo and Latino community in Austin. If we follow this line of reasoning further, we see that immigration to the United States is closely tied to geographical, ethnic, and cultural diversity—that an ever-changing, multicultural context looms as a factor of a global dynamic that is both part of and separate from U.S. history. West Coast history as a part of Pacific Rim history comes readily to mind. But in our case, these papers illustrate the flow of hemispheric Latino history in the United States in a pattern that acquires a supranational or dual national status, depending on the perspective.

These histories also somewhat redress the imperialist and filibustering themes of the United States in Latin America and the Latin American stereotyping of the United States as a cold, mechanistic, alien, and materialistic place. From Rodó to Rangel and even in the nominally more informal treatment of Mexican–U.S. relations of Pastor/Castañeda, rigid conceptualization and polarization obscure the daily, multicultural working of hemispheric societies. Whatever the reasons for doing so, the United States can at times benignly receive Latin American political refugees in the twentieth century, thus creating paradox at the root reality of hemispheric relations.

I think the real significance of diaspora history lies in its contribution to the host country. The refugees from Latin American revolutions changed not only U.S. demographic history but also the quality of its civilization. Today’s focus on ethnicity, a plural society, and multiculturalism reflects this. By the late twentieth century, the Latinization of the United States may be regarded as a major theme in this country’s history, reaching into such diverse areas of life as music, politics, book production, and library science. Here in Austin, the peña movement evolved from a Mexican-American organization to a Latino one, reexpressing Vasconcelos’s—if not Bolivar’s—idea of a hemispheric American civilization.
7. Vascos en USA: problemas bibliográficos

Jon Bilbao

En la Expo 92 de Sevilla, la exposición universal que conmemora el 500 aniversario del descubrimiento de América, el Pabellón Vasco era uno de los más visitados por los Latinoamericanos. En él hay una base de datos de apellidos vascos con su traducción al español. Así, un Echevarría y sus diferentes formas dialécticas (Echeverría, Atcheberry, Echevarria, Chavarry, etc.) le indican al curioso no sólo que su apellido significa “Casa Nueva” sino también el dialecto vasco al que pertenece y por lo tanto a qué determinada área geográfica: País Vasco de Francia, País Vasco de España y dentro del país si es vizcaíno, guipuzcoano, alavés, navarro, laburdino, o suletino. El apellido es la forma más aparente de una posible identidad vasca. En Latinoamérica creo que no habrá localidad en la que no aparezcan nombres vascos en un listín telefónico.

De otra parte, en el ambiente americano tenemos nombres geográficos que nos indican la presencia de vascos. Así en Canadá tenemos, en la costa de Labrador, la “Isle-aux-Basques”, o en Terranova el “Port-des-Basques”; en Miami “Key Biscayne”; y en la Argentina “Necochea”, que simplemente significa “la Casa de Eneko”.

El estudioso de temas vascos, el vascólogo, se encuentra, pues, ante una serie de indicativos que le obligan a tener en cuenta información muy diversa. El bibliógrafo, por su parte, recoge materiales escritos que faciliten al estudioso iniciar una primera labor investigadora sobre un determinado tema concreto. En nuestro caso, al formar el pueblo vasco el único grupo étnico europeo que conserva su lengua y con ella una cultura y unas tradiciones de varios miles de años en una misma área geográfica, el campo de trabajo es inmenso. En el País Vasco de hoy, el hombre ha vivido en forma permanente en los últimos setenta mil años y ha dejado restos de sus asentamientos, tanto en utillaje de trabajo como en pinturas y grabados en unas épocas, o monumentos megalíticos en otras, más muchos otros vestigios como cerámicas, utillajes de cobre, bronce, y hierro, villas romanicas, ermitas visigóticas, mezquitas y sinagogas. En fin constituye toda una serie de huellas físicas, que son indicadores de que el pueblo vasco nunca estuvo
aislado. De otra parte la actividad marinera medieval en el comercio del hierro, la lana y otros productos, fue tal que incluso hoy en día la parte del Atlántico que baña las cosas que van desde Bretaña en Francia hasta Galicia en España, en las cartas marítimas, tanto antiguas como modernas, se denomina “The Bay of Biscay.”

Yo he dedicado mi vida a recoger lo escrito sobre temas vascos como un servicio al investigador. Entre estos temas hay uno que siempre me ha interesado particularmente por mi situación familiar. Yo soy nacido en Puerto Rico de padres vascos. Gracias a los dineros que hizo mi padre en Puerto Rico y la libertad que me dieron para hacer lo que quisiera, fui a la universidad a estudiar lo que me gustara. Este viaje mío a Austin terminará en Puerto Rico para gastarme allí los últimos dineros de mi padre que todavía me quedan en aquella isla caribeña. Será una especie de homenaje a la generosidad de mi padre.

El tema que he mencionado como de particular interés para mí es el de la emigración vasca a las Américas. Hemos traído a Austin una bibliografía sobre las actividades de los vascos en América. Consta de cerca de 6,500 entradas principales. Es un primer intento, por nuestra parte, de sentar las bases de un trabajo colectivo bibliográfico sobre un grupo étnico europeo asentado en América desde el primer viaje de Cristóbal Colón.

Por primera vez en la historia moderna, Vasconia tiene voz propia en la Comunidad Europea. Es verdad que Europa es oficialmente una Comunidad de Estados Europeos. Pero, a su vez, dentro de ella se está formando una Comunidad de Regiones que apoya y protege el desarrollo de la identidad propia de cada región. De todas estas regiones, especialmente las de la costa atlántica, el vasco tiene algo muy especial que ofrecer a Europa. Es el único grupo étnico que posee su propia diáspora, más o menos organizada, desde el Canadá hasta las Patagonias.

Yo espero conversar aquí con los bibliógrafos, los bibliotecarios y los libreros (que en realidad son los comerciantes de la letra impresa) sobre posibles áreas de cooperación que nos permitan intercambiar tanto información bibliográfica, como materiales impresos e incluso investigadores.

Yo represento aquí dos asociaciones. Una es Eusko Bibliographia: Asociación Internacional de Bibliografía Vasca, cuyo objetivo único es ofrecer al curioso en temas vascos lo que se ha escrito sobre una determinada materia. La otra asociación se denomina ahora Harriluze Instituto de Estudios Sobre la Diáspora Vasca. Antes, en sus primeros años, tenía el subtítulo de Centro de Investigaciones Históricas Vascas
Internacionales. Pero este último año resultaba demasiado ambicioso y lo cambiamos por el primero.

_Harriluze_ significa roca o piedra ancha o grande. Así se llama la roca sobre la cual se inició uno de los muelles que protegen el puerto de Bilbao. Está situado en el municipio de Guecho cuyo ayuntamiento nos proporciona locales y dineros para nuestras actividades. Estas actividades son dos: la primera, la recogida de datos sobre emigrantes a América; la segunda, la formación de una biblioteca americanista que nos permita estudiar el ambiente en el que se movió el emigrante vasco.

Entre las actividades se desarrollaron primeramente en el Basque Studies Program de la Universidad de Nevada en Reno. Cuando el País Vasco obtuvo su autonomía en la década de 1980, nos pareció en Reno que las dos actividades—la bibliografía y los estudios de la Diáspora Vasca—deberían trasladarse al País Vasco y así lo hicimos. La razón de nuestra presencia aquí en Austin se debe precisamente a la necesidad de aclarar la íntima relación que existe entre estas tres asociaciones: El Basque Studies Program de Nevada-Reno, Eusko Bibliographia y Harriluze en el País Vasco.

Nuestras relaciones son siempre a nivel académico, sean universidades, centros de investigación, seminarios, etc. Indudablemente, y quiero destacar este hecho, la colaboración de los libreros, que en realidad son los mercaderes de la ciencia, es esencial para nuestra labor. Gran parte de la magnífica biblioteca vasca que posee hoy el Basque Studies Program de Nevada-Reno se hizo gracias a libreros tanto de Europa como América.

El título de mi intervención es “Vascos en USA: problemas bibliográficos.” Quiero presentar algunos ejemplos de estos problemas que pueden ser extensibles a cualquier otro país del continente. El primer ejemplo se refiere a una ranchería, es decir un rancho de indígenas, que se estableció en Louisiana por monjes franceses procedentes del Canadá en la segunda mitad del siglo XVII. Esta ranchería fue destruida por los indígenas y solamente se salvó un joven bayonés que consiguió llegar a Cuba e informa al Gobernador de lo sucedido. El joven de Bayona, hoy en día la capital del País Vasco de Francia, informa también que el fraile que fundó la ranchería y fue muerto, se llamaba La Salle. Podemos, pues, suponer que La Salle sea también bayonés pues es un apellido corriente en aquella villa y en otras partes del País Vasco de Francia. Hay que recordar que en esa misma época otro fraile vasco, Jean Baptiste La Salle (1651-1719), fundó la orden de los salesianos. Pues bien, el gobernador vasco de La Habana, inquieto por la presencia francesa en Louisiana, ordena el
envío de tropas por mar desde La Habana y Veracruz y el envío por tierra de tropas mexicanas, para pasar posibles asentamientos franceses. Todos los mandos militares—tantos por mar como por tierra—son vascos. El conflicto es pues entre España y Francia. Sólo tenemos documentos oficiales publicados. ¿Qué hace o qué hacer el bibliógrafo vasco?

El segundo ejemplo nos puede dar una pista. Un siglo más tarde, en la segunda mitad del siglo XVIII, en todo el norte de la Nueva España, sea aquí en Texas, como en Arizona o California, nos encontramos con toda una serie de mandos militares, políticos y religiosos que son vascos. En este caso, además de la documentación oficial, tenemos otros. La mayoría de estos mandos son miembros de una asociación que se establece en el País Vasco en el siglo XVIII con el nombre de Sociedad Bascongada de los Amigos del País, que dará paso a lo que se llamaron Sociedades Económicas.

El bibliógrafo de estudios vascos sí tiene pues una base para incorporar tanto la participación vasca en un determinado evento como el seguimiento de cada uno de los vascos que intervinieron en él.

Quiero poner otro ejemplo más. Esta vez, el ejemplo es California. No voy a extenderme mucho puesto que el Basque Studies Program de la Universidad de Nevada publicó, en 1975, la obra Amerikanuak: The Basques in the New World, obra que escribimos William A. Douglass y yo, el como antropólogo y yo como historiador. (Hay una versión española que publicó la Universidad del País Vasco en 1986.)

Durante el período hispánico de California, buen número de sus gobernadores y presidentes de las misiones fueron vascos, igualmente los militares de la base marítima de San Blas y de sus expediciones a Alaska. Esta situación es la misma durante el período mexicano. Además de estos altos cargos, en la California mexicana nos encontramos con comerciantes vascos que se asientan casándose con mujeres de la aristocracia californiana. Con la independencia de California en 1848, y luego el descubrimiento de oro ese mismo año, hace que la población de California, que a principios de 1848 tenía sólo 7,000 habitantes, para fines de 1849 aumente a más de 60,000 lo que hace posible que en septiembre de 1850 California sea admitida como estado libre a los Estados Unidos.

Los primeros en acudir a la llamada del oro fueron los mexicanos, meses más tarde los chilenos, y luego ya gente de todo el mundo, europeos de una parte y asiáticos de la otra. En relación a los vascos, el contingente más fuerte lo constituyen los vascos de Francia, llegados en 1849 en expediciones directamente de Francia. Para fines de este
año de 1849, los franceses constituían el grupo más numeroso después de los americanos, alrededor de 10,000, tanto en San Francisco como en las minas. Las primeras referencias a estos vascos aparecen en las cartas que un periodista francés enviaba a su patria, a principios de 1850, en las que habla de “dos vascos que en un espacio de seis pies cuadrados cogían de 10 a 12 onzas de oro diarias” en las minas de Murphy’s Camp. En mayo del mismo año un viajero alemán, que visitaba esas mismas minas, nos relata una inmensa cantidad de franceses, en gran parte vascos “que allí se encontraban”. Dos años más tarde es un viajero canadiense el que nos habla de los vascos. Dice literalmente, “Estos vascos son una gente extraña y contamos con un amplio número de ellos entre nosotros. Hablando en términos generales son apacibles, hombres que trabajan duro, pero cuando se desatan las pasiones son muy peligrosos. Son probablemente el pueblo más viejo de Europa. . . . Podrían ser los mejores soldados del mundo, pero son demasiado orgullosos como para enrolarse en cualquier servicio”.

Otros vascos de Francia y también de España procedieron primero de Chile y casi al mismo tiempo del Uruguay y Argentina. Un primer grupo argentino embarcó en Buenos Aires en febrero de 1850; fue un grupo mixto de vascos de Francia y vascos de España. Algunas fueron mujeres, de las que sus maridos se encontraron ya en California. Sería este grupo de vascos argentinos el que conectaría con los rancheros vascos de la antigua California e introduciría en la región el pastoreo vasco en gran escala con las técnicas aprendidas en la Argentina. Ellos fueron, también, los que divulgaban el término “Vascos”, así en español que incluso se usa hoy, olvidándose el término “vizcaínos,” por el cual se les denominaba a todos los vascos en la América hispana incluyendo California.

“Vizcaínos” famosos de California fueron el Capitán Aguirre que era de San Sebastián; su cuñado Pedroena era navarro; Indart, de Fuenterrabía o Cesáreo Lataillade, nacido en San Juan de Luz, y como “vizcaínos” siguen apareciendo en algunos libros de historia de California, aunque ninguno de ellos procediera de Vizcaya.

Todos estos vascos que llegaron a California, tanto de Europa como de Sudamérica y México, no quedarían mucho tiempo en las minas de oro. El año 1852 fue un período de mayor producción. Luego el trabajo se hizo más complicado y caro pero aparecieron otras actividades, debido al enorme aumento de población californiana y por lo tanto a la necesidad de su abastecimiento.

Hasta 1848 la historia de los vascos en California es relativamente fácil de reconstruir. Digo relativamente porque si la investigación se
basara exclusivamente en el estudio de los nombres vascos que aparecen en la documentación californiana, la presencia vasca en California sería desorbitada. Basta ojear los índices onomásticos de las obras del historiador de California H.H. Bancroft para darse cuenta de ello. Además se trata de nombres realmente vascos.

El indígena bautizado puede recibir el apellido del fraile que le bautiza, o del padrino, o de un amigo de éste. Un nombre vasco en un documento no indica necesariamente la presencia de un vasco. Sin embargo, si el apellido está precedido por la preposición “de”, entonces sí podemos decir que el nombre corresponde a un vasco. De todas maneras, tampoco es aconsejable rechazar por completo los nombres vascos de una población indígena. Siempre pueden dar alguna pista.

El problema que se nos presentaba cuando hicimos nuestra investigación en California era muy otro. El 1852, al bajar la producción del oro, vemos que muchos vascos abandonan las minas para dedicarse a otras actividades. Como he mencionado antes, la población de California en cuatro años había subido de 7,000 habitantes en 1848 a más de 60,000 en 1852. El problema principal entonces fue el abastecimiento de esa población. Y es esta necesidad la que abre el camino a otros negocios lucrativos. Aquellos vascos que tenían algún oficio invertieron sus ganancias en establecerse como panaderos, sombrereros, o comerciantes. Otros, por el contrario, lo invertieron en ganado, la mayoría en ganado vacuno, muy pocos en ganado lanar. Y es en el desarrollo de estas dos actividades que aparecen las dificultades de una explicación. Todo vasco de caserío está más o menos familiarizado con el ganado, sea vacuno, caballar o lanar. Pero esta experiencia no sirve de mucho en California, donde los rebaños eran de miles de cabezas y los pastos habían que buscarlos en miles de kilómetros. Nos costó muchos meses de trabajo dar con la clave del éxito vasco, primero en la ganadería vacuna y caballar y luego en la ganadería lanar. Pero todos los vascos que se enriquecieron con la ganadería en California, en la década de 1850 a 1860, tenían algo en común. Todos ellos venían de la Argentina, tanto los vascos de España como los vascos de Francia, y estaban aplicando en California la experiencia adquirida en las pampas argentinas, un territorio enorme y abierto no muy diferente al del sur de la Alta California.

Los vascos comenzaron a entrar en los negocios de ganadería en la Argentina y en el Uruguay al principio de la década de 1830. Los que en 1850 llegan a California no eran precisamente los vascos prósperos sino aquellos que no lo eran, es decir capataces, pastores, gauchos, etc., que fueron a las minas, pero que muy pronto vieron la posibilidad de
hacer dinero en aquellos negocios que conocían bien y en los cuales tenían la experiencia de los que habían triunfado en la Argentina y el Uruguay. La mayoría de estos vascos entraron en el negocio del ganado vacuno y caballar ya en 1852.

Respecto al ganado lanar, el primer contrato documental que tenemos es de 1854, en el Condado de los Ángeles. Curiosamente este documento está escrito en español. Es un contrato entre un californiano americano del Condado de los Ángeles y un vasco argentino. El testigo es un vasco californiano. Los dos californianos se instalaron allí en tiempos de México. Este es un documento importante por ser una prueba de la conexión entre los vascos que se hallaban en California antes de 1848 y los que llegaron por razón del descubrimiento del oro, después de 1849. Es también una demostración de la conexión argentina puesto que el tipo de contrato es argentino. Esto es, el pastor recibe unos dineros para sus gastos y una participación en los corderos nacidos. El negocio para el pastor es cuidar el rebaño lo mejor posible para obtener el mayor número de crías. Este número de crías acumulado en tres o cuatro años le permitiría tener su propio rebaño e independizarse.

Este tipo de contrato es el que hace posible que un pastor llegue a hacerse socio del ganadero, o, lo que era más corriente, independizarse y traer como pastores suyos a familiares, amigos, o recomendados de su pueblo en el País Vasco, quienes a su vez ven las posibilidades que existen para convertirse en ganadero.

Una serie de circunstancias meteorológicas en California entre 1861 y 1864, como las inundaciones invernales en las partes bajas y las sequías correspondientes, de las que se salva el ganado lanar, pero no así el vacuno, hace que el número de ovejas, que en 1860 era de algo más de un millón, pase a tres millones y medio en 1870. De otra parte la Guerra Civil Americana de 1861 a 1865 interrumpe el comercio del algodón haciendo subir el precio de la lana y por lo tanto incrementando el negocio del pastoreo en general y del vacuno en particular, que hace que el pastoreo se extienda a Nevada y otros estados del Oeste Americano.

Aquí sí tiene el bibliógrafo materiales a clasificar, pues junto a los documentos oficiales hay otros no oficiales, los cuales nos dan la clave y con ello la justificación, de incorporar todo el evento, sea francés, español, o simplemente americano, en un listado bibliográfico que sirva para el estudio de la diáspora vasca.

El ideal para nosotros sería que el estudio de las comunidades vascas en las Américas se hiciera con investigadores de cada país, vascos o no vascos, dentro de unas líneas generales, que sirvieran no
sólo para el estudio comparativo con las comunidades vascas de otros países, sino también para el estudio comparativo de los vascos con otros grupos étnicos. En otras palabras, el estudio nos daría pie para explicar las características que son propias de un determinado grupo étnico y las que son generales a todos los inmigrantes de un determinado país, las cuales a su vez pueden ser diferentes en otro país.
8. *Eusko Bibliographia*: antecedentes, estado actual y proyectos

Luis Moreno

Apuntes históricos y situación actual

No se puede hablar de *Eusko Bibliographia* sin hablar de la vida de Jon Bilbao. A pesar de tenerlo junto a mí y de la vergüenza que pueda hacerle pasar contando detalles de su vida, abusaré una vez más de su afecto para poder contarles a ustedes las cosas como son y han sido.

El bachiller en ciencias, Jon Bilbao, consigue, con el consentimiento paterno (que no materno) y la bondad del Ministro de Educación, matricularse en la Universidad Central de Madrid para realizar estudios de Filosofía y Letras. Como cualquier universitario de cualquier lugar y tiempo está lleno de inquietudes y ambiciones intelectuales, hasta el punto que el profesor Fernando de los Ríos (quizá para apaciguarle) le dijo: “Amigo, Bilbao, si quiere ser universal, métase en el alma de su pueblo”, frase que como él ha señalado en más de una ocasión, marcó su posterior quehacer intelectual hasta el día de hoy.

Se declara en España la Guerra Civil de 1936 y tras la caída de Bilbao en manos de Franco, el teniente de ejército vasco Jon Bilbao abandona con alguna que otra peripecia el País Vasco rumbo a Puerto Rico, de donde pasará a Estados Unidos para completar sus estudios universitarios. En estos años estalla la Segunda Guerra Mundial, circunstancia ésta que hará que durante diez años se encuentre alejado de las fuentes de información del País Vasco.

Se encuentra entonces con la dificultad de saber qué documentación escrita hay sobre lo vasco en Estados Unidos, motivo por el que comienza su investigación y recopilación bibliográfica pensando que dicho trabajo le llevará un par de años y como instrumento personal para sus estudios universitarios. Ya en Columbia University, en Nueva York, tuvo una pequeña insinuación de Tomás Navarro Tomás, que había trabajado en temas de fonética vasca, de que su proyecto podía ser demasiado ambicioso. Evidentemente no le hizo caso.

Para este trabajo contó con las enseñanzas y asesoramiento de un gran profesor e intelectual español republicano, también exiliado como
él, D. Federico de Onís, creador de uno de los más prestigiosos departamentos de Estudios Hispánicos del continente americano. Así, de hecho, la técnica bibliográfica de Jon Bilbao viene a ser la misma que utilizaba D. Federico: la clasificación en materias se basa en la usada por la Biblioteca del Congreso de Washington con algunas aportaciones de la Biblioteca Pública de Nueva York y adaptada a los estudios vascos.

Una vez finalizada la contienda mundial volverá a Europa, recorriendo bibliotecas de Gran Bretaña, Alemania, Austria y Francia. Su identidad nacionalista la acarrearía continuos problemas con los gobiernos del dictador Francisco Franco, siendo expulsado de España en dos ocasiones, la última de ellas con prohibición expresa de permanecer incluso en suelo francés.


En 1979 representantes de la Diputación de Álava y de la Universidad del País Vasco se trasladaron a la Universidad de Nevada, Reno, solicitando, entre otras cosas, la vuelta al País Vasco del profesor Jon Bilbao y su labor de investigación bibliográfica en estudios vascos. Por aquellos años (recién estrenada la democracia en España y el Estatuto de Autonomía Vasco) existían pocas transferencias en poder de la Comunidad Autónoma, por lo que la Diputación de Álava, única entidad con capacidad presupuestaria y recaudatoria propias, asumió los costos económicos de la labor de Bilbao. Seguidamente, y hasta que las transferencias en materia de Educación e Investigación tuviesen lugar, el Departamento de Cultura del Gobierno Vasco asumió el costo económico que hasta entonces había sido cubierto por la Diputación Foral de Álava. Esta nueva dependencia se justificó en base a las competencias en materia del libro que ya tenía el Departamento de Cultura.

Asumidas las competencias en materia de Educación, Universidades e Investigación por parte del Gobierno Vasco, no se pudo ubicar a Eusko Bibliographia en dicha área por cuestiones de competencia política, dando que los titulares de dicha consejería y los de Cultura, en los tres últimos gobiernos, pertenecían a partidos distintos.
Dando el incremento geométrico en la producción bibliográfica sobre temas vascos, se vio la necesidad (en 1986) de dotar de una personalidad jurídica específica la labor que de forma personal venía realizando el profesor Jon Bilbao. Se crea así la Asociación Internacional de Bibliografía Vasca. Actualmente Eusko Bibliographia es la única bibliografía existente en el mundo sobre un grupo étnico concreto, abarcando la producción bibliográfica sobre el mismo en todas las ramas del saber científico y cultural.

El total de la información en nuestro poder ascienda a más de 700,000 referencias bibliográficas, de las que un 10% corresponden a libros y el 90% restante al vaciado de revistas, actas de congresos, etc., de cualquier lugar y lengua del mundo, haciéndose especial hincapié en las publicaciones periódicas de carácter científico de mayor significación, tanto en su especialidad, como en su ámbito de influencia.

En los últimos cuatro años, 1987-1991, cubriendo tan sólo un 46% de nuestro presupuesto de investigación, el número de nuevas referencias bibliográficas ha oscilado entre 25,000 y 30,000 al año, no pudiéndose, evidentemente, cubrir todas las fuentes de información e investigación, y lo que es más grave, sin poder disponer de los medios necesarios para difundir la información.

Los fines que Eusko Bibliographia persigue, son, por tanto, la investigación, recopilación, clasificación, tratamiento y difusión de todo lo que sobre temas vascos se publica en el mundo. Por tanto, nuestra investigación abarca todas aquellas ciencias que tratan aspectos vascos, desde la lingüística, la etnografía, la historia, hasta la zoología, la climatología, la espeleología, etc. Basta con ver los índices de materias de los trece volúmenes de Eusko Bibliographia publicados hasta el momento, o los índices de nuestro boletín trimestral.

Desde nuestro punto de vista, las aplicaciones de Eusko Bibliographia son tan variadas como los usuarios de informaciones demanden. Sin embargo, nos fijamos especialmente en las que consideramos de mayor interés:

1. Dinamizador de investigaciones científicas, técnicas y culturales. Eusko Bibliographia es un instrumento de trabajo imprescindible para los investigadores por cuanto que les informa de lo que se ha hecho en su terreno y del nivel de desarrollo de las investigaciones sobre tema vasco en cada especialidad.

2. Instrumento complejo para un correcto conocimiento en el exterior de lo que es el Pueblo Vasco; correcto por su carácter de completo y exhaustivo.

3. Compendio del patrimonio cultural, histórico, social, etc., del Pueblo Vasco.
Fuentes de información y metodología

La producción bibliográfica sobre estudios vascos es de un nivel cuantitativo perfectamente asumible por una organización como la nuestra. Por eso, más importante que cuantificar lo específicamente vasco es delimitar geográficamente el concepto de “estudios vascos”, de tal manera que distinguiamos tres áreas: (1) áreas geográficas vascas (en España, la Comunidad Autónoma Vasca y la Comunidad Foral de Navarra; en Francia, el País Vasco francés); (2) áreas geográficas adyacentes (Cantabria, Rioja, Aragón y Castilla en España; Landes, Béarn y Gascogne en Francia; y zona pirenaica en general de ambos estados); (3) áreas de asentamiento y diáspora vascas: Latinoamérica, Estados Unidos, Canadá y Australia.

Según el tema y el período histórico de que se trate nos interesará para los estudios vascos unas cosas u otras. Así, por ejemplo, todo lo publicado sobre geología pirenaica, economía del valle medio del Ebro, etc., pero sólo hasta el siglo XIII por lo que la historia del Alto Aragón se refiere, etc.; lingüísticamente hablando no podemos obviar las relaciones existentes entre el bearnés y el vascuence o entre el gascón y nuestra lengua, por lo que las noticias bibliográficas referentes a esas lenguas también son de nuestro interés. De igual manera, como el siguiente ensayo de Maribel García Mazo en este volumen explica, la presencia vasca en América abarca tantos aspectos como aquellos en los que los vascos han tenido algún protagonismo. Delimitados ya genéricamente los límites de nuestro campo de trabajo, la siguiente cuestión es cómo acceder a esa información y su posterior clasificación, tratamiento y difusión.

Desde la vuelta de Jon Bilbao de Reno al País Vasco, se mantiene con el Basque Studies Program un acuerdo por el cual nosotros adquirimos para su colección vasca todo lo que se publica sobre el tema en el País Vasco y en España. Como contrapartida podemos tener en nuestras oficinas esos materiales durante un período de tiempo hasta su envío a Reno. Esto nos permite disponer de los materiales y poder trabajarlos cómodamente, siendo, sin duda, de enorme ayuda para nuestra labor.

Llegamos al conocimiento y uso de esos materiales a través de distintos libreros vascos. Desde hace un par de años hemos dado con uno que además nos mantiene informados (y en su caso nos suministra) de la producción bibliográfica en el País Vasco de Francia.

Pero también interesan las publicaciones no específicamente vascas (podríamos llamarlas españolas, francesas, etc.) con contenido de
nuestro interés. A estas obras tenemos acceso también a través de librerías, catálogos editoriales, reseñas, noticias de prensa y especialistas de cada tema. Todo ello no evita, sin embargo, que un alto porcentaje de nuestro trabajo se realice en distintas bibliotecas de nuestro entorno. Basta pensar que de los 30,000 registros bibliográficos nuevos anuales, tan sólo 4,000 son monografías, siendo el resto artículos de publicaciones periódicas.

En el tema de publicaciones periódicas distinguimos entre las de distribución en librerías, las de carácter vasco y las académicas. Dentro de las primeras, incluimos las que podemos llamar “de información general” (semanales, quincenales, o mensuales), las de asociaciones deportivas, lúdicas, semiprofesionales, de divulgación científica, etc., desde Playboy hasta la revista de la Asociación de Amigos de los Ferrocarriles. En el grupo de las “científicas” o “académicas”, consideramos aquellas cuyo circuito de difusión (por su temática) casi es exclusivo de los centros universitarios o de investigación y de los especialistas de cada rama del saber.

La consulta y vaciado de las revistas científicas se hace, fundamentalmente, en las bibliotecas universitarias y en los centros de investigación de nuestro entorno. De manera sistemática procedemos a visitas a las bibliotecas de la Universidad de Navarra, Universidad de Deusto, y Universidad del País Vasco (especialmente el campus de Vitoria), Biblioteca de la Lengua Vasca/Euskaltzaindia, siendo la primera de ellas la más rica para nosotros. También trabajamos en otras bibliotecas importantes como la del Seminario Diocesano de Vitoria, la Diputación Foral de Vizcaya, y la Biblioteca Pública de Bayona. Fuera de nuestro territorio también solemos visitar (aunque de forma más esporádica) bibliotecas de Madrid (Centro de Estudios Avanzados en Ciencias Sociales de la Fundación March, Biblioteca Nacional). Desde siempre, Jon Bilbao ha contado con la colaboración de numerosos informadores, que, a título personal, se hacían llegar noticias bibliográficas de todos los lugares del mundo. Esta colaboración se mantiene en la actualidad. Hemos pretendido darle un carácter de mayor continuidad mediante las figuras del “corresponsal” y del “delegado”. De hecho, contamos con corresponsales en los cuatro puntos cardinales del globo, desde Japón hasta Argentina. Desde hace un par de años, estamos publicando en nuestro Boletín las aportaciones de dichos corresponsales en forma de artículos o trabajos.

Pretendemos, también, establecer relaciones de carácter oficial con centros bibliográficos latinoamericanos para el intercambio de información. Supusimos que la fecha y las conmemoraciones de 1992 podían ser el momento propicio pero la administración pública vasca no
pareció entenderlo así, por lo que, hasta nuestra llegada a Austin, este proyecto ha quedado paralizado.

Otras dos fuentes de información que están adquiriendo importancia dentro del conjunto de las mismas son los depósitos legales y las bases de datos existentes en el mercado. A partir de 1990 tenemos acceso a los Depósitos Legales del País Vasco y de Navarra. El depósito legal no es más que la alta administrativa que el impresor tiene que dar a cada uno de los materiales que imprime, desde monografías hasta carteles publicitarios; se incluye el depósito legal también la producción videográfica, fonográfica, y los productos en nuevos soportes. A través del depósito legal tenemos acceso a información de los materiales que no se distribuyen a través de los cauces habituales, por ejemplo, las obras en las que el autor es también editor y hace una tirada pequeña para sus amigos o conocidos, los programas de fiestas de los pubelos, las publicaciones hechas por pequeños municipios para celebraciones locales, etc. Hemos de reconocer que su número nos ha sorprendido.

Iniciamos la consulta a bases de datos internacionales gracias a la ayuda prestada por el anteriormente citado Centro de Estudios Avanzados en Ciencias Sociales de la Fundación March, y especialmente de su actual directora, la bibliotecaria norteamericana Sra. Martha Wood, pudiendo consultar allí las bases de datos PAIS, SOCIOFILE, UCLA, y las del ISOC. En el País Vasco existe una red de telecomunicaciones propia denominada SPRITEL (Sociedad para la Promoción Industrial de las Telecomunicaciones) a través de la cual tendremos acceso en breve a un gran número de bases de datos bibliográficas de todo el mundo. Precisamente a través de la red SPRITEL, Eusko Bibliographia actúa como moderadora de un proyecto piloto de correo electrónico entre una docena de bibliotecas públicas municipales: SPRITEL pone los equipos y subvencionará al cien por cien las comunicaciones durante un período de nueve meses. Las bibliotecas interesadas tan sólo han de poner el teléfono. Curiosamente gran número de ayuntamientos no han querido entrar en este proyecto por no poner el teléfono o por creer que no podía ser cierto lo de la subvención de las comunicaciones.

Descripción y clasificación

Localizada la información, el siguiente paso es cómo tratarla, clasificarla y procesarla. Durante mucho tiempo hemos venido utilizando un tipo de descripción pensada para un usuario no profesional de la información. Utilizando campos de información similares a los de la ISBD, no empleábamos sin embargo ni los signos
de puntuación ni la ordenación de los campos ni las abreviaturas que en ella se han normalizado.

Desde siempre hemos considerado a *Eusko Bibliographia* como un servicio de información y no como un centro de catalogación. Por esto, el no seguir a pies juntillas las normas de catalogación no ha sido para nosotros nunca un problema. Sin embargo, hemos tenido que ser conscientes de que en nuestro entorno no se sabe distinguir entre servicios de información y servicios de catalogación. Les voy a poner un ejemplo. Hay alguna biblioteca de investigación que considera innecesario conectarse a bases de datos bibliográficos que no le dan la información catalogada no ya sólo según ISBD, sino sin formato MARC y, por tanto, no pueden copiar esos registros; según ellos, esa información no es válida. Curiosamente, la Universidad del País Vasco ha puesto a la disposición de sus investigadores la red SPRITEL anteriormente citada, como "instrumento imprescindible" para cualquier investigador.

Pero en definitiva y ante la imposibilidad de luchar contra un muro, hemos optado por seguir las normas ISBD, adaptándolas en algunos casos a nuestra oferta de información. Es en el tema de la clasificación por materias donde seguimos con criterios propios por cuanto que para nosotros el tema vasco es universal en sí mismo. Nos resulta excesivamente complejo y pobre aplicar clasificaciones universales del tipo CDU o LC, si bien la lista, por ejemplo, de encabezamientos de materia de la LC la utilizamos habitualmente como instrumento de consulta.

**Medios humanos y técnicos**

Por lo que a los medios humanos se refiere, el personal de *Eusko Bibliographia* está compuesto por cuatro investigadores que cubren las áreas científicas, universitarias, de información general, y producción en lengua vasca. Contamos además con dos administrativas dedicadas a la grabación y procesamiento de los materiales provenientes de la investigación, así como a las labores propias de la administración. Para la elaboración y diseño de nuestros productos, contamos con una persona especializada en dichas labores. Como decíamos anteriormente, disponemos de delegaciones y corresponsales en distintos lugares del mundo. A título personal numerosos investigadores de estudios vascos nos hacen llegar información bibliográfica de sus especialidades. Igualmente, investigadores no propiamente de estudios vascos nos facilitan también informaciones bibliográficas.

El volumen de información que manejamos, las limitaciones de personal y la necesidad de responder rápidamente a las peticiones de
información que se nos hace, nos lleva forzosamente a la automatización. Al encarar nuestro proceso de automatización, nos planteamos como condición básica que la solución a adoptar tuviese en cuenta los factores siguientes: (a) el tipo de documentos que tratamos (que sean monografías y publicaciones); (b) el tipo de producto que generamos; (c) el aprovechamiento al máximo de los recursos informáticos.

El software elegido finalmente fue TEXTO, producto francés que cubre sobradamente nuestros requisitos previos. Con TEXTO tan sólo creamos un documento de parámetros que incluye toda la información posible tanto de monografías como de publicaciones periódicas, ocupándose en memoria tan sólo aquello que se usa (todos los campos son de longitud variable).

Por otra parte nos permite asociar ficheros entre sí de forma que, por ejemplo, el fichero de autoridades al estar asociado al campo autor rellena automáticamente a esta si así se lo pedimos. Podemos generar tantos índices como queramos o necesitemos, asociándolos en su caso al fichero general, de manera que las búsquedas se hagan sobre los índices, ganando así en rapidez de respuesta, aunque la respuesta final ofrecida sea la contenida en el fichero general.

A partir de los índices, se puede también generar subficheros en función de las materias, autores, lugares geográficos, etc., pudiendo ordenar internamente cada subfichero por cualquier otra variable. Por ejemplo, podemos crear el subfichero EUSKARA EN MEXICO, y ordenarlo cronológicamente por fecha de edición de cada documento.

Al disponer de un lenguaje propio de programación (LOGOTE), podemos generar productos finales como queramos. Así, para quien solicite, se le puede proporcionar la colección completa de fichas ISBD de una determinada monografía; elaboramos nuestros boletines bibliográficos trimestrales ordenados por materias (y dentro de cada materia, por orden alfabético de autores), a partir del fichero general. En cualquier caso, se trata de un software que, aunque no hecho a la medida, cubre satisfactoriamente nuestras necesidades, pues también dispone entre otras muchas cosas de recursos suficientes para la importación y exportación de información.

Productos, servicios y proyectos

**Publicaciones**

Trimestralmente publicamos boletines bibliográficos de monografías de los que ya han salido nueve números, estando ya preparados para la impresión los números 9 a 12. En estos boletines, recogemos trabajos bibliográficos y biblioteconómicos de interés pero de difícil publicación en el País Vasco al no existir medios de expresión en este campo.


**Proyectos inmediatos**

A nuestra vuelta de Austin, nos encontramos en Euskadi con el reto de la realización de un inventario de todas las bibliotecas de la Comunidad Autónoma Vasca. Dicho inventario se realizará por encargo del Departamento de Cultura del Gobierno Vasco, como instrumento de trabajo primero para la realización del Catálogo Colectivo de Bibliotecas, de nuestro país.

De gran importancia para *Eusko Bibliographia* es la puesta en marcha del proyecto de automatización de sus fondos (esos 700,000 de los que escribimos anteriormente). Para ello contamos con un ofrecimiento de la Biblioteca de la Universidad Pública de Navarra para utilizar toda su infraestructura tecnológica.

Por último, además de la puesta al día en las publicaciones propias y el aumento en las fuentes de información, pretendemos establecer una red de convenios con distintas instituciones de todo el mundo, de manera que se pueda establecer un flujo constante de intercambio de información bibliográfica.
9. Base de datos de bibliografía vasco-americana

Maribel García Mazo

El ensayo de Jon Bilbao, incluida en la presente obra, me permite pasar por alto la definición de conceptos tales como “lo vasco” y la “presencia” vasca en América. De igual manera, gracias a que Luis Moreno ha escrito (ver su ensayo, también incluida en este volumen) ya qué es Eusko Bibliographia y cuáles son sus proyectos, realidades, modos de hacer, etc., me van a permitir que me centre en el tema de mi exposición sin mayores preámbulos.

Si bien Eusko Bibliographia buscamos la exhaustividad, somos conscientes de que en muchos de los campos del saber que abarcamos, estamos muy lejos de conseguirla. El aumento en el número de informaciones y, por tanto, de registros bibliográficos, está en relación directa con la disponibilidad económica y financiera. Evidentemente no descubro las Américas si digo que todos sabemos que cada ítem tiene un costo, aunque los no profesionales de la bibliografía se extrañen, al menos en España, de que una ficha bibliográfica cueste un dinero.

Por esto muchas veces tenemos que aprovechar coyunturas propicias para desarrollar o completar aspectos parciales de nuestra bibliografía general. La fecha de 1992, con la celebración del Quinto Centenario del Descubrimiento de América, suponía para nosotros la posibilidad de acceder a fondos, tanto públicos como privados, destinados al desarrollo de trabajos específicos para tal evento.

En la Comunidad Autónoma Vasca se crea el Comité América y los Vascos/Amerika eta Euskadunak, dependiente de la Consejería de Cultura del Gobierno Vasco. Dicho Comité se encarga de analizar, calificar, y dotar de medios económicos a todos aquellos proyectos que le son presentados.

Desde los prolegómenos de dicho Comité (en los que Jon Bilbao actuó como parte activa) en Eusko Bibliographia decidimos presentar un proyecto de investigación bibliográfica. Como especialistas en bibliografía vasca éramos (y somos) conscientes de que la bibliografía vasco-americana no estaba suficientemente investigada y repertoriada, aun partiendo de la información ya existente en nuestro poder. Por otra parte veíamos (y seguimos viendo) con enorme inquietud que los
trabajos hechos en esa línea adolecían de falta de información global de las dos orillas del Atlántico.

Por todo ello, *Eusko Bibliographia* presentó de 1989 un proyecto al Comité América y los Vascos titulado *Proyecto de una red automatizada de información bibliográfica vasco-americana* cuya finalidad era la formación de un corpus de información bibliográfica de doble dirección (de América a Europa, de Europa a América), como elemento primario para el conocimiento y valoración tanto de la realidad vasca en América como de la influencia de lo americano en el País Vasco.

El segundo gran objetivo del proyecto inicial era la difusión de la información recopilada. Por eso consideramos que la aplicación de las nuevas tecnologías era el medio más adecuado ya que daba pie a “la creación de nuevas formas de cooperación e integración entre la sociedad vasca y las comunidades americanas”, y ayudaba a “la proyección de una imagen moderna y abierta de Euskadi desde cualquier perspectiva...” (del texto de convocatoria de proyectos para América y los Vascos).

El tercer objetivo de nuestro proyecto estaba íntimamente ligado al modo de difusión y divulgación. La creación de una base de datos implica no sólo la formación de la misma sino muy especialmente su mantenimiento. Sobre la base de un interés compartido entre los protagonistas de esa base de datos la posibilidad de consolidación de la cooperación es evidente. Para nosotros la razón de ser del proyecto comenzaba a partir de 1992.

Para la consecución de los objetivos marcados, era necesario contar con una infraestructura material, tecnológica y, muy especialmente, humana a ambas orillas del Atlántico; en la mayor parte de los casos previstos compartiendo dichos costos con la veintena de instituciones americanas dedicadas a la investigación bibliográfica, seleccionadas *a priori* en función de sus producciones bibliográficas (boletines, anuarios, catálogos, etc.). Así pues, los costos de personal, de estructura, de configuración técnica del sistema, etc., fueron evaluados, para un periodo de tres años (1990-1992) en algo menos de un millón de dólares.

Al capítulo de costos se añadió otro dedicado al análisis del mercado y productos, de manera que la inversión que se pedía pudiera ser recuperada en todo o en parte, en función también, claro está, de las propias necesidades y compromisos del Gobierno Vasco.

Expuesto así, el proyecto inicial fue acogido con enorme interés, perfilándose varios aspectos del mismo en los sucesivos informes y complementos que se nos fueron requiriendo. Funcionarios del Comité América y los Vascos llegaron a asegurarnos que el nuestro era el...
“proyecto estrella” del Comité. Así llegamos a mediados de 1990, como se dice en mi tierra, “mareando la perdi”, queriendo pero no decidiendo. Se nos comunica entonces que el costo es excesivo para el Comité, que estaría sin embargo dispuesto a cofinanciar con otras entidades.

Viendo que se nos acababa el tiempo para ejecutar con un mínimo de dignidad el proyecto presentado, buscamos posibles cofinanciadores en el Gobierno Foral de Navarra y en la Comisión del Quinto Centenario, del gobierno español. Cuando ambas instituciones estaban conformes, recibimos un escrito del Comité América y los Vascos del Gobierno Vasco descolgándose del proyecto, no por gusto sino por obligación, dando que tenían que atenerse al dictamen de un Comité superior formado por políticos. El motivo aducido resulta esperpéntico a los profesionales del sector: el Gobierno Vasco iba a poner en marcha una red automatizada de bibliotecas públicas municipales, por lo que financiar nuestro proyecto era financiar dos veces el mismo trabajo.

Cuando ya dábamos por terminada cualquier posibilidad de llevar a cabo en todo o en parte el proyecto presentado, una empresa privada de San Sebastián, Imagen y Comunicación XXI, S.A., gana un concurso para hacer una exposición itinerante sobre presencia vasca en América, y consideran como uno de los pilares de la misma el apartado bibliográfico-documental.

Llegamos a un acuerdo económico por el que por 20,000 dólares nos comprometemos a entregarles una base de datos con 5,000-6,000 registros bibliográficos de tema vasco-americano, a un costo evidentemente inferior al de mercado pero con una serie de compensaciones tales como la publicidad (presencia en la Expo Universal de Sevilla), equipamiento informático completo en hardware y software, etc. En junio de 1992 cumplimos la entrega de la base de datos y el pago del importe en dólares; de lo demás, nada.

Nuestros contratantes contrataron a su vez a una empresa informática para que hiciera un programa de acceso a nuestra base de datos. No sabemos cuál ha sido el resultado final, pero tampoco queremos saberlo ya que nuestras últimas noticias son que los campos de nuestra base les parecían muchos por lo que estaban pensando en juntar la información de varios campos en uno sólo y suprimir otros. Pero con todo, disponemos ya de esta pequeña base de datos, primer avance de lo que podría llegar a ser el producto final. Piénsese que hemos podido recopilar y tratar tan sólo un 10% de los materiales localizados correspondiendo estos a un 30% de las fuentes que en el proyecto original estaba previsto consultar. No sabemos hasta donde
podíamos haber llegado del proyecto inicial pues con cinquenta veces menos hemos conseguido este producto.

En los trece tomos publicados de la Eusko Bibliographia de Jon Bilbao se recogen más de 6,000 referencias bibliográficas vasco-americanas. Sin embargo, dada la premura de tiempo y la limitación de fondos, nos pareció más interesante y de mayor valor para nosotros mismos centrarnos en materiales no recogidos todavía por Bilbao. Así, en términos generales, algo menos del 60% de los ítems que aquí ofrecemos no están recogidos en su obra, y, por tanto, eran desconocidos en el País Vasco. Piénsese que del total de publicaciones periódicas consultadas y vaciadas, más del 80% no está en ninguna biblioteca del País Vasco. Con frecuencia, Jon Bilbao ha comentado que con la bibliografía americana existente en la Comunidad Autónoma Vasca no se puede hacer ni un trabajo de curso.

El producto final entregado a la empresa Imagen y Comunicación XXI, S.A., y presentado al Comité América y los Vascos en junio de 1992 se compone de más de 6,500 referencias bibliográficas, ordenadas alfabéticamente por primeros autores (en su defecto por la primera palabra del título) y con los siguientes índices: general de autores, geográfico, de materias, y onomástico. La entrega se ha hecho en papel y en disket.

El resto del ensayo describe la base de datos como existe en junio de 1992.

**Base de datos de bibliografía vasco-americana**

*Diseño de ficha informática*

Como explica el ensayo de Luis Moreno, la base de datos TEXTO nos permite, entre otras cosas, crear ficheros únicos para distintos documentos, dando que tan sólo consume aquellos campos que contienen información. Por eso, el documento de parámetros o diseño previo del registro informático, lo hemos hecho lo más amplio posible, recogiendo hasta 49 campos de información.

Al trabajar tan sólo con monografías y publicaciones periódicas, los tipos de documentos incluidos en la base de datos son cuatro: monografías, analíticas de monografía, publicaciones periódicas, y analíticas de publicaciones periódicas.

*Análisis documental*

En conjunto de la información recogida, la cantidad de documentos según su tipo es la siguiente: monografías, 1,276; analíticas de monografía, 475; publicaciones periódicas, 354; analíticas de publicaciones periódicas, 4,563.
A la hora de analizar los tipos de documentos, destaca sobremanera el número de artículos de revistas recogidos, provenientes del vaciado de 354 publicaciones periódicas, vascas y no vascas pero con contenido de nuestro interés. Piénsese que, por término medio, para encontrar una revista no vasca con contenido vasco han de mirarse entre tres ó cuatro títulos. Jon Bilbao suele contar, como ejemplo de lo que acabo de decir, que él ha llegado a mirar más de cien tomos de alguna revista alemana sin poder encontrar nada que justificara su reseña.

En Eusko Bibliographia señalamos al usuario aquellos títulos de revistas no vascas con contenido vasco, diciéndole qué números y qué hemos visto de cada revista.

Por lugares de edición (y en su defecto de impresión) en conjunto de publicaciones periódicas vaciadas se divide de la siguiente manera:

**AMERICA**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>País</th>
<th>Número</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Argentina</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Estados Unidos</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>México</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chile, Uruguay, Brasil</td>
<td>8 (respectivamente)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Venezuela</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cuba, Puerto Rico</td>
<td>6 (respectivamente)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colombia</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rep. Dominicana, Canadá</td>
<td>4 (respectivamente)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guatemala, Perú, Panamá, Ecuador</td>
<td>3 (respectivamente)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>El Salvador</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nicaragua, Costa Rica, Honduras, Filipinas</td>
<td>1 (respectivamente)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>223</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**EUROPA**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>País</th>
<th>Número</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>España</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Francia</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gran Bretaña</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Italia</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alemania</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rusia, Polonia, Suiza, Bélgica</td>
<td>1 (respectivamente)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>110</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Otros, América y Europa</td>
<td><strong>21</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total, América y Europa</strong></td>
<td><strong>354</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
De las publicaciones periódicas aquí recogidas, cabe preguntarse cuáles, independientemente de su lugar, edición, o impresión, pueden ser consideradas como vascas, por su temática, sus editores, la lengua en que están escritas (en todo o en parte), etc. En función de estas consideraciones, se puede ofrecer la división siguiente por países:

- vasco-argentinas: 35
- vasco-españoles: 24
- vasco-mexicanas: 16
- vasco-norteamericanas: 10
- vasco-francesas: 8
- vasco-venezolanas: 5
- vasco-uruguayas: 4
- vasco-chilenas: 3
- vasco-panameñas: 2
- vasco-cubanas, vasco-guatemaltecas, vasco-dominicanas: 1 (respectivamente)

Total: 110

Evidentemente, las revistas vascas son muchísimas más, basta remitirse a la voz PUBLICACIONES PERIODICAS VASCAS de la Eusko Bibliographia de Jon Bilbao, donde se citan varios cientos de ellas. Sólo se reseñan aquí aquellas que por su contenido general son de interés, no habiéndose procedido al vaciado sistemático de publicaciones de tipo muy local o puntualmente profesional.

De entre las revistas vasco-americanas son mayoría aquellas editadas por centros vascos o movimientos político-sociales vascos de marcado carácter nacionalista. De entre las europeas no vascas las más abundantes son aquellas cuya temática general es la histórica, social, etc. Especial riqueza desde el punto de vista de los estudios vascos han demostrado tener las revistas generales (no vascas) de genealogía y heráldica, así como las de las órdenes religiosas, no en vano, el número de religiosos vascos en América ha sido y sigue siendo importante.

Por lo que se refiere a monografías, no ha habido tiempo material ni medios técnicos y humanos suficientes para proceder a la consulta y, en su caso, vaciado, ni siquiera de aquellas monografías de las que teníamos noticia. Piénsese, por ejemplo, que la colección de la Agencia de Cooperación Iberoamericana de Madrid cuenta con más de medio millón de monografías.
En todo caso, la información sobre localizaciones de esos documentos nos servirá para acometer la continuación de esta base de datos. De igual manera, la información proveniente de las recensiones aparecidas en artículos de revista no ha podido ser confrontada, en gran parte, por lo que no ha sido incorporada todavía a esta base de datos.

También se ha dejado para otra ocasión la consulta y, en su caso, vaciado sistemático de aquellas monografías americanistas generales con algún contenido específico (capítulo, apéndice, etc.) de interés vasco. Esta ingente labor estaba prevista que se acometiese bajo la dirección de americanistas de reconocida calidad académica.

En la misma línea que lo anterior, las monografías vascas de temática general serán abordadas en otro momento. Entre ellas incluimos las historias generales de Euskalherria, de sus provincias, etc.

**Análisis de los índices**

Si bien esta base de datos nos permite hacer tantos índices como queramos, nos ha parecido como más interesantes los de AUTORES, MATERIAS, GEOGRÁFICO y ONOMÁSTICO, englobando en este último todas aquellas personas e instituciones citadas en los registros bibliográficos excepto en el campo AUTORES.

Considerando el tema vasco-americano como universal en sí mismo, carecía de sentido proceder a clasificar los materiales recogidos bajo epígrafes tales como AMERICA o PAIS VASCO, ya que todo lo recogido tiene que ver como ambos conceptos. De igual manera, la clasificación que se ha hecho es de tipo abierto, esto es, la existencia o no de un encabezamiento de materia determinado depende (a veces) del número de entradas existentes en su genérico superior. Así, por ejemplo, encontramos sobrada justificación para la coexistencia del encabezamiento ORDENES RELIGIOSOS (53 ítems) y de los encabezamientos FRANCISCANOS (187 ítems), JESUITAS (106 ítems), y MERCEDARIOS (16 ítems), etc.

A continuación ofrecemos un listado general de materias con más de 50 ítems:

| BIODRAFÍAS, 541 | CONQUISTADORES Y |
| CENTROS VASCOS, 51 | COLONIZADORES, 85 |
| COLONIZACION, 132 | DERECHO, LEGISLACION, 58 |
| COMERCIO, 112 | DESCRIPCION Y VIAJES, 158 |
| COMPAÑÍAS DE COMERCIO, 63 | DESCUBRIMIENTOS Y |
| CONQUISTA, 14012 | DESCUBRIDORES, 118 |
Actualmente estamos en tratos con un joven americanista vasco para que se encargue del desarrollo detallado del Índice de Materias, a partir de los encabezamientos que nosotros ofrecemos, estando en él el establecimiento de tantas referencias cruzadas como sean necesarias.

Por lo que respecta al Índice Geográfico, se puede establecer una relación casi exacta entre el lugar de edición y publicación de las publicaciones periódicas vaciadas y las referencias geográficas recogidas en el índice correspondiente. Abundan sobre manera los lugares geográficas argentinos (621 ítems), mexicanos (456 ítems), etc. En todo caso, se ha referenciado todo lugar de las Américas con presencia vasca y todo lugar del País Vasco y de Navarra con presencia americana. Desde el punto de vista europeo, la colonización y conquista de las Islas Filipinas también entran dentro del Quinto Centenario, motivo por el que también nosotros lo hemos recogido, aunque no de manera sistemática.

Con el Índice Onomástico hemos querido recoger los protagonistas del hecho vasco-americano con sus nombres, y, en la medida de lo posible, sus fechas de nacimiento y muerte, seudónimos, etc. Por supuesto, hay ítems sobre Fray Juan de Zumárraga, Blas de Lezo
(defensor de Cartagena de Indias), y todos los grandes protagonistas. Pero también hay numerosas referencias a individuos desconocidos fuera de un estrecho círculo de personas o fuera de una actividad concreta.

No nos ha parecido correcto (ni hemos dispuesto de tiempo) proceder al vaciado sistemático de todo aquel vasco que aparece en los distintos textos por el mero hecho de aparecer. Por ejemplo, la monografía Vascos en Chile podría habernos proporcionado tantas entradas como vascos aparecen citados, sin embargo consideramos que esa labor es más propia para una base de datos de tipo onomástico, genealógico, etc. Nos hemos limitado, por tanto, a recoger a los protagonistas de los textos.

**Sobre las fuentes de información**

Las fuentes utilizadas para la elaboración de este trabajo han sido las siguientes:

- los 13 volúmenes publicados de la *Eusko Bibliographia* de Jon Bilbao
- los materiales bibliográficos recogidos y no publicados (1981-1991) bibliotecas del País Vasco y Navarra
- Agencia de Cooperación Internacional (Madrid)
- bases de datos bibliográficas norteamericanas (María Otero, Fundación March)
- informadores habituales de *Eusko Bibliographia*

Casi todas estas fuentes son europeas, con la excepción de María Otero y algún informador como el argentino Andoni de Astigarraga. Aunque, como hemos visto anteriormente, la proporción de publicaciones periódicas americanas vaciadas es notable, consideramos que nuestro trabajo adolece de informaciones provenientes de América. Algunos aspectos de lo vasco se han hecho propios de las distintas sociedades americanas donde el vasco se asentó. Así, por ejemplo, careceremos de la información bibliográfica existente sobre los vascos en la sociedad chilena o en la peruana, por ejemplo, en su literatura popular, en su organización social, etc.

Aprovechamos la oportunidad que nos brinda esta publicación para lanzar una propuesta de colaboración y de intercambio de información en todas las áreas de la bibliografía y muy especialmente en la de la bibliografía vasco-americana. Insistimos en que lo que aquí presentamos no es más que el inicio de un trabajo que necesita, forzosamente para ser de calidad contrastada, el recurso a fuentes americanas a las que hasta ahora no hemos tenido acceso.
Those who become involved in the study of the Basque language often focus too tightly on the aspects that make it unique. They thrill to the placement of an ergative $K$, marvel at the complexity of the verb, and enjoy a sense of smug satisfaction when others say, "Basque is such a difficult language. How did you ever learn it?"

However, none of those activities will help the cataloger who is face to face for the first time with a title page covered with letters that make no sense. It would be wiser to start with an explanation of what Basque is, how it is unique, and why it's a problem for catalogers.

**Location**

The Basque Country—Euskadi or Eusklal Herria—is located in northern Spain and southern France (see map). It is a nation, not a state, comprised of seven provinces, four on the Spanish side of the border and three on the French side. The provinces in Spain are Araba, Gipuzkoa, Nafarroa, and Bizkaia. In France, subsumed by the Département des Pyrénées, are Lapurdi, Zuberoa, and Behe Nafarroa.* The Basque people share a common culture and a common language, Euskara.

Euskara is an integral part of the definition of Basques or Euskaldunak as an ethnic group. The word "euskaldun" literally means possessor of the Basque language, and although today it is possible to proclaim one's Basqueness and maintain a certain level of Basque ethnicity without speaking Euskara, the language is still the foundation of the Basque cultural heritage.

**Origins**

Although the Basque Country is located amidst two Romance-language areas, Euskara is not related to either French or Spanish. Searching for the origins of the Basque language has become a quest

*Editor's Note: Corresponding place names on the map are as follows: SPAIN—Álava, Guipozcoa, Navarra, Vizcaya; FRANCE—Labourd, Soule, Basse Navarre.*
The Basque Country

for some and an obsession for others. There are many theories concerning its beginnings, some fanciful and some based on years of research by linguists and historians, but they remain only theories. No one really knows if the language sprang up among the ancient inhabitants of what today we call the Basque Country, or if it was imported by immigrants to the region from some other part of the world. We do know that Euskara is a language family unto itself. It is not related to any other language in the world. Linguists have attempted to build bridges from Basque to Georgian, Basque to Quechua, and even Basque to Finnish, but no one has put forth enough evidence to cause the linguistic community to agree on any historical relationship between Basque and any other language.

The two most fanciful theories concerning the origin of Euskara still generate letters to the Basque Studies Program. One is the belief that Euskara was the language spoken by the peoples of the world before the Tower of Babel. The other is that Euskara was the language spoken on Atlantis. Just last month I received a letter from a woman in San Francisco asking in all seriousness if any new evidence had come to light about the whereabouts of Atlantis so that we might lay this question of the origin of Basque to rest once and for all.

Because of the lengthy history of the Basques on the Iberian Peninsula, it is possible that the Basques and their tongue originated in situ. Basque would then be one of the oldest languages of the region and possibly the original Iberian tongue.

Characteristics of the Language

Those who attempt to learn Basque as a second language soon become familiar with some of the more obvious difficulties that arise when dealing with a language as different from English as Japanese or Swahili. Librarians are familiar with C. G. Allen's A Manual of European Languages for Librarians (London and New York: Bowker, 1975). His treatment of Basque is succinct and straightforward, and his advice is sound. The death of Franco in 1975 and the dramatic increase in Basque language publications that followed have generated changes that make some of his information a bit out of date with regard to recent Basque-language publications. His Manual is nevertheless still an excellent source for the non-Basque-speaking librarian.

Word order in Basque is often simplistically described as being backward from English, and I consistently supply that description for my first-year students whose elementary level of speech holds fairly true to that pattern. However, the longer the sentence the more complex the description of Basque word order becomes. One of the examples
that I like to use when explaining the complexity of Basque for an English speaker is the simple phrase,

The boy gave the ball to the girl.

which becomes in Unified Basque:

*Mutilak neskari pelota eman zion.*

If we break the Basque down and analyze its parts, then translate literally into English, what we have said in Basque is:

Boy-the-active subject / girl-the-to / ball-the / give / he-did-to-her.

This explanation does not take into account the nuance of meaning imparted in Basque by the position of the direct and indirect objects with relation to the verb. Basque uses word order to express nuances of meaning that we in English convey through stress and tone of voice. Hence, when we say:

Boy-the-active subject / girl-the-to / ball-the / give / he-did-to-her,

we are actually saying,

The boy gave the ball to the girl.

If we want to say,

The boy gave the ball to the girl.

we must then say,

Boy-the-active subject / ball-the / girl-the-to / give / he-did-to-her.

or:

*Mutilak pelota neskari eman zion.*

A longer sentence sample reveals a recurring reverse order, not one that moves in mirror-image fashion when compared with English word order, but rather one that appears the reverse of English order within clauses while still allowing for exceptions.²

Another interesting characteristic of Basque is its ergativity. This means that subjects of transitive verbs in Basque carry an ergative marker (in the case of Basque, a *k*) to distinguish them from subjects of intransitive verbs. We heard this in the literal translation above in the first part of the sentence: boy-the-active subject.

Ergative is a word often bandied about by linguists when discussing the Basque language, and this word alone is probably responsible for a major portion of the mystery in any discussion of Euskara. However, the dictionary tells us that ergative is just an adjective denoting a grammatical case whose function is to indicate the agent or instrument of an action involving something else.
Basque is not the only ergative language in the world. There are even languages that are more ergative than Basque. But as an English speaker learning Euskara, it is enough to have to remember that the subject of a transitive verb must carry a special marker to indicate its status as such.

Of course, adding a simple k would be too easy. Just to make things interesting, it helps to know that k is also the plural marker in Basque, and that it is often preceded by a vowel that serves as either an article or a phonetic bridge.

The next item of interest is the postpositive nature of the language. This means that Basque uses a lot of suffixes. Using our original sample sentence, we see the word

\textit{neskari}, meaning "to the girl."

This is only one of the 54 possible declensions of the word \textit{neska}. Of course there are many declined languages in the world, and, like the others, Basque has different endings for singular and plural, animate and inanimate, definite and indefinite. Proper names are also declined.

In addition to declensions, there are the hundreds of suffixes used to make different words out of Basque roots. In the introduction to the \textit{Basque-English Dictionary}, Gorka Aulestia and I included several pages of these suffixes, but seeing a few of them in action will illustrate their ubiquitous nature. For example, take the root word:

\textit{eliza}, \textit{eliz-} (church)

and its derivatives:

\begin{itemize}
  \item \textit{elizain} (sacristan, "one who cares for the church")
  \item \textit{elizaingo} (office of the sacristan)
  \item \textit{elizako} (ecclesiastic)
  \item \textit{elizakoak} (Last Rites)
  \item \textit{elizalde} (church surroundings)
  \item \textit{elizanburu} (upper part of a church)
  \item \textit{elizaratu} (to go to church)
\end{itemize}

Another 50 derivative words are listed in the \textit{Basque-English Dictionary}. (Appendix 1 provides a brief sampling of Basque nominal suffixes.)

Another aspect of the Basque language that lends greatly to its unique flavor is the Basque verb. The Basque verb is a world unto itself, containing complexities of meaning that English speakers need verbs, prepositions, subject pronouns, and direct and indirect object pronouns to express. Allen puts the relative complexity of the Basque verb into perspective when he uses it in his introduction as the example of a language with an extreme number of verb forms—literally,
hundreds—in contrast with English verbs which generally have only four forms. The two auxiliary verbs in Basque, izan and ukan, have over 1,700 individual forms in Batua alone.

The matter is further complicated by the differences from dialect to dialect, especially the great differences between Biscayan and the other dialects, including Batua, or Unified Basque. Simple examples of those differences would be,

Unified ditut, I have them
and
Biscayan dodaz, I have them.

Unified dute, they have it
and
Biscayan dabe, they have it.

Dialects

The existence of living Basque dialects makes the cataloger’s problems even more difficult, for one might well encounter a book written in one dialect that has been translated into another. There are several dialects of Basque, including Biscayan, Guipuzcoan, Labourdin, Zuberoan (also known as Souletin), Low Navarrese, and Batua. The Navarrese and Alavese dialects were in daily use as little as one hundred years ago, but they are virtually lost to us today.

The dialects with the largest numbers of speakers are Biscayan and Guipuzcoan, but the dialects on the French side of the border, Zuberoan (or Souletin), Labourdin, and Low Navarrese, are still spoken, and they played a major role in the history of Basque literature. Virtually every village has its own variations of vocabulary and grammar.

Euskaltzaindia, or the Academy of the Basque Language, is officially in charge of the unification of the Basque language. This has been an ongoing task, and it has not been an easy one. The standardization of spelling by the Academy still continues. The h presents an especially thorny problem. The myriad aitches used in the northern dialects have been reduced in Batua, but the Unified dialect uses more aitches than either Guipuzcoan or Biscayan.

What’s in a Name?

I have heard more than one veteran librarian groan at the prospect of name authority work, and I must admit that the specter of such a daunting task was one of the reasons I made a career decision not to become a librarian. Writing a dictionary sounded so much easier! The
Basque penchant for nicknames, the spelling problems inherent in a language of several active dialects, and the fact that the Central Government of Spain, under Franco, made it illegal to use a Basque first name on a birth certificate—all this adds a new dimension to name authority work.

The vast majority of Basque authors use pseudonyms, but these names become more than literary pen names. They are used in everyday life as nicknames, and often are the only name to appear on a title page. Appendix 2 provides a brief list of examples of such nicknames and their corresponding owners. The champion of this short list is José Luis Alvarez Enparantza who sports two nicknames, Txillardegi and Larresoro.

Basque authors who were long known by the Hispanicized version of their names are now using the Basque spellings:

- Julio de Urquijo is now Julio Urkixo
- José Miguel is now Joxe Miel or Mikel
- Arturo Campión is now Arturo Kanpion

and other names have been “modernized” within an author’s lifetime to reflect their Basqueness. Echeverría becomes Etxeberria, Aguirre becomes Agirre, Emparanza becomes Enparantza, and so on. Some names were never spelled “the Basque way,” because the Basque language had no standardized spelling system before Euskaltzaindia created Unified Basque. Previously, Basques assimilated the spelling customs of the Spanish or the French when attempting to write in Euskara.4

Many names that are considered Hispanic by the general public are in fact Basque in origin, such as the above-mentioned Echeverría / Etxeberria and Aguirre / Agirre. It is important to remember that Basque surnames are not a reliable indication of Basque ethnicity. Many Basques migrated to the New World in previous centuries, and their descendants carry the surname, but ethnically and culturally they are North or South Americans. Appendix 2 lists some of over 300 Basque surnames found in the Reno, Nevada, area, including: Aberasturi, Aguirre, Aldabe, Aldecoaotalora, Amestoy, Apalategui, Archeleta, Arriaga, Bandurraga, Basterrechea, Bidart, Bilbao, Cendagorta, Corcostegui, Dendary, Dufurrena, Erquiaga, Etchemendy, Gandiaga, Guerricagoitia, Inda, Larramendy, Laxalt, Mendive, Ugalde, and Zabala.
Basque on the Title Page

With the modern tendency to publish in Batua, spelling and dialectal variations are becoming less of a problem. However, when working with books published before 1975, especially those written before Batua became so widely accepted, certain peculiarities of the language can obfuscate the matter of author identification.

Following are examples of three Basque-language title pages. Figure 1 is straightforward. The author's name is unencumbered and simple to identify. Yokin is the first name and Apalategi is the surname. Notice that Basque does not generally follow the Spanish custom of double apellidos. It helps to know that Yokin is the Basque equivalent of Joaquín, and this author may have published other works under that name.

Figure 2 gives the author's name as “Gallastegi’tar Kauldi apaiza.” Beware of the omnipresent words apaiza and aita. Apaiza means priest; aita means father, and clergy often use their religious names when they write. This is significant in Basque literature, for the early authors were almost all priests. The surname in this example is Gallastegi. Kauldi is the first name. This reverse order of “first” and “last” names was once common in Basque and is occasionally still seen. The suffix -tar means “origin” or “belonging to a certain group.” Along with the adjectival suffix -ko meaning “of,” it was often appended to the surname, and one surmises that the effect would be “Kauldi of Gallastegi origin,” although no one bothers to translate the suffix used in this manner.

Figure 3 uses the old Basque order of surname first with the suffix -tar, but combines it with the Spanish custom of double last names, substituting the Basque eta for Spanish y. The first name, Pilipa (Felipe), is spelled in the old Basque manner with the diacritical bar over the l, formerly used to indicate a palatal l or (orthographically) ll. The acute accent over the r of Arese served to indicate a heavily trilled r or (again, orthographically) a double letter rr. The suffix ren, separated from the name with an apostrophe, is the genitive, rendering the translation of the title page “Felipe Arrese y Beitia’s Little Poetry Collection.” However, for bibliographic purposes the title is “Olerki Sortatxua,” without the grammatically connected author’s name.

The publisher/printer is Jaungoiko-Zale and the place of publication is Zornotza. The -n of Zornotzan means, serendipitously, “in.”

I hope these few examples have alerted you to the types of difficulties posed by Basque-language title pages.
Fig. 1.
Gallastegi'tar Kauldi
apaiza

AMETS eta EGI

Fig. 2.
AÑESE ETA BEITIA’TAR PİLİPA’REN

OLERKI SORTATXUA

ZORNOTZAN
Jaungoiko-Zale’ren irarkolan
1930

Fig. 3.
Conclusion

In conclusion, let me emphasize that the Basque people are putting forth a phenomenal cultural effort to save their minority language in the face of overwhelming cultural saturation in the Spanish tongue. At the time of Francisco Franco’s death in 1975, it was believed that of the 2,100,000 people in the Spanish Basque provinces, only 500,000 spoke the Basque language. If we include the French provinces the number jumps only to 615,000 speakers in the seven provinces at that time. Basque has almost died out completely in Navarra (Nafarroa) and has retreated drastically in Alava (Araba). Until Juan Carlos became king on November 22, 1975, it was still illegal to speak the Basque language in public. Among Juan Carlos’ first duties was to sign a decree allowing the public use of languages other than Castilian, and to allow the teaching of non-Castilian languages in the classroom. Since that time, Basque publishing has been booming, but we must keep this “boom” in perspective, considering the relatively small number of people who are in a position to read the language. As an advocate of Euskara, I am happy to have the opportunity to share information about it with you today. I hope you will find it useful.

NOTES

1. The unification of Euskara by the Academy of the Basque Language, Euskaltzaindia, has created a standard system of orthography and eliminated the use of diacriticals in the manmade dialect called Batua, or “Unified” Basque. The vast majority of Basque-language publications are written in Batua.

2. As an example:

   Joan zen larunbatean nire Californian bizi den suhina
   hona etorri zen nirekin hitz egitera.

   (On) Last Saturday my son-in-law who lives in California came here to talk with me.

3. Allen says: “Most English verbs, for instance, have four different forms (love, loves, loving, loved), one in the dictionary and three others whose exact meaning depends on the ending: at the other extreme a Basque verb has hundreds, and what are parts of the verb in Basque will be separate words in languages like English” (C. G. Allen, A Manual of European Languages for Librarians [London and New York: Bowker, 1975], p. 1).

4. Although Bernat Detxepare wrote the first book in Euskara in 1545 (Linguae Vasconum Primitiae—the title was in Latin), it is generally agreed that written Basque literature did not become established until the nineteenth century. The language has a long, highly respected tradition of oral literature, however, and the use of literary pseudonyms began with the extemporaneous Basque troubadours called bertsolariak.

Appendix 1
Samples of Basque Suffixes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Suffix</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-aga</td>
<td>place of, abundance of</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-alde</td>
<td>region, area; group</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-aldi</td>
<td>season, time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ari</td>
<td>agent, doer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-aro</td>
<td>epoch, age, era</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-arte</td>
<td>between; until</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-bide</td>
<td>path, road, way</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-dar</td>
<td>origin, native of</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-dun</td>
<td>possessor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-eme</td>
<td>female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-entzat</td>
<td>for, destination</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-eri</td>
<td>sickness, illness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-gailu</td>
<td>instrument</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-gain</td>
<td>above</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-gile</td>
<td>agent, doer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-keria</td>
<td>abstract negative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-keta</td>
<td>activity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-leku</td>
<td>place</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-orde</td>
<td>vice-, substitute</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-pen</td>
<td>act, effect, result</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-raino</td>
<td>up to</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-tar</td>
<td>native of, origin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-tegi</td>
<td>place of</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-tzai</td>
<td>agent, doer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-zain</td>
<td>keeper, one who cares for</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Appendix 2
Examples of Basque Literary Nicknames

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nickname</th>
<th>Full Name</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Aita Donostia</td>
<td>Jose Gonzalo Zulaika</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aitzol</td>
<td>Jose Aritzimuno</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Basarri</td>
<td>Inaki Eizmendi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bilintx</td>
<td>Indalezio Bizkarrondo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Etxahun</td>
<td>Pierre Topet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Larresoro</td>
<td>Jose Luis Alvarez Enparantza</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lauaxeta</td>
<td>Esteban Urkiaga</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lizardi</td>
<td>Jose Maria Agirre</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Orixe</td>
<td>Nikolas Ormaetxlea</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pello Errota</td>
<td>Pedro Joxe Elizegi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Txillardegi</td>
<td>Jose Luis Alvarez Enparantza</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Txirrita</td>
<td>Joxe Manuel Lujanbio</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Udarregi</td>
<td>Juan Jose Alkain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Urettezindorra</td>
<td>Kepa de Enbeita</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uztapide</td>
<td>Manuel Olaizola</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Xalbador</td>
<td>Fernando Aire</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Xenpelar</td>
<td>Juan F. Petriereña</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Examples of Basque Surnames Found in the Reno, Nevada Area

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Basque Name</th>
<th>Transcription</th>
<th>Basque Name</th>
<th>Transcription</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Aberasturi</td>
<td>Corcostegui</td>
<td>Larramendy</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acheritobehere</td>
<td>Dendary</td>
<td>Laxague</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acordagoitia</td>
<td>Dufurrena</td>
<td>Laxalt</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aguerre</td>
<td>Echeita</td>
<td>Legorburu</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aguirre</td>
<td>Echevarria</td>
<td>Madariaga</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aldabe</td>
<td>Echeverria</td>
<td>Mendieta</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aldecoaotalora</td>
<td>Eizaguirre</td>
<td>Mendive</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Amestoy</td>
<td>Elizagoyen</td>
<td>Minaberry</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Amezquita</td>
<td>Erquiaga</td>
<td>Oyarbide</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anacabe</td>
<td>Errecart</td>
<td>Ugalde</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Apalategui</td>
<td>Etcheberry</td>
<td>Ugarde</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Archuleta</td>
<td>Etchemendy</td>
<td>Uhalde</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Argoitia</td>
<td>Etcheverria</td>
<td>Ulibarri</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ArosteGui</td>
<td>Etcheverry</td>
<td>Uriarte</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arriaga</td>
<td>Etxeberri</td>
<td>Uribe</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arrizabalaga</td>
<td>Gandiaga</td>
<td>Urrutia</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bandurraga</td>
<td>Garatea</td>
<td>Urza</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Barrenechea</td>
<td>Garibay</td>
<td>Ybarguengoitia</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Basagoitia</td>
<td>Gastanaga</td>
<td>Yribarren</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Basterrechea</td>
<td>Goicoechea</td>
<td>Yturiaga</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Belaustegui</td>
<td>Guerricagoitia</td>
<td>Yzaguirre</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bengochea</td>
<td>Ibarzabal</td>
<td>Zabala</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bidart</td>
<td>Inda</td>
<td>Zabalegui</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bilbao</td>
<td>Indart</td>
<td>Zubillaga</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cendagorta</td>
<td>Iturriaga</td>
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<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Figures in the History of SALALM and the Latin American Book Trade
To succeed in aexusd with the MLA/MLA
standard and the MLA/MLA
standard, how should that
11. Genaro García: Portrait of a Book Collector

Carmen Ramos Escandón

Over a span of forty years Genaro García indulged his passion for book collecting and acquired everything he could find on the subjects that commanded his wide-ranging interest, and his collection became the core of the University of Texas Benson Latin American Library holdings. Who was this passionate collector, and how was he able to compile his extraordinary collection?

Genaro García was born in Fresnillo, a nearly abandoned mining town in the north central Mexican state of Zacatecas, on August 17, 1867. His father, Trinidad García, later became a fairly well known politician in the Porfirio Díaz regime as a cabinet member, director of finance, and national deputy. Genaro was a quiet, weak child, and his fragile health predisposed him to reading, observation, and analysis at an early age. García himself reflected on his early love for books and book collecting when he wrote: “I remember that at the age of 14, I began to collect various books in a small bookcase. I added to this one book after another and today I am still increasing my modest library.”

The García family moved to Mexico City in 1877 when his father was named minister in the Díaz cabinet. While Genaro’s health did not improve in the capital, by 1891 he had completed his law degree, a course of studies which he finished in slightly less than four years instead of the usual six. By this time, García had already published articles on literary criticism and on the condition of women, a subject rarely discussed in the Mexican intellectual milieu of the time. Women’s rights was the topic of his dissertation, “La desigualdad de la mujer,” submitted to obtain his degree in jurisprudence, and of an expanded version published as Apuntes sobre la condición de la mujer (1891).

In the 1880s García’s intellectual interest focused mostly on legislation, specifically on family legislation and women’s rights. A reader of John Stuart Mill and translator of Herbert Spencer, he borrowed and elaborated on some of their ideas on women’s issues. García’s views on this topic were unusually advanced and perceptive.
He thought that women’s condition in a given society was a way to gauge the social well-being of that society.

Events in García’s life also shaped his intellectual interests and collecting habits. In April 1891, after receiving his law degree, García went to Texas as an attorney representing an individual with land interests there. During this time he visited San Antonio and Austin. This first association with Texas came to an abrupt conclusion when his client became ill. However, García’s interest in Mexican Texas is reflected in his edition of the then unknown colonial history of the region. On his return from Texas, García turned his attention to mining interests, an enterprise to which his family had historical and contemporary ties. Mining remained a focus of García’s intellectual attention throughout his life, and this interest is reflected in his library which contains numerous works related to the field. He also published a *Diccionario minero mexicano* in 1900.

In July 1892 García was elected as alternate deputy to the national Chamber of Deputies and two years later he became the elected representative from the district of Pinos in Zacatecas. In that capacity he worked for the social and economic welfare of the state, improving conditions for the working classes, extending the educational system to include Indians, and fostering better relations between workers and capitalists. Throughout his life García was a man deeply interested and engaged in the intellectual debates of his day. In 1892 the celebration of the fourth centennial of the discovery of America prompted a debate between those favoring the importance of the Spanish heritage in the development of Latin America and those who championed indigenous rights, trampled by the conquistadors and their descendants. García participated in this debate and collected documents that could increase his knowledge on the subject from both perspectives. He even wrote a book entitled *Carácter de la conquista española en América*. For this work he researched the religious and conquerors’ accounts of the early years of European contact with Mexico and Peru. His interest in the topic led him to obtain the original sixteenth-century manuscript of Bernal Díaz del Castillo’s work, which he published in an annotated edition between 1904 and 1905.

García’s professional life encompassed academia and politics. At different periods between 1899 and 1903, he was a professor at the National Conservatory of Music in Mexico City, where he taught courses on Mexican indigenous dress. In the political arena he served as governor in his native state of Zacatecas during the 1900-1904 term where one of his accomplishments was the promulgation of a new law extending elementary and high school education in the state.
Back in Mexico City by 1905, García was professor of history at the National Museum of Archeology, History and Ethnology, where he also acted as director from 1907 to 1911. This position gave him the opportunity to acquire many of the rare books and manuscripts that were frequently offered to him. His reputation as a collector was well established by this time, and people often presented him with books, manuscripts, and archives to increase his library.

When reappointed its director in 1913, García outlined a full program for the Museum. Describing his priorities, he wrote: "My program will be confined fundamentally to supporting, in the best possible manner, the development of our Archeology which is undoubtedly the most interesting in America, of our History, intended to disseminate the love for our country, and of our Ethnology, without which we cannot hope to solve our most serious national problems." 10

García's interest in books and manuscripts was not limited simply to collecting. He also undertook the publication of many of the manuscripts that came into his possession. These documents form the basis of his important series entitled Documentos inéditos o muy raros para la historia de México, a 36-volume work published between 1905 and 1911. In 1910, to commemorate the centennial of Mexico's independence, García published a seven-volume collection called Documentos históricos mexicanos, where he included a number of Mexican Independence documents dating between 1808 and 1812.

García's interest in manuscripts and documents was reinforced by his view of the historian's craft. His positivistic notion of history held that the gathering of information was central to an understanding of the past and to research and writing. Thus it was important to dig in old family papers, antiquarian bookstores, antique shops, old libraries, and uncataloged archives. Searching for new materials, García traveled all over Mexico, and delighted in making new discoveries and acquiring them.

García was truly a lover of books. His scholarly inclination often led him to purchase several editions of the same work in order to compare them and exhaust a subject. He invested his personal fortune in book collecting, and his contagious enthusiasm led friends, colleagues, subordinates, and even perfect strangers to present him with material to increase his library. In addition, García was personally acquainted with the leading Mexican scholars and bibliophiles of the previous generation. At their deaths García was able to acquire the best of their collections. In this sense his library represents the combined efforts of people like Joaquín García Icazbalceta, Ignacio Ramírez, Alfredo Chavero, and Manuel Orozco y Berra. His formation
as a historian allowed him to know what was important and led him to acquire papers and correspondence of early-nineteenth-century politicians such as José Gómez Farías, José María Luis Mora, and Lucas Alamán.

García's interests ranged widely. His collecting was not limited to Mexican sources or to Mexican materials exclusively. He was in touch with book dealers all over the world. Like most Latin American intellectuals of the period, García kept abreast of contemporary European thought: sociology, philosophy, and historiography.11 His collections also extended beyond books. García acquired paintings, porcelains, china jars, stamps, medals, bronzes, marble tablets, book plates, pre-Hispanic figures, and a large collection of photographs. These photographs were included in the library purchased by the University of Texas.

In the last years of his life, García continued to devote himself to scholarship and public office. He published documents and scholarly books, mostly on Mexican history, and became director of the National Preparatory School. As an educator García believed that youth should be exposed to the best historical publications in order to build their devotion to national ideals. As a public official García traveled abroad, mostly to Europe, where he visited archeological and historical ruins and paid particular attention to museums and libraries. On a trip to the United States, he made a survey of the classification system used in the Library of Congress in Washington. His travels greatly increased his knowledge of museum and library science.

After a year-long illness, Genaro García died in November of 1920, at the age of fifty-three.

By a fortuitous event, Charles Hackett, professor of Latin American Studies at the University of Texas at Austin, and three University of Texas regents were in Mexico City for the presidential inauguration of Alvaro Obregón when Genaro García’s library was offered for sale by his heirs, one month after the collector’s death. Hackett had some knowledge of the library and convinced the regents to post a bond securing a sixty-day option to evaluate the library.

The arduous task of examining, evaluating, and arranging the purchase of the library was entrusted to Hackett and to the librarian, E. W. Winkler. Winkler soon realized how important the collection was, and in a letter dated 7 February 1921, he wrote:

We ought to secure this library. There is not another such in Mexico, and there won’t be for many years to come. . . . The University of Texas is the logical place for it; we need it. Texas was part of Mexico for two hundred and fifty years before it became an Anglo American possession. This library will
give us the history of those two hundred fifty years and through [sic] much light upon the period of change from the domination of the Latin to that of the Anglo-Saxon.  

Winkler estimated that García’s library numbered some twenty thousand books and pamphlets.  

The enormous variety of the collection made its organization a challenge.  García’s library included unique pre-Hispanic items such as the Codex Borbonicus, Codex Ramírez, Chimalpopoca Cortesianus, and Codex Telleriano Remensis.  Also in the manuscripts collection were the papers of Mexican patriots and intellectuals, among them José María Morelos, Agustín Iturbide, Benito Juárez, Antonio López de Santa Anna, Lucas Alamán, and José María Luis Mora.  Newspaper collections included extensive runs of such titles as the seventeenth-century *Gaceta de Madrid* and the *El Mercurio Volante*, published in the eighteenth century.  In the opinion of the Mexican historian Mariano Cuevas: “The García Library is the most practical library in the world for students of Mexican history.”  

The purchase of the collection by the University of Texas was arranged for the sum of $100,000, plus the cost of packing and shipping it.  Part of the agreement stipulated that the García family was to accompany the collection to the Texas border.  This clause was crucial because of the chaotic conditions of that period in Mexico when transportation routes were vulnerable and uncertain.  

In contemplating the acquisition of the García library, University of Texas President Robert E. Vinson observed that “the possession of such a collection will give our university an enviable standing among the institutions of the Western Hemisphere.”  For the many researchers of Mexican and Latin American history who have worked in the Benson Latin American Collection, Vinson’s observation has proven accurate.
APPENDIX
Some Works by Genaro García

Apuntes sobre la condición de la mujer. Mexico: Compañía Limit. de Tipógrafos, 1891.

La desigualdad de la mujer. Mexico: Imprenta de F. Díaz de León, 1891.


Ley de instrucción pública elemental expedida por el Congreso del Estado en 16 de mayo de 1901 y sancionada por el Ejecutivo del Niño en 6 de abril del mismo año. Zacatecas: Hospicio de Niños, 1901.

Ley de instrucción primaria superior expedida por el Ejecutivo del Estado, en uso de las facultades con que se encuentra investido 22 de mayo del presente año. Zacatecas: Hospicio de Niños, 1901.


Dos antiguas relaciones de la Florida. Publicadas por primera vez por Genaro García. Mexico: Aguilar Vera y Comp., 1902.

Historia verdadera de la conquista de la Nueva España por Bernal Díaz del Castillo, única edición hecha según el códice autógrafo. La publica Genaro García. Mexico: Secretaría de Fomento, 1904.


Correspondencia secreta de los principales intervencionistas mexicanos. Mexico: Bouret, 1905-1907.

La inquisición en México. Sus orígenes, jurisdicción, competencia, procesos, autos de fé, relaciones con los poderes públicos, ceremonias etiquetas y otros hechos. Documentos inéditos tomados de su propio archivo. Mexico: Vda. de Bouret, 1906.

Discurso pronunciado en honor de Juárez, frente al panteón de San Fernando el 18 de julio de 1906. México: Europea de Aguilar Vera, 1906.


La revolución de Ayutla según el archivo del General Doblado. México: Vda. de Bouret, 1907-1913.


Índice alfabético de la colección de documentos para la historia de la guerra de independencia de México de 1808 a 1821 formada por J. Hernández y Dávalos y Genaro García. México: Imprenta del Museo Nacional, 1907.

Don Santos Degollado. Sus manifiestos, campañas, destitución militar, enjuiciamiento, rehabilitación, muerte, funerales y honores póstumos. México: Vda. de Bouret, 1907.


The True History of the Conquest of New Spain by Bernal Díaz del Castillo, One of Its Conquerors. From the only exact copy made of the original manuscript. Edited and published in Mexico by Genaro García. Translated into English, with introduction and notes by Alfred Percival Maudslay. 4 vols. Londres: Printed for the Hakluyt Society, 1908-1912.

La revolución de Ayutla según el archivo del General Doblado. México: Bouret, 1909.


La situación política, militar y económica en la república mexicana al iniciarse su guerra con los Estados Unidos, publicados por Genaro García. Mexico: Ignacio del Castillo, 1913.


Una vuelta a la república mexicana por dos niños. Libro de lectura corriente adaptado a las escuelas primarias de México. Mexico: Vda. de Bouret, 1914.


NOTES

1. “Notes on My Life,” typed manuscript, Genaro García Papers, Folder no. 40, Benson Latin American Library, University of Texas at Austin.

2. Trinidad García was Interior Minister and Governor of his native state of Zacatecas. In 1877 he was appointed Minister of Interior of Mexico. He also served as Finance Minister and, in 1895, published the book Los mineros mexicanos.

3. “Notes on My Life.”


5. Genaro García, ed., Historia de Nuevo León con noticias sobre Coahuila, Tejas, y Nuevo México por el capitán Alonso de León, su autor anónimo y el general Fernando Sánchez de Zamora (Mexico: Vda. de C. Bouret, 1909).


9. See Ley de instrucción pública elemental expedida por el Congreso del Estado en 16 de mayo de 1901 y sancionada por el Ejecutivo del Niño en 6 de abril del mismo año (Zacatecas: Hospicio de Niños, 1901).


11. Some of the books on these subjects from the García library are now housed at the Perry Castañeda Library at the University of Texas. See, e.g., the French edition of Herbert Spencer’s Principes de sociologie, trans. M. E. Cazelles (Paris: Felix Alcan, 1890).


14. “Contract of Purchase and Sale,” May 9, 1921, President’s Office Records, Box U.F. 3/B.

15. Letter from Robert E. Vinson to K. M. Van Zandt, December 21, 1920, President’s Office Records, Box U.F. 3/B.
12. Nettie Lee Benson: Beyond the Orthodox

John Wheat

In July of 1979, Nettie Lee Benson stood in the National Palace in Mexico City as Mexican President José López Portillo bestowed upon her the order of the Aguila Azteca, the highest honor Mexico can give to a noncitizen. The latest in a series of awards and accolades, this was her greatest tribute because it represented the appreciation of the Mexican nation for her lifelong dedication to the study and understanding of Mexican history. The many tributes that Nettie Lee Benson received over the years attest to the breadth and depth of her career in the Latin American field: as a scholar and writer of history; as a library director and bibliographer; as a teacher of history and of librarianship; and as an international diplomat. It is fitting at the thirty-seventh meeting of the Seminar on the Acquisition of Latin American Library Materials, of which she was a founder and leader, to reflect on Nettie Lee Benson’s truly legendary career. It is especially significant—in this section devoted to outstanding professional women—to understand the independence, determination, high principle, and resourcefulness that are the hallmarks of her total professionalism.

Characteristically humble and matter-of-fact about her achievements, Benson would shrug off these accolades. But she was a pioneer in many ways, as befits her origins in turn-of-the-century Texas. A glance at her formative years reveals much about the 37-year-old Nettie Benson who took over the reins of the Latin American Collection at the University of Texas in 1942.

Born near Galveston in 1905, she moved with the family to the new town of Sinton, Texas, in 1908, just as the great Taft Ranch lands were being opened to farming. The young Nettie Benson grew up in a hard-working family of ten—most of them male—with a good sense for business and a devotion to both athletics and education. Benson became such a voracious reader that not even a serious eye injury could stop her, and though she started school late, she shot through the curriculum in record time. Through her studies Benson developed a lifelong fascination with Mexico, an interest she later pursued with particular zeal at the University of Texas by taking every Spanish and
Latin American history course offered under the likes of Charles W. Hackett, John Lloyd Mecham, Eugene C. Barker, and Carlos Castañeda. In 1924, an intrepid, young Nettie Benson seized an opportunity to teach at a Methodist school in Monterrey, Mexico, even though it meant going alone, over the objections of her parents, into the turbulence of the Cristero revolt. She returned from Mexico to pursue teaching in Sinton and elsewhere and graduate study at the University of Texas. In 1941, Benson had just returned to the University at Austin to enroll her nephew and to take some more coursework, when the impact of World War II suddenly launched her into the career for which we celebrate her today.¹

When the war effort called Latin American Collection director Carlos Castañeda to head the Fair Employment Practices Commission in 1942, Nettie Lee Benson was asked to fill the position because of her knowledge of Latin American history and of library resources. She inherited an important collection which had grown to some 40,000 volumes and manuscripts since the acquisition of the Genaro García Collection in Mexico in 1921. Yet, the library had neither a budget nor a support staff, and many of its materials were still uncataloged. Consequently, Benson was logging 54-hour weeks just to keep up with the demands of her tasks. Through her diligent efforts, the Latin American Collection grew by 50 percent by 1954, achieving a fourfold increase by 1969. By the time of Benson’s retirement in 1975, the library had grown tenfold to some 400,000 volumes.²

The building of the Latin American Collection during Benson’s 35-year tenure involved much more than numbers of volumes or dollars. To put it simply, she begged, badgered, finagled, and traded her way to success in a manner unprecedented at the University of Texas. She painstakingly wrote every government or scholarly institution, every publisher, and every author she could identify in search of donations and exchange, a practice that accounted for roughly one third of the collection by the mid-1970s. She constantly ferreted out backlogged acquisitions and pushed for their cataloging. Her zeal for processing even the smaller items, such as pamphlets, laws and decrees, poetry, and other vital material, earned her a reputation for “Benson’s slivers” in the cataloging department, where she was considered a nuisance. Lacking a budget of her own, Benson was able to avail herself of departmental book budgets by convincing Latin Americanists on the faculty to order the books she needed. As the collection and its consequent use by students and scholars grew, Nettie Benson wrote detailed annual reports which set a new standard for the University of
Texas library system and established a higher profile for the Latin American Collection on campus.\

From the outset of her work at the library, Benson had made yearly collecting trips throughout Mexico. By the early 1950s, however, she had developed an all-encompassing view of the Latin-American Collection as the nexus between the United States and Latin America for area studies and research. That role was clearly reflected in the University's ever-widening collection profile in the postwar Farmington Plan for the acquisition of foreign publications, in which the Latin American Collection literally took everything it could get.

Growing awareness of the limitations on acquisitions from Latin America, rooted in the patterns of the publishing and book trade in the region and the lack of communication and information available both in Latin America and the United States, led to the first Seminar on the Acquisition of Latin American Library Materials (SALALM) at Gainesville, Florida, in 1956. Nettie Benson, one of the founding participants of SALALM, hosted the 1957 meeting at the University of Texas at Austin, where the focus was on Mexico, with the participation of Mexican librarians and bookdealers. As the scope of the SALALM meetings grew, the need for an expert, firsthand exploration of Latin American publishing markets became apparent. The 1959 SALALM in Washington, DC, gave birth to a cooperative acquisition plan whereby an agent would travel the Americas on behalf of various U.S. libraries to discover, acquire, and ship Latin American publications, as well as to establish personal and institutional contacts for future transactions. The obvious choice for such a mission was Nettie Lee Benson.

When the Latin American Cooperative Acquisitions Program (LACAP) tapped her for the undertaking, Benson initially resisted the notion of abandoning her beloved library and small staff for a half-year odyssey through the hemisphere. Finally, the entreaties of her colleagues and her own realization of the significance of this opportunity for a breakthrough in the field, convinced her to accept the challenge. And in characteristic Benson fashion, she made the most of it by convincing University of Texas president Harry Ransom to match her LACAP operating funds with another $25,000. Her three LACAP expeditions from 1960 to 1962 tested Nettie Benson—then in her mid-50s—in every way. Beyond the difficulties she encountered with finding, buying, and mailing books, her travels were fraught with hazardous transportation, high altitudes, water shortages, illness, communications breakdowns, strikes, and political unrest. The litany of what Benson confronted—such as librerías that weren't really book stores or that would not sell books to her; editoras that were just
printers, not publishers; the lack of catalogs for current publications; authors who sold their own works and would not sell her multiple copies—have filled past SALALM papers and discussions for years. It was Nettie Lee Benson, traveling alone for months at a time through the Americas, who broke the ground and showed LACAP—and everyone concerned with the field in the United States and Latin America—the hurdles that existed and how to overcome them.  

Of course, one of the beneficiaries of Benson's work in the field was her own Latin American Collection at the University of Texas. The decade of the 1960s was truly a golden age for the library. Benson had the full support of University President (and later Chancellor) Harry Ransom, a bibliographer and literary scholar himself, who consulted regularly with her about her programs and needs. With Ransom's backing, Benson was able to expand acquisition budgets from a 1960 level of $6,000 to an astronomical $200,000 in 1969. Those days, and those budgets, are long gone, but they helped to launch the Latin American Collection once and for all into world preeminence. It was the intellect, personality, and integrity of Nettie Lee Benson that made it possible. Characteristically, in the years following her official retirement, Benson has donated over $100,000 of her own money to the acquisition fund of the library which today bears her name.  

The phenomenal growth of the Latin American Collection during the 1960s called for a larger professional staff. The Collection's need for librarians trained in the Latin American field reflected another long-standing concern of the SALALM meetings for the Hemisphere in general. By 1964, efforts by the Organization of American States to provide professional training for Latin American librarians led to a Ford Foundation grant for this purpose to the Graduate School of Library Science at the University of Texas. Besides teaching a seminar in history and running the Latin American Collection, Benson agreed to teach these library courses. Though she possessed no formal library degree, her experience and expertise were invaluable, and she shared her wisdom with library students from both Latin America and the United States for the next ten years. I was privileged to be one of those students, beginning in 1968, in her courses on the bibliography of the colonial and national periods, Latin American archives and manuscripts, and publishing and the book trade in Latin America. There I could appreciate firsthand the hard work, the meticulous attention to detail, the impatience with mediocrity and half effort, but also the genuine warmth and enthusiasm for her students and for the field that have endeared Nettie Benson to all her former students.
Benson also taught in the Department of History beginning in the early 1960s. She first taught bibliography, but soon graduated to her famous seminars in Mexican history, her lifelong specialty. A 1962 seminar on Mexico and the Spanish Cortes produced papers so excellent that Benson was convinced to edit and publish them. Such achievements won her quick promotions up to full professor, although she suspected that some token feminism may have been involved and claimed with characteristic humility that she never sought it, but nonetheless was glad of the opportunity. Benson’s legacy to her students is best reflected in the subsequent careers they have enjoyed. Charles Berry, now a professor of history in Ohio, writes:

My reputation, I understand, is that I require an inordinate amount of work that should be stretched into two academic quarters instead of squeezed into one, expect work to be done to extremely high standards, am unwilling to accept quick and easy solutions, insist on absolutely correct writing, maintain a tough requirement of reliance on primary sources, and so on. Apparently Nettie Lee Benson placed her stamp on me during our close association in 1962-1967 that, like a ripple effect, is spreading. I wear that stamp proudly.

Benson’s own scholarship in the history of nineteenth-century Mexico has set high standards for the field. A student of Hackett, Hanke, Spell, Castañeda, and others, she has written a series of key studies, including La diputación provincial y el federalismo mexicano (her 1949 dissertation, published in Mexico in 1955 and republished in 1988), Mexico and the Spanish Cortes . . . (published in 1966, the fruit of the 1962 seminar noted above), her most recent work, The Provincial Deputation in Mexico: Harbinger of Provincial Autonomy, Independence, and Federalism (1992), and a host of shorter books and articles in the Hispanic American Historical Review, the Southwestern Historical Quarterly, Historia Mexicana, and other journals.

During her active—one might say hectic—career, Nettie Benson also managed to serve in a variety of organizations, committees, and conferences beyond her role in SALALM. These include the Mexican Studies Association, the Latin American Studies Association (LASA), the Conference on Latin American History—responsible for the Hispanic American Historical Review, on whose editorial board she also served—the International Council of the Museum of Modern Art (to select Latin American institutions to receive art books), and numerous conferences relating to the United States and Mexico.

For her many achievements in all these areas, Nettie Benson has been widely recognized and honored by Latin Americans and Latin Americanists alike. A listing of just the highlights reflects the breadth and depth of their esteem:
In 1969 Benson received the Distinguished Service Award of the Southwest Council of Latin American Studies for her work in library teaching as well as in Latin American area studies.

During 1970-1971 she was president of SALALM.

In 1973 she received the first Distinguished Graduate Award of the University of Texas Institute of Latin American Studies (ILAS), which cited her attainments in the field, her many activities, devotion to her alma mater, and the network of relationships she had created, built on admiration, respect, and genuine affection.

In 1974 Benson became the first U.S. recipient of the Premio América, presented annually by the Casa de Cultura Americana, of Mexico.

In 1975, upon her retirement, the University of Texas Board of Regents officially renamed the Latin American Collection in her honor, a rare gesture usually bestowed posthumously.

In 1976 an ILAS appreciation night at the University of Texas cited all her great works at home and abroad and included a special tribute from Mexican scholars recognizing her leadership in the field of Mexican history.

In 1977 the Conference on Latin American History awarded Benson its Distinguished Service Award at the annual meeting of the American Historical Association. That same year, she was cited in a special resolution of the Texas House of Representatives for her outstanding work in Mexican history.

In 1979, as we have seen, she received Mexico’s highest accolade—the Aguila Azteca—from its president, a gesture probably recommended by the late historian Daniel Cosío Villegas, of the Colegio de México, who held Nettie Benson in the highest esteem.

In 1981 she received a Distinguished Alumnus Award from the University of Texas Ex-Students’ Association.

In 1984, still holding her seminars in Mexican history, Benson received an Outstanding Graduate Teaching Award at the Commencement Convocation of the University of Texas Graduate School.

And in 1987 the Texas State Historical Association presented her the H. Bailey Carroll Award for her article, “Texas as Viewed From Mexico, 1820-1834,” in the Southwestern Historical Quarterly (January, 1987).

Still another of her disciples, historian Jesús Francisco de la Teja of Southwest Texas State University, has begun work on a full-length biography of Nettie Lee Benson. He will have his work cut out for
him. The scope of Nettie Benson’s legendary career is remarkable. To sum it up I am drawn to the apotheosis conferred by another of her former students, Henry Schmidt, now a professor of history at Texas A & M University:

Sometimes overlooked in the meaning of Latin American studies is that not only is knowledge of the internal civilization important but also consciousness of the area’s place in the Western Hemisphere. Dr. Benson’s life and work are central to the history of the idea of Latin America in the United States and the balancing of both cultures as a New World process. Thus, the BLAC [Benson Latin American Collection] is a key institution in inter-American history, and by extension has global significance, like the libraries at Alexandria and Córdoba had at one time. As Columbus and Vespucci carried European knowledge and dream into the possibility of America, so Dr. Benson opened access to its half-millennial ethos, teaching us through self-direction to see beyond the orthodox.  

NOTES

1. Interview with Nettie Lee Benson, Austin, Texas, March, 1991 (by John Wheat), Center for American History, University of Texas at Austin. See also the transcripts of oral interviews by Lyle Brown (1972) and Charles Berry (1981), both at the Benson Latin American Collection, University of Texas at Austin.

2. Benson interview (Wheat, 1991). Official statistics for collection growth and use are available in the annual reports for the Latin American Collection, compiled for the General Libraries of The University of Texas at Austin.

3. Ibid.

4. Ibid. See also Nettie Benson’s LACAP field notes, available at the Benson Latin American Collection, University of Texas at Austin.


My first introduction to Latin American literature at seven was Rubén Darío’s *Salutación al águila*, in which he pays tribute to the ideal of union in the Americas and to the Yankee virtues of constancy, vigor, and character. I identify my mother, Emma Simonson—Doña Emma as many knew her, with these virtues.

Born in 1905 of American Missionary parents, she lived until adolescence in the backlands of Brazil, in a small town which bears her family’s name, Croslandia, and which is still only accessible by train or carriage. I’ve always imagined her life in the hills of Montes Claros as mirrored in Helena Morley’s descriptions of life in Diamantina at the turn of the century.

At twelve she left Brazil with her six siblings, returning to rural South Carolina, where through dint of obstinacy, hard work, and scholarships, she completed college. At home she was the black sheep, for with her nose buried in a book, the pudding always burned.

Brazil’s spell, however, was not easily broken, and, in 1935, a friend from the family’s days in Minas Gerais, after winning his first important case for an American client, asked the latter to trace Emma Crosland of Greenville, South Carolina. When he found her, they corresponded; he sent for her; they married, and she reinstated a connection with Latin America that was never again severed.

With vision and determination she took degrees in Brazilian history and librarianship at the Universidade de São Paulo, taught cataloging at the Universidade Católica, and, in 1945, with a small daughter, went to the United States for graduate work in librarianship at Columbia. She returned to Brazil as a State Department library consultant and set up a series of binational-center libraries in Brazil that still flourish. Returning again to the United States for graduate training in Latin American history and literature, she settled in the Bay Area, first at Stanford and then at Berkeley, where she served as Bibliographer for Latin America at the University of California for twelve years.

In 1952, with wide experience in the library and book trade in Brazil, two academic Masters degrees, strong language skills, and long
years of residence in Latin America, she came to the profession at a
time of extraordinary interest in, and funding for, Latin American
library collections, training, and exchange programs. There were not
many Latin Americanist librarians and even fewer with firsthand book
trade experience. When the big money from Ford and Rockefeller in
support of Latin American studies became available, it was a propitious
time for her unusual skills.

This June marks the tenth anniversary of her death, and it is an
appropriate time to remember Emma Simonson—her teaching; her
early and intimate experience with the book trade, gleaned from long
periods of residence; her activities in SALALM in support of the
growth of the Latin American book trade, of collection development,
and the rise of the subject specialist; and her lifelong interest in Latin
America and Latin Americans.

As a library educator with a Rockefeller grant, she helped develop
curricula for the Escuela Interamericana de Bibliotecologia at the
Universidad de Antioquia. In Medellín, the library school still thrives
and the central library of the Universidad de Antioquia today remains a
good model for university libraries in the region, with open stacks and
automated cataloging procedures, a reflection of the work of many
other SALALM members, including Bill Jackson, Marietta Shepard,
and Gaston Litton. Later, with UNESCO funding, she taught courses in
agricultural library organization in the Peruvian Amazon, and at
Berkeley and Indiana she regularly taught courses in Latin American
bibliography. In addition to formal teaching she consistently arranged
exchange programs for Latin and North Americans alike.

SALALM bloomed out of the interest in establishing and
enhancing Latin American collections. The expanded opportunities for
interchange of information, material, and persons that SALALM
fostered assured the permanent part that Latin Americans have played
throughout SALALM’s nearly four decades of activities, beginning with
the book dealers themselves.

Emma’s paper for the first SALALM meeting in 1956 at Chinsegut
Hill, “Purchase of Latin American Material through Bookstores,
Publishers and Dealers,” is a model description of the work of subject
specialists and of one university’s productive relations with the book
trade. She provided in that paper a window to the realities of the Latin
American book trade. Her advice to colleagues that “we too often
forget that our dealings with Latin America is a two-way business,” was
a theme she stressed throughout twenty years of involvement with
SALALM and the Latin American book trade. She recognized the
personal nature of the book trade and publishing in Latin America and
always dedicated her efforts to better and more fruitful exchange between the Americas.

In 1966 Carl Deal taped a session about Doña Emma’s experiences with the Latin American book trade on a buying trip funded by a Midwestern University Consortium for International Activities (MUCIA), during which she purchased materials from six countries for five universities. Her diplomacy and good sense come through often, as when she comments dryly that “postal services are not very adequate in the region,” and advises those on field purchasing trips to carry lots of cash in various denominations. She herself carried up to $10,000 in a money belt, searched through hole-in-the wall bookstores, and carted twenty-six heavy volumes of the Papeles Presidenciales through the streets of Bogotá to be wrapped and shipped, mostly by her.

She also believed that Latin American bookdealer and librarian participation in SALALM was paramount. Her letters to SALALM on acquisition trips often mention historic names—Iturriaga, García Cambeiro, Susan Bach, Porrúa, Brasiliana, Amigos del Libro—and always praise how helpful librarians and book dealers are for opening up the publishing world of their countries and contributing generously to better collections from their countries. She also emphasized the need for flexibility with exchange partners and institutions.

Her paper for SALALM XII in 1967, “Factors Involved in Expanding a Latin American Collection in an Established University,” describing her efforts at Indiana, still provides pertinent and interesting advice on how to build a collection.

As president of SALALM she hosted SALALM XX in Bogotá in 1975, the first SALALM meeting held in South America. To support the theme of “New Writers of Latin America,” she invited twenty-five young Latin American writers, and a young, wild, and poetic group it was. She brought the writers themselves to Bogotá and let them tell us about their writing, their approaches to style and content, and their efforts to have their works published and distributed. It was a lot of fun.

For one who had little interest in the clerical details of library work, Emma’s attention to the details of planning and organization were a regular reminder of what was really important and worthy of effort. She organized that conference in her own fashion, though, which often meant unusual financial transactions. Bill Jackson remembers her thrusting $3,000 in Colombian pesos on him and charging him to make appropriate refunds in some complicated form. When Carl Deal was given a message that two Peruvians were stuck at the Bogotá airport without visas, he went to the Biblioteca Arango,
found Emma and together they took a cab to the airport, walked through customs to immigration, and in ten minutes had them out. There were 380 delegates from 17 countries including the writers Salvador Elizondo, José Miguel Oviedo, Matías Montes Huidobro, Gustavo Sáinz, Adela Grondona, Alvaro Mutis, Ramón Bravo, Antonio Skarmeta, Enrique Verástegui, and Jorge Pimentel. Few of us who were there will forget the autographed copies we acquired for our libraries from these writers.

The following year SALALM XXI was held at Bloomington, and for months there were complicated maneuvers to curate a collection representing emerging Latin American artists. The success of these efforts provided another important window to Latin America for the SALALM membership. Emma wholeheartedly did everything she could to promote the careers of the young talent she sought out. Her love and appreciation of art, music, and literature took the form of love and appreciation of the artists, and a desire to help bring their work to a wider public.

As Latin American Bibliographer at Berkeley and later at Indiana University in Bloomington, her devotion to faculty and students and the cause of scholarship was always firm. She fought for money for processing and strove to convince administrators that the processing of outstanding new collections is as important and valuable as the original purchases. Although not five feet tall, she had the energy of six people and a mind that never stopped working. The soft southern accent belied a strong will. It was hard to say no to Emma Simonson.

Enticed by Ford Foundation funds for collection development at the University of Indiana—fully one quarter of Ford funds went directly to support library activities—she left Berkeley for Bloomington. She arrived at Indiana with a mandate to build a collection of "instant greatness" as Jim Scobie put it when he and Professor Quirk were recruiting her away from an offer at Bancroft. It was Professor Quirk who commented years later that one Emma Simonson in the library was worth ten professors in the classrooms. She believed that the library profession was capable of more meaningful expressions and more scholarly pursuits and generously gave of her time in the library and in the classroom. She was resourceful in seeking funding for projects she pursued against all odds.

After SALALM in Bloomington, Emma retired Emerita from Indiana University to become project supervisor for Northwestern University's ambitious Venezuelan bibliography project. She was involved in the initial stages of this project, and left to devote herself to other bibliographic endeavors. She had learned Russian in order to
research holdings on Latin America in the Soviet Union, and polished her university German by reading mystery novels to carry out a MUCIA cross-cultural grant for recording materials on German immigration to Latin America. For this project, she visited the National Library in East Berlin, the library of the Karl Marx University in Leipzig, the Deutsche Bucherei in Leipzig, and the National Library in Vienna. She never stood still, shuttling between the Midwest, East Coast, Europe, and Latin America, sometimes touching down in as many as fourteen airports during one trip. When she died, she was working on a bibliography of German immigration to Latin America, using her research in East Germany as a basis.

Her letters of this period are full of interest. She discovered and photocopied a handwritten acquisition list of Latin American materials at the Karl Marx University Library in Leipzig. In São Paulo, at the Hans Staden Institute, she collected a “shoe box full of titles,” and in Porto Alegre she came upon the Benno Mentz Archives on German immigration. She never stopped. The night before she died I asked how she was and she responded, “Oh fine, tomorrow I go to LC to check some Pedro Grases citations.”

She had strong language, academic, and cultural skills which she strove all her life to improve and expand in a reflection of Darío’s Yankee constancy, vigor and character.

I close with a quotation from a letter written by our friend Juan Freudenthal that mirrors the experience of many. Emma was my greatest mentor in SALALM. She encouraged me—well, actually she just commanded that I had to belong to such and such committees—and helped me to forge ahead in the organization she loved and worked for so much. I have known few people with her enthusiasm for our profession. What I will miss most, however, is her independent spirit and the fact that she always spoke her mind and remained loyal to her friends.
14. The First Two Decades of SALALM: A Personal Account

Donald F. Wisdom

Between 1956 and 1973 the Seminar on the Acquisition of Latin American Library Materials grew from a small group of North American librarians and scholars, assembled to examine the peculiar problems of library acquisitions, to an international body of nearly five hundred information professionals concerned with documenting the Latin American experience. This paper examines the issues and personalities that dominated SALALM's formative period, mixing the official record with the memories of one of the organization’s early members.

First SALALM

Marietta Daniels first inspected the facilities at Chinsegut Hill Library with Stanley West, Director of the University of Florida Libraries, in June of 1955. As a seasoned bureaucrat, she first ran her idea of organizing a conference on Latin American library materials past her supervisor at the Pan American Union, Erico Verissimo. With Verissimo's approval, Daniels (called Marietta by all who knew her) wrote to West two months later: "Undoubtedly between our two institutions we can handle the preparatory work, and if you and Curtis [Wilgus] can arrange for the administrative details of running the Seminar, I am sure that it can be done fairly simply."1 This is how the first Seminar on the Acquisition of Latin American Library Materials originated. The meeting was held at Chinsegut Hill Library, Brooksville, Florida, on June 14 and 15, 1956, under the sponsorship of the University of Florida Libraries and the Columbus Memorial Library of the Pan American Union. It was Marietta’s idea, and Mr. West welcomed and promoted it.

The purposes of that first SALALM were “to provide an opportunity for those persons chiefly concerned with the selection, acquisition and processing of library materials from the Latin American nations and dependent territories of the Caribbean to meet together to discuss these activities as they especially pertain to major Latin American collections in the United States and to assemble and
disseminate information of the acquisitions of materials from this area that could be of value to libraries throughout the United States.\(^2\) Within this broad rubric, the participants identified three major problems: how to know what has been or is being issued; how to get what is needed for the particular library; and how to process and preserve the materials acquired.

Thirty-two librarians and scholars attended the first SALALM. In addition to Daniels and West, other major participants included:

Howard F. Cline, Director of the Hispanic Foundation of the Library of Congress
Rutherford D. Rogers and Robert E. Kingery of the New York Public Library
Carlos Victor Penna from UNESCO
Josephine C. Febilli and Jorge Grossmann from the Columbus Memorial Library
A. Curtis Wilgus, Imogene Hixson, Lilly Carter, and Irene Zimmerman of the University of Florida
Nettie Lee Benson of the University of Texas
Sturgis Leavitt and Gertrude Merritt of Duke University
Gladys Doolittle of Yale University
Edwin E. Williams of Harvard College Library
Fermín Peraza, Director of the Municipal Library of Havana
Alice Ball from the United States Book Exchange
Dominick Coppola of Stechert Hafner, Inc. (an international bookseller)
Fernande Wojewski of the United Nations Library

Dr. Cline was enthused with the meeting, making comments on many things that came before the participants. Following his suggestions, the Seminar agreed to meet annually and to undertake research into the book trade and library development in Latin America along geographic, rather than functional, lines. In other words, rather than focusing on one particular problem as it might relate to all of Latin America, the approach was to study one country at a time, including all problems relating to the book trade, acquisitions, and so forth.\(^3\) Following Cline’s suggestion, the participants decided to prepare working papers for subsequent Seminars, examining the commercial book trade of the country, listing institutions offering exchanges of materials, studying bibliographic controls as enforced within each country, and providing lists of the most important serial publications and government documents produced in each country.
SALALM was a reflection of the post-World War II emergence of the United States as a super power with global political and scholarly interests. As Glen F. Read pointed out with twenty years hindsight, "it was not until the 1950's that educators, researchers, librarians, and the federal government began to organize their activities to meet the demand for great knowledge of these relatively unknown parts of the world . . . [and] the Chinsegut Hill meeting was essentially a response to a growing concern in the academic community of this country over the status of foreign area studies and research."4

Second SALALM

The calling of the second SALALM, held June 19-20, 1957, in Austin, Texas, was spelled out in a resolution of the Chinsegut Hill meeting. Prior to the Austin SALALM there was much correspondence between Howard F. Cline, Nettie Lee Benson, and Marietta Daniels concerning the country on which this second Seminar should focus. The organizing committee eventually settled on Mexico, specifically book production and the indexing of Mexican periodicals, a logical outgrowth of the first Seminar. With attention directed toward Mexican materials, the Latin American Collection at the University of Texas became the logical site. Nettie Lee Benson, director of that collection, had been prominent in the first SALALM. The conference held sessions on the acquisition of Mexican books and serials and non-commercial publications. Dr. Cline moderated the final, synthesizing session of the meeting.

In Austin, Marietta prepared a Progress Report on Recommendations of the Chinsegut Hill Seminar, 1956, the prototype for the Final Report and Working Papers, which documented SALALM activities through its seventeenth meeting. Also at the second Seminar, Daniels was named Permanent Secretary of the Seminars—or "Guardian Angel" in Lewis Hanke's phrase—a position she would occupy for a decade. As Permanent Secretary, Marietta's duties included writing the Progress Report which documented each Seminar's activities and related what progress had been made toward fulfilling the resolutions made at each meeting. The Permanent Secretary's responsibilities also included the selection of sites for future SALALM meetings, although this duty was soon delegated to a committee, and the assignment of working papers to be presented for discussion at each Seminar. All of this was in addition to Marietta's "day job" as Associate Librarian at the Organization of American States.

With the Permanent Secretary in place, SALALM's organizational structure would change very little for more than a decade. Marietta
continued to run the Seminars. An Organizing Committee sat below her, consisting of representatives of the Library of Congress (Howard F. Cline), Inter-American Bibliographical and Library Association (A. Curtis Wilgus), and the New York Public Library (Rutherford D. Rogers). After the fifth SALALM, representatives of both the host of the next meeting and of the previous meeting were added to the Organizing Committee. When Rogers moved to the Library of Congress, Robert E. Kingery became the representative from the New York Public Library. As there was no mechanism for funding the annual meetings, the host institution had to make arrangements for the meeting rooms, reproduction of working papers and all other local services. A registration fee defrayed most of these costs, but after the sixth Seminar, recurring expenses, such as mailing meeting notices and publication of the *Final Report and Working Papers* were borne by the Pan American Union.

**Third SALALM**

The University of California Library at Berkeley hosted the third SALALM on July 10-11, 1958. This meeting focused on problems of publication and acquisition from Argentina, Chile, and Mexico as well as the preservation microfilming of Latin American materials in general. Participants took up in earnest a proposal made at Chinsegut Hill "that interested libraries explore the possibility and feasibility of maintaining on a cooperative basis one or more full-time acquisition agents in Latin America." At the second Seminar, Dr. Cline had expressed doubt that the time was yet ripe for this proposal, and, in Berkeley, he proposed an alternate plan: "whereby interested libraries cooperate with the Library of Congress in sending a member of its staff on a 90-day exploratory mission to a number of Latin American countries for the purpose of obtaining first-hand information on the nature and scope of the publishing in these countries and on the procurement possibilities for United States Libraries." William Kurth, Chief of the Library of Congress Order Division, explained that the proposed representative would concentrate his efforts in those countries where the need for publishing was most urgent: Peru, Chile, Paraguay, Bolivia, Ecuador, Colombia, and Venezuela. Responding to the acquisitions theme, the Seminar established permanent committees to deal with acquisitions from Mexico, Argentina, and Chile. The meeting closed by accepting the invitation of L. Quincy Mumford to hold the fourth SALALM at the Library of Congress, June 18-19, 1959.
Fourth SALALM

For the fourth SALALM meeting in Washington, DC, the theme was "Library Support to Latin American Area Studies and Major Subject Interest of Universities and Other Learned Institutions." In advance of the meeting, Jean Luft, Research Assistant at the Hispanic Foundation, prepared a working paper entitled "A Synthesis of the Hispanic Foundation (LC) Survey Reports of Teaching and Research Resources and the Activities in the United States on Latin America." Another LC staff member, Rutherford Rogers, issued a special report on the availability of surplus foreign currencies, under Public Law 480, for library purposes. Rogers stated that "on the positive side, it can be said that there is a tremendous amount of enthusiasm in the scholarly world for the proposed program" and advised the members of SALALM to watch the Library of Congress Information Bulletin for further information.7

In addition to these highlights, the conference considered Marietta Daniels's "Progress Report of the Recommendations of the First Three Seminars." A paper on William Kurth's South American trip in 1958 reported very positive results, and it stirred enthusiasm for sponsoring further such trips by the library community. However, an Association of Research Libraries' proposal for strengthening the Farmington Plan in Latin America offered an alternative model and forestalled definitive action on cooperative acquisitions at this meeting.

But if SALALM did not take collective action, it provided a forum for hatching a cooperative acquisitions scheme. Dominick Coppola, Chief of Library Service at Stechert-Hafner, Inc., was the one book-dealer present at each of the first four Seminars. Coppola had considered making a book buying venture to Latin America himself. He found an ally in one of the participants in the New York SALALM, Robert E. Kingery. Together in Washington, they finally persuaded Dr. Nettie Lee Benson of the University of Texas to make the trip.

During this fourth SALALM, two of the Seminar's leaders were to part ways. Howard F. Cline, Director of the Hispanic Foundation, had, since the first meeting, chaired the Seminar's final wrap-up and resolution passing session. In Washington he assumed his traditional role. However, Dr. Cline was indisposed. During this session, Curtis Wilgus wished to place a resolution recognizing Marietta Daniels for her devotion and efforts on behalf of the Seminars. He had great difficulty in getting Cline to recognize his request to speak. Later Dr. Wilgus reported this in a letter to Marietta. She, in her capacity as Permanent Secretary, never invited Cline to moderate a session at any subsequent SALALM. Dr. Cline did not attend the next two seminars,
and had only minor roles in the meetings that followed. This was a sad end to the leadership of one of the organization's original members. Amid these contretemps, events in Latin America were to open North American eyes to the importance of the region.

On January 1, 1959, Fidel Castro, at the head of a revolutionary army, marched into Havana, replacing Fulgencio Batista as head of government. Castro's regime had enormous repercussions on U.S. foreign policy toward Latin America. Castro subsequently termed his regime Marxist and allied himself with the Soviet Union. In turn, Castro's actions caused the United States to break relations with Cuba, except for the agreement for the exchange of publications with the Library of Congress. In April, 1961, President Kennedy proposed a new Alliance for Progress for the hemisphere. The Alliance was a direct response to the Cuban Revolution and the general poverty in the other American republics. Latin American studies, and SALALM, would never be the same.

**Fifth SALALM**

The New York Public Library and the Library of the United Nations in New York City were cosponsors of the fifth SALALM, convened on June 14, 1960. The New York SALALM added one day for the committee meetings that had now become a fixture of the organization, thus increasing the Seminar to three days. The other two days were dedicated to reports and discussions of problems concerning acquisitions from the Caribbean islands and the international exchange of publications.

Cooperative acquisitions dominated this meeting. The Farmington Plan Subcommittee reported on Latin American participation in the plan with detailed summaries of libraries in the United States that had accepted assignments. However, most important and innovative was the oral and written progress report of the Latin American Cooperative Acquisitions Project (LACAP), sponsored jointly by the New York Public Library, the University of Texas, and the Stechert-Hafner Company. The centerpiece of the report was Nettie Lee Benson's account of her five-month buying excursion to Ecuador, Peru, Chile, and Bolivia. The final report of the meeting preserves the following:

Mr. Coppola said that in view of the interest in cooperative acquisition and at the specific request of the New York Public Library, Stechert-Hafner has decided to do something definite about a traveling agent in Latin America, to see how far libraries would come along in a speeded up venture. They received help from the New York Public Library and the University of Texas with the final result that Dr. Benson agreed to take a half year's trip to Latin America
to visit six countries. Actually she was able to cover four, Peru, Chile, Bolivia, Ecuador. She had instructions to buy a certain number of copies of each title published since 1958 to be supplied to libraries which had placed blanket orders with the firm. . . . Mr. Coppola himself went to Central America. 8

Dr. Benson reported that she was instructed to find the titles of every publication in each country, except in the field of medicine. Finding the publications was the "simple" task; finding multiple copies of each title was more difficult. According to Benson, "from 50% to 75% of all books published in the countries I visited were not distributed by publishers but rather by the authors themselves." 9 In 1960 Latin American publishers did not even maintain accurate lists. Even the most eminent firms—such as the Chilean houses, Zig-Zag, Editorial Universitaria, Nacimiento, and Pacifico—only listed what they sold, explaining that they did not make money on national books. The conclusion of the discussions surrounding Benson's presentation was that "one of the very important things on Latin American acquisitions is a continual traveling around of one or more people to keep in constant contact with the book trade outlets." 10 Coppola's Central American experience reinforced the need for acquisitions trips.

The fifth Seminar also received a Report on Official Gazettes Available on Microform initiated by the New York Public Library and presented by Diana Rossi. Although the Caribbean was intended as the focus of the Meeting, and acquisitions from the area were discussed, it was Benson's report on LACAP that generated the most interest in New York.

Sixth SALALM

By resolution the sixth SALALM was announced for the Southern Illinois University at Carbondale on July 6-8, 1961. The major activities were discussions of Colombian and Venezuelan publications, a further report by Nettie Lee Benson on LACAP, the creation of a Committee on Bibliography, and a trip to St. Louis to see the Vatican archives microfilm collection housed at the Pope Pius XII Library at St. Louis University. The first morning of the Seminar was spent in committee meetings and the remainder of the two days was filled with reviewing the working papers and discussion of related problems. Benson reported on her trip to Colombia and Venezuela that year. She found that half of the LACAP titles ordered by U.S. libraries were from those two countries. LACAP had brought in 10,000 separate titles from its participants. But she noted that the Caribbean area and Brazil were not included. Peter de la Garza suggested that the prime need for
Colombian bibliography was a definitive listing of the country’s periodicals and more work on its government publications.

This Seminar also marked the initial session on Latin American bibliography, moderated by Curtis Wilgus.

Seventh SALALM

The 115 librarians and scholars who attended the seventh SALALM meetings focusing on Central American acquisitions held in Coral Gables, Florida, in 1962 met with high hopes. The Cuban Revolution had focused national attention on Latin America, and the Alliance for Progress offered tangible support to efforts in the region. Marietta Daniels’s *The Seminars on the Acquisition of Latin American Library Materials: A Seven Year Report, 1956 to 1962*, distributed in preprint at this meeting, captures something of its optimism.

Dorothy Keller’s “Report on Significant Acquisitions” was first presented at this meeting. Further news on LACAP appeared in Dominick Coppola’s paper, “Breakthrough in Latin American Acquisitions.” Coppola reported on Nettie Lee Benson’s continuing field trips to South America and most importantly that Guillermo Baraya Borda, of Colombia, had joined Stechert-Hafner’s staff as the permanent LACAP representative. Senor Baraya, who was attending the meeting, had already made a trip to Brazil on behalf of Stechert-Hafner and promised to visit the Caribbean islands to see if they could be included in LACAP’s coverage.

There were many other developments from the seventh Seminar. For example, Peter de la Garza and George Grossman authored a comprehensive report on the state of current bibliography for the region. In response to calls for library acquisition programs using surplus agricultural funds, Francis Henshaw, Chief of the Library of Congress’ Order Division, announced that “to date the Library of Congress had initiated acquisitions programs in three centers: Egypt, India and Pakistan. Soon there was to be a center in Rio de Janeiro.” This Seminar also established an Ad Hoc Committee on Official Publications which began to answer the call for more bibliographies of government publications from Latin American Countries.

Eighth SALALM

The eighth SALALM met at the University of Wisconsin, Madison, on July 11-12, 1963, with Brazilian publications the announced theme. Reports on Brazil at this meeting included: “Working Paper No. 12, American Library Resources for Brazilian Studies,” a comprehensive compilation by William Jackson; “Working
Paper No. 5, Acquisition of Research Materials from Brazil, and their Selection: A Report and List of Exchange Sources,” by Peter de la Garza; and “Working Paper No. 6, Acquisition of Brazilian Official Publications: Monographs,” by Emma G. Montgomery and Sandra F. Bennee.¹⁴

This meeting saw the beginning of Rosa Q. Mesa’s exhaustive compilation of government publications. This project would eventually become the multivolume, *Latin American Serial Documents*, which Mesa would publish over a number of years.

Marietta Daniels was prominent at the meeting, understandably highlighting her seven-year progress report, now in final version and announcing that the Alliance for Progress had established a library program.

**Ninth SALALM**

Andrew Eaton, Director of Libraries of Washington University of St. Louis, welcomed the attendees of the ninth SALALM, hosted by his institution, June 25-26, 1964. This Seminar took up the publications of Bolivia, Ecuador, Paraguay, Peru, and Uruguay. All of the countries of Central and South American were then covered by the proceedings of SALALMs I-IX.

In her introduction to the meeting, the Permanent Secretary, now Marietta Daniels Shepard, called attention to the successes of the Alliance for Progress, pointing to statistical evidence of progress in the region but noting that progress has also been achieved “in unforeseen facets of hemisphere life,” implying that SALALM was one of these unforeseen facets.¹⁵ Even though they were not formally linked, SALALM’s growth was heavily influenced by the Alliance for Progress.

This meeting followed the format and substance of its predecessors. There was a “Progress Report,” summarizing actions taken on past resolutions of the body, given by Marietta. Another report was on *Significant New Acquisitions*, by Dorothy Keller. A LACAP report was given by Dominick Coppola and Guillermo Baraya, pointing out that twenty-two libraries were now a part of the program. The one new item to emerge was a *Microfilm Newsletter*, prepared by Suzanne Hodgman. Twelve working papers had been submitted on the countries highlighted during the conference. The New York Public Library continued to film official gazettes. However, its new list of filming, presented by María Elena Carbona, was recorded in the meetings proceedings as having “created something of a sensation by announcing that the latest unofficial report indicated the termination of the NYPL filming program for lack of sufficient financial support.”¹⁶ But, this
was soon cleared up. The gazette filming program was to be transferred to the NYPL’s Economics Department, under the direction of Joseph Rosenthal. Stanley West reported on a Florida project that was compiling checklists of Latin American official publications. Antonio Matos reported for Enid Baa that the Pilot Bibliographic Center for the Caribbean had experienced trouble enlisting financial support. This meeting also created a new Committee on Library Organization and Personnel, chaired by William V. Jackson. It was through this new committee that issues of SALALM’s organizational framework and legal status were raised.

Jackson’s letter to the Permanent Secretary of September 18, 1964 started the Seminar on the road to incorporation. In it he raised some very simple issues concerning SALALM’s finances and pointed to the tax advantages of incorporation.\(^17\) SALALM, throughout its existence, had been an independent body rather than a corporation. In her reply to Jackson, Marietta raised several issues she felt hindered any change in SALALM’s legal status:

If SALALM were to undertake to become an operating organization, I think it would have to be either affiliated with an organization or institution or seek to become a nonprofit organization. That costs money, requires annual reports to the state under which it is incorporated, requires an annual income tax report, and a dozen other administrative matters.\(^18\)

This exchange of correspondence indicates that Marietta was thinking about incorporation as early as 1964, although another four years would pass before the change came about.

Tenth SALALM

Officially, I became involved in SALALM in 1965 at Wayne State University, Detroit, Michigan, at the tenth SALALM when the Seminar was to evaluate the past activities of SALALM and mark out guidelines for future development. First the guidelines. With Luther Evans, Columbia University, moderating, the Seminar convened a session, “Evaluation of SALALM Findings and Recommendations for Future Action.” Nettie Lee Benson outlined acquisitions accomplishments, citing LACAP as a very important development. Discussion developed several areas in need of further work: (1) improvements in exchange agreements; (2) an annotated list of basic Latin American research materials for college and small university libraries; (3) a checklist of current Latin American periodicals; (4) some sort of clearing house for information on new Latin American periodical titles; and (5) the possibility of financial support out of Title II [of the Higher Education Act] funds.\(^19\) The minutes of this meeting record that “it was
generally agreed that the annual reports on significant new acquisitions and the Microfilm Project Newsletter were useful and should be continued.\textsuperscript{20}

Next in priority was the Official Publications and Photoduplication, reported by Stanley West, in the absence of the chair, Albert Díaz. West reported that “the serial project is still in mid-passage, with extensive checking of holdings being done by various U.S. libraries.”\textsuperscript{21} Speaking on behalf of the Bibliography Committee, Irene Zimmerman, said that she had already done Working Paper no. 9, “Bibliographic Activities of the Seminar: Some Problems and Possible Solutions.” She reiterated the need to continue the major tools in the area, especially the \textit{Handbook of Latin American Studies}, urged an updating of Ronald Hilton’s \textit{Handbook of Hispanic Source Materials}, and the \textit{European Dissertations on the Americas}, and the creation of a regional bibliography of the Caribbean. Last to speak, but not least, was Professor William V. Jackson. He stressed a need, touched on during the afternoon discussion, for a directory of Latin American librarians and/or U.S. specialists in Latin American library matters. Alice Ball suggested and then recommended that a draft resolution be drawn up on U.S. government support of SALALM through the Higher Education Act.

At this Seminar, there was presented a progress report, \textit{Significant New Acquisitions, Report on Bibliographic Activities} and the now annual \textit{Microfilm Projects Newsletter}. My mission was to announce to the assembled group that beginning in January 1966, the Serial Division of the Library of Congress intended to compile and publish a new edition of the \textit{Union List of Latin American Newspapers} with funds provided by the Conference of Latin American History. Howard Cline, in his role as director of the Hispanic Foundation, had suggested my appearance at this meeting and was prepared to back the union list project. During this seminar, I recall talking to heads of several libraries in the corridors.

\textbf{Eleventh SALALM}

There were 112 participants at the eleventh SALALM (July 7-9, 1966), as it returned to New York City, this time at the Columbia University Law School. Dr. Luther H. Evans, a former Librarian of Congress, was host for the university.

There was much news to share. The recently constituted Latin American Studies Association (LASA) was forming its Committee on Scholarly Resources, chaired by Howard Cline. William Welsh, then director of the Library of Congress Processing Department, and Earl
Pariseau, Assistant Director, Hispanic Foundation, both of the Library of Congress, reported their findings from Rio de Janeiro and Buenos Aires and further that LC would establish an acquisitions office in Rio de Janeiro by the end of the year. This was the first Seminar attended by significant numbers of book dealers. And lastly, British colleagues were in attendance for the first time—Bernard Naylor, University of London, and James Thompson, University of Glasgow. SALALM had ceased to be the intimate gathering of North American colleagues and had become an international meeting of diverse interests.

The eleventh SALALM considered: (1) the Permanent Secretary's progress report; (2) Dorothy Keller's Significant New Acquisitions Report, 1965/66; (3) the Microfilm Projects Newsletter; (4) the microfilming of official gazettes at the New York Public Library; and (5) the union list of Latin American newspapers (verbally reported by myself). Stanley West, from the Ad Hoc Committee on Official Publications, reported that the final checking was complete for Brazil, Colombia, and Venezuela.

Dr. Arnulfo Trejo, University of Arizona, raised an issue for the membership to consider in his Working Paper no. 8, "Survey and Proposals Concerning Problems Related to Bibliographical Materials in Support of Latin American Area Studies." Trejo was concerned with the lack of bibliographies for Latin American countries which would tell researchers and librarians what had been published in the past and currently. His proposal was to create a bibliographic center, presumably in the United States, for Latin American studies. No action was taken on this far-reaching idea, but it dominated discussions on July 8, 1966.

Marietta revealed that as Permanent Secretary she had sent letters inviting librarians in Latin America to participate in SALALM. These letters were sent via the Cultural Affairs Officers at each U.S. embassy, and that year invitations went to all U.S. AID missions in Latin America also. She discussed with the SALALM Steering Committee the organizational advantages and disadvantages of incorporating the Seminar, in the end proposing incorporation and the formation of a committee to accomplish it. Finally, participants in the eleventh Seminar were invited to take part in an "Informal Meeting on the Reorganization of Latin American University Libraries," which took place at Columbia on Sunday afternoon, July 9, 1966.

Twelfth SALALM

The twelfth SALALM met in Los Angeles on June 22-24, 1967. Even though the 121 participants at this meeting stretched the limits of
the traditional format of committee meeting and working sessions, the leadership was loath to break with tradition. However, this meeting did look ahead in other areas, establishing that the thirteenth SALALM would devote itself to retrospective collections and that the fourteenth would focus on the acquisition of scientific and technical materials.

The news from the Library of Congress was that an office had been established the previous July (1966) in Rio de Janeiro. In May of 1967 Earl Pariseau had reported to SALALM that a total of 2,405 titles had been acquired since the opening of the Rio office.24 The attendees considered the newly formed LASA Committee on Scholarly Resources, chaired by Howard Cline. This group was to identify out-of-print Latin Americana worthy of reprinting and to approach the Xerox Corporation with a workable plan. The National Acquisition Plan for Latin American Research Materials, which Stanley West had been working on for a number of years, was shelved temporarily “since the reports were being made almost concurrently with the initiation and expansion of Title II. . . .”25 Arnulfo Trejo presented his Working Paper no. 12, “Electronic Information Systems to Advance Latin American Research,” perhaps the first mention of the electronic age now so much upon us. The twelfth Seminar also created a new Ad Hoc Subcommittee on Bibliographic and Information Services on Latin America to make a more thorough study of the proposals Dr. Trejo had presented at the previous Seminar.

The attendees received Marietta’s traditional Progress Report, Jane Garner’s Significant Acquisitions of Latin American Material by U.S. Libraries 1966/67, a Microfilm Projects Newsletter, compiled by Suzanne Hodgman, a report on the microfilming of official gazettes in the New York Public Library by Joseph Rosenthal, and my report on the Latin American newspaper project. A record thirty working papers were presented in Los Angeles. Irene Zimmerman asked to leave the Committee on Bibliography with this Seminar, and Glenn F. Read, Cornell University, was appointed her replacement. Obviously, the older members of SALALM were retiring and a new generation was about to take over.

Sometime in 1967, Marietta decided to incorporate SALALM and asked Peter de la Garza to investigate the procedure. In late December, the Columbus Memorial Library called me, and I agreed with the incorporation. The legal documents are dated January 3, 1968, and are signed by Peter, Marietta, and me.
The most significant single action taken at the thirteenth Seminar occurred on Thursday evening, June 20, 1968, when a constitutional assembly was convened and adopted a constitution and bylaws that would henceforth provide for a permanent organization. Since the first meeting at Chinsegut Hill, SALALM had existed as an informal cooperative association, with Marietta Daniels Shepard serving as Permanent Secretary since 1957. At its eleventh meeting in New York, SALALM participants decided, with some misgivings, that the informal association should be transformed into a formal body. An ad hoc committee on the incorporation of SALALM was then appointed, consisting of Nettie Lee Benson, Luther H. Evans, Stanley West, and Peter de la Garza.

Carl Deal of the University of Illinois presided over the assembly. After summary discussion, the proposed constitution and bylaws were unanimously adopted. The members then elected their first officers and executive board:

President: Dr. A. Curtis Wilgus, University of Miami
Vice President/President-Elect: Carl Deal, University of Illinois Libraries
Executive Board:
   Alma Jordan, University of the West Indies, 1968-1969
   Gilberto Fort, University of Kansas, 1968-1971

The terms of office for members of the Executive Board were decided by drawing lots. Following the adjournment of the session, the newly elected officers met and promptly appointed Marietta as Executive Secretary and Albert J. Díaz, of Microcard Editions, as Secretary-Treasurer.

The next day Dr. Wilgus reported to the Seminar, announcing the formation of the following committees: Policy and Research, Alice Ball as chair; Constitution and Bylaws, Guillermo Fort as chair; Editorial Board, Don Wisdom as chair. Dues were set at $5.00 for individuals and $10.00 for institutions.

The thirteenth SALALM had more new developments beyond its reorganization. The first session was devoted to progress reports on acquisitions, photoduplication programs, and official publications. Efforts of libraries to build their Latin American collections were

John Veenstra, Assistant Director of the University of Florida Libraries, reported on his institution's project to compile lists of holdings of official serial publications of Latin American countries. The first compilation, of Colombian official publications, was as of this date in press at University Microfilms and was to be published in an edition of 750 copies. Subsequent compilations of Brazilian and Cuban official serial materials were expected to be ready for publication in late 1968.

Bibliographical developments were the principal topics of the second session on Friday morning, June 21. Glenn Read, Chairman of the Committee on Bibliography, briefly reviewed the activities of the committee. Herman H. Cline, of City College of the City University of New York, presented the annual *Report of Bibliographic Activities, 1966-1968*. I reported on the author index to the *Handbook of Latin American Studies*, nos. 1-28 (1936-1966) and the impending publication of *Latin American Newspapers in Selected U.S. Libraries: A Union List.*

Current developments concerning Cuban exile publications were summarized by Rosa M. Abella of the University of Miami Library. Gilberto Fort described his forthcoming bibliography, *Fidel Castro's Revolution from the Outside: An Annotated Bibliography*, being prepared for publication by the University of Kansas Libraries.

The third session of the Seminar met on Saturday morning, June 22, for a panel discussion on the collection of retrospective materials. Robert Nunley of the University of Kansas, a contributing editor to the *Handbook of Latin American Studies*, presided as moderator for the program. Participants in the panel included Nettie Lee Benson, Mrs. Cohen, Mr. Rosenthal, and Juanita Doares, all of the New York Public Library, and me.

The total number of participants at the thirteenth Seminar was 115, which is a credit to the University of Kansas.

**Fourteenth SALALM**

The fourteenth SALALM was hosted by the Caribbean Economic Development Corporation (CODECA) on June 17-20, 1968, at the Condado Beach Hotel in San Juan, Puerto Rico. My wife, son, and I arrived two days early in order to attend to business with an official of
the Puerto Rican government. When that business was put off, I found that, at the Condado Beach Hotel, where we were staying, a meeting was in progress which proposed to found a Caribbean association of librarians. I was drawn in for consultation. On June 16th, the Association of Caribbean University and Research Libraries (ACURIL) was founded and the following officers elected: Dr. Alma Jordan, President; Dr. Albertina Pérez de Rosa, Vice President; and Srta. Luisa Vigo Cepeda, Secretary/Treasurer.30 Later I learned that there were fifty delegates at this initial meeting and the work of SALALM over the years had been the stimulus for this new group.

On June 18, the Seminar was officially opened with Dr. A. Curtis Wilgus presiding and 154 participants attending. Minutes of the opening session record “Mrs. Marietta Daniels Shepard expressed gratitude to the University of Puerto Rico and the CODECA personnel for all the work they, as members of the host institutions, have extended to SALALM XIV. She expressed her pleasure at seeing such a large gathering of both veteran SALALM participants and novices, and commented on the increased length of the Progress Report, caused by the growing interest in the Latin American field.”31 In fact, she was ecstatic since this was the first time SALALM had met outside the continental United States.

This conference was in disarray, as far as I was concerned. There was too much happening at once, and there were some things left out. The schedule had meetings morning, noon, and night with several groups at the same time. When meetings ran over time (as they often did), the next meetings were affected. Presumably a visit should have been planned to the sponsoring institution, and there was none. There was a report on the Advisory Committee to LACAP, but, since the survey upon which the report was based had been answered by only 60 percent of the participating libraries, all conclusions were subject to doubt. Jane Garner reported on Significant Acquisitions of Latin American Materials in U.S. Libraries, 1968/69. Dominick Coppola, President of Stechert-Hafner, Inc., and the person responsible for LACAP, expressed an interest in extending the program into the Caribbean area. John Veenstra reported on the Latin American Serial Documents project, announcing that it was “progressing slower than anticipated, but will move faster now that Mrs. Rosa Mesa has completed her year of travel to obtain more documents from Latin America. . . .”32 There were reports from the Microfilming Projects Newsletter and the New York Public Library’s filming of official gazettes.
Glen Read introduced the “Annual Report on Bibliographic Activities,” with the information that this year’s compilation should be credited to Herman Cline, and the next year’s report would be prepared by Daniel Raposo Cordeiro, of Morgan Guaranty Trust Company. According to Mr. Cline the information on Europe in the 1969 report was of special importance. Dr. Irene Zimmerman reported some findings from her recent trip to South America in connection with her study, “State of the Art Studies on Latin American Bibliography and Publishing.” Mr. Masao Kosaka, of the Institute of Developing Economies in Tokyo, Japan, a newcomer to SALALM, described his contacts with various organizations in his homeland.

A new field of acquisition, the “Collection of Latin American Materials in Science and Technology,” was discussed at a panel put together by James Andrew of the Argonne National Laboratory. Previous SALALMs had limited their focus to the humanities and social sciences, but participants found this panel, especially its examination of Latin American agricultural materials, stimulating.

As an organizational matter, SALALM considered that “the value of meeting outside the continental United States was so keenly felt by those attending SALALM XIV in Puerto Rico that it was resolved that consideration be given in the future to alternating meetings between the United States and Latin America.”

The fourteenth Seminar was concluded with the adoption of 99 resolutions (as they came off the copy machine). The resolutions praised the hospitality of Latin America and encouraged its library development. This was Marietta’s finest hour and marked the peak of her influence in SALALM. The Seminar elected Nettie Lee Benson as Vice President/President-elect and Robert K. Johnson and Alma Jordan as new Executive Board members.

Fifteenth SALALM

The fifteenth SALALM was better organized than its predecessor with Carl Deal directing the planning effort. Again the meeting took place outside the United States, this time in Toronto, June 23-26, 1970, with the University of Toronto as sponsor. Mr. Michael Rosenstock, who chaired the local arrangements, introduced Dr. R. H. Blackburn, Chief Librarian of the University of Toronto, who welcomed the 146 participants in SALALM XV. Rosenstock then presented Professor Kurt Levy of the Department of Italian and Spanish Studies at the University of Toronto and Chairman of the Canadian Association of Latin American Studies who welcomed the attendees and “suggested the mutual ignorance of Canada and Latin America toward one another
might be changed and substituted for one of intelligence both in politics and in the acquisition of Latin American materials, in which he considered Canadian libraries underdeveloped."35

David Zubatsky chaired the session dealing with acquisitions matters detailed in the meeting’s Progress Report. Dominick Coppola reported on LACAP, citing 1969-1970 acquisitions figures (some 5,000 titles) and indicated that the Rio de Janeiro office of the project was temporarily closed, but that service from Brazil would continue. He also indicated that the “return of books from libraries continues to be a problem, but is not as serious as it was and the inventory of books that has accumulated over the past decade is now available at advantageous terms.”36 Coppola’s presentation marked the first public awareness that there was a problem with LACAP.

I announced that permission had been granted to film O Estado de São Paulo for the period 1874-1939, a quarter of a million pages. There were already ten libraries committed to buy the resulting positive copies. Subsequent to 1939, the Library of Congress and the Center for Research Libraries would share responsibility for bringing filming to the current date. I considered this a breakthrough in the preservation of Latin American newspapers.

Organizationally, Marietta announced that her Progress Report would be issued before future meetings, and, to aid the Secretariat in this preparation, an ad hoc advisory committee was formed. This was one of many reforms adopted by SALALM at this meeting. With further reform in view, “Alice Ball reported that the Committee on Committees hoped to have committee structure and responsibility outlined and defined in a form acceptable to the Executive Board by Mid-Winter 1971. As her committee was also responsible for resolutions, she requested that members submit resolutions for the Seminar in writing to her or to Mrs. Shepard before 9:00 P.M. on June 24.”37

President-elect Nettie Lee Benson announced that SALALM would be held in Puebla, Mexico, June 14-17, 1970, hosted by the Asociación Mexicana de Bibliotecarios and the University of the Americas. Ario Garza Mercado would chair local arrangements, assisted by Elvira and Elsa Barberena. The topic of the meeting would be “Mexican Libraries and Acquisitions Problems.” It was also announced that SALALM XVII would be held in Amherst, Massachusetts, June 13-16, 1972, with the topic, “Training of Librarians.”

In the election, for which ballots had been distributed in April, Glen Read was elected Vice President/President-elect and Michael Rosenstock and Rosa Abella were elected to the Executive Board.38
Mr. Read, chair of the Committee on Bibliography, introduced his committee members, noting that they came from the United States, Latin America, the Caribbean, England, Australia, and Japan. SALALM had become truly international by this time. Next came the Report on Bibliographic Activities, presented by Daniel Cordeiro. At this point, "Edgar Córdoba suggested from the floor that a newsletter be published to supplement SALALM meetings and working papers, and keep participants up-to-date. Mr. Read pointed out that the problem of gathering the information is a large one." Following this meeting, David Zubatsky, issued a Newsletter which became a regular part of SALALM communications.

Marietta asked about the future of the Caribbean Regional Library, which was on unsure financial footing. SALALM had been supporting a Caribbean regional center headed at CODECA for a number of years. Mr. Joseph J. Breen, who was serving as a consultant to the Caribbean Library, replied that the responsibility of the Puerto Rican government for the Caribbean Regional Library was being recognized and that the library would be connected with CODECA for another two years. After government support ceased, this library would fall into oblivion.

Mr. Read mentioned that interest in Latin America was growing in both the Soviet Union and in Asian countries and that publications in those countries reflected this increased interest. This prompted Emma Simonson, Indiana University, to comment. She had spent three months in the Soviet Union investigating Latin American collections and had also checked collections in Poland, East Germany, and Czechoslovakia. She offered "the collections are very good in Moscow, and they are well cataloged and well serviced. The Institute of Latin American Studies has been collecting for nine years but the collection is uneven and does not give a true picture of Latin America."

Marietta, speaking of the Library Development Program in Cultural Affairs, indicated some problems with the Organization of American States in terms of the budget adopted and suggested SALALM write the U.S. delegation at OAS. The Library Development Program was consuming a larger and larger part of Marietta's time.

A panel discussion at this Seminar considered "The Collection of Latin American Material for Legal Studies and Social Science Research." Five participants presented Working Papers.

At long last, there was a visit to the host institution, the University of Toronto Library. Ever since then such visits have been a regular practice at Seminars. The conclusion of SALALM XV was the adoption of fifty resolutions in support of programs.
At this point my position at the Library of Congress changed. In July 1966, I reported to Dr. Howard F. Cline in the Hispanic Foundation, as Assistant Director. Dr. Cline was very kind to me, filling me in on all that happened with the Hispanic Foundation during his tenure there, 1952-1970. In 1970 I transferred back to my first area of work, the Serial Division, as Assistant Chief, with the understanding that my interest and activity in SALALM could continue. Cordial relations continued with Dr. Cline until his death. On that day, Earl Pariseau and Donald Stewart, the new editor of the *Handbook of Latin American Studies*, were heading for SALALM XVI.

### Sixteenth SALALM

Puebla, Mexico, was the site of the sixteenth Seminar on June 14-17, 1971, with Dr. Nettie Lee Benson presiding. After calling the meeting to order, she expressed SALALM's appreciation to the Asociación Mexicana de Bibliotecarios, A.C. (AMBAC) and to the Universidad de las Américas for carrying out the hosts' responsibilities. After the dignitaries were introduced, Marietta apologized to the members with the well-remembered explanation that "because of the increase in the OAS programs without an increase in personnel, it had not been possible to complete the *Progress Report* but that she hoped to finish it before the end of the meeting." She did.

The Committee on Acquisitions was first to present its report, with David Zubatsky introducing the seven book dealers present. Jane Garner had produced Working Paper A-2, "Significant Acquisitions of Latin American Materials in U.S. Libraries. Decennial Cumulation 1961/62-1970/71." She proposed a resolution for wider distribution of the publication. Also she announced that Peter Johnson would succeed her as subcommittee chair. Then I, as Chairman of the Advisory Committee to LACAP, reported first on a trip to New York to look at operations there. In agreement with Dominick Coppola, a meeting of major LACAP participants had been called for SALALM's previous midwinter meeting at Tucson. Mr. Coppola went over the procedures observing that "certain numbers of returns from libraries are due to either faculty purchase agreements, exchanges, [or] changes of interest. These create an inventory problem and cost Stechert-Hafner money." Daniel Cordeiro of Syracuse, though invited, had missed the Tucson meeting and requested time to examine these problems at Puebla. He observed that in its ten years of existence LACAP had attempted to meet every need, which had led to problems for both libraries and the company. He went on to request a list of Stechert's agents and publishers. Mr. Coppola considered it unwise to
respond directly to Cordeiro. The company was being absorbed into Crowell, Collier, Macmillan at that time. To conclude matters I welcomed other comments and suggestions from the participants.

As Dr. Benson had indicated, a special session was called, “Latin American Libraries with Emphasis on those of Mexico,” during which eight papers were presented and commented on by Mexican participants. Immediately following, Marietta Shepard invited all Latin American attendees to meet with SALALM’s Executive Board and the representatives of UNESCO and the OAS to study the information needs of the region and how international participation could help. The only speakers at this special meeting were Carlos Victor Penna who explained the UNESCO program he headed and Marietta who described the OAS programs. However, discussion proved lively, and all agreed with the proposal that information on SALALM and other international library programs be distributed widely.

The Seminar continued, introducing bibliographic themes. Dan Cordeiro announced that the new chair of the Subcommittee of Reporting Bibliographic Activities was Haydée Piedracueva from Columbia and vice chair, Jesús Leyte-Vidal of Duke. The Annual Report on Bibliographic Activities for 1972 was prepared by Gayle H. Watson. Rosa Abella and her assistants had compiled an index to the first fifteen volumes of the Progress Reports. Earl Pariseau reported from the Library of Congress that the Handbook of Latin American Studies was in its 33d volume, that a second edition of the National Directory of Latin Americanists, containing some 2,700 short biographies, was about to go to press, and that the major bibliography, Latin America: Guide to Historical Literature, was in press at the University of Texas.

Other bibliographical items included the announcement that copies of Cuban Acquisitions and Bibliography, a report sponsored by the Library of Congress ( Cuban nationals declined the library’s invitation to attend), could be obtained from the Hispanic Foundation. There was a report by Bernard Naylor on activities in the United Kingdom. Bibliographic activities seemed to be sprouting all over the place.

This Seminar continued the reorganization of SALALM, this time examining the duties of the Permanent Secretary. Mayellen Bresie reported from the Advisory Committee that her group had accepted part of the responsibility for preparing the annual Progress Report. She also “recommended that the Budget Committee seek funds for a permanent secretariat employee. . . .” and announced that her Committee would begin to explore some possible sources of funding.
Marietta reported that Trinidad had invited SALALM to meet there in 1973. The Executive Board accepted the invitation, and the members endorsed Carlos Victor Penna's suggestion that library planning be the theme of the meeting. I gave Albert Díaz treasurer's report.

The meeting ended with the distribution of sixty resolutions and with a moment of silence to mark Howard Cline's death. I thanked the Seminar on behalf of the Library of Congress.

**Midwinter SALALM 1972**

Reform, reform, reform were the bywords for the January 21-22, 1972, session held at the Palmer House, Chicago, Illinois. Approximately twenty-five members took part in these discussions. Lacking minutes, Jane Garner reconstructed a report from tapes and notes for the general session and the meeting of the Executive Board.

Glen Read, President of SALALM for 1971-72, announced that, following the traditional opening, SALALM XVII would depart past practice by utilizing workshops and discussion groups. He also announced that David Zubatsky and Daniel Cordeiro were working on the program and had already prepared a tentative list of topics for the workshops and panels.

There was a debate on extending the annual conference to a full five days, beginning Monday, June twelfth. I agreed with Dr. Benson that this was too long for most participants. A revised schedule proposed four days, June 11-14, and was adopted. To his credit, Read had seen the need for reform and pushed it as much as possible, making room for new people and issues.

Discussed next was the Ball Report, named for Alice Ball, and entitled "Responsibilities of Committees and Subcommittees." By this time, President Read had joined the committee composed of Alma Jordan and Gilberto Fort. After a lively debate, members concluded that (1) no member should serve on more than two committees simultaneously or chair more than one committee at a time; (2) chairs of subcommittees would be members of the parent committee; (3) all committee members would be appointed by the Vice President with approval of the Executive Board; and (4) members would be appointed at their own request or at the request of the committee chair. I don't recall any of the members of the Executive Board having objections to serving on a committee. SALALM has been blessed by the level of its committee participation. Over the years, more than half of the members annually hold committee assignments.
Normally, elections were held in the spring and announced at the annual Seminar; however, this year the elections took place in the fall and were announced at Midwinter. I was elected Vice President/President-elect, and Margarita Anderson-Imbert and David Zubatsky were elected to the Executive Board as members-at-large.

SALALM resolved to produce a newsletter similar to Inter American Library Relations. The present newsletter is quite different from that envisioned in this resolution.

As chair of the Advisory Committee to LACAP, I introduced Mrs. Eleanor Vreeland, marketing director for Stechert-Hafnner. Her announcement that Crowell, Collier, Macmillan had acquired the company in July 1969, explained Dominick Coppola's reluctance to reply to Daniel Cordeiro's questioning about LACAP at the Puebla SALALM. Vreeland also reported that LACAP member profiles were being reviewed and their price scales restructured.  

Marietta Daniels reported that Mayellen Bresie, chair of the Advisory Committee to the Secretariat planned to be in Washington around March 21 for consultations. A proposal for restructuring the Progress Report had been discussed previously and was still being worked over.

On January 3, 1972, Marietta had written a memorandum recommending the removal of the SALALM Secretariat from the OAS to a university-based headquarters, namely the University of Arizona. Robert Johnson, Librarian at the University of Arizona, was attracted by the offer, but, without information on the advantages to be gained and the anticipated costs, he could not speak for the university administration's response to the idea. Marietta estimated that the operational costs would be less than $10,000 per year if student assistants were utilized.

Inasmuch as SALALM was recently incorporated and had a functioning Executive Board, I do not believe Marietta had the power, legally or ethically, to make such a proposal. It was at her initiative and encouragement that the Seminar had incorporated, and now, with only a memo, she sought to change the sponsoring institution from the OAS to a university. However, SALALM was no longer under Marietta's complete control, and this proposal went no further than a committee study in Chicago. The members saw that eventually SALALM would need to change its relationship with the OAS. For instance, the SALALM Secretariat was tied to the OAS Development Program, a body with a clear political agenda. However, this was not to be the time. Dr. Trejo declined to serve as Executive Secretary, and Dr. Johnson was thus compelled to decline receiving the Secretariat.
Eventually the Secretariat would move to the University of Massachusetts, but that is another story.

One final matter awaited resolution, and this had to do with the University of the West Indies' offer to cohost a subsequent SALALM in April of 1973. It was agreed to pay the expenses of the local coordinator for this meeting to attend the next SALALM in Amherst.⁴⁹

Seventeenth SALALM

President Glen Read was true to his promise. The seventeenth SALALM was an innovative conference. With 153 people in attendance, there were eight workshops, three discussion groups, two cocktail parties, one banquet, one slide presentation, and two films. There was a report on the Midwinter Executive Board meetings and a business meeting. Read did not do it all, for he was aided by the committee chairs and other members of the organization, but the seventeenth Seminar at Amherst accomplished as much business as could be done in one four-day meeting.

The draft of Committee Regulations was submitted for the Final Report and Working Papers by Alma Jordan. Mayellen Bresie submitted her report from the Advisory Committee to the Secretariat concerning the Progress Report, dated 1972, which included only items from the Organization of American States program.

The theme panel, “Education and Training of Librarians for Area Collections, was moderated by William V. Jackson. Authors of the seven working papers summarized their work in five minute presentations. A lively debate ensued with Beverly Brewster maintaining that library skills were not a priority and Dr. Benson, Daniel Cordeiro, and Gilberto Fort defending the need for library training. The most popular workshop was “Selection and Acquisition of Spanish and Portuguese Language Materials for School and Public Libraries.”⁵⁰

Eleanor Vreeland, Marketing Director of Stechert-Hafner, presented a report emphasizing the company’s continuing commitment to LACAP. Mrs. Vreeland disclosed her plans for a trip to Latin America in the near future.⁵¹

One of my concerns at this meeting was to introduce the Chief of the Order Division of the Library of Congress, Robert C. Sullivan, to the participants. In addition to the responsibilities of the Vice President/President-elect, I had been asked to chair at least one Executive Board meeting, and to gather information for the Basic List of Latin American Materials (BALLAM) for later use. In the elections, Rosa Q. Mesa, of the University of Florida, was elected Vice President/
President-elect and Marjorie LeDoux and Barbara Stein were elected members-at-large to the Executive Board.

Nettie Lee Benson announced that Austin, Texas, would be the site of the 1974 Seminar, and I announced that the Trinidad meeting would be held April 29 through May 4, 1973. Irma Hannays, Librarian at the Trinidad and Tobago Industrial Development Cooperation Library, would be the local coordinator for the Trinidad meeting. As the best portent for the future meeting, she was working beside Dr. Pauline P. Collins, the local coordinator for the Amherst conference.

From my perspective, the Secretariat should leave the OAS. As Vice President, I had alerted the Executive Board of my long-standing concern for the relocation of the Secretariat. On June 11, the Board resolved to form a blue-ribbon committee to review the situation. I explained that relocation was necessary because the workload of the Executive Secretary had reached the point that the incumbent could not adequately deal with SALALM’s without sufficient staff support. The blue ribbon committee was to consist of: Emma Simonson (chair), Lee Williams, and Peter Johnson. Into their hands we commended relocation.

Stechert-Hafner and the Nicaraguan Earthquake

There were two important problems during my presidency that had to be dealt with. First, Stechert-Hafner gave up on LACAP by December, 1972, and it became necessary to make acquisitions arrangements with individual booksellers in Latin America. The second matter was the December 23, 1972, earthquake in Managua, Nicaragua. This later event required some diplomatic maneuvering.

During the week of September 25, 1972, Stechert-Hafner had reached a decision to abandon LACAP. A meeting was set for October 5 between Eleanor Vreeland of the program and representatives from the Library of Congress, including Robert Sullivan, Earl Pariseau, and myself. Mrs. Vreeland outlined her company’s problems which included the high cost of acquisitions, dealer relationships, budget cuts, and high book return from the participating libraries. I suggested immediate and personal contact with the twelve major libraries to delineate our problems and to look for some common ground. Vreeland’s notes record that LC representatives were shocked.

“Mr. Sullivan was rather angry about the fact that at the SALALM meeting in June 1972, I presented to the group a picture of CCM’s [Crowell, Collier, Macmillan] continued support for the program.”
Next, the SALALM Advisory Committee of LACAP met with the Stechert-Hafner staff. Meeting notes relate that “at this meeting, Stechert-Hafner outlined its areas of concern: declining sales, projected sales, high rate of returns from libraries (20% over the past three years), projected costs necessary to operate the program correctly.”

Kenneth Clinchy, President of Stechert-Hafner, was present at this meeting. As a telling reminder of his approach, Clinchy kept a calculator at his side. When librarians asked questions about the program, he used the machine to crank out answers based on the bottom line. The decision reached at this meeting was to send out another questionnaire asking pertinent questions about the libraries' budgets and why “some customers have chosen to buy . . . publications directly from Latin America either partially, or in total, rather than through LACAP.”

The first week of December, 1972, Stechert-Hafner made their decision, based on Vreeland's evaluation of the questionnaires, to cancel the LACAP program with final delivery of material scheduled for March 1973. At the Executive Board meeting of January 28, 1973, I reported this final decision to the library participants. It was my opinion that the only course of action was to work out individual arrangements with Latin American book dealers. From discussions held at this meeting, it was decided to invite all the dealers possible to the Trinidad meeting and to sponsor a special coffee hour for them.

In the wake of the Nicaraguan earthquake, Marietta Shepard organized an ad hoc session for January 27, 1973, to discuss possible responses by SALALM to the catastrophe. Shepard had already received two reports on the damage to Nicaraguan libraries, the Biblioteca Nacional in downtown Managua being the hardest hit. The earthquake was also discussed at the Executive Board meeting of January 28. A resolution adopted called for SALALM to look into both personnel and material assistance. Earl Pariseau chaired the Nicaraguan Task Force with Dorcas Worley and Majorie LeDoux as members. Marietta, who had decided to keep a watch on the proceeding, had Marte Tomé appointed ex-officio.

In February 1973, Marietta spent two days in Managua. While there she interviewed the Peace Corps Director and representatives of university libraries. “She noted that the most urgent need was personnel; however, the Peace Corps Director was hopeful of being able to train staff for operating the libraries.” Thereafter the Nicaraguan assistance project became an OAS project. In 1974, Edward Heiliger, of the School of Library Science at Kent State University, took a group of students to Managua. His report suggested
the Special Libraries Association or Medical Libraries Association as the most appropriate channel for library recovery, thus ending SALALM’s involvement in earthquake relief.\footnote{57}

**Eighteenth SALALM**

The Trinidad meeting of SALALM was unique. Everyone was met at the airport by local staffers and driven in private cars to the “Upside Down Hilton” which overlooks Port-of-Spain. (The entrance is on the first floor at the TOP of the hill, and subsequent floors lie below the first.) Jane Garner observed that, although some participants were delayed overnight in Jamaica and some luggage arrived two days late, the travelers’ tragedies were virtually buried under the avalanche of warm hospitality extended to participants by the host and hostess of the eighteenth Seminar.\footnote{58} The 227 delegates came from 16 countries, with 76 from the United States. On April 30, they were treated to a tour of the University of the West Indies, followed by a reception with steel band music and island food specialties. The next evening, the participants, in small groups, were treated to the evening meal and entertainment in private homes. In addition, Marietta and I were invited to be guests on Trinidad TV. Further, there was a reception by the Trinidad Minister of Education. A follow-up article focused on the conference themes and what SALALM had accomplished to date. Jane Garner was right. We had a joyful time in Trinidad thanks to the Library Association of Trinidad and Tobago and the University of the West Indies.

The theme of the conference was “National, Regional, and International Planning for Library Services in Latin America.” Notwithstanding the theme, many more important things were happening. First, the Secretariat needed to be moved from the OAS offices. Next, the relationship with the bookdealers had to be redefined with the demise of LACAP. Then, Dr. Eric Williams, Prime Minister of Trinidad and Tobago, became the first head of state to address SALALM. And further, Dr. Oleg Mikhailov, Director of the Department of Documentation of UNESCO libraries and archives, approached SALALM with two proposals.

In meetings with SALALM officers, Dr. Mikhailov suggested, first, a workshop on Spanish-language materials for children and young adults, and, second, a comprehensive guide to Latin American libraries, national, public, and school. The second project was never funded by UNESCO and ended in proposal stage. However, the workshop suggestion was developed into the “Symposium on Spanish Language Materials for Children and Young Adults” for SALALM XIX in
Austin, Texas in 1974. Mikhailov indicated that UNESCO might be able to make a subvention of $5,000 to pay travel costs of individuals from Latin America. With this funding, Central Americans were invited to SALALM XIX.

At the Executive Board meeting of April 29, Mikhailov spoke concerning his projects. Irma Hannays, the local coordinator, was warmly commended for the fine job she had done. The Board heard reports from the Executive Secretary, Treasurer, and Rapporteur General. After these matters, the Board addressed the report of the blue ribbon committee on the Relocation of the Secretariat. Emma Simonson reported that 412 letters about the relocation had been sent out. From the several institutions submitting proposals, the University of Massachusetts was selected by the Committee as the recommended site. Instead of an outright cash subsidy to SALALM, the University of Massachusetts offered to release Pauline Collins half-time to serve as Executive Secretary and to provide necessary clerical help and office space.

Maria moved that the report and recommendations of the committee be accepted, that the recommendation be discussed at the SALALM business session, and, further, that a mail ballot be conducted in May. The ballot proposal was perhaps a reaction to her failed attempt to transfer the Secretariat to Arizona. Maria was graciously accepting the fact that the Secretariat would be moved. Glen Read proposed that “to facilitate discussion and voting, the motion was [i.e., be] divided.” Albert Díaz seconded the motion, but pointed out that there would be no need for a ballot because the location of the Secretariat was within the province of the Executive Board and, hence, did not require a decision from the general membership. The motion requiring a general membership ballot was defeated unanimously. Then the following motions were passed: (1) that a committee composed of the Treasurer and the chairs of the Membership Committee and Editorial Board be appointed to revise the dues and fees; (2) that the Committee on the Budget be instructed to prepare a budget; (3) that the Treasurer be authorized to pay the moving expenses of the records, etc., to the new Secretariat location.

Read moved that a committee to revise the dues and fees be created. Although Díaz seconded this motion, he proposed an amendment that the group be named the Committee on Dues and Fees with the phrase “to revise” deleted from its charge. This would leave the committee free to decide precisely what actions needed to be taken. After some discussions regarding budgetary needs and procedures, Díaz moved that “$1,000 from SALALM’s treasury be authorized for
miscellaneous expenditures of the Secretariat for moving the Secretariat from Washington, D.C. to Amherst, Massachusetts and for possible trips to Washington, D.C. and 1974 Midwinter meeting in Chicago. Seconded by Glen Read, the motion carried unanimously." Finally, Marietta moved that Dr. Pauline Collins be named new Executive Secretary, effective July 1, 1973. This motion also carried unanimously. The changing of the guard was done and done in the best of spirits.

The Executive Board session on April 29 still had business to conclude after the matter of the SALALM Secretariat move. Also, this was when I announced that LACAP was dead and that an important meeting with the bookdealers was scheduled for May first. Peter Johnson, reporting for David Zubatsky, announced that his committee recommended dropping the Annual Report on Significant Acquisitions, a document prepared for over a decade but now producing limited responses from members. Marietta announced that SALALM had received a Tinker grant for the publication of Curtis Wilgus's bibliography of nineteenth century travel accounts.

The Executive Board met for a buffet luncheon with the only business item being a review of the upcoming opening session. As President for this Seminar, I explained the preparations required because the Right Honorable Eric Williams would be the special guest.

The first general session of the eighteenth Seminar was opened at 2:15 in the ballroom of the Trinidad Hilton Hotel. I introduced Ursula Raymond, President of the Library Association of Trinidad and Tobago, who on behalf of the Association, welcomed the participants and distinguished guests, particularly Prime Minister Williams.

In his fifteen-minute address, the Prime Minister emphasized that more translations of basic materials were needed, that reprints of out-of-print classics should be published, and that in the area of social science studies, a greater collaboration was needed between governments involved in the studies.

He concluded his remarks with the promise that the visitors to Trinidad and Tobago will enjoy their stay here with us in the Caribbean and will take very pleasant memories of what perhaps is one of the smallest—one of the mini-states of Latin America, but, if I may say, on behalf of my constituents, not by any means the least important. The general session was adjourned after Dr. Williams's address. During the following reception hosted by Dr. Williams, Marietta Daniels, four prominent librarians from Trinidad and Tobago, and I had the opportunity for individual time with the Prime Minister.

The next general session item was my report that the Secretariat was scheduled to move from its location at the Organization of
American States to the University of Massachusetts at Amherst. I commended Marietta for her eighteen years of service as Permanent and then Executive Secretary. There was an immediate standing ovation. (See Resolution no. 1 of the conference, which is related to Marietta’s work.)

The next thing I knew we were into the Executive Board session. Al Diaz gave the Treasurer’s report. Marietta noted that several people present at the first Seminar in 1956 were also in Trinidad. Among them were: Alice Ball, Nettie Lee Benson, Emma C. Simonson, A. Curtis Wilgus, and Irene Zimmerman. She went on to recount SALALM’s historical development and its long-standing interest in the Caribbean. After many other reports came the Nominating Committee Report by Glen Read, for chair Mary Brady. Emma Simonson was voted Vice President/President-elect, and Jane Garner and Earl Pariseau were selected new Members-at-Large to the Executive Board.

The next day’s theme panels included a session on library planning in Latin America, moderated by Alma Jordan; Carlos Victor Penna’s paper, “Planeamiento de los Servicios Bibliotecarios y de Información en América Latina y el Caribe” (read by William V. Jackson); and Dr. Dorothy Collings’s presentation “Library Education in the English-speaking Caribbean.” Other speakers covered South America: Dr. Juan Freudenthal on Chile, Werner Guttentag on Bolivia, and Hans Gravenjorst on bibliographic developments in Argentina, a paper read by Irene Zimmerman.

This Seminar gave special attention to Latin American vendors. Booksellers were invited to a coffee on May 1 and two presentations on acquisitions themes. A periodicals subscriptions panel, moderated by Carl Deal, featured Robert C. Sullivan, Chief of the LC Order Division, who described the Latin American bookdealer survey conducted by the Library. LC had compiled an initial list of approximately 180 dealers located in Latin America. Using this list, a form letter had been sent out asking each dealer about his/her: level of coverage, ability to handle blanket orders, ability to handle subscriptions, and about other pertinent library services. Based on returns of this questionnaire and upon queries received from additional lists of vendors secured from Cornell, Yale, Florida, NYPL, and Washington University, Order Division staff compiled a list of recommended book sellers for the region.

Sullivan also reported that Max Gnehm, of the Richard Abel Company, had visited the Library of Congress to explain the international services offered by his firm and to describe its expansion into Latin America. Gnehm would make a presentation to SALALM later
in the day in which he presented Able's proposed Latin American services to the entire membership. Sullivan concluded his presentation noting that the Library was pleased with the information that it had gathered and confident that it would serve as the basis for sound decisions.65

Professor A. William Bork was then introduced to describe the organization of LACOBA, a cooperative book acquisition program. He related, "the purpose of LACOBA, the new cooperative, then, is to act as a central receiving, distributing and billing point which through blanket orders or individual purchase orders from libraries and scholars will distribute the Latin American library materials which it obtains at the lowest possible price, that is, on a cost-plus basis."66 This all sounded like a replay of LACAP. Clear from that program's history, Latin American booksellers had seen their way to direct involvement in the U.S. market, and no consortium of library customers would likely offer a more cost effective system than acquisitions from the vendors themselves.

Discussion of the presentations centered on points raised in my letter announcing the panel: How may SALALM strengthen the book-dealer services in the area? Should SALALM advocate cooperative acquisition programs through bookdealers in each country or on an areawide basis? What is the availability of bibliographic data on current imprints from Latin America? There were many questions to be asked. Deal asked what the future response of the Library of Congress would be concerning the cataloging of Latin American material, since LACAP had included a priority cataloging component. Sullivan responded that the priority of Latin American cataloging would undoubtedly suffer and added that delivery would slow with the disappearance of LACAP's airmail service. Harvey Johnson of the University of Houston asked the panelists what level of commitment their programs would require of participating libraries. Bork replied that LACOBA, like LACAP, would likely require a specific financial commitment while Gnehm denied any such commitment would be necessary with Abel. The resulting discussion of the state of library book budgets should have signaled to the vendors that commitments were not a popular policy. After many more questions, Deal closed the session.

With only one more day to the conference, I announced the members to constitute the Advisory Subcommittee for the Center for Research Libraries. This subcommittee had been created at SALALM XVII, but not constituted until the Trinidad meeting. Carl Deal was to chair along with Larry Lauerhass of UCLA and Barbara Stein of
Princeton. This subcommittee led to the establishment of the Latin American Microform Project (LAMP) at the Center.

Copies of the draft resolutions were handed out to participants. Curtis Wilgus moved that resolutions be adopted subject to editorial revision. With this proviso, the resolutions were adopted. I announced the Executive Board’s selection of Bogotá, Colombia, as the site of the 1975 meeting and then introduced the incoming President, Rosa Q. Mesa of the University of Florida. Nettie Lee Benson announced that SALALM XIX would be at the University of Texas at Austin, April 23-26, 1974, and that they would do the best they could for the delegates. Mind you, this comment was made in light of the Trinidadian hospitality that had been lavished on delegates to the eighteenth Seminar. Finally, Irma Hannays received commendation and a standing ovation for her work as local coordinator for the meetings.

Conclusions

In the eighteen years between 1956 and 1973, SALALM grew from a seminar of 32 participants to a conference of 227. But beyond the numbers, what is SALALM all about? It is a cooperative effort in the library realm. Project success is one measure of this cooperation, and there were many projects that SALALM sponsored in its first two decades. LACAP was an essential enterprise in its time. It brought many new titles to U.S. libraries and made the Latin American bookdealers aware of the potential market in this country. Another example of a successful SALALM project was the Latin American Serial Documents, compiled at the University of Florida with university funding and a major grant from the Ford Foundation but enabled by the cooperation of many librarians, identifying documents in their collections. The best example of an ongoing cooperative project is the Hispanic American Periodicals Index (HAPI), edited at UCLA and indexed by volunteers, most of whom are SALALM members.

The first two decades mark SALALM’s passage through a phase that Max Weber has labeled “charismatic” in another context. Marietta Daniels [Shepard] hatched the idea of the Seminar at a time when knowledge of Latin American library materials lagged behind enthusiasm for their acquisition in this country. Growth of SALALM and changes in the field of Latin American studies tested the loose ground rules of the early meetings and eventually inspired a more “rational-legal” organization. The period 1956-1973 saw SALALM confront a series of growing pains that would produce an independent, incorporated body, chartered and organized by a set of documents still vital after the passage of another twenty years.
NOTES

1. Letter to Stanley West, Librarian University of Florida, from Marietta Daniels, Associate Librarian. August 3, 1955, SALALM Archives.


3. Ibid., pp. 7-8.


6. Ibid., p. 3.


10. Ibid., pp. 10-11.


16. Ibid., p. 10.


20. Ibid., p. 27.

21. Ibid.


25. Ibid., p. 6.


27. Ibid., pp. 38-39.


31. Ibid., p. 3.

32. Ibid., pp. 8-9.

33. Ibid., pp. 17-18.

34. Ibid., pp. 28-30.


36. Ibid., p. 11.

37. Ibid.

38. Ibid., p. 15.


40. Ibid., p. 17.


42. Ibid., p. 5.

43. Ibid.

44. Ibid., p. 24.


46. Ibid., p. 3.

47. Ibid., p. 12.

48. Ibid., p. 9.

49. Ibid., p. 11.


51. Ibid., p. 34.

52. Ibid., p. 36.


58. Eighteenth Seminar, p. v.


60. Eighteenth Seminar, p. 7.

61. Ibid., p. 8.

62. Ibid.

63. Ibid., p. 21.

64. Ibid., p. 151.

65. Ibid., p. 70.

66. Ibid., p. 71.
Library Operations
15. Las publicaciones oficiales en América Latina, en especial el caso de México

Rosa María Fernández de Zamora

Del 10 al 12 de julio de 1991 se llevó a cabo en la Biblioteca Nacional de México el primer Seminario Latinoamericano de Publicaciones Oficiales auspiciado por la Sección de Información Gubernamental y Publicaciones Oficiales de International Federation of Library Associations (IFLA), la Organización de Estados Americanos (OEA) y la propia Biblioteca Nacional. En esta ocasión por primera vez se reflexionó sobre las publicaciones oficiales de la región y en la mayoría de los países por vez primera se escribía o se hacía una investigación sobre estas importantes publicaciones. El representante de la OEA en México dijo durante la inauguración, “que la temática per se del Seminario es de singular trascendencia para los países de la región, en cuanto que hace al área tanto informativa como testimonial o documental de la acción de los gobiernos y de sus instituciones, en los distintos campos de la actividad pública . . . y el Seminario abordará además aspectos que ciertamente constituyen ‘cuellos de botella’ para prácticamente todas nuestras instituciones. Tan importante como publicar es saber distribuir, diseminar y comercializar entre los agentes apropiados los que se produzca”. ¹

Todos los que participamos en el Seminario llegamos con la convicción de que las publicaciones gubernamentales tienen gran importancia y juegan un papel especial en el campo de la información nacional ya que tienen múltiples propósitos y prácticamente abordan todos los aspectos de la vida nacional. Constituyen además elementos imprescindibles para apoyar la comunicación entre gobierno y gobernados. “Las publicaciones oficiales contribuyen a que las diferentes generaciones conozcan la evolución histórica de los pueblos en los campos económico, político y social. También permiten la preservación y transmisión de la cultura y de los conocimientos científicos y tecnológicos”. ²

Durante los tres días de trabajo se intercambiaron ideas y se dieron a conocer realidades que enriquecieron nuestro conocimiento.
Se prestaron ponencias magistrales sobre: definición de publicaciones oficiales, difusión y distribución de las publicaciones oficiales y su necesidad de estudio, control bibliográfico de las publicaciones oficiales en las bibliotecas, la enseñanza de las publicaciones oficiales en América Latina y las publicaciones oficiales y su importancia para la investigación. Por su parte cada representante de las naciones participantes, que en total fueron 17, presentó la situación de las publicaciones en su país. Se aceptó que en la mayoría de los países el gobierno es el principal editor de documentos y que ya utilizan los formatos modernos de comunicación como el disco compacto, los videos y los diskets. Sin embargo, todavía las tareas de producción, distribución y difusión son deficientes y las publicaciones no llegan al público usuario como es debido.

Los cuadros adjuntos muestran una panorama general de la situación de las publicaciones oficiales en América Latina.

Las conclusiones y recomendaciones acordadas fueron de sumo interés. Entre las que destacan son las siguientes:

En general no se aplican las normas internacionales para la presentación, descripción y puntos de acceso de las publicaciones oficiales.

A pesar de existir una legislación que establece el depósito legal, en la mayoría de los países, éste no se cumple.

Existe la necesidad de formar recursos humanos en el manejo de las publicaciones oficiales.

Se consta una escasa investigación sobre la producción, uso y disponibilidad de los documentos oficiales y sobre los usuarios de los mismos.

Las bibliotecas nacionales tienen limitaciones para cumplir con la responsabilidad de adquirir, preservar y organizar el patrimonio documental nacional de carácter oficial.

Se recomendó a los gobiernos:

Que sus órganos gubernamentales encargados de la planificación de políticas de información regulen la producción de publicaciones generadas en las instituciones públicas.

Que las instituciones gubernamentales establezcan las directrices para una política editorial que incluya el qué, cómo, cuándo, cuánto y para quién publicar y que conemplen además elementos de control bibliográfico como catalogación en la fuente, ISBN e ISSN, así como una difusión y una distribución eficientes.
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Los participantes acordaron enviar una carta a los editores gubernamentales de su país sobre estos aspectos:

Se recomendó a las bibliotecas nacionales y a otras instituciones que reciban en depósito las publicaciones oficiales que crean mecanismos que faciliten la divulgación y el cumplimiento de la Ley de Depósito Legal y otros relacionados.

Se recomendó a las asociaciones de profesionales y escuelas de bibliotecología que promuevan la investigación en la producción, uso y disponibilidad de las publicaciones oficiales y que promuevan a corto plazo la formación de los recursos humanos para el manejo de las publicaciones oficiales estableciendo cursos regulares o de actualización.

Las Memorias del Seminario están en prensa a cargo de la Biblioteca Nacional de México.

Las publicaciones oficiales en México

En México, igual que en otros países de América Latina, las publicaciones gubernamentales ocupan un lugar preponderante dentro de la producción bibliográfica nacional. De acuerdo con estudios recientes, el gobierno mexicano puede ser considerado el editor más grande del país. Del total de títulos que se publican anualmente en México—de 7,000 a 9,000—el 25% corresponde a publicaciones oficiales y en ejemplares llega al 55% sin tener en cuenta los libros de texto gratuitos. Si se añade la producción de las universidades públicas, el porcentaje aumenta en un 20% de títulos y 10% en tiraje. Sin embargo, la mayoría de las dependencias oficiales no se preocupan debidamente por planear la edición, difusión, distribución y conservación de sus publicaciones. De ahí que exista una carencia de información actual y sistematizada sobre la producción documental del gobierno mexicano que cada día más vasta y compleja.

Decía James B. Childs que para saber qué publica un gobierno, primero hay que saber cómo está organizado. En México, el último Manual de organización del Gobierno Federal fue publicado en 1982, así que tenemos diez años sin información sistematizada sobre la organización del gobierno. Para conocer su organización hay que consultar el Diario Oficial en que se registran todos los cambios de las instituciones gubernamentales.

Las publicaciones oficiales son reflejo de la estructura del gobierno federal, estatal o municipal del cual emanam. En México el gobierno federal está constituido por los poderes legislativo, ejecutivo y judicial. Las instituciones o dependencias de estos poderes son productoras de publicaciones oficiales en la manera siguiente.
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Los reglamentos internos de las secretarías y en general de la mayoría de las instituciones gubernamentales contienen artículos que se refieren a las tareas editoriales de los mismos. Estas funciones generalmente son atribuciones de las Direcciones Generales de Comunicación Social. Por ejemplo, el artículo 14 del Reglamento Interior de la Secretaría de Energía, Minas e Industrias Paraestatal dice “La Dirección General de Comunicación Social tendrá las siguientes atribuciones... III. Establecer los lineamientos para la producción de materiales impresos y audiovisuales elaborados por las unidades administrativas de la Secretaría, así como coordinar su edición e impresión”.

Así podrían mencionarse de cada Secretaría y cada organismo descentralizado las funciones de edición que les confieren sus
reglamentos y aunque se señala normal y coordinar, esto no se lleva a cabo porque cada Dirección, cada Departamento, publica por su cuenta sin ninguna coordinación con la Dirección General de Comunicación Social. Esta descentralización lleva a una dispersión y a una anarquía en el proceso editorial que no permiten el control de las publicaciones ni su adecuada difusión y distribución. Aún Secretarías de poca producción editorial, como la de Relaciones Exteriores y la de Gobernación, tienen varios puntos de producción sin ningún control central. La primera tiene cuatro oficinas editoras y la segunda más de ocho.

El gobierno mexicano maneja de manera exclusiva mucha información vital, como son los censos de población, los industriales y los económicos, así como estadísticas básicas, datos sobre la distribución de ingresos y egresos, etc. Además de los asuntos legales, políticos y administrativos considerados tradicionalmente como oficiales, son diversos y muy amplios los temas que tratan las publicaciones oficiales mexicanas, ya que comprenden desde el producto de una investigación científica, hasta información sobre arte, historia, agricultura, cocina, literatura, arqueología, ecología, etc., presentados en formatos de libros hasta disketes y discos compactos.

El número de ejemplares es muy variable. Se puede decir que el promedio es de 3,000, pero de algunas obras que se pretende difundir ampliamente como es el caso de *Lecturas Mexicanas*, en sus dos primeros títulos, en 1983, se hizo un tiraje de 90,000 ejemplares y conforme fue pasando el tiempo se fue reduciendo hasta llegar a 10,000 únicamente. Otros ejemplos de alto tiraje fueron los *Informes de Gobierno* de Miguel de la Madrid con 150,000 ejemplares y las memorias de algunas instituciones como el Seguro Social con 30,000 ejemplares.

La presentación de las publicaciones gubernamentales es también muy variable y encontramos que hay dependencias que cuidan tanto la presentación física de sus ediciones como la inclusión de los datos bibliográficos necesarios para identificar una obra, como son: el autor, el título, la edición, el lugar, el editor y la fecha. También incluyen el ISBN y en las revistas el ISSN. Sin embargo, todavía hay instituciones que olvidan algunos de estos datos y en muchas ocasiones no se puede saber de que año es una publicación.

De acuerdo con Frédérique Molliné, bibliotecario francés, en general los países pueden dividirse en dos grandes bloques de acuerdo con la modalidad de producción de sus publicaciones oficiales. En el primero, llamado por Molliné “sistema angloamericano”, la impresión de las publicaciones es afectuada por un organismo especializado, es
decir hay una cierta centralización. Aquí se agrupan Estados Unidos, Gran Bretaña, Canadá, los Países Bajos e Italia. El segundo bloque, “el sistema continental”, se caracteriza por descentralización y en él se encuentran Francia, Alemania, Suecia, México y los demás países latinoamericanos, lo que se traduce en poca eficiencia en la producción, difusión, distribución y control bibliográfico de sus publicaciones.

En México ha habido intentos de centralización y normalización de las publicaciones oficiales. El primero fue cuando se creó el Departamento Autónomo de Prensa y Publicidad durante el gobierno de Lázaro Cárdenas (1936-1940). Este departamento tenía como funciones editar los libros, folletos y revistas del gobierno federal y administrar los Talleres Gráficos de la Nación, que es la imprenta nacional. Más tarde, durante el gobierno de López Portillo (1976-1982), se estableció la Comisión Técnica Consultativa de Ediciones Gubernamentales a fin de organizar y mejorar las publicaciones gubernamentales en su contenido y su presentación. Con este propósito publicó el Manual de normas editoriales en 1982. La Comisión dependió de la Secretaría de Programación y Presupuesto y logró unificar la presentación y el formato de algunas publicaciones. Varias Secretarías, como la Secretaría de Educación Pública, publicaron Criterios de política editorial, que se referían únicamente al aspecto físico de las publicaciones como el tipo de letra, el papel, el uso del logotipo, etc. La Comisión desapareció por decreto el 12 de junio de 1984.

En el gobierno de Miguel de la Madrid (1982-1988) se estableció la Unidad de la Crónica Presidencial, dependiente de la Presidencia de la República, que dentro de su organización cuenta con un Centro de Documentación de la Gestión Gubernamental que tiene como funciones reunir, clasificar y catalogar los documentos escritos, gráficos, audiovisuales, y sonoros que den testimonio de las actividades del Poder Ejecutivo Federal. Si bien fue el primer intento de recopilar en un centro o biblioteca todas las publicaciones oficiales de un período de gobierno, sólo lograron reunir cerca de la mitad de lo publicado, mismo que catalogaron, clasificaron y pusieron a disposición del público. Al finalizar el gobierno de Miguel de la Madrid, esta colección, junto con una más amplia de documentos de archivo, fue donada al Archivo General de la Nación a fines de 1988. Este acervo se encuentra microfilmado y las microfichas están a la venta. El Centro publicó doce números de su Catálogo de Biblioteca y veintidós del Catálogo de Documentos.

La Unidad de la Crónica Presidencial continúa funcionando con el gobierno de Salinas de Gortari (1988-1994), pero ahora, además de sus programas de publicaciones y del Centro de Documentación, han
planeado actividades más como lo que llamaron Coordinación de Publicaciones Oficiales que tiene como finalidad abrir una librería y un centro de referencia donde puedan adquirirse publicaciones oficiales, no solamente del Poder Ejecutivo, sino también las estatales y municipales. Esta Coordinación que tiene un nombre inapropiado, porque no coordina ningún aspecto de las publicaciones oficiales, pues sería únicamente un centro distribuidor, no ha podido iniciar sus actividades. La idea es positiva y ojalá algún día pueda funcionar, aunque con otro nombre más adecuado. Actualmente publican un Catálogo de Documentos en el que registran indistintamente publicaciones y documentos del archivo.

En general, la difusión de las publicaciones sigue siendo muy deficiente y no permite conocer lo que el gobierno publica y tampoco adquirir fácilmente las obras, sean éstas libros, revistas, discos, videos, discos compactos, mapas, etc.

De las diecisiete secretarías existentes, sólo dos, la Secretaría de Pesca y la Secretaría del Trabajo y Previsión Social, editan catálogos bien presentados y con los datos necesarios para identificar las publicaciones. La Presidencia de la República también publica un buen catálogo. De los organismos dependientes de las secretarías, pocos son los que difunden por medio de catálogos sus publicaciones; destacan los del Consejo Nacional de Población, del Instituto Nacional de Estudios Históricos de la Revolución Mexicana, del Instituto Nacional de Antropología e Historia, del Instituto Nacional de Estadística, Geografía e Informática (INEGI) y del Consejo Nacional para la Cultura y las Artes. Los poderes Legislativo y Judicial no publican catálogos de sus obras, tampoco los gobiernos de los estados.

Varias dependencias utilizan la prensa, la radio y la televisión para dar a conocer sus publicaciones logrando captar el interés del público. También participan en las ferias del libro nacionales. Anteriormente la mayoría de las publicaciones gubernamentales se distribuían gratuitamente, pero en la actualidad ya todas las secretarías y los principales organismos descentralizados venden sus publicaciones, aunque no cuentan con una buena organización de librerías o puntos de distribución o venta. Tanto las dependencias que venden sus publicaciones, como las que las obsequian, generalmente no cumplen con la obligación legal de depositar dos ejemplares en la Biblioteca Nacional y dos en la Biblioteca del Congreso. Tampoco es práctica usual enviarlas a las bibliotecas depositarias de publicaciones oficiales; la excepción es el INEGI que mantiene una red de bibliotecas depositarias de sus publicaciones en todo el país.
Otra barrera que impide el uso y conocimiento de las publicaciones oficiales es el poco valor que se les da a las bibliotecas de las dependencias gubernamentales, especialmente las de las Secretarías del Departamento del Distrito Federal. De las diecisiete secretarías, diez tienen una biblioteca central, pero en general mal organizada, siete no tienen ni tampoco el Distrito Federal. Los encargados o jefes de las bibliotecas no tienen conocimientos bibliotecológicos y el resto del personal no está capacitado para manejar una biblioteca especializada.

Existe una gran necesidad de hacer estudios e investigaciones sobre las publicaciones oficiales mexicanas y sobre las bibliotecas gubernamentales, dando a conocer sus resultados mediante la publicación de artículos, libros, o tesis y de esta manera despertar el interés de las personas involucradas en el proceso editorial oficial que lleve a un mejoramiento de ese proceso que en la actualidad es muy deficiente.


Para terminar, mencionaré que en México, como en otros países, constitucionalmente está establecido el derecho a la información. Así el artículo 6 de la Constitución dice en su última cláusula, “el derecho a la información será garantizado por el Estado”. 4 Se dice que esta adopción en 1977 del derecho a la información se debió a la necesidad del gobierno de fortalecer su presencia en la radio y la televisión, los medios más penetrantes de comunicación que tiene la sociedad, tradicionalmente controlados por la iniciativa privada. El derecho a la información, dice Geneviève Boisard, puede lograrse de varias maneras: por medio de publicaciones, consultando registros, estando presentes en reuniones de gobierno, o leyendo documentos. 5 La publicación de los documentos gubernamentales es el método más común para tener acceso a la información oficial. De lo anterior se puede concluir que el
descuido en las políticas de producción, de difusión y de distribución de las publicaciones oficiales va en contra del derecho a la información que tiene los ciudadanos a estar bien informados sobre lo que el gobierno publica con sus impuestos y tener fácil y libre acceso a sus publicaciones.

NOTAS


REFERENCIAS


16. Approval Plans from a Dealer’s Point of View

Vera de Araujo Shellard

This paper is a brief and elementary description of how we at Susan Bach treat what North American librarians call blanket orders or approval plans. My intention is to describe the routines of a vendor working with a moderate number of titles produced in an enormous Third World country, a particularly volatile mix.

The quantitative dimension of the book trade is as follows. Statistics collected by the Sindicato Nacional de Editores de Livros shows Brazilian book production at a level over ten thousand for the 1980s. The last five years of available compilations appear below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Number of titles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1985</td>
<td>12,458</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1986</td>
<td>12,558 (for this year the Biblioteca Nacional registered some 14,000 titles)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1987</td>
<td>13,375</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1988</td>
<td>13,500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1989</td>
<td>11,692</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

To gain an idea of the number of these titles that would be of interest to a research library, consider the year 1989. Of the 11,692 titles produced, about 2,500 were textbooks and children’s literature; 650 were translations; and 300 were titles in the pure and applied sciences. Another 1,000 works fell into the categories of popular fiction, manuals, devotionals, and other categories exempted from most library profiles. Thus 7,500 titles per year, some 64 percent of the total, comprise the universe from which Susan Bach’s staff selects for its customers.

I estimate that less than half of these titles are physically brought to our offices, principally by sales representatives of large commercial houses and a sprinkling of smaller firms and private editors, all located in Rio de Janeiro and São Paulo. We examine these works and order copies based on our view of customers’ needs. All other commercial titles from Rio and São Paulo, as well as the entire range of works from other Brazilian states, must be identified and ordered by our staff. This
includes university publications (except Universidade de Brasília, Universidade de São Paulo, and Universidade Estadual de Campinas), institutional publications, and works produced by research institutes, foundations, libraries, and corporations, as well as national and subnational government documents. This activity incurs delays in shipments and increased postage costs as well as the risks we take in purchasing sample copies of works that prove unsuitable for research libraries. Susan Bach also has arrangements with several local dealers and publishers in various parts of Brazil to gather provincial publications. Despite occasional breakdowns of this network, it continues to provide at least a representative sample of publications produced outside Rio and São Paulo.

Selection tools for current imprints reflect the distribution arrangements described above. There is no up-to-date national bibliography, and few publishers supply catalogs of their offerings. Our principal sources for selection are a clipping service that extracts recent works publicized in Brazilian periodicals and the accessions lists prepared by the Library of Congress Field Office in Rio. Bach’s São Paulo office functions principally as an information gatherer, identifying and ordering materials not readily available through regular distribution channels.

We select material for approval plan customers based on their individual profiles. From my perspective, the ideal profile should give the essentials without getting bogged down in detail. Too many minutiae tend to hinder rather than help our efforts. It would be useful for libraries to include in their profiles a general orientation to their collections, including histories, strengths, and weaknesses as well as areas of particular current interest. It would also be helpful to have regular revisions of the profiles as new subject areas become important, new interests develop, and as former interests diminish. A case in point is ecology, which certainly did not appear in most profiles five years ago. I could also cite Amazonia, marginalized groups, and liberation theology as areas that have gained prominence in recent years. Clearly, the vendor will do a better job if customers will provide updated profiles documenting shifts in collecting focus.

With the profile in hand, I draw a chart for each client detailing subjects desired, areas of greater interest, types of material, type of coverage, exclusions, price limit per item, and so on. These individual documents converge in a consolidated chart that allows me to know which clients desire each subject. For finer delineations, I refer to the clients' original profiles.
Once the books arrive—the time varies from days to months (to never)—they are cataloged to our specifications and once again brought to me for final selection for customers. The books are then placed in the appropriate “pile,” each customer having its own. The piles are divided into packages of three to five kilos, to take advantage of current postage rates, transported weekly to the post office, and shipped. To provide a record of shipments, we prepare a list of parcels from which the post office registers them and assigns them individual numbers that can be used for tracing.

Since most of our customers specify annual spending levels, our staff attempts to match allocated funds to the flow of publications. This is not always easy since we do not know in advance how many books will be published in a given year, which titles will be available to us for distribution, or what their prices will be. It is particularly tricky to manage an even flow for libraries whose annual allocations are small. For these customers we tend to hold shipments as long as possible to make sure that they will indeed receive the most important titles published during the year. This sometimes means we have to wait until almost the end of the fiscal year before shipping.

Other services that our company offers include: supplying lists of current titles marked with approval plan selections, maintaining records of the past five years of approval plan shipments for each client as insurance against duplication by firm orders. (When a customer does want an additional copy of a title, it would save time and expense if this information were supplied on the firm order, otherwise we first send a notification that the title has already been supplied.)

Our approval plans permit clients to return whatever books they choose. However, it is helpful for us to know why a given book was found unsuitable so that we can take this into consideration in making future selections. When making returns, we would prefer that the customer simply amend the invoice, pay the adjusted amount, and inform us of the changes. These steps allow prompt processing and payment of invoices and the adjustment of our accounting records.

It goes without saying that approval plans are essential to our business, to keep us abreast of what is being published in Brazil, and to allow us to acquire stock in sufficient quantities to supply not only approval plan clients but all libraries.

Dan C. Hazen

This essay explores three aspects of Latin American approval plans. It begins by considering the relationship between approval plans, bibliographic coverage, and vendor capabilities. The discussion then shifts to the implications of widespread library reliance on approval plans for a network of strong vendors on one hand, and possibly duplicative collections on the other. Finally, the essay presents some preliminary evidence concerning the practical effects of competition among our booksellers.

Bibliographic Resources, Vendor Capabilities, and the Case for Approval Plans

"Gathering plan" is a generic term for approval plans, blanket orders, and similar acquisitions arrangements that approach selection through categories of materials rather than single items. This "macro" approach to collection development requires the library to delineate a reasonably unambiguous selection profile that a vendor can implement in its stead. Regardless of possible provisions to return unwanted materials, the library's goal is to minimize both selection decisions and possible rejects.

A successful gathering plan thus entails a library's collection development capacity and needs, presumably codified in a collection development policy; a distillation of this policy into a set of operationally meaningful selection criteria; and a formal agreement with a vendor capable of implementing such a plan. An additional element, implied by the need for "operationally meaningful" selection criteria, involves bibliographic control over the areas targeted by a particular gathering plan. Selection encompasses the twin operations of identifying a universe of materials and then choosing individual items from within it. Successful gathering plans require a means for libraries and vendors alike to accomplish both these tasks.

The literature on approval plans most frequently addresses arrangements concerning trade publications from the United States and Western Europe. These materials tend to enjoy exhaustive
bibliographic control, making it relatively easy for both library and vendor to "identify the universe"—to track relevant publications and monitor performance. A large market, competition among dealers, and automated routines may also enable price breaks and such ancillary benefits as vendor provision of electronic bibliographic data. Approval plans can thus carry real cost or labor advantages.

In the Third World, however, current bibliographic control for new publications tends to be sporadic and incomplete. In many cases, the same dealers who implement approval plans provide, through their lists, our closest approximation to usable national bibliographies. The independent bibliographic compilations that would allow libraries to monitor vendor performance simply do not exist. Moreover, the market of purchasing libraries is small, competition is thin, and vendor capabilities are often rudimentary.

These characteristics of the Latin American book trade eliminate many of the approval plan advantages found in developed-world markets. Spotty bibliographic control requires bibliographers to review a full range of lists and bibliographies in order to monitor vendor performance, fill gaps, and order additional materials. The staff time needed to input records and process materials is similar to that entailed in unit order arrangements. Discounts are rare, and dealer provision of machine-readable bibliographic data unknown.

The possible advantages of Latin American approval plans thus center on timeliness of receipts, on successfully isolating narrow categories of desired materials—alternately core categories with solid bibliographic control or less central areas that play to a particular dealer's strengths—and on crafting arrangements that take advantage of the presence or absence of vendor competition. While bookdealers proclaim the added incentive of providing approval plan clients with materials too scarce to include on their lists, the real extent of such offerings is far from clear.

Gathering plans allow quick dealer response to new publications, timely shipments, and fairly current receipts. This sequence can short-circuit the sometimes extended process whereby a bookseller acquires new materials and offers them on lists, a library completes its routines for selection and ordering, and the vendor fills the order. Unit orders often fail when some item is no longer on hand by the time the order reaches the vendor.

While Latin American approval plans encourage timeliness, they only make sense if the vendor can, in fact, identify, acquire, and provide some predetermined range of materials. The most effective approval plans are always those in which these three operations can be
performed. In publishing areas with thorough bibliographic control, the eligible categories are almost limitless. In Latin America, however, such plans must be much more specific. High-profile trade and academic publishers, for instance, often circulate their own lists or catalogs. A library that relies on a dealer to acquire these core materials can independently track both price and performance.

Unfortunately, Latin America’s categories of readily controlled publications are fairly quickly exhausted. An alternate rationale for approval plans centers on the interplay between particular dealer strengths and the structure of vendor competition. When a publishing area, whether a country or a region within a country, sustains competing vendors, each one may acquire and distribute somewhat different bodies of material. The combined coverage is apt to be more complete than that provided by any single dealer, and unit orders to different vendors may enable the most thorough collecting. Conversely, gathering plans may be particularly compelling in areas without vendor competition. Timeliness is thereby ensured. For better or worse, what amounts to a single source for acquisitions precludes complementary orders for materials that the primary vendor may have missed. Dealers specializing in specific materials—for example political ephemera, or maps, or publications in minority languages—may likewise facilitate gathering plans. For publishing areas where there is no vendor competition, or in situations where one bookdealer is clearly preeminent, gathering plans can make sense.

Gathering plans provide an acquisitions floor. Latin American approval plans can successfully secure core publications and, in some circumstances, materials covered by specialized booksellers. As bibliographic control becomes less secure, gathering plans become less certain. Unit orders constitute the most thorough strategy for collection development in contexts matching poor bibliographic control with competing vendors. Nonstandard materials, including many nontrade publications, will normally require additional selector effort as well. Collections aspiring to rigorous coverage must move beyond approval plans.

Approval Plans in Broader Contexts

Most discussions of approval plans properly reflect the self-interested perspective of single institutions, whether libraries or booksellers. Somewhat different—and conflicting—considerations arise as we shift to a broader frame of reference.

To the extent that a number of libraries utilize the same vendor for similar approval plans, several institutions may create virtually
identical collections. Redundancy is not necessarily a bad thing; indeed, one sign of academic vitality is widespread ownership and use of truly important materials. Duplication is more problematic with marginal materials, particularly when other marginal materials end up unavailable. On a collective level, reliance on possibly duplicative approval plans may limit our overall access to research materials.

A network of overlapping or duplicative gathering plans also has more positive aspects. The most obvious flip side of duplication in collections based on approval plans is an assured market for the vendors. Many Latin American bookdealers operate on a shoestring. For them, the practical alternatives to approval plans are far riskier ventures of anticipating demand for a particular title and quickly ordering copies before the work goes out of print or listing an item without stocking it and hoping to acquire copies as orders arrive. A vendor stocking too many copies will lose money. One stocking too few will sacrifice both orders and goodwill.

By relying on gathering plans, our libraries thus help sustain a number of booksellers throughout the Hemisphere. It is difficult to balance the crosscutting effects of supporting a competitive array of vendors by deliberately buying from several within each country, or ensuring at least one strong local dealer by concentrating business through approval plans. It is likewise difficult to assess whether our collections would be substantially more diverse if they were more fully based on unit orders placed with a variety of vendors.

Some Empirical Evidence on Vendor Competition

A library embarking on a gathering plan necessarily restricts itself to a single vendor for the bulk of its acquisitions from the corresponding area. This may limit potential coverage to those materials that the vendor discovers and acquires. It also can carry price implications.

The table details prices for a small sample of current Argentine titles listed by five dealers between the fall of 1991 and the spring of 1992. The gap between lowest and highest price ranged from 10 percent (of the low price) to 46 percent. While some vendors tended to be cheap and others expensive, none was either cheapest or most expensive across the board. A library able to "comparison shop" for these particular titles could have saved more than 21 percent by always using the lowest quoted price rather than the highest.

These variations suggest that libraries may save on acquisitions to the extent that they can exploit competition among booksellers. Other considerations, of course, obtain. Some vendors may offer discounts
Price Comparison for Five Dealers in Current Argentine Imprints Listings from Fall, 1991–Spring, 1992 *(cost in dollars)*

A. Raw Data

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<tr>
<th>Item no.</th>
<th>Vendor A</th>
<th>Vendor B</th>
<th>Vendor C</th>
<th>Vendor D</th>
<th>Vendor E</th>
<th>Dollar range</th>
<th>Percentage of variation</th>
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<td>31.20</td>
<td>31.00</td>
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<td>18.90</td>
<td>17.00</td>
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<td>20.20</td>
<td>18.80</td>
<td>2.50</td>
<td>14</td>
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<td>5</td>
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<td>14</td>
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<tr>
<td>6</td>
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<td>10.80</td>
<td>1.70</td>
<td>19</td>
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<td>14.50</td>
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<td>37.00</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>32.80</td>
<td>32.80</td>
<td>4.50</td>
<td>14</td>
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</table>
B. High and Low Price Listings, and Titles Not Listed, by Vendor

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Vendor</th>
<th>Low</th>
<th>High</th>
<th>Notes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>(all titles found)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>(all titles found)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3 titles lack</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8 titles lack</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>2 titles lack</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

C. Total Cost, 7 Titles Included on Lists of All 5 Vendors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Vendor</th>
<th>Dollar range</th>
<th>Percentage of variation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>107.40</td>
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<tr>
<td>B</td>
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<td>C</td>
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<td>D</td>
<td>113.70</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E</td>
<td>121.10</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

D. Total Cost, 15 Titles Included on Lists of (Same) 4 Vendors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Vendor</th>
<th>Dollar range</th>
<th>Percentage of variation</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
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<td>B</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>--</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E</td>
<td>268.40</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

E. Cost of 20 Titles

- Using lowest quoted price for each: $333.47
- Using highest quoted price for each: $402.90
- Difference: $69.43 (21 percent)

(Average cost of 20 titles, per lowest quoted prices: $16.67; using lowest price for each title would enable acquisition of approximately four additional "average"-priced titles.)

F. Some Elements Not Reflected in These Tabulations

- Timeliness of listings
- Fulfillment rates for orders placed (as a function of either vendor performance or library delays in generating orders)
- Discounts, for single items and/or approval plans
- Overall adequacy of listings (accurate citations, comprehensive coverage, etc.)
- Vendor responsiveness to routine business (claims, returns, etc.)
- Vendor responsiveness to unusual library needs
not reflected in list prices, and some invoice prices will vary from those on lists. Perhaps more significant, simple price comparisons do not account for other aspects of vendor performance. For instance, some of the lists consulted in this comparative exercise arrived months after others. Timeliness does not correlate with price, but timeliness can be important in addressing user needs. List price comparisons also take no account of fill rates for orders eventually placed. Some lists provide detailed and accurate bibliographic information; others are flawed. The staff time required to sort out incorrect citations (and the risk of inadvertent duplication of grossly inaccurate listings) can be significant. Likewise, some dealers cover a significantly broader range of materials than others. Finally, vendor overhead includes capacities to respond to normal library routines in such areas as claims or returns. Some vendors also provide extraordinary search services when needed, to some degree on the basis of profit margins ensured through their prices for more mainstream materials.

These notes have particularly focused on bibliographic control, dealer competition, and vendor capabilities as they affect Latin American approval plans. The interplay of these characteristics results in a unique structure of competitiveness and fragility, possibility and peril. Gathering plans can provide thorough and timely coverage for some categories of Latin American materials. They are not a panacea, and their use entails an awareness of all the consequences. Most important, approval plans alone will only exceptionally produce collections as finely tuned as those formed through unit ordering. Approval plans are a beginning point in building our Latin American collections, not the last word.
18. Selection and Acquisition of Latin American Monographs at the U.S. National Library of Medicine

Nelda Coligan

This paper offers a brief overview of Latin American monographic acquisitions at the National Library of Medicine, including how the Library staff select and acquire these materials and the subjects they collect.

The National Library of Medicine (NLM) in Bethesda, Maryland, is the world's largest biomedical library. Founded in 1836, the Library has grown from a small collection of books belonging to the Army Surgeon General to more than five million books, journals, technical reports, manuscripts, photographs, software programs, and audiovisuals in more than 70 languages.

NLM's online catalog contains 634,000 monographic records, of which approximately 28,000 are in Spanish and Portuguese. Over 3,200 monographic titles in the collection have imprints from Latin America, including some titles in English and in Native American languages.

The earliest imprints of Iberian origin that NLM has in its collection are, of course, in Latin. These sources date from the fourteenth century and are housed in the History of Medicine Division which contains materials dating from 1094 through 1913, as well as modern manuscripts. Two of the earliest Latin American imprints are from Mexico: *Opera medicinalia*, published by Francisco Bravo in 1570 and Agustín Farfán's *Tractado breve de anothomia y chirurgia, y de algunas enfermedades* (1579); however, these are facsimiles. The earliest original Latin American title is the Mexican imprint, *Verdadera medicina, cirugia, y astrologia* by Juan de Barrios (1607).

The Library currently acquires materials through gifts and exchange, approval plans with various dealers, orders placed as a result of selection from bibliographies or publishers' announcements and catalogs, and purchases made by NLM through the Overseas Office of the Library of Congress.

**Selection**

Because biomedicine includes such a broad range of topics and is constantly changing both in orientation and emphasis, NLM's collection
policy is frequently reviewed and refined. Subjects of interest to NLM include not only clinical medicine and biomedical research but also such diverse fields as health economics, traditional medicine, medical anthropology, biomedical ethics, health services research and biotechnology. It is anticipated that a new edition of NLM’s collection development manual will be published late this year to supersede the 1985 Collection Development Manual of the National Library of Medicine.¹

Selectors use the Manual as a guide when choosing titles from national bibliographies, booklists, vendor or publishers’ catalogs, letters, cataloging cards, and the like, and when processing receipts. The challenges of selection are numerous. For example, Latin America’s reliance on translated medical texts poses difficulties for selection, based on NLM’s policy to acquire works in their original languages. As Linda Chávez has observed, “Many Spanish-language books are translations. . . . In the case of a medical book, this could seriously undermine its value and make it an inappropriate addition to any library.”²

Another challenge for selectors at a medical library is that many bibliographies, catalogs, and lists are not categorized by subject area. This pattern is changing, however, as publishers and dealers see the value of subject arrangement. In addition, approval agreements, which specify that vendors will supply works according to a subject profile provided by NLM, reduce the need for NLM selectors to examine all relevant bibliographies and catalogs. Incomplete citations and delayed publication of catalogs and bibliographies are additional complications; comprehensive selection is considerably enhanced by timely, accurate announcements from bookdealers and publishers.

Acquisitions Analysis

In order to characterize a pattern of Latin American acquisitions at NLM during the past three years (1989-1991), searches of several NLM databases were performed. The resulting data were then analyzed by method of acquisition, country, source, and subjects. Only Spanish- and Portuguese-language materials were included in these searches.

Method of Acquisition

A search of INPROC, NLM’s online order and receipt file for monographs, provided data by type of acquisition for 1,875 pieces (comprising 1,832 unique items) received at NLM during the years 1989, 1990, and 1991. Orders and gifts and exchanges accounted for
approximately half the receipts (935), while approvals accounted for the remainder (940).

**Country of Publication**

A tally of receipts by country showed that the majority of Latin American materials received during the years 1989-1991 were from Brazil and Mexico, followed by Uruguay, Argentina, and Peru. The preponderance of items from Brazil reflects the large scholarly publishing output of that country and the activities of the Library of Congress's Field Office in Rio de Janeiro. (For a complete breakdown of country of publication data, see Appendix 1.)

**Source**

Acquisition of the 1989-1991 receipts was from 25 sources, indicating that NLM relies on a variety of vendors and sources to assure complete coverage of the biomedical literature from Latin America in accordance with collection development guidelines. (See Appendix 2.) Experience obtained during the last eight years has revealed that no one or two sources can supply all NLM's needs from these countries. Even within individual countries, it is unusual for a single vendor to have complete access to all subject areas of biomedicine.

**Subject**

To illustrate the subject emphases in Spanish and Portuguese biomedical titles from Latin America, an analysis of subject headings assigned to receipts from 1989-1991 was performed. The subject headings with the greatest number of occurrences were:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject(s)</th>
<th>Titles received</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Traditional Medicine/Medicinal Plants</td>
<td>153</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Psychiatry/Clinical Psychology</td>
<td>127</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public Health</td>
<td>109</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>History of Medicine</td>
<td>84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Obstetrics/Gynecology</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pediatrics</td>
<td>79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communicable/Parasitic Diseases</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>705</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From this analysis, it appears that almost 40 percent (705 of 1,875 titles) of recent Latin American biomedical acquisitions at NLM are concentrated in approximately seven broad subject areas, with a
significant emphasis on traditional medicine and medicinal plants, psychiatry and clinical psychology, and public health.

It is worth noting that NLM has taken a keen interest in collecting unique works from Latin America, especially in the fields of traditional medicine and the history of medicine. Throughout the NLM collection are real treasures, documenting the use of medicinal plants and tribal remedies, medical anthropology, histories of medical schools, pharmacies, biographies of physicians, nurses, medical missionaries, and so on. The collection is a research scholar's dream, providing both historical and contemporary documentation of man's efforts to alleviate the ills of humanity.

APPENDIX

1. Spanish/Portuguese Titles Received by Latin American Country 1989-1991

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Titles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Argentina</td>
<td>94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bolivia</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brazil</td>
<td>700</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chile</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colombia</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Costa Rica</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cuba</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dominican Republic</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ecuador</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>El Salvador</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guatemala</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Honduras</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mexico</td>
<td>382</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nicaragua</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Panama</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paraguay</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peru</td>
<td>89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Puerto Rico</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uruguay</td>
<td>131</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Venezuela</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>1,832</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Amigos del Libro (Werner Guttentag, Cochabamba, Bolivia)
Comercial Celis, Ltda. (Santiago, Chile)
Editorial Comuneros (Ricardo Rolon, Asuncion, Paraguay)
Editorial Cubaneras (Havana, Cuba)
Editorial Edil, Inc. (Rio Pedras, Puerto Rico)
Editorial INCA (Cochabamba, Bolivia or Miami, Florida)
Fernando Garcia Cambeiro (Buenos Aires, Argentina)
Howard Karno Books (Santa Monica, California)
Library of Congress (Washington, D.C.)
Library of Congress (Rio de Janeiro, Brazil office)
Librería Linardi y Risso (Montevideo, Uruguay)
Librería Mundial (Caracas, Venezuela)
Librería Porrua Hermanos (Mexico, D.F.)
Librería Studium (Lima, Peru)
Libros Centroamericanos (Redlands, California)
Libros de América (Fernández-Gatell, Inc., Santa Monica, California)
Libros de Colombia y Latinoamérica (Bogotá, Colombia)
Libros Ecuatorianos (Cuenca, Ecuador)
Libros Latinos (Redlands, California)
Libros Peruanos (Lima, Peru)
Livraria Portugal (Lisbon, Portugal—older Brazilian imprints)
México Norte (Redlands, California)
México Sur (Redlands, California)
ODDLA (Montevideo, Uruguay)
Pan American Health Organization (Washington, D.C.)
Publicaciones Técnicas Mediterráneo, Ltda. (Santiago, Chile)
Puvill Libros-México Division (Mexico, D.F.)*

*Approval dealers

NOTES


In this essay I discuss the role of Latin American scientific and technical literature in U.S. library collections. It evolves from two separate incidents. The first was during the 1988 meeting of SALALM in Charlottesville, Virginia, where one of our members from Mexico asked, “Why doesn’t anyone ever do something on bibliography in science for Latin America?” My responses to her query generally mentioned SALALM’s traditional focus in the humanities and social sciences and members’ particular educational backgrounds and subject interests. Over a year later, when I had moved to my present position, the librarian in charge of collection development for our campus’ Science Library asked much the same question of me, but from a different perspective. To her eye, my language skills dovetailed neatly with her academic preparation. Together—but not separately—we had the requisite qualifications for bibliographic research into Latin American science and technology.

These two incidents illustrate a situation not uncommon in librarianship, in which certain applications or disciplines fall into the cracks between different work flows or organizational structures. Librarians who work primarily as area specialists quickly become aware of the multidisciplinary focus that is part of research. However, area specialists tend to see this interdisciplinarity in terms of the social sciences and humanities and draw a line between those areas and the pure and applied sciences. The only exceptions seem to be when science and technology are somehow involved with issues in the humanities and social sciences—the history of science or policy studies, for example. Area librarians understand agriculture more readily in terms of economic development—how many cattle in Argentina contribute to the gross national product but not the technical details of how they are bred, raised, or processed.

Latin Americanists involved in collection development have developed a series of justifications for staying on familiar ground.
Science materials may be excluded from blanket order plans because they are too specialized for most area studies programs, or, in many cases, titles turn out to be translations of foreign authors published in Latin America under the auspices of a technical assistance program. Area studies specialists are not alone in their reluctance to collect scientific materials from areas outside the United States and Western Europe. Science bibliographers often hold the notion that most important materials are going to be published in English so a lack of foreign language skills do not significantly hamper their selection abilities.

Broader assumptions that go beyond the subject specialist may also prevail in perceptions of who collects what and for what reasons. According to one librarian, the dichotomy that exists between researchers in the humanities and social sciences, as opposed to those in science and technology, ultimately influences our research collections since: “Humanities faculty are happiest with large, predominately monographic collections, including primary material and ephemera. . . . Conversely, faculty in the sciences and technology collections are more concerned about the timeliness and speed with which they can access the latest scientific results or monitor work in progress. In their terms, effective libraries are indexing and abstracting services, and access to a wide variety of journal literature which may or may not be on site. Document delivery is a service feature of increasing interest. . . .”¹

Such perceptions may further weigh against adding Latin American science materials, since they lend credence to the notion that scientists generally have different research needs than their cohorts in social sciences and humanities. For the Latin American bibliographer, it may appear that there is a line of demarcation between their familiar topics within the humanities and social sciences and those of science and technology. A brief examination of bibliographic scope in SALALM activities and other endeavors may illuminate what lies beyond the line.

Whether we collect it or not, SALALM members would certainly acknowledge that Latin America produces a scientific and technical literature. During the fourteenth Seminar, held in San Juan, Puerto Rico, in 1969, the Ad Hoc Subcommittee on Scientific and Technological Materials organized a program panel on the literature of scientific disciplines, including geology, biomedicine, nutrition, Venezuelan medical journals, agriculture, and the Pan American Sanitary Bureau’s information services in the health sciences.² Since then SALALM’s primary interest within the sciences appears limited to agriculture and specifically to economic development and land tenure.³
Latin American librarians’ gradual neglect of science and technology literatures also manifests itself in the evolution of a long-standing compilation of bibliographic literature. Cecil Knight Jones’s early formulation of his *A Bibliography of Latin American Bibliographies*, including the second edition published in 1942, provided entries for agriculture, astronomy, biology, birds, botany, chemistry, dentistry, entomology, geology, medicine, pharmacy, science, technology, and zoology.  

In 1968 Arthur E. Gropp updated Jones’s work. His table of contents includes agriculture, biology, botany, chemistry, engineering, geology, industry and technology, mathematics, medicine, meteorology, natural history, science, veterinary medicine, and zoology. Gropp’s 1971 *Supplement* also included these disciplines. After 1971, Gropp removed himself from the task of providing periodic supplements to his 1968 work. Since that time, a succession of SALALM members have served as editors and coordinated the contributions of other members for the annual supplements and their five-year cumulations. However, the second supplement, edited by Daniel Raposo Cordeiro, began a significant reorganization of the work. With this edition, “Social Sciences & Humanities” became a subtitle to the work and the table of contents indicates that agriculture is all that is left of the various sciences originally enumerated by Jones and Gropp. Cordeiro noted that “With few exceptions, Gropp’s format was followed . . .” but offered no other explanation regarding the missing sciences. In the third cumulation, editor Haydée Piedracueva reaffirmed coverage in the traditional disciplines of the social sciences and humanities with the proviso that “Bibliographies in the pure sciences and technology are generally excluded; some titles . . . whose content touches upon our fields of interest, have been included. For example, a bibliography on geology may be included if it covers mineral resources and their economic aspects.” This statement confirms, once and for all, the marginalized position of the sciences for Latin American bibliographic control.

It is important to establish that these observations are not intended as an indictment of established bibliographic practices. Instead, this shifting may indicate that the compilers are indeed aware that these materials exist, but doubt that they will serve the core clientele of Latin American studies. Or perhaps the compilers assumed that science bibliographers would take charge of this particular body of knowledge. To begin exploring this ambiguity, then, it appeared that a survey might be a good and useful thing in determining how Latin American and
science bibliographers deal with materials that fall into the cracks, as it were, between area studies and the sciences.

In the interest of brevity and simplicity, a survey was posted on the Latin Americanist Librarians’ Announcements List (LALA-L), the SALALM member list, addressed to list members involved in collection development. Twelve replies were received which are summarized in Appendix B. Whether or not this sampling can be viewed as representative of Latin American collections in this country, it does suggest a series of tentative conclusions. Subject emphasis reported by Latin American specialists is fairly conservative, with the history of science and technology, biology, and geology receiving the most emphasis. In some instances, recent events in Brazil have probably generated a stronger interest in materials on the rain forest and tropical agriculture. With one exception, it would appear that the acquisition of Latin American scientific literature is a limited priority for Latin American bibliographers. However, most of the Latin American specialists cited cooperation with science and engineering librarians in collecting materials from the regions.

There are doubtless other questions that need asking and other audiences to whom they should be directed. For instance, would Latin American students enrolled in science/technology programs in the United States benefit from access to materials from their home countries that delve into their particular areas of study and research? What value do science bibliographers give to foreign language materials in their collections? Interestingly, a literature search appeared to turn up no citations related to the latter question.

Collection development exists to meet a set of objectives: first to support curricula and research locally, second to develop national (and increasingly international) collections that can be accessed and shared. In a period of slashed budgets that may or may not be on the rebound, no one would suggest that material with a narrower application be acquired simply to achieve a wider sample of an area’s bibliographic output. However, emerging interest in scientific issues in Latin America and increasing investments in technological infrastructure in the region suggest an increasing importance for Latin American scientific and technological literature. New models of cooperation and resource sharing may be needed to determine what role Latin American science materials might play within our collections.
APPENDIX A

Survey Posted on Latin Americanist Librarians’
Announcements List (LALA-L), May 5, 1992.

Subject: Latin American science materials For Lalistas involved in
collection development:

At SALALM in Austin I am moderating a panel and also speaking
on collection development practices for materials about science from
Latin America. The brief survey will add to my discussion so I would
appreciate it if you can take the time to reply. Please send responses
directly to me (gwilliam@uga) and not to LALA-L. Also, don’t fill in
this screen and then send it to me. Your answers won’t carry over.
Instead, use forward. This simply creates a copy of what you see here
but you’ll fill in what goes to my e-mail address. Then fill in the replies
and use the SEND command to send me your replies. Thanks for your
time. Gayle Williams Latin American Bibliographer.
gwilliam@uga

LATIN AMERICAN SCIENCE MATERIALS SURVEY

Your name
Name of institution
Do you collect monographs and/or serials about science and technology
in Latin America?
If yes, do you receive them in blanket order plans?
If yes, do you receive them via title-by-title orders from dealers’
catalogs?
If yes, do you receive them via gift and exchange?
If yes, please indicate any particular countries and particular disciplines
within science and technology on which you concentrate.
In what way is your library’s science bibliographer(s) involved in the
acquisition and selection of materials on science and technology from
and about Latin America? In other words, do they work separately
from you in ordering them or provide you guidance in establishing
pertinent subject profiles and collection development policies for Latin
Americana?
Please add any comments about this topic and thank you for your
participation.
APPENDIX B
Summary of Responses Received in LALA-L Survey

Cornell University. Primarily collects in geology through blanket order plans and gift and exchange program with only rare use of single title orders. Science bibliographers do work with the Latin American Librarian.

Dickinson College. Science materials from Latin America not acquired.

Duke University. Collects ecology, including forestry and sustainable development, mycology (specialized faculty interest), and policy-related science (to support public policy program) on title-by-title basis and gift and exchange programs. Science bibliographers work with the Latin American bibliographer on a title-by-title basis.

Harvard College. Collects to limited degree with emphasis on technology transfer and history of science through title-by-title orders and some through gift and exchange program. Also for earth and biological sciences, environmental sciences, and geographic focus on Mexico, Argentina, and Brazil. Makes referrals to the science bibliographers who also independently pursue many materials.

Stanford University. Collects materials on geology and biology through title-by-title orders and gift and exchange program. Makes referrals to the science bibliographers who will indicate if they reject a title for purchase. The Earth Sciences Librarian manages an active Latin American map collection.

University of California, Irvine. Collects in science and technology only in response to specific faculty requests.

University of Connecticut. Collects for history of science and technology for all countries, current materials on the devastation of the rain forest primarily through title-by-title ordering. Supports the Ecology/Evolutionary Biology segment of Latin American Studies program. Has more of the responsibility for ordering Spanish-language materials in the sciences.

University of Florida. The biological science bibliographer actively collects materials primarily for the Caribbean, Central America, Colombia, and Venezuela, but other geographic coverage is also provided. Tropical agriculture is a particular strength. Due to present vacancy of Latin American Collection Librarian/Bibliographer, anticipates working out stronger collaborative efforts in the future.
University of Kansas. Minimal collection is made with gift and exchange program materials from Argentina and Brazil. Kansas State University and the University of Kansas Medical Center respectively take responsibility for technical agriculture and practical medicine.

University of London. Limited collecting through blanket order plans, some firm order titles for secondary works which describe social/political impact of scientific and technological developments or applications.

University of Minnesota. Only minimal collection for agricultural economics.

University of Pittsburgh. Collects for history of science and technology, and scientific and technological matters which affect development, economy and society though less emphasis on blanket order plans than through title-by-title orders and gift and exchange program. Cuba receives extensive collection interest.

NOTES


20. Latin American Forestry Research: Resources and Strategy

Laura Shedenhelm

Introduction

Peggy Johnson, Assistant Director at the University of Minnesota, St. Paul Campus Libraries, published an article entitled “Agricultural Literature: Planning the Preservation of a National Resource” in the December 1991 issue of Technicalities. The article covers the recent movement in the United States to begin preserving the historical agricultural literature of this country. Current library opinion suggests that scientific materials go out of date very quickly and, therefore, there is no particular need to preserve these materials. Ms. Johnson’s article presents arguments why this viewpoint may not be well reasoned.

Contemporary scientists working in the area of biological diversity, for instance, require historical information on the breeding of animals and plant strains to trace the gene pools currently available. Also, the resurgence of traditional biological methods to combat pests and diseases in place of chemicals potentially harmful to humans has meant an increase in the use of “historical” agricultural literature. Here the term “agricultural literature” is used in the broadest sense. It includes not only data on how to plant and maintain crops, and the like, but also information on biotechnology, ecology, rural sociology and rural development, natural resources, and environmental concerns.

What has this got to do with forestry? All of these issues, and more, are covered in the work of the modern forester. Forestry topics will be found in most general agricultural sources. Information relevant to forestry research also will be included in sources for ecology, the environment, and natural and renewable resources. Relevant data will even be found in works covering sources of raw materials for pharmaceuticals and cosmetics. Conversely, publications specifically targeted for forestry practitioners will contain data of interest to many other disciplines.

Editor's Note. This is a reduced version of the original paper which contained additional bibliographic and reference information. The unedited text is available from the author.
The relationship of forestry to other scientific disciplines, as well as to history, economics, and other social science studies, may perhaps be best seen when given context by defining some forestry and related terms. The Agriculture Dictionary by Ray V. Herron and Roy L. Donahue defines forestry as "the sciences, arts and business practices of creating, conserving, and managing natural resources on lands designated as forests." The practice of raising livestock, trees, and other crops on the same ground at the same time is "agroforestry." A term often misused by the layman as synonymous with forestry is silviculture which Herron and Donahue define as "the science and art of growing and tending forest crops, based on a knowledge of silvics." The definition is expanded as "the theory and practice of controlling the establishment, composition, constitution, and growth of forests." Silvics, referred to above, is "the natural science which deals with the [physical and biological] laws underlying the growth and development of single trees and of the forest as a biological unit."

Notice that the definitions move away from a purely crop-related sense toward more complex relationships. The study of the complexity and "pattern of interrelationship of organisms and their environment" is how Herron and Donahue define ecology, a discipline many traditionally nonscientific libraries must now support. "Complex interrelationships" is also descriptive of the work of the modern forester as he is called upon to provide an economic base for a community through growth of forest trees for wood products, while often simultaneously being required to protect this natural resource for the health, education, and entertainment possibilities the forest provides the same community.

Thus far, forestry has been presented in general terms in order to familiarize a nonspecialist audience. Ms. Johnson's article, with which this paper began, was directed at preserving a resource already held in libraries in the United States. One would hope that the historical agricultural and forestry-related materials held in libraries and institutions in Latin American countries will be preserved and retained for the hard and social scientific research needs already mentioned. Also, one could extend Ms. Johnson's concern for preserving scientific information, and in the spirit of SALALM XIV, encourage gathering more of this material for our collections of Latin Americana. With the growing global concern for ecologic and economic well-being, we may find ourselves increasingly called upon to provide information for specific scientific topics. Following is a brief description of research strategy and resources for forestry in Latin America.
Strategy

Many of the research tools Latin Americanists have been using for years will contain information specifically about forestry. See the sources discussed in Edwin S. Gleaves's article "The Most Useful Reference Sources on Latin America." These often will have forestry related information. A prime example is HAPI, Hispanic American Periodicals Index, which includes citations under both the terms "forests" and "forestry."

The 14th edition of the Library of Congress Subject Headings has 41 phrases beginning with the term "forest." Additionally, there are 21 other relevant terms beginning with the characters "forest." Approximately 25 other terms can be found utilizing "use" references. These terms range from afforestation, deforestation, and reforestation to exotic forests, old growth forests, and rain forests. Other related terms include: agroforestry, urban forestry, petrified forests, tropical rain forests, timber, wood, logging, lumbering, clear cutting; fire lookouts, wildfires, prescribed burning; jungle ecology, jungle fauna, and endangered species. There is even a free-floating subdivision under the pattern heading for animals: effect of logging on. The Library of Congress Classification (LCC) scheme also provides an effective avenue for locating materials. The entire SD section of the S schedule is devoted to forestry. Official government documents for Latin American and Caribbean countries will be found in SD15-44. History of forestry and forest conditions for the area will be in SD147-176. Study and teaching of forestry in Latin America is found under SD257-286. Timber trees of specific Latin American countries are found at SD439-468. Administration and policy for forest reserves will be found at SD569-598. For economic treatment of forest products, see in particular HD9764. There are other individual classification numbers which will yield relevant sources. For a dated, but still useful, index to LCC, see my "Latin America, a Conspectus Extracted from the Library of Congress Classification Scheme."

There is good coverage of forestry-related statistics in both the Statistical Abstract of Latin America and Index to International Statistics: ISS. For example, the index to volume 28 of the Statistical Abstract lists 24 tables covering forestry topics, including the 16 tables from chapter 23, "Forestry Production." The other tables are under land use, labor force, selected commodities, central government expenditure, and agriculture. The ISS has index headings for forest fires, forestry development, forests and forestry, lumber industry and products, national forests, national park systems, and paper and paper products.

Three sources for information about governmental and non-governmental agencies are *South America, Central America and the Caribbean, 1991* by Europa Publications, IBCON’s *Directorio de centros de información*, and the 1985 *Directorio Latinoamericano = Latin American Directory: socio-económico, político, académico* published in Quito. The *Directorio* is a somewhat dated four-volume set divided by area (for example, vol. 3 is Grupo Andino). Each volume is then arranged by country and subarranged by section. Section 6.0 of each country covers Agriculture/Forestry, listing the names and addresses of each agency. The Europa *South America, Central America and the Caribbean, 1991* is more timely with a 1990 copyright. Countries are listed alphabetically, giving general government structure. Some countries have longer descriptions which may include a statistical survey, lists of trade associations, and an article on the country’s economy, often including the impact of the forestry sector. An example is the listing for Guyana indicating that over 80 percent of the country is tropical forest, but that the economic exploitation has been minimal and hampered by inaccessibility. The back of the volume describes the activities of regional organizations, including the United Nations, Organization of American States, and others. Finally, there is the *Directorio de centros de información* compiled and published by IBCON, which lists agencies in Mexico. These can be found using the keyword “forestal” in the index.

General reference sources particular to agriculture and forestry which will be useful for the Latin Americanist are also available. One example is *Agricultural Research Centres: A World Directory of Organizations and Programmes*, published in 1988 by Longman and distributed in the United States by Gale. The arrangement is alphabetical, by country, and internally, alphabetical by institution. Data include the center name, address, telephone number, parent organization, and status (e.g., within a private company), scope of activity, and publications. There is a subject index which is subarranged by country. There are also numerous forestry dictionaries, including *Forestry and Forest*

Following is a bibliography primarily consisting of government and international agency publications, followed by a list of databases and computer services which carry forestry information. The bibliography is arranged with both general, noncountry-specific sources and periodicals listed first. Next, the countries are listed alphabetically and subdivided by general titles, government institutions, and nongovernment institutions (including associations and private corporations). Some countries have information in all three categories, while others do not. An attempt was made to locate data for each country in Latin America and the major islands in the Caribbean. Unless otherwise stated, the institution under which the titles are listed is also the publisher. Whenever possible, each title has been verified on OCLC and the citation includes the OCLC record number. By no means is this bibliography exhaustive. It serves only to give a sampling of the types of material available and the variety of forestry topics published.

**BIBLIOGRAPHY**

**General Sources**


**General Periodicals**

An example of Latin American focus is that of the seventh congress celebrated in Buenos Aires in 1972. (OCLC# 21621797)

**Country-Specific Sources**

**Argentina**

**General Titles**

Dimitri, Milán Jorge, and José Santos Biloni, eds. *Libro del árbol; esencias forestales indígenas de la Argentina de aplicación ornamental*. Buenos Aires: Celulosa Argentina, 1973?–. (OCLC#: 3418921)


**Government Institutions**

Instituto Forestal Nacional. Buenos Aires. The Institute publishes:

*Anuario de Estadística Forestal*. Annual; began sometime before 1962. (OCLC#: 1783549)

*Festival internacional de películas forestales = Festival international de films forestiers = International Forestry Film Festival*. 1972 (OCLC#: 875943)

*Folleto Técnico Forestal*. Frequency unknown; no. 32– (October 1973–). (OCLC#: 13045404)

Servicio Nacional de Parques Nacionales. Buenos Aires. The Park Service publishes:

*Anales de Parques Nacionales*. Irregular; 1957–. (OCLC#: 2240476)

**Nongovernment Institutions**

Asociación de Técnicos de la Industria Papelera y Ecelulósica Argentina. Buenos Aires. The Association publishes:

*Trabajos Técnicos*. Annual; 1977–. (OCLC#: 18348554)
Bahamas
General Titles

Belize
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Government Institutions

Bolivia
Nongovernment Institutions

Universidad Técnica del Beni “Mariscal José Balliván.” Trinidad.

Brazil
General Titles


**Government Institutions**

Centro de Pesquisas de Productos Florestais. Manaus. Publishes:  
*Série técnica.* (OCLC#: 19221588)

Fundação Instituto Brasileiro de Geografia e Estatística. Rio de Janeiro. Publishes:  
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Instituto Nacional de Pesquisas da Amazônia. Manaus. Publishes: 
Acta Amazônica. Quarterly; April 1971-. (OCLC#: 3494363)

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Inventário florestal das estações experimentais do Instituto Florestal. (OCLC#: 6089200)

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Superintendência do Desenvolvimento do Nordeste. Divisão de Recursos Renováveis. Recife. Publishes: 
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Escola Superior de Agricultura “Luis de Queiroz.” Instituto de Pesquisas e Estudos Florestais. Piracicaba. Publishes: 
IPEF. Semi-annual; 1970--; beginning Dec. 1987, 3 times per year. (OCLC#: 1194377)

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Universidade Federal do Paraná. Centro de Pesquisas Florestais. Curitiba. Publishes:
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Celulose Nipo-Brasileira, S.A. Belo Horizonte. Publishes:
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Centro Técnico em Celulose e Papel. São Paulo. Publishes:

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Chile

General Titles


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Corporación Nacional Forestal. Santiago de Chile. Publishes:

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*Chile Forestal*. Monthly; Aug. 1975–. (OCLC#: 2696775)

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Asociación Chilena de Ingenieros Forestales. Santiago. Publishes:

*Actas de las Jornadas Forestales*. Annual; began sometime before 1968. (OCLC#: 3903662)
Corporación Chilena de la Madera. Santiago. Publishes:
    *Boletín Informativo.* Frequency varies; began sometime before 1984. (OCLC#: 13136296)

Universidad Austral de Chile. Facultad de Ingeniería Forestal. Valdivia. Publishes:
    *Actas.* 1982. (OCLC#: 16387566)
    *Bosque.* Semi-annual; 1975–. (OCLC#: 2739972)
    *Charlas y Conferencias.* Annual; 1973–. (OCLC#: 5871829)

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    *Manual.* 1974–.

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    *Simposio Economía Forestal en Chile: Concepción-Chile, 28-29 de mayo 1986.* (OCLC#: 18956127)


**Colombia**

Government Institutions

Instituto Geográfico “Agustín Codazzi.” Dirección Agrícola. Bogotá. Publishes:

Universidad del Tolma. Facultad de Ingeniería Forestal. Ibagué. Publishes:

Universidad Distrital “Francisco José de Caldas.” Facultad de Ingeniería Forestal. Bogotá. Publishes:
Costa Rica
Government Institutions
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Centro Agronómico Tropical de Investigación y Enseñanza. Turrialba. Publishes:
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Cuba
Government Institutions
Centro de Información y Divulgación Agropecuaria. Havana. Publishes:
   Revista forestal Baracoa. Frequency unknown; began sometime before 1980. (OCLC#: 12630259)
Centro de Investigación Forestal. Havana. Publishes:


**Dominican Republic**

Government Institutions

Dirección General Forestal. Santo Domingo. Publishes:

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Dirección Nacional de Parques. Santo Domingo. Publishes:

*Parques Nacionales.* Frequency unknown; August 1980–. (OCLC#: 7348782)

**Ecuador**

General Titles


Government Institutions

Centro de Captación e Investigación Forestal de Conocoto. Departamento de Administración de Areas y Vida Silvestre. Quito. Publishes:

*Programa de Actividades del Departamento de Administración de Areas y Vida Silvestre.* Frequency unknown; began sometime before 1977. (OCLC#: 4277436)

Departamento Forestal. Quito. Publishes:

*Informe Anual.* Annual; beginning date unknown. (OCLC#: 6102009)

*Circular.* Monographic series probably now ceased.

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*Inventario Forestal de la Región Amazónica Ecuatoriana: Convenio Interinstitucional entre el Ministerio de Agricultura y Ganadería (MAG) y el Centro de Levantamientos Integrados de Recursos Naturales por Sensores Remotos (CLIRSEN).* 1981–.

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Asociación de Industriales Madereros. Quito. Publishes:

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Government Institutions
Centre de Cayenne. Cayenne. Publishes:
   Cremers, G. *Végétation et flore illustrée des savanes: l’example de la savane bordelaise*. 1982. (OCLC#: 22762857)

Guadeloupe
Government Institutions
Centre Technique Forestier Tropical. Nogent-sur-Marne. Publishes:
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Guatemala
Government Institutions
Instituto Nacional Forestal. Guatemala City. Publishes:
   *Mapa de zonas de vida a nivel de reconocimiento*. 1983. (OCLC#: 12549614)

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Government Institutions
Forest Department. Georgetown. Publishes:
   *Annual Report*. Annual; 1966–. (OCLC#: 5085436)
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Forest Department Library. Georgetown. Publishes:


Ministry of Forests, Lands, and Mines. Georgetown. Publishes:


**Haiti**

Government Institutions

Ministère de l'agriculture, des ressources naturelles et du développement rural. Port-au-Prince.

**Honduras**

Government Institutions

Corporación Hondureña de Desarrollo Forestal. Tegucigalpa. Publishes:

*Boletín COHDEFOR*. Frequency unknown; began sometime before May 1981. (OCLC#: 8466097)

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Corporación Forestal e Industrial de Olancho. Olancho. Publishes:

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**Jamaica**

General Titles

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Forest Department. Kingston. Publishes:
Annual Report. Annual; began sometime before 1946. (OCLC#: 5094344)
Forestry Bulletin. Monographic series that may have ceased.

Mexico
General Titles
El Mensajero Forestal. Monthly; Nov. 1942-. Durango: [s.n.]. (OCLC#: 1585569)

Government Institutions
Centro de Investigaciones Forestales y Agropecuarias de Oaxaca. Oaxaca. Publishes:
Primera Reunión Científica Forestal y Agropecuaria. 1988. (OCLC#: 2386061)

Dirección General de Inventario Nacional Forestal. México, DF. Publishes:
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Dirección General de Investigación y Captación Forestales. México, DF. Publishes:
Plantaciones forestales, primera reunión nacional: memoria. 1978. (OCLC#: 8477723)

Dirección General de Política y Desarrollo Agropecuario y Forestal. México, DF. Publishes:
Agenda Ejecutiva de Datos Básicos. Annual; began sometime in the mid 1980s. (OCLC#: 2441107)

Instituto Mexicano de Recursos Naturales Renovables. México, DF. Publishes:
Publicaciones. 1952-.

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Boletín técnico. Monographic series, beginning date unknown.
Catálogo. 1980-. 
Ciencia Forestal: Revista del Instituto Nacional de Investigaciones Forestales. Bimonthly; May 1976–. (OCLC#: 3134320)


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Publicación especial. Monographic series; beginning date unknown.

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Instituto Nacional de Investigaciones sobre Recursos Bióticos. Xalapa, Veracruz. Publishes:

Biótica: Publicación del Instituto de Investigaciones sobre Recursos Bióticos, AC. 4 per year; 1977–. (OCLC#: 3995712)

INIREB Informa. Irregular; 1976–. (OCLC#: 4354128)

La Madera y su Uso. Frequency unknown; 1988–. Published by allied Laboratorio de Ciencia y Tecnología de la Madera. (OCLC#: 21309822)

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Cifras Estadísticas de la Producción Forestal. Annual; began sometime before 1978. (OCLC#: 1833594)

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Subsecretaría de Desarrollo y Fomento Agropecuario y Forestal. México, DF.

Secretaría Forestal y de la Fauna. México, DF. Publishes:
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Unidad Industrial de Explotación Forestal de San Rafael. México, DF. Publishes:
    Boletín. 1972–.

Nongovernment Institutions

Asociación Mexicana de Profesionistas Forestales. México, DF. Publishes:
    México y sus Bosques. Frequency unknown; 1962–. (OCLC#: 5167063)

Sociedad Forestal Mexicana. México, DF. Publishes:
    México Forestal. Monthly; 1923–. (OCLC#: 1681368)

Sociedad Mexicana de Entomología. México, DF. Publishes:

Universidad de Guadalajara. Guadalajara. Publishes:
    Tiempos de Ciencia: Revista de Difusión Científica. Quarterly; Oct./Dec. 1985–. (OCLC#: 14253861)

Universidad de Guadalajara. Instituto de Madera, Celulosa y Papel. Guadalajara. Publishes:
    Amatl: Boletín del Instituto de Madera, Celulosa y Papel. Quarterly; Apr./Jun. 1987–. (OCLC#: 16643877)

Nicaragua

Nongovernment Institutions

Instituto Nicaragüense de Recursos Naturales y del Ambiente. Managua. Publishes:
    Introducción a los recursos naturales y el ambiente en Nicaragua. 1980. (OCLC#: 21686088)

Panama

Government Institutions

Dirección General de Recursos Naturales Renovables. Panama City. Publishes:
Memoria. Frequency and beginning date unknown. Published through Ministerio de Desarrollo Agropecuario, parent agency of Dirección. (OCLC#: 2241190)

Paraguay

Government Institutions
Servicio Forestal Nacional. Asunción. Publishes:

- Biological Inventory News. Irregular; 1981–. (OCLC#: 15809463)
- Folleto Anual del Arbol. Annual; 1976–. (OCLC#: 22961089)
- Plan de manejo y desarrollo conceptual del Parque Nacional Cerro Corá. 1982. (OCLC#: 12421309)
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Peru

General Titles

Government Institutions
Instituto de Investigaciones Forestales. La Molina. Publishes:

- Revista Forestal del Perú. Irregular; began in the 1960s. (OCLC#: 1585873)

Instituto Nacional Forestal y de Fauna. Lima. Publishes:

- Documento de trabajo. 1981–.

Oficina Nacional de Evaluación de Recursos Nacionales. Lima.

Universidad Nacional Agraria. La Molina. Publishes:

- Aróstegui Vargas, Antonio. Estudio Tecnológico de Maderas del Perú. 1976–.

Puerto Rico

See citations under United States.

El Salvador

Government Institutions
Programa de Vida Silvestre. San Salvador. Publishes:

Surinam
Government Institutions
State Forest Industriels. Paramaribo. Publishes:


Trinidad and Tobago
Government Institutions
Forestry Division. Port-of-Spain. Publishes:

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Government Institutions

U.S. Department of Agriculture, Forest Service. Washington, DC. Publishes:


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Maeglin, Robert R., ed. Forest Products from Latin America: An Almanac of the State of the Knowledge and the State of the Art. 1991. (OCLC#: 24137996)

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U.S. Department of Agriculture, Forest Service, Pacific Southwest Forest and Range Experiment Station. Berkeley, CA. Publishes:


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Annual Letter. Annual; began before 1984/85. (OCLC#: 3012671)

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Smithsonian Tropical Research Institute. Balboa, Panamá. Publishes:
The Barro Colorado Nature Monument. 1987? (OCLC#: 1502159)

Uruguay
Government Institutions
Dirección Forestal. Areas de Interés Forestal. Montevideo. Publishes:
República Oriental del Uruguay. 1986? (OCLC#: 18639467)
Dirección Forestal, Parques y Fauna. Montevideo. Publishes:
Instrumentos legales de la política forestal. 1979. (OCLC#: 7763283)
Primera carta forestal. 1979. (OCLC#: 13924943)
Proyecto de desarrollo forestal. 1974. (OCLC#: 1369619)

Universidad del Trabajo del Uruguay, Escuela Industrial de Silvicultura. Montevideo. Publishes:
Silvicultura. Frequency unknown; 1951–. (OCLC#: 1779940)

Nongovernment Institutions
Centro Interdisciplinario de Estudios Sobre el Desarrollo de Uruguay. Montevideo. Publishes:
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Venezuela
Government Institutions
Laboratorio Nacional de Productos Forestales. Mérida. Publishes:
Arroyo Pérez, Joel, ed. Características, propiedades, y usos de 104 maderas de los altos llanos occidentales. 1974. (OCLC#: 21073856)

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Revista Forestal Venezolana. Annual; 1958–. (OCLC#: 2996931)
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Instituto Forestal Latinoamericano. Mérida. Publishes:

Bibliografía Forestal Latinoamericana. Frequency unknown; 1982–. English edition. (OCLC#: 10887374)

Latin American Forestry Bibliography. Quarterly; 1982–. (OCLC#: 1294855)

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Serie maderas comerciales de Venezuela. 1982–.

International Agencies
Board of the Cartagena Agreement, Departamento de Política Tecnológica. Lima. Publishes:

Informe de la Junta del Acuerdo de Cartagena Ciencia y Tecnología en el Grupo Andino. Annual; beginning date unknown.

Central American Research Institute for Industry. Guatemala City. Publishes:

Porres, Carlos, and Jaime Valladares. Producción de Pulpa y Papel con Materias Primas Autóctonas Centroamericanas. 1979–. (OCLC#: 9393416)

Food and Agricultural Organization (FAO). Rome. Publishes:


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Inter-American Development Bank. Washington, DC. Publishes:


International Union of Forest Research Organizations. London. Publishes:

Improved Utilization of Timber Resources in South America: A Programme for Action. 1986. (OCLC#: 19403320)

Organization of American States. Instituto Interamericano de Ciencias Agrícolas. Washington, DC. Publishes:


Databases and Computer Services

Government and International Agencies

AGRICOLA
United States Department of Agriculture
Agricultural On-Line Access (AGRICOLA)
Information Systems Division
10301 Baltimore Blvd.
Beltsville, MD 20705
(phone: 301-344-3813)
Available through BRS, BRS/After Dark, DIALOG, DIMDI, and on CD-ROM.
Bibliographic database; 2.5+ million records beginning 1970; updates monthly adding 190,000 records yearly.
Contains: Bibliography of Agriculture and the National Agricultural Catalog.

AGRIS & AGROSTAT
United Nations
Food and Agricultural Organization (FAO)
Via delle Terme di Caracalla
I-00100 Rome, ITALY
(phone: 06 57971)
These databases are at least partially available through DIALOG and ESA/IRS.
AGRIS
Bibliographic database; 1.8 million records from 1973; updated monthly, adding 120,000 items each year. Available in printed form as AGRINDEX (English, French, and Spanish editions).
Contains: 17 subject categories which include agricultural and forestry topics; author, title, and subject indexes.

AGROSTAT
Information from the Statistics Division of the FAO. Tapes available for purchase on an annual basis.
Statistical database; 980,000 statistical items from 1961.
Contains: data and references covering 200+ countries and territories, 800 commodities, and 2,300 agriculture-related variables.

AGRITROP
International Cooperation Center of Agricultural Research for Development (Centre de Cooperation pour le Developpment–CIRAD)
AGRITROP
BP 5035
F-34032 Montpellier Cedex 1, FRANCE
(phone: 01 67615800)
Not sure if available online.
Publication is quarterly and abstracts tropical agriculture and forestry information.

BioBusiness
BIOSIS
2100 Arch St.
Philadelphia, PA 19103-1399
(phone: 215-587-4800)
Available through DIALOG and BRS.
Bibliographic database; 397,000+ citations from 1985; updated monthly.
Contains: citations from 1,100 technical and business journals, magazines, newsletters, conference papers, and books. Covers economic aspects of forestry, among other life science topics.
Depending on scope of research, may want to scan other BIOSIS databases (BIOSIS Previews and Zoological Record in particular).

BIOLOGICAL & AGRICULTURAL INDEX
H. W. Wilson Company
950 University Ave.
Bronx, NY 10452
(phone: 212-588-8400)
Available through BRS, WILSONLINE, and on CD-ROM.
Bibliographical database; 175,000+ records from 1983 forward; updates twice weekly, adding 50,000 records each year.
Contains: citations from English-language articles from 225 periodicals.

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(phone: 602-621-7897; toll-free: 800-528-4841)
Available via DIALOG, BRS, BRS/After Dark, CAN/OLE (Canadian Online Enquiry System), ESA/IRS (European Space Agency, Information Retrieval System), or DIMDI (Deutsches Institut fur Medizinische Dokumentation und Information). Also available on CD-ROM.
Bibliographic database; 2.5 million records dating from 1973; updated monthly with 11,000 new records.
Contains: Forestry Abstracts (monthly), Forest Products Abstracts (bimonthly), Agroforestry Abstracts (quarterly).

CRIS
United States Department of Agriculture
Cooperative State Research Service (CSRS)
Current Research Information System (CRIS)
National Agricultural Library Bldg.
Beltsville, MD 20705
(phone: 301-344-3846)
Available on DIALOG and CD-ROM.
Full-text database; 35,000+ ongoing projects; updated monthly.
Contains: descriptions of government-sponsored research in agriculture and forestry. Information entered at the outset of a project, updated annually throughout the life of the project, then deleted two years after the end of the project. Corresponds to Inventory of Agricultural Research (annual publication distributed to USDA offices).
CUTTER INFORMATION GROUP
Cutter Information Group
37 Broadway
Arlington, MA 02174-5539
(phone: 617-648-8700)
Available through NewsNet, Inc.
Full-text database?
Relevant newsletters: Business of the Environment, Global Environmental Change Report (GECR) which both cover deforestation among other environmental topics.

DRI DEVELOPING COUNTRIES
Data Resources Data Products Division
24 Hartwell Ave.
Lexington, MA 02173
(phone: 617-863-5100)
Available through producer.
Numeric database; 4,000 time series; updates: monthly data (since 1969), quarterly data (since 1961), annual data (since 1949).
Contains: economic profiles of industrial production by activity, international trade, product accounts, prices by sector for the following Latin American countries: Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Mexico, Peru, Venezuela.

DRI INTERNATIONAL COST FORECASTING
Available through producer.
Numeric database; 10-12 year forecasts since 1972; updates quarterly.
Contains: commodity-specific price indexes and industry-specific wage indexes. Covers raw materials, rubber, construction materials. Latin American coverage for Brazil only.

FOREST INFORMATION RETRIEVAL SYSTEM
Forest Products Information Retrieval System
Forest Products Research Society
2801 Marshall Court
Madison, WI 53705
(phone: 608-231-1361)
Available through ORBIT. Citations and abstracts available on fiche.
FS-INFO & INFOSOUTH
United States Forest Service
Forest Service Information Network—Forestry Online (FS-INFO)
10301 Baltimore Blvd.
Beltsville, MD 20705
(phone: 301-344-2507)
Not currently available through commercial networks.

FS-INFO
This is the information network for the U.S. Forest Service which includes an electronic mail system, word processing and statistical packages, and a bibliographic database containing citations for books, serials, articles, chapters of books, technical reports, and unpublished papers by Forest Service personnel and others on any forestry-related topic. The subject terms come from the CAB Thesaurus. The database contains primarily English-language materials, but there are Spanish-language papers from symposia cosponsored by the U.S. Forest Service. Some examples include conference papers on Latin American rain forests and forest management in Colombia. Keep in mind that the U.S. Forest Service covers Puerto Rico and the U.S. Virgin Islands.

INFOSOUTH
University of Georgia
Science Library
Athens, GA 30602
(phone: 706-546-2477; FAX: 706-546-2465)
Primary clientele is U.S. Forest Service for Region 8 and Southern and Southeastern Forest Experiment Stations. Services to others are on fee-based arrangement. Supports all aspects of forest-related research and operations.

LATIN AMERICAN FORECAST
The WEFA Group
150 Monument Road
Bala Cynwyd, PA 19004
(phone: 215-667-6000)
Available through producer.
Numeric database; 2,300 time series; coverage since 1948; updates quarterly.
Contains: macroeconomic forecasts for Argentina, Brazil, Bolivia, Chile, Colombia, Ecuador, Mexico, Peru, Uruguay, Venezuela including imports/exports by major category.
LATIN AMERICAN NEWSLETTERS (LAN)
Latin American Newsletter Ltd.
61 Old Street
London, EC1V 9HX England
(phone: 01 251 0012)
Available through NEXIS.
Full-text database; since 1967; updates weekly.
Contains: economic as well as political and social developments in Brazil, Mexico, Central America, Andean region, and Southern cone. Of particular interest would be Latin American Commodities Report (12/yr.) and Latin American Economic Report (12/yr.).

MONTHLY LATIN AMERICA
The WEFA Group
150 Monument Road
Bala Cynwyd, PA 19004
(phone: 215-667-6000)
Available through producer.
Numeric database; since 1978; updates twice weekly.
Contains: major commodity exports and prices for Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Ecuador, Mexico, Peru, Puerto Rico, Uruguay, and Venezuela.

PAPERCHEM
Institute of Paper Science & Technology (IPST)
Information Services Division
575 14th St., N.W.
Atlanta, GA 38318
(phone: 404-853-9500)
Available through DIALOG.
Bibliographic database; 267,000+ abstracts from 1967.
Contains: abstracts from 1,000+ U.S. and foreign journals, patents, books, conference and symposia papers, and technical publications in 20+ languages. Covers scientific and technical aspects of pulp and paper industry, patents, machinery, forestry, silviculture, and others.

POLYMER SCIENCE & TECHNOLOGY (POST)
American Chemical Society (ACS)
Chemical Abstracts Service (CAS)
2540 Olentangy River Rd.
P.O. Box 3012
Columbus, OH 43210
R tapes available from producer. Printed version is included in Chemical Abstracts, issued weekly.

Bibliographic database; updated biweekly.
Contains: articles on chemical information related to forest and wood products, including paper, natural rubber, lignin, and others.

RISI PULP AND PAPER
DRI/McGraw-Hill
24 Hartwell Ave.
Lexington, MA 02173
(phone: 617-863-5100)
Available on 3.5" or 5.25" diskettes (MS-DOS 2.1 or higher).
Numeric database; covers 1965 forward; updated weekly.
Contains: 4,100 time series on production, shipments, capacity, prices, inventories, costs, demand, and end-use market indicators. Latin American coverage is for Brazil.

TIMBER INFORMATION KEYWORD RETRIEVAL (TINKER)
Timber Research and Development Association (TRADA)
Information and Advisory Department
Stocking Lane
Hughenden Valley
High Wycombe, Bucks. HP14 4ND
England
(phone: 0240 243091)
Available through the producer for a fee.
Bibliographic database; 17,500 items from 1974 forward.
Contains: citations from worldwide forest products literature on utilization of timber and wood-based products.

TRADE & INDUSTRY INDEX
Information Access Company (IAC)
362 Lakeside Drive
Foster City, CA 94404
(phone: 415-378-5000; toll-free: 800-227-8431)
Available through DIALOG.
Bibliographic database; 2 million records from 1981 forward; updated monthly adding 20,000 each update.
Contains: index citations to 1,500+ trade, business, and industry journals covering business information which includes agriculture and forestry.
Full-text version of 360 of the journals (300,000 articles from 1983 forward) is called Trade & Industry ASAP and is available through DIALOG, BRS, and NEXIS.

USDA ONLINE
United States Department of Agriculture
Office of Information
Special Programs Division
14th and Independence Ave., S.W.
Washington, DC 20250
(phone: 202-447-5505)
Not currently available through commercial networks.
Full-text database covering current month; updated daily.
Contains: news releases of USDA and cooperating agencies.
Subfiles of interest include: Foreign Agricultural Service Trade Leads and Reports, Agricultural Facts, and Agricultural Trade Export and Import Information.

NOTES

3. Ibid., p. 10.
4. Ibid., p. 435.
5. Ibid.
6. Ibid.
7. Ibid., p. 150.
10. HAPI, Hispanic American Periodicals Index (Los Angeles: UCLA Latin American Center Publications, University of California, 1975–).


21. Cataloging Backlogs: Taming the Monster

Nelly S. González

Introduction

In today’s atmosphere of sharp budget cuts, academic libraries are finding it increasingly difficult to fulfill their historic mission with the same effectiveness that they did in days of more plentiful financial resources. Backlogs of uncataloged materials have been a fact of life for libraries, but they are now a matter of greater importance as cataloging staffs shrink. As a consequence, the number of uncataloged items of all types is growing, especially in those libraries with aggressive acquisition programs.

The Effect of Uncataloged Materials

Academic libraries cannot afford to allow the amount of uncataloged materials to grow indefinitely. Patrons cannot access a library’s uncataloged materials and are effectively denied access to these resources even though they are in the library’s collection. New acquisitions are more likely not to have been cataloged than older materials; this tendency hinders a patron’s search for desired information. Libraries need to find innovative means of creating avenues of access to uncataloged materials in order to make more of the library’s acquisitions accessible to users.

Addressing the Problem at the University of Illinois Library

At the Latin American Library Services Unit of the University of Illinois, we have encountered the problems described above. The presence of significant, unaccessible backlogs of uncataloged materials was not acceptable, and we resolved to find an effective, yet budget-efficient, alternative. Any option needed to satisfy two overriding criteria: significantly improved access for library patrons and extreme ease of implementation for both library personnel and the interested patron. We elaborated the following procedures to meet those ends.

Incoming materials are assigned an accession number which is input into the University of Illinois ILLINET ONLINE (LCS/FBR) catalog along with the: author, title, year of publication, and date of
creation of the online record. The accession number is not meant as a replacement for the Dewey Decimal Classification number and is deleted once a full bibliographic record of the material exists in the online catalog.

The assigned accession number is not related in any way to the particulars of a material; it merely indicates the order of processing at the library of the uncataloged item. Therefore, a material with accession number 002 was processed subsequent to an item with accession number 001. This method provides technical services staff with a processing sequence while allowing a patron to search for materials by author, title, a combination of author and title, and by key word.

The Latin American Library Services Unit first targeted the above approach for uncataloged materials resulting from blanket order acquisitions. As a legacy of this original focus, accession numbers carry the prefix LABO (Latin American Blanket Order). However, all uncataloged Latin American acquisitions, except direct monographic orders, have now been incorporated into this system.

Serials carry an added prefix to their LABO designation. An “S-” precedes their sequence of numbers, which is a totally different sequence from the monograph accession numbers. As a result both a LABO.001 and LABO.S-001 can exist concurrently, but the former is a monograph and the latter is a serial.

When serials were initially given accession numbers, the “S” was added as a suffix; this caused interspersion of serial records between monograph records. To better track serials and monographs separately, the “S” was switched from a suffix to a prefix, which allows shelflist browsing of monographs and serials separately. This is very useful for assessing the quantity and type of serials in the backlog.

Mechanics of the Accession Numbers in Practice

At the University of Illinois Latin American Library Services Unit, uncataloged materials generate three “LABO” cards. Figure 1 is an example of a “LABO” serial card. One copy of the card accompanies the item for which it was generated, the second copy is sent to the Automated Records Maintenance Unit for data entry into the ILLINET ONLINE catalog, and the third copy remains with the Latin American Library Unit for administrative control.

Once an item has been input into ILLINET, the uncataloged item is sent to a segregated area of the library which is only accessible to faculty and library personnel. Although all the uncataloged collection is held in one area, serials are physically separated from monographs.
Patrons seeking an uncataloged item fill out a request based on the online information, and library personnel retrieve the desired material from the uncataloged collection. The interested library user is then issued the item with a Temporary Circulation Slip (fig. 2). Figure 3 is a Delayed Service Memo which indicates that the item will be available for the patron to pick up at a later date.

**Collateral Benefits of Organizing Uncataloged Materials**

Besides the intended result of increased access to uncataloged serials, various unintended benefits create opportunities for better management of the library collection.

As those uncataloged materials most frequently requested are presumed to be those with the widest application, the library has evolved a system that correlates circulation with cataloging priority. At the University of Illinois Library, materials issued with Temporary Circulation Slips (required for the circulation of uncataloged items) are cataloged prior to other components of the collection. In this way, the more useful materials are made readily available to patrons with greater speed.

Another beneficial consequence of the accession-number system is that the quantity and diversity of the uncataloged portion of the library collection are easier to measure and analyze. As an example, see tables 1 and 2 which organize uncataloged Latin American serials at the University of Illinois Library by country of origin and year of publication.

**Conclusion**

It is clear that academic libraries need to develop innovative approaches to minimize the impact of financial constraints on their effectiveness. This paper describes the University of Illinois’s procedures designed to provide patrons with automated access to library materials before they receive full cataloging and reach the public shelves.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Call Number</th>
<th>Date due</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Labo.S-001</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Volume</th>
<th>Copy</th>
<th>Month/Year</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>#1</td>
<td>1969</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Author**

**Title**

América Latina Hoy

**Patron Status**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>UG</th>
<th>Grad</th>
<th>Fac</th>
<th>N-A</th>
<th>PI</th>
<th>PII</th>
<th>Dep</th>
<th>Misc</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>X</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Name:** Pérez, Pablo

**ID number** 00007326-98

**Address**

12 Green Street

**City** Champaign **zip** 61821

**Phone Number** (217)383-3300

**Rec'd by:**

**Charged by:** 203-101-91

Fig. 2. Temporary Circulation Slip
DELAYED SERVICE MEMO

Labo.S-001

Vol.1, No 1, 1969

X SEARCH
☐ PICK-UP —

☐ STV
☐ EBO
☐ LABO
☐ Carrel pick-up
☐ Other

On Friday 22, May bring this slip back to the Circulation Desk (or call 333-2934) anytime after: 11 AM — searches
4 PM — pick-ups

Material will be held three days if found.

203-68-81, REV.

Fig. 3. Delayed Service Memo
Table 1. Uncataloged Serials by Country of Origin

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Number of serial titles</th>
<th>Number of items</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Argentina</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>263</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bolivia</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brazil</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>246</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chile</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colombia</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Costa Rica</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cuba</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dominican Republic</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ecuador</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>El Salvador</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Great Britain</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guatemala</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guyana</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Haiti</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Honduras</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Israel</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jamaica</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mexico</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>116</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Netherlands</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nicaragua</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Panama</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paraguay</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peru</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Portugal</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Puerto Rico</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sweden</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Switzerland</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spain</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trinidad &amp; Tobago</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unspecified</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uruguay</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>United States</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Venezuela</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>West Indies</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>480</td>
<td>1,227</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 2. Uncataloged Serial Items by Date of Publication

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time period</th>
<th>Number of items</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1875-1900</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1901-1925</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1926-1950</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1951-1975</td>
<td>214</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1976-1992</td>
<td>948</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No Date</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
About the Authors

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Gayle Williams is Bibliographer for Latin America, Spain and Portugal at the University of Georgia, Athens, Georgia.

Donald F. Wisdom basks in the glow of his retirement. Until 1992 he was Chief of the Serials and Government Publications Division of the Library of Congress, Washington, DC.
Program

Monday, June 1, 1992
8:30-10:00 Opening Session

Opening: David Block, President, SALALM, Cornell University
Welcome: Harold W. Billings, Director, the General Libraries, University of Texas at Austin
Brooke Sheldon, Dean, Graduate School of Library and Information Science, University of Texas at Austin
Peter S. Cleaves, Director, Institute of Latin American Studies, University of Texas at Austin
Laura Gutierrez-Witt, Director, Benson Latin American Collection, University of Texas at Austin

11:00-12:30 Theme Panel 1
The Broad Contours of Area Studies
Moderator: Peter Stern, Rutgers University
Panelists: Davydd Greenwood, Cornell University, “Area Studies in the 1990s”
Greg Urban, University of Texas, “Latin America in a Public Planet”
Richard Woods, Trinity University, “Latin American Studies in the Private, Liberal Arts University”
Merry Burlingham, University of Texas, “The Sannyasin Scholar: Access and Ownership in a South Asian Context”

1:30-5:00 Database Demonstrations

2:00-3:30 Theme Panel 2
Area Studies and Libraries
Moderator: Deborah Jakubs, Duke University
Panelists: Ross Atkinson, Cornell University, “Collection Development for Area Studies”
Brooke Sheldon, University of Texas, “The Professional Preparation of Area Studies Librarians”

Jutta Reed-Scott, Association of Research Libraries, “The ARL Foreign Area Project”

Panel A

Overlooked, Underutilized, or Neglected? The Bibliography of Latin American Science and Technology

Moderator: Gayle Williams, University of Georgia, “Collection Patterns in U.S. Research Libraries for Scientific Literature of Latin America”

Panelists: Laura Shedenhelm, University of Georgia, “Latin American Forestry Research: Resources and Strategy”

Nelda Coligan, National Library of Medicine, “Selection and Acquisitions of Latin American Monographs at the National Library of Medicine (U.S.)”

Panel B

Perspectives on the Quinto Centenario

Moderator: Russ Davidson, University of New Mexico

Panelists: John Hébert, Library of Congress “Quincennial Activities in the United States”

José Juncosa, Editorial ABYA-YALA, “Publicaciones del Quinto Centenario en Ecuador”

Alberto Montalvo, Editorial Inca, “Publicaciones del Quinto Centenario en Bolivia y Venezuela”

3:30-5:00 Reports from the Library of Congress

Moderator: Terry Peet


Cole Blasier and Georgette Dorn, “The Hispanic Division”

Carlos Olave, “Cataloging”

6:30-8:00 Benson Latin American Collection

Open House and Reception

Carmen Ramos, Occidental College, “Genaro García: Profile of a Book Collector”
Tuesday, June 2, 1992 (day in San Antonio)
Panel C
San Antonio and Its Mission System
Speakers: Adán Benavides, Independent Scholar
Gerald Poyo, Institute of Texan Cultures

Wednesday, June 3, 1992
8:30-10:00 Town Meeting
Moderator: David Block

10:30-12:00 Theme Panel 3
Latin American Revolutions and U.S. Cities: Multicultural Contexts in San Antonio, Miami, and Austin
Moderator: Susan Shaw, South Dakota State University
Panelists: Bill Beezley, Texas Christian University, "San Antonio: Capital of Insurgent Mexico"
Tony Harvell, University of San Diego, "Miami and the Cuban Revolution: Ties Across the Straits of Florida"
Gilberto Rivera, CAMILA, Austin
Commentator: Henry Schmidt, Texas A&M

Panel D
Basques in America
Moderator: Ellen Brow, University of Nevada, "Basque Violets for Basque Terrace-ists: Contemplating a Level Five Collection"
Panelists: Luis Moreno, "The 'Vascos en America' Database"
Jon Bilbao, "Basque Bibliography"
Linda White, University of Nevada, "Basque on the Title Page"

Round Table 1
Issues in Cataloging Latin American Serials, sponsored by the Serials Subcommittee
Moderator: Scott Van Jacob, Dickinson College
Panelists: Sue Fuller, University of Texas, and Cathleen Nelson, Tulane University, "Cataloging Latin American Serials"
Nelly S. González, University of Illinois, “Cataloging Backlogs: Taming the Monster”

Michael Hieronymous, University of Texas, “The User and Serials Cataloging: A Perspective from the Reference Desk”

12:00-1:30  No-host lunches
Karen Lindvall-Larsen, “A Large-Scale Move and Temporary Storage of Latin American Materials”
Ann Hartness and David Block, “Opportunities Abroad” (organized by ENLACE)

1:30-3:00  Panel E
Latin American Approval Plans, sponsored by the Acquisitions Committee
Moderator: Pat Noble, University of London
Panelists: Dan Hazen, Harvard College, “Planning Approval Plans”
Peter Stern, Rutgers University, “Troubleshooting”
Ann Wade, British Library, “Using the Conspectus to Establish Approval Plans”
Vera Araujo de Shellard and Alfredo Montalvo, “Vendors’ Points of View”

Workshop A
Current Status and Future Prospects for Primary Sources from and about Marginalized Peoples and Ideas, sponsored by the Subcommittee on Marginalized Peoples and Ideas
Participating: Carmen Muricy (subcommittee chair), Dan Hazen, César Rodríguez, Ludwig Lauerhass, Ann Hartness, Georgette Dorn, Peter Johnson

Round Table 2
Mexican National Documents, sponsored by the Documents Subcommittee
Rosa María Fernandez de Zamora, “Documentos nacionales de México”
Thursday, June 4, 1992
8:30-10:00  Theme Panel 4

Library Communications: Vertical and Horizontal, sponsored by the Committee on Library Operations and Services
Moderator: Richard Phillips, University of Colorado
Panelists: César Rodríguez, Yale University, "Reorganization and Communication"
Ann Wade, British Library, "Approaching a Major Restructuring"
Commentators: Mina Jane Grothey, University of New Mexico
Nancy Hallock, University of Pittsburgh
Tony Harvell, University of San Diego

Panel F

Salmalm Hall of Fame
Moderator: Mark Grover, Brigham Young University
Panelists: Rachel Barredo Edensword, USIS, "Emma C. Simonson"
John Wheat, University of Texas, "Nettie Lee Benson"
Don Wisdom, Library of Congress, "Marietta Daniels Shepard"

Workshop B

Cataloging of Latin American Legal Materials, sponsored by the Subcommittee on Cataloging and Bibliographic Technology
Moderator: Crystal Graham, UC San Diego
Panelists: Lynn Shirley, Harvard Law Library
Nancy Zaphiris, Harvard Law Library