DttP

Documents to the People

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03/05

DttP

Documents to the People
Fall 2005 | Volume 33, No. 3

Columns

Articles

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'Round the Table

About the cover: The cover photo is of the 2005 GODORT Award Recipients. Left to right they are: Daniel P. O'Mahony (LexisNexis/GODORT/ALA "Documents to the People" Award), Julia Tanis Sayles (W. David Rozkuszka Scholarship), Sue Selmer (Bernadine Abbott Hoduski Founders Award), and Ernest G. (Gil) Baldwin III (James Bennett Childs Award). For details see http://sunsite.berkeley.edu/GODORT/awards/awards2005.html.

Editor's Corner

Andrea Sevetson

I'm very pleased to announce that *DttP* is now online. GODORT members can log on to the "My ALA" web site at www.ala.org and search for "godort dttp" and the issues from v.31–present are there for you. Note to subscribers—we're working on access for you, too! We're also working on electronic access to v.1–30—look for news on this in the future.

I'd also like to thank all of the faculty and students who participated in our "Student Papers" issue. We received more than we could print, but we thank all of you for being willing to participate, and we hope this issue is of interest to our readers too.

It's Everywhere, It's Everywhere!

When you're in your home environment every day, you don't notice it, but when you're out of your element, you notice—government is everywhere. My recent trip to Alaska and Vancouver brought this into sharp focus.

Just after ALA I took off for Alaska for a cruise from the port of Whittier down the inland waterway to Vancouver. Arriving in Anchorage and walking around, there was the National Archives (Pacific Alaska) building, as well as the Tlingit totem poles in front of the Nesbett State Courthouse. They represent the eagle and raven moieties of the Tlingit people, intended to symbolize the balance of justice.

Continuing the tour of Anchorage, outside the market there was the Alaska Statehood Monument featuring a bust of Dwight D. Eisenhower encircled by a half bald eagle/American flag. The plaque commemorates the Alaska Statehood Act (P.L. 85-508) signed by the President on January 3, 1959, making Alaska the forty-ninth state. When the market started at 10 A.M. (though I'd already started shopping) our ears were greeted with the singing of the National Anthem—and unlike sports events I've attended recently, people actually stopped to listen.

Proceeding down to the dock in Whittier, our guide mentioned that almost 70 percent of the land in Alaska was federally owned. Several intrepid cruisers noticed the bald eagles in the trees next to the ship, and there were bald eagles every day of the trip if you kept your eyes open.

On the Fourth of July, as we sailed into Glacier Bay, our mail slot had a government document inserted—the National Park Service (NPS) guide to Glacier Bay. Glacier Bay (www.nps.gov/glba) was first a national monument in 1925 (in the Coolidge administration) with a proclamation creating Glacier Bay National Monument, an area less than half the size of the present park. The Alaska National Interest Lands Conservation Act of 1980 (P.L. 96-487, signed by Jimmy Carter) finally changed the status to a national park, and also extended the park boundary. Further protection and recognition of Glacier Bay's significance occurred in 1986, when the Glacier Bay-Admiralty Island Biosphere Reserve was established under the United Nations Man and the Biosphere Program. In 1992 Glacier Bay became part of an international World Heritage Site, along with neighboring Wrangell-St. Elias National Park and Canada's Kluane National Park.

Due to NPS regulation, we were one of only two cruise ships and a limited number of smaller pleasure boats allowed into the park that day. In addition, since we were in a national park, the boutiques and casino on board were closed (making it tough for me to buy the scarf I needed to keep warm!). Two Park Service employees joined the boat to give commentary on the impact of the glaciers and the wildlife in the area.

After leaving Glacier Bay, we proceeded to Skagway. Although some might call Skagway a tourist trap, others call it part of the Klondike Goldrush National Historic Park (www.nps.gov/klgo). The guide and naturalist met the hiking group shipside and took us through Skagway over to Dyea to hike a couple miles up the Chilkoot Trail.

From Skagway to Dyea we traveled on a road that had been built during World War II as part of a federal project creating the Alaska Highway (sometimes called the Alaska-Canada Military Highway, or "Alcan"). The highway was built over Alaska, British Columbia, and Yukon Territory. Apparently the United States had considered a road linking the lower 48 states to Alaska since the purchase of Alaska in 1867, but it was the Japanese attack on Pearl Harbor that spurred Washington into action. Worried that the Japanese might invade Alaska (the nearest Japanese military base was only 750 miles away), President Franklin Roosevelt directed that a supply line be built to U.S military bases in the region—a 1,520-mile road. A fairly concise history is found at www.themilepost.com/history.html.

Going back further than WWII, the Chilkoot Trail was the most famous route taken by prospectors and would-be miners who made their way to the Klondike Gold Rush in the Yukon in 1897–98. The trail marker, Scales, was another sign of government. Because the gold miners were often unprepared, the Canadian government insisted that those going to the Klondike have two thousand pounds of supplies to survive, and they provided a list of what would be needed. Scales was, literally, the scales where the supplies of those entering Canada were weighed. If you didn't have enough, you didn't get in.

Our next port of call was Juneau, where our bus driver informed us the tallest building in Juneau was the Federal Building. Outside of Juneau we canoed across Lake Mendenhall to the Mendenhall Glacier (part of the Tongass National Forest) in Tlingit-style canoes that seat around thirteen. The concession hosting the adventure had the park service contract and was the only concession allowed on the lake. There was also a visitor center, but we got up close and personal with the glaciers (and, oh, were my hands cold from that water!).

In Ketchikan, a group took float planes into Misty Fjords National Monument Wilderness. Part of the Tongass National Forest, Misty Fjords, teaming with wildlife and impressive natural features, covers 2,142,434 acres, and

became a national wilderness area under P.L. 96-487. After landing in the bay, we took a boat back to Ketchikan. Our three-hour tour included an excellent biologist who told us about what we were seeing. When we were discussing his time at the University of Wisconsin he said "government documents are impossible." I told him his attitude was part of my job security. Perhaps he would have found it easier had he consulted with some of our colleagues there!

Our point of disembarkation from the cruise was Vancouver, B.C., and in sightseeing, we ended up at the Vancouver Museum in Vanier Park. There I learned that not only did the U.S. government intern those of Japanese and Japanese-American origin, the Canadians also interned those of Japanese and Japanese-Canadian origin as there was a photo of the queues taken somewhere in the Vancouver area.

At the beginning and end of the trip, of course, there was contact with the Transportation Security Administration, and there were also both U.S. and Canadian customs authorities as we entered and left Canada and the U.S. And of course, the usual assortment of government logos and names on manhole covers, in elevators, and other places. But in a new place, it really does become clear—government is everywhere.

All in all, the trip left me with a load of questions, and lots of research to do!

Enjoy your issue of *DttP*! ▌

From the Chair

Arlene Weible

My first column as GODORT chair needs to begin with a big thank you to the outgoing chair, John Stevenson. Over the last year, John provided a calm, guiding force for GODORT as we navigated the sometimes rough sea of change that now defines the government information landscape. I have learned a great deal about diplomacy from John, and I will continue to seek his advice as I now take over leadership duties that require skills of tact and patience. I am grateful for John's consultative approach to leading GODORT, which I believe has provided a strong foundation for me to continue to build upon in the coming year.

Another big thank you needs to go to outgoing treasurer, Ann Miller. Her "tough love" approach to managing the GODORT budget has placed our organization in a stronger financial position. Efforts to build a healthy reserve fund are well underway, and their success will provide GODORT with the stability it needs to move forward. Without the distractions that come with financial troubles, GODORT can focus on initiatives that will provide resources and support for librarians in the age of digital government information.

GODORT has spent much of the last two years focused on providing GPO with comments and feedback about its proposals for revamping the Federal Depository Library Program (FDLP). While these efforts have been important, the volume and pace of GPO's proposals have resulted in GODORT's collective energy being spent on reacting to new proposals instead of articulating a vision of its own. We also need to pay attention to our user communities and make sure we are providing the resources our users need, instead of just those GPO is able to deliver. In my own institution, the University of North Texas, we are recognizing that we don't need to wait around for GPO's new systems to begin to provide access to archived electronic government information. We are working to develop our own tools for capturing, archiving, and providing access to government information. Not every library can pursue archiving initiatives, but every library does need to take a look at how it can realistically meet the government information needs of its community. We don't need a one-size-fits-all vision of the future. Over the next year, I will work with the Federal Documents Task Force and pursue other opportunities to organize programs or projects that will help to define a librarian's vision of the FDLP in the digital information age.

We also need to continue to develop GODORT programs and projects that create and deliver resources to librarians responsible for assisting users of all levels of government information, as well as resources that help librarians effectively advocate for access to government information. The Legislation Committee will be working to create sample letters and talking points, and to gather other information that will help librarians with advocacy activities. The Education Committee will be presenting a program on using government information to illustrate information literacy standards at the 2006 Annual Conference in New Orleans. The International Documents Task Force will present a preconference on using international government information resources. These activities demonstrate GODORT's ongoing commitment to communicating with our colleagues about the value of government information.

Finally, I hope to take a look over the next year at GODORT's infrastructure. Given the decline in specialized government information librarian positions, I think we need to face the reality that our active membership will likely not be significantly growing. GODORT's infrastructure may be too large for its current membership, and we need to look at the size of our committees, the number of meetings, and focus our missions to make sure that GODORT can continue to function effectively, and does not collapse under the burden of its own structure.

I look forward to the upcoming year and the challenges it will bring. I welcome any and all suggestions that will help GODORT continue to be an organization that works to provide government information to the people. ▌

On the Range

Rethinking Government Information at the Fall Depository Library Conference

Brian W. Rossmann

It is probably not an overstatement to claim that government information in libraries is at a crossroads. Although GPO has somewhat slowed its drive toward a completely electronic program, it is still resolutely marching towards this goal. Clearly, whatever a government documents depository library will look like as the twenty-first century progresses, it will less and less resemble the twentieth-century depository model. Some in the community, in addition to voicing fears about permanent and free public access to online government information, are beginning to come face to face with some very difficult issues, such as those surrounding staffing, as the traditional day-to-day tasks involved in running a depository become obsolete. We all wonder aloud as the FDLP continues to evolve, what will it mean to be a depository library in the future? What work or tasks will librarians perform in depositories? Indeed, will depositories even continue to exist as it becomes unclear what distinguishes a depository from a non-depository and administrators ask what incentives exist to keep their libraries in the program?

In discussing these questions and others with colleagues in the documents community, I am continually impressed by their passion for ensuring the public's access to government information. Documents librarians will *never* be accused of being apathetic, which is good. If we are going to rethink the role of libraries with regard to providing access to government information, it is going to be hard work. Change is never easy.

The Depository Library Council is wrestling with these issues. This year the Depository Library Conference is scheduled for October 16 through 19 in Washington, D.C. Council members have come to the realization that *we* in the documents community need to speak with each other about our future and develop our own vision for the future depository—not one that is exclusively developed by GPO. To that end the council plans to devote an entire day of the conference to discussing the future of government information in libraries and the future of the FDLP. Details for the program are sketchy as I write, but it appears that there will be ample opportunity for all to contribute and share ideas in various break-out discussions. They want to hear from you. Most importantly, the agenda and conversation will be driven by the council—by *documents librarians* like you and me who work in depository libraries—not by GPO. This will be a fabulous opportunity for the library community to have a conversation with GPO and to make some progress on redefining government information in libraries for this new era on our terms.

Last fall there were more than six hundred participants at the Depository Library Conference. All indications are that there will be even more attendees this fall. So, if you have ideas to share and want to learn what your colleagues' vision is for the future of government information in libraries, I hope that you will join us. Together we can begin to rethink a program that will work for us and best serve our patrons. ∎

Washington Report

Patrice McDermott

Legislative Branch

Freedom of Information

Senators John Cornyn (R-TX) and Patrick Leahy's (D-VT) Openness Promotes Effectiveness in our National (OPEN) Government Act of 2005 (S. 394) has garnered five co-sponsors. The Judiciary Committee has held hearings on it and on the senators' Faster FOIA Act of 2005 (S. 589), which has four co-sponsors to date. S. 589 was marked up by the Judiciary Committee in February and reported favorably without amendment. There is no schedule for marking up S. 394 in committee.

The companion bill (H.R. 867), filed by Rep. Lamar Smith (R-TX), has garnered fourteen co-sponsors. Rep. James P. Moran (D-VA) withdrew his March co-sponsorship in early April. On May 9, the Subcommittee on Government Management, Finance, and Accountability of the House Government Reform Committee held an oversight hearing on the topic of "Information Policy in the 21st Century: A Review of the Freedom of Information Act."

Senator Leahy's Restore FOIA Act (S. 622) has garnered only its original co-sponsors.

Rep. Henry Waxman (D-CA) has re-introduced an expanded Restore Open Government Act (H.R. 2331). It has twenty-four co-sponsors.

Executive Branch

Freedom of Information Act

The last time I wrote this column, I noted that at the appointment hearings of Alberto Gonzales to the attorney general of the United States, Judge Gonzales made commitments to Sen. Patrick Leahy (D-VT) about the Freedom of Information Act. At that time I wrote, "the Administration's stance on S. 394 will provide some initial indication of the depth and breadth of those commitments." We now know they are both shallow and narrow.

A March 3 Department of Justice Office of Information and Privacy "FOIA Post" stated:

> In a development that holds the possibility of leading to significant improvements in the Freedom of Information Act, two counterpart bills that would amend the FOIA were introduced in the United States Senate and the House of Representatives last week.
>
> . . . Wide-scale FOIA amendment activity in the 109th Congress now carries the prospect [of] legislative relief for agency concerns with FOIA's operation as well.

That FOIA Post (www.usdoj.gov/oip/foiapost/2005foiapost7.htm) disappeared from the web site about three weeks later. The administration position is that there is nothing wrong with FOIA and it does not need to be fixed. This stance apparently applies even to the "Faster FOIA Act" (S.589).

In early June, the Government Accountability Project, a public interest group, gave documents to the *New York Times* showing that Philip Cooney, White House Council on Environmental Quality (CEQ) chief of staff, "repeatedly edited government climate reports in ways that play down links between [greenhouse gas] emissions and global warming." The edited reports were issued in 2002 and 2003. One of the sentences crossed out by Cooney, who has no scientific training, stated: "[Global] warming also will cause reductions in mountain glaciers and advance the timing of the melt of mountain snow peaks in polar regions." He also wrote a note stating that the section "stray[ed] from research strategy into speculative findings."

After resigning from the CEQ in mid-June, Philip Cooney was hired by Exxon Mobil. Before joining the White House staff, Cooney was an oil industry lobbyist who worked as the head of the climate program at the American Petroleum Institute (API), which represents the oil and gas industry. Exxon is a member of the American Petroleum Institute.

Nuclear Regulatory Commission

The Nuclear Regulatory Commission (NRC) published a final rule June 2, amending NRC's regulations governing access to classified information and the procedures for getting the security clearance necessary to handle the information (10 CFR 25, 10 CFR 95). The changes to the rules would allow individuals or organizations access to classified information on agency licensing activities if they can demonstrate a "need to know" in connection with those agency activities.

Separately, in February 2005, the NRC proposed a new rule that elaborates controls on unclassified "Safeguards Information" (SGI) that is deemed too sensitive for public release. "An individual's access to SGI requires both a valid 'need to know' such information and authorization based on an appropriate background investigation," according to the NRC.

The NRC has slowly been restoring documents to the Agencywide Documents Access and Management System (ADAMS) library and some parts of its web site after it shut down public access on October 25, 2004. At that time, the agency had learned that potentially sensitive documents containing floor plans and locations of nuclear materials were available online. Over the last seven-and-a-half months, the agency has restored access to about 163,000 non-sensitive documents in several categories, including those pertaining to reactors, Yucca Mountain, and selected hearings.

During the week of June 6, the NRC announced it intends to restore more than 70,000 documents to its online library for public view in a continuing effort to scrub its site of sensitive documents. About 5,000 documents per day will be restored to the site. Restored documents to ADAMS include administrative, contractual, research, and others that are unrelated to any specific licensee and that were determined to be non-sensitive following the commission's security review. The agency started to restore documents about a week after public access was shut off, but it did not restore web-based access to ADAMS until February.

Department of Health and Human Services

A scientific paper discussing the possibility of a terrorist attack on the U.S. milk supply was scheduled for publication in the prestigious *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences (PNAS)* last month until the Department of Health and Human Services (HHS) intervened, calling it a "road map for terrorists," and asked the journal to withdraw the paper. In response to the HHS objections, *PNAS* agreed to delay publication for an indefinite period. Despite the HHS concerns, one of the paper's authors, Stanford business professor Lawrence M. Wein, went on to make his case on the *New York Times* op-ed page on May 30 in a piece titled "Got Toxic Milk?"

Transportation "Security"

The Transportation Security Administration (TSA) has invoked Sensitive Security Information (SSI) in a number of cases recently. It demanded that airplane pilots avoid flying near nuclear power plants, warning that if pilots pass near the facilities, fighter jets will intercept them and force a landing. TSA then refused, however, to provide location data for the nuclear plants so the pilots could comply. In an effort to help pilots abide by the order, the Aircraft Owners and Pilots Association spent several days compiling a list of facility locations from public information and posted it on the Internet. TSA demanded that the group take the information down because the agency believed it could assist terrorists. This publicly available information, when compiled into one place, was now SSI.

The U.S. Naval Research Laboratory estimates that if a railcar carrying chlorine through the District of Columbia exploded, up to 100,000 people could be killed. This spring, the D.C. Council wanted to know whether trains containing hazardous chemicals were being rerouted to protect against attacks. TSA refused the council access to the information, again claiming it was SSI. Dissatisfied with the safety of its citizens being an unknown, the council passed legislation forcing the rerouting of trains carrying hazardous materials. A court battle has ensued, and TSA continues to assert it

cannot release such information to local and state governments or civil litigants.

Finally, the Occupational Safety & Health Administration investigated work-related hazards faced by employees at the Portland International Airport in 2004, after the agency received safety complaints. However, in the end the agency refused to release its report publicly because TSA considered the document SSI.

Judicial Branch

On May 10, the D.C. Circuit Court of Appeals ruled unanimously against Sierra Club and Judicial Watch in the case related to the Cheney Energy Task Force (*Richard B. Cheney, Vice President of the United States, et. al., v. U.S. District Court for the District of Columbia)*. The court held that a government committee whose official members are only government employees is not subject to the Federal Advisory Committee Act (FACA)

merely because some outsider participates in the meetings of the committee, or even does so persuasively. So long as the outsider has no vote on the committee, then FACA does not apply. ALA and others were *amici curiae* in the case.

Toxics Release Inventory in Court

A federal appeals court ruled May 10 that the Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) can no longer require chemical facilities to report methyl ethyl ketone (MEK) releases under the Toxics Release Inventory (TRI), a publicly available database that provides annual information on toxic chemical releases. The American Chemistry Council (ACC) had filed a petition in 1998 to de-list MEK from the TRI. EPA rejected the measure. ACC filed a lawsuit against EPA's decision. In 2004, a judge ruled in EPA's favor, stating that because MEK contributed to the formation of a compound that causes adverse impacts to human health it could be regulated under TRI. ∎

Geospatial News
Map Librarians Chart The Future at National Conference

Cynthia Jahns

On May 12–13, 2005, 191 attendees met at the Library of Congress to discuss "Map and Geographic Information Collections in Transition," a national conference organized by the Cartographic Users Advisory Council (CUAC).

The transition from printed maps to digital geographic information finds librarians working to find ways to integrate digital cartographic materials into their collections, usually without an increase in funds and often without quick access to maps through library catalogs. Preservation is a complex problem: how frequently should snapshots of web sites and digital data be taken, and who will guarantee that fugitive sites and data are captured? We have beautiful topographic maps from the USGS fifteen-minute map series that are now more than one hundred years old; what will the Maps on Demand (MOD) topographic maps that will soon replace the lithographic print maps look like one hundred years from now?

Presentations from the conference can be found at the CUAC web site (http://cuac.wustl.edu). Transcripts of the presentations will soon be available at the web site as well. Meanwhile, the following summaries identify the topics covered and give the flavor of the discussions, which raised far more questions than they answered.

Future of the Paper Map

The Future of the Paper Map from the USGS Perspective (Dr. Stanley Ponce, US Geological Survey [USGS] National

Geospatial Programs Office). Dr. Ponce described the overwhelming challenge of trying to keep 55,000 topographic maps, which are one of the most popular items distributed through the FDLP, up to date. In fact, many topo maps are thirty to forty years out of date. USGS plans to discontinue lithographic printing, relying on its MOD program to fill requests for paper maps through the National Map program. Map librarians who have used the MOD system to purchase maps from out-of-print reports know that the print quality is similar to color ink-jet printing, and that the very tiny print is difficult to read. There is also an issue of cost. Currently a single topographic map costs $7, whereas a MOD topographic map may cost $15. USGS currently charges $20 apiece for MOD's of out-of-print maps from reports.

USGS's goal is to generate a "near standard USGS 1:24,000 scale content topographic map using information available through the National Map." They would use software to do this in an automated way, pulling data layers from the National Map as selected by the patron. Dr. Ponce noted that possibly not all the layers we're used to now would be available. He rhetorically asked if a topographic map without vegetation layers or buildings would still be viable.

The USGS solution creates a unified geospatial enterprise architecture by aligning the four National Enterprise programs under the National Geospatial Program Office: National Atlas, Geospatial One Stop, the Federal Geographic Data Committee, and the National Map. The contract for the Geospatial One Stop II portal has been awarded to a team comprised of ESRI (the GIS software producer), IBM, and Google.

USGS plans to discontinue the distribution of older vintage lithographic maps where the MOD service exists. This makes it a good time to inventory the topographic maps of your own state or region and purchase replacements for any that are missing while this is still possible.

USGS is scanning one thousand reports per month, with the goal of having everything available online. They are geocoding the reports as they go. The paper products will be

archived at the National Archives. Dr. Ponce pointed out that the National Map is created from data that comes from twelve agencies, which makes archiving even more complicated.

USGS challenged the library community to join them in developing "working/listening sessions" on how USGS can meet library's needs. CUAC should take the lead in answering that challenge given its role as the representative of major stakeholders in USGS's plans.

A Commercial View on the Future of Paper Maps (Russell Guy, OMNI Resources). The Internet and the consolidation of map-related businesses put tremendous pressure on map and travel stores. Mr. Guy noted that there are currently 1.3 million unique visitors a day at MapQuest, the web site that provides free maps and driving directions. Amazon has taken business from map and travel stores by providing convenient one-stop shopping for maps and travel guidebooks.

Most small, independent map-producing companies, such as Thomas Brothers and King of the Road, have been bought out by larger companies such as Rand-McNally, who promptly downsize staff and product lines. Internationales Landkartenhaus (ILH), a major European vendor in Stuttgart, was sold to Bertelsman, which reduced the ILH staff from fifty to four employees.

MapLink, another large retail map vendor, reports that their sales of topographic maps are down 75 percent and OMNI's are down 50 percent as more people print maps off the web. Mr. Guy predicted that map and travel stores will survive only if they expand their market niche. Even now, a significant percentage of their profits come from sales of luggage and travel accessories, such as games.

Role of the Paper Map in Libraries (David McQuillan, University of South Carolina). Mr. McQuillan discussed a survey that had been taken the previous day at the IFLA-sponsored "Workshop on Paper Maps." The survey showed that filling user needs was the top priority of the librarians in attendance, outpolling budgets, physical space, or other factors. One specific example of filling user needs was the creation of scanned indexes to provide users quickly accessible online information about map sets. He was also the first speaker to call for a clearinghouse of map scanning projects that are planned or underway in libraries.

Clearly, paper maps will be used and housed in libraries for the foreseeable future. Map libraries across the country hold unique local and historic collections that will continue to be in demand for research.

Developing Digital Cartographic Collections

Inside Idaho (Lily Wai and Bruce Godfrey, University of Idaho). If you have never seen Idaho's excellent statewide geospatial data clearinghouse, take a look at http://inside. uidaho.edu. It's comprehensive, well-organized, and easy to navigate. *Inside Idaho* was begun with an Institute of Museum and Library Services (IMLS) grant for $750,000, and later received funding from USGS, Bureau of Land Management, and other agencies. They harvest metadata (also

known as "grab the documentation," they joked) and add it to their site. Wai noted that because *Inside Idaho*'s statistics are going up, but their library's statistics are going down, the University of Idaho libraries now incorporate the web site's statistics into the library's.

Collection Development Policies for Maps and Geospatial Information (T. Wangyal Shawa, Princeton University). Mr. Shawa finds that "location-based data" is a more comfortable term than GIS (Geographic Information Systems) for his patrons, who come from all departments at Princeton. Many federal agencies are distributing less digital geospatial data and paper maps through the FDLP and instead are making their digital data freely accessible online or available for purchase through commercial companies or organizations by signing Cooperative Research and Development Agreements (CRADAs).

He noted that academic libraries have depended on the FDLP for their maps for so long that map departments tend to have tiny budgets. Purchasing cartographic materials and data can be expensive, especially when the data is for foreign countries. Many countries consider their data a national asset and prohibit its export. Mr. Shawa does not buy electronic products if the maps are bundled with proprietary software, such as Delorme, because the user can't convert or extract the data into other file formats. He noted that students and faculty will sometimes donate data from finished projects, and that state and local agencies are also a good source of data.

Cooperative Collection Development and Scanning of Cartographic Materials (Julie Sweetkind-Singer, Stanford University). The University of California-Stanford Map Libraries Group (UC/S MLG) has worked collaboratively since 1975 on collection development, interlibrary loan, and reference. Access to materials has increased for all of the libraries due to collaborative purchase of expensive items, such as Landsat imagery and digital orthophotography. The group is now exploring the possibility of large-scale scanning initiatives for USGS topographic maps of California and early Sanborn fire insurance maps of the state. The UC/S MLG web site, http://library.ucsc.edu/maps/ucsmg, shows the division of responsibility for air photo coverage of California counties among the members, as one example.

Distribution and Archiving of Digital Spatial Information

Data Archiving at the National Archives (Robert Chadduck, Electronic Records Archives Research Program, National Archives and Records Administration). A competition to design the Electronic Records Archives system is underway.

Government Printing Office Policies and Plans for Spatial Information Distribution (Judy Russell, Superintendent of Documents). Map distribution has increased in 2005: through April 1,184 maps were distributed to libraries, compared with 1,178 during the previous year. Revised FDLP dissemination/distribution policy ID 71 requires tangible distribution of maps at least until usable electronic formats are available.

Map librarians were glad to hear that the new depository manual will include special guidance for maps. Ms. Russell described how geospatial data weaves in and out of all of GPO's current initiatives and projects. GPO participated in a review of requirements for the National Map. GPO's legacy digitization project will include maps, in coordination with other agencies. GPO wants to collaborate with the map library community on setting requirements and priorities for map digitization.

Archiving Geospatial Data at EROS Data Center (John Faundeen, EROS Data Center). Attendees were excited to hear that EROS has taken on archiving aerial photography: they have 110,000 rolls of film dating back to 1937, from more than twenty federal agencies. By law, the National Satellite Land Remote Sensing Data Archive must be permanently maintained.

Future of Cartographic Information Collections

The Role of GIS in Libraries for Geographic Information Management (Clint Brown, ESRI, Inc.). Mr. Brown discussed GIS as a system that uses location as a way to provide coordination of information. GIS can serve as a digital nervous system for the city, state, and nation. The current trend is toward a "federated GIS": GIS systems linked on the web in a heterogeneous integrated network of servers, terminals, and data collections. Mr. Brown believes that historical collections in libraries will become an important source of data for GIS, and that libraries will be responsible for archiving because of their expertise and knowledge of best practices.

Future Directions for Geolibraries (Michael Goodchild, University of California-Santa Barbara). It's always good to come back from a conference with a mouthful of new vocabulary with which to impress your colleagues. Dr. Goodchild informed the audience that they are SAPs (Spatially Aware Professionals), and that we SAPs have an assured future in the brave new world of geoportals (single points of access to geographic networks, such as Geospatial One Stop). He described the geolibrary, a library searchable by geographic location: impossible in the physical library, but enabled in the online world. Geolibraries will fall between the library model and the focus on acquisition or on query.

The Alexandria Digital Library (ADL) was created to be such a library, providing user access to data, maps, and information via geographic searching. He believes that the problem now for us is to know which collection to access (ADL or Geospatial One Stop?), and how to make those collections interoperable. When there are no international standards except latitude and longitude for mapping themes such as vegetation, interoperability becomes a real challenge. Collection management issues will include legacy granularity, as we continue to have to work with materials based on the geographic elements that the USGS devised long ago.

National Geographic: From Paper to Digital to Distributed Mapping (Allan Carroll, National Geographic Society). Mr. Carroll described the democratization of geospatial enterprise as the liberation of specialized geographic data via distributed mapping. Consumers are turned into mapmakers at geoportals such as the National Map, and National Geographic, where genealogists can create a National Geographic map of their own family. Another new challenge we face is deciding how to determine the provenance of spatial data, its "metadata DNA."

Data Copyright, Licensing and Access Issues

Licensing Geographic Data and Services: Vision for a National Commons and Marketplace (Harlan Onsrud, University of Maine at Orono and Chair, National Research Council Study on the Licensing of Spatial Data and Services). Geographic data is being created on desktops everywhere, but there's currently no mechanism for sharing it. Difficulty using copyright to protect such geographic data has led to an increase in licensing and subscriptions, and a shift away from supplying distinct databases to providing access to databases.

Dr. Onsrud's committee put forward recommendations to address licensing spatial data. Number nine states:

> The geographic data community should consider a National Commons in Geographic Information where individuals can post and acquire geographic data. The proposed facility would make it easier for geographic data creators (including local to federal agencies) to document, license and deliver their datasets to a common shared pool and also would help the broader community to find, acquire and use such data. Participation would be voluntary.

Number ten recommends:

> The geographic data community should consider a National Marketplace in Geographic Information where individuals can offer and acquire commercial geographic data. The proposed facility would make it easier for the geographic data community to offer, find, acquire and use existing geographic data under license. Participation would be voluntary.

These plans address the problem that producers and users of data have no means to easily find each other, and need an easily found standard for terms of use for the data they supply.

The Public Commons concept provides incentives for sharing local data and enables that sharing through accessible legal methods.

The Idea of Discovery: Planning and Implementing Access to Geospatial Data at Harvard (Tim Strawn, Harvard University). Mr. Strawn discussed the Harvard Geospatial Library (HGL), (http://peters.hul.harvard.edu:8080/HGL/jsp/HGL.jsp), which provides access to geospatial data and metadata. HGL is a web-based interface for search and retrieval of geospatial data and metadata using open standards (MARC,

FGDC, and XML) and commercial software (ArcSDE, Oracle, and ArcIMS). HGL has a very clearly written online help system, and uses LCSH and GeoNet as its source for geographic names. HGL provides the ability to search for data by keyword and geographic location at the bottom of the page. The project addresses the notion that "people usually start looking for things where they think they have the best chance of finding them fast," a concept all reference librarians are familiar with. By providing an interface to help patrons have those quick, successful searches, GIS staff are freed to focus more on data acquisition.

Cooperative Research & Development Agreements (Julia Giller, USGS Technology Transfer Office). Ms. Giller discussed opportunities for bi-directional technology sharing between businesses and government agencies, academia and non-profits. She highlighted the Federal Laboratory Consortium (FLC), whose web page describes itself as the "only government-wide forum for technology transfer."

You're probably familiar with some of the USGS Cartographic Technology Transfer Projects: Terraserver (www.terraserver.com), a collaboration with Microsoft, or Terrafly (www.terrafly.com), a project done with Florida International University and NASA. CRADAs have also produced wonderful products that don't get distributed through the FDLP, because of the commercial partners, such as a recent USGS DVD called "Glaciers, Alaska's Rivers of Ice."

Ms. Giller noted that at the Federal Geographic Data Committee (FGDC) web site, you can learn about NSDI Cooperative Agreements Program (CAP). This an annual program that provides small seed grants to enhance multi-jurisdictional organizational and institutional capacity to collaborate and to share digital geographic resources, which can include digitization projects.

Conclusion

Presenting this conference was an extraordinary effort on the part of the fourteen CUAC members. They, along with Dr. John Hébert, head of the Library of Congress Geography and Maps Division and our generous host, deserve congratulations and gratitude from the map library community for this unique opportunity to meet and discuss our shared challenges and goals for the future. In particular, local arrangements coordinator Bruce Obenhaus, registration manager/treasurer Paige Andrew, speaker/agenda coordinator Linda Zellmer, sponsorship coordinator Mary McInroy, and web site manager Clara McLeod deserve applause. ∎

International Documents Roundup

The "Official Record Only" Option: The UN Official Documents System and the Archival Role of UN Depository Libraries

Jim Church

With the roll-out of the freely available *Official Document System of the United Nations* (ODS) on the Internet on December 31, 2004, UN depositories may be asking themselves what role, if any, print UN documents will play in the depository library of the future.[1] Free access to digital UN documents has been an extraordinary advance from a collection maintenance perspective, as the drawbacks of maintaining a large print collection of UN documents are obvious. Filing and weeding UN masthead documents is a time-consuming and laborious task, and with the near universal availability of UN documents on the web, patron use of mastheads has dropped to approximately zero. Because of this, research libraries with historical runs of UN documents may be struggling to make decisions for print and even microfiche retention policies. The decision is particularly important to research libraries that house historical runs of Official Records.

What's an Official Record?

UN documents can be divided into four categories: mastheads, Official Records, periodicals, and sales publications. "Mastheads" can be defined as working papers produced by the UN in the course of conducting the work of the organization. These include but are not limited to provisional meeting records, letters, committee reports, studies, agendas, and other ephemeral material. Official Records are the final versions of meetings, resolutions and decisions, speeches, and committee reports, and can be divided into four major categories: meeting records, supplements, resolutions and decisions, and annexes. UN "sales publications" are monographs and journals intended to be sold to the public. "Periodicals" include UN magazines and newsletters (such as the *UN Chronicle*). For a more complete explanation of UN documentation, see *United Nations Documents and Publications: A Research Guide.*[2]

It is still a common practice for UN depositories to maintain current masthead documents in print and discard or offer them to other libraries once they become available on microfilm. The reason for this is largely driven by space and cataloging constraints: one year of masthead documents takes up approximately sixty to seventy linear feet of space, and UN materials are well-indexed in bibliographic databases like the UN Dag Hammarskjöld Library's UNBISnet (http://unbisnet.un.org). Many libraries do, however, maintain archival print collections of UN Official Records, a

class of UN documents that warrants special attention. The problem with the practice is it has not always been clear, particularly in the digital environment, which documents merit the special distinction of "Official Record." While it is true that Official Record Supplements of the General Assembly and Economic and Social Council are readily distinguished by their beige and blue covers, other categories of Official Records can be ambiguous. The UN Dag Hammarskjöld Library (DHL) gives the following definition on its online research guide:

> Official Records, *always identified as such on the title page*, constitute the primary documents submitted to or issued by major UN organs at a given session or during a particular year. They consist of meeting records; resolutions; reports of major organs, committees and commissions as well as the budget and financial reports . . . and reprints of other important documents (issued sessionally as "Annexes" and organized by agenda item number in the case of the General Assembly or quarterly "Supplements" listed by document symbol in the case of the Security Council). Official Records are also produced for some of the major conferences [emphasis added].[3]

Other conceptual definitions have been offered, but the only one that can be relied on, as we shall see, is highlighted above, with the specification that the document contain the words "Official Record" on the title page. Examples of other definitions, some more inclusive than others, can be found in standard United Nations and international documents reference books and research guides.[4]

Falling through the Cracks

One problem is that even the DHL definition above is out of date. The last year General Assembly *Annexes* were published, for example, was during its forty-seventh (1992/1993) session, while the last issue of the Security Council *Quarterly Supplement* was in June/July/August of 1993. Security Council Official Records are particularly troubling, because the only means UN depositories now have for obtaining verbatim Security Council meeting records is on subscription through the UN Sales Program (currently $225 per year). The ostensible reason for this is because the transcripts of current Security Council speeches (classed S/PV/#) are *provisional only*, or not in their final form. They do not contain the words "Official Record" on the title page, and supposedly will be reprinted in their final version at some unforeseen date. As this has not happened since 1985, many UN depositories choose to purchase and retain the provisional records as the best available alternative.

The same thing was also true, for a number of years, with the General Assembly. From its fortieth (1985/86) to forty-seventh (1992) sessions, no "official" versions of General Assembly speeches were issued, with each meeting record labeled as "provisional." From the forty-eighth session (i.e., A/48/PV.1 in 1993) onwards, verbatim meeting records were

once again printed as Official Records, with consolidated corrigendum issued at the end of each session. And for those keeping track, summary records of the Economic and Social Council plenary meetings have not been issued as Official Records since 1993. Provisional meeting records have been sporadically produced as fascicle documents (for example, E/year/SR.#) but they are not distributed on deposit, and are very rare indeed. Since the late 1990s few have been filmed, and since 2003 most have not even been available electronically, although bibliographic records appear on UNBIS.

Paradoxically, the UN continues to distribute Official Records of other UN bodies, some of which are arguably of much less import. These include Official Records from the General Assembly Disarmament Commission (A/CN.10/ PV.#), as well as other verbatim records of selected General Assembly committees: the "Committee on the Peaceful Uses of Outer Space" (A/AC.105.PV#); the "Special Committee on the Situation with regard to the Implementation of the Declaration on the Granting of Independence to Colonial Countries and Peoples" (A/AC.109/PV.#), and the "Committee on the Exercise of the Inalienable Rights of the Palestinian People" (A/AC183/PV#). The UN also distributes Official Records of proceedings of the six General Assembly "main committees" (classed A/C.1 through A/C.6), as well as the General Committee (A/BUR), either in summary or verbatim format.

Perhaps the real issue is that there is no mechanism, not even an authoritative list, that can be used to positively identify Official Records. In effect, there is no way to separate Official Records from the mass of other UN documents other than scanning every document for the words "Official Record" on the title page. Official Records can lose their status without explanation or formal notice, and new ones can surface without warning. At present the UN Depository Program does not distribute as Official Records speeches for two out of the three of its most important bodies, while it does distribute records for committees the average well-educated citizen has never heard of. One is almost tempted to dismiss the Official Record designation as one of little relevance in the digital age, perhaps of no concern to anyone except international documents librarians and archivists.

The Official Record Only Option

This brings us back to the question of the Official Documents System. Because of the near universal availability of United Nations documents online, either through UNBISnet (http:// unbisnet.un.org) or via the UN Official Documents System (ODS) (http://documents.un.org), UN depository libraries may now choose to: (1) not receive UN documents in print at all; or (2) receive Official Records, but not mastheads. Once again, an important distinction lies in the difference between a UN "document" and "publication." In addition to Official Records and mastheads, sales publications and periodicals are two other categories of UN materials also received on deposit. Because they are not included in ODS, and are found inconsistently on the web, UN depository libraries will continue to receive print UN sales publications and periodicals

to which they are entitled, even if they choose the Official Record Only option. The main question, then, is how to ensure that the UN faithfully supplies Official Records to libraries that choose this option when the UN itself seems unable to effectively segregate this class of material.

To its credit, the DHL has made the Official Record Only option available to depository libraries for several years, with some libraries successfully taking advantage of it. The major difference is until 2005 the ODS was available via user ID and password, an inconvenient option for users at best. Now that the system is free, many other UN depositories may consider dropping receipt of masthead documents, while others have gone so far as to consider discontinuing receipt of UN documents on microfilm. What decision depositories make is an institutional choice, but one that should be made with a clear perspective of each library system's long-term preservation goals, and an understanding of the risks inherent in relying on the UN's Official Documents System as a permanent, public archive.

Another possibility is for UN depositories to cancel receipt of masthead documents from *selected* UN distribution centers. Because of the disaggregated distribution system of United Nations publishing, full UN depositories in North America, for example, receive mastheads from New York, Geneva, Santiago, Nairobi, and Vienna. Documents from some of these offices are not available on ODS, notably materials from Africa and Latin America. Some depositories, particularly those with strong collections of African and Latin American materials, may therefore wish to consider canceling receipt of documents only from distribution centers in developed regions such as New York and Geneva.

The free availability of United Nations documents on the web is an important step towards greater access to UN information and a welcome relief to UN depositories struggling to maintain unwieldy print collections. The DHL should also be commended for showing flexibility and understanding by not insisting, as some governments have done, that "e-only" is the only viable option, or worse, profiting off the issue by privatizing public information. Nevertheless, the Official Record Only option deserves to be studied carefully to ensure that it is workable, particularly for research libraries that wish to continue building historic runs of Official Records collections. And in no wise should UN depository libraries forego their mission of retaining permanent archival copies—digital or print—of Official Records of the world's most important international governmental organization. ▮

Notes and References

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By the Numbers
Women Worker Series and the Bureau of Labor Statistics: Where Have All the Women Gone?

Stephen Woods

The feminist scholar Germaine Greer stated, "The progressive disqualification of women for exciting and responsible positions in industry or the professions begins as soon as they are born."[1] It would be irresponsible of me to think that everyone reading this column agrees with Greer's position, but it is clear that the current administration's decision to eliminate the Women Worker Series (WWS) conveys a message that comprehensive research in this area is not essential.

What is the WWS? It is a series within the Current Employment Statistics (CES) program, conducted by the Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS) in cooperation with state employment agencies. The CES survey is sent out to approximately 160,000 businesses (400,000 individual business establishments) each month, providing information about employment, workers, hours, and earnings on nonagricultural payrolls.[2]

According to BLS, "CES data on employment, hours, and earnings are among the timeliest economic indicators" measuring each month the health of the economy (employment), earnings trends and inflation (average hourly earnings), and short-term fluctuations in demand (average weekly hours). CES data also is used to provide input into major economic indicators such as personal income, industrial production, index of leading economic indicators, index of coincident indicators, and productivity measures.

BLS began collecting and releasing data about women workers from the CES in 1964, allowing researchers to look at historical trends of the American work force and the role of women across industries.[3] Furthermore, the currency of the CES as the "timeliest economic indicator" allows the media, advocate groups as well as policymakers to gauge how women are faring in the economy on a monthly basis. Why is BLS going to discontinue collecting information on women

from such a valuable survey and what has been the response from the media, advocacy groups, and policymakers?

The first justification offered by the bureau is that they felt the series imposes a significant reporting burden, because payroll records typically do not include gender identification. Furthermore, because the CES is primarily a voluntary program under federal statute (five states have made it mandatory by state law), survey response burden is a crucial factor in survey design.[4]

Separate letters written by the Leadership Conference on Civil Rights (LCCR) Coalition, Senator Harkin on behalf of a coalitions of 26 U.S. Senators, and Congresswoman DeLauro on behalf of a coalition of 65 members of the U.S. House of Representatives challenge this assumption, stating that the bureau has failed to provide any evidence that eliminating this one question will ease the burden of businesses and that they failed to report on the percentage of employers that already collect this information.[5] Furthermore, they point out that the bureau states on its own form used to collect gender information from employers that it takes an average of only seven minutes to fill out each month. Finally, they state that companies with 100 or more employees are already required to report gender breakdown in the workforce in their Equal Employment Opportunity Information Report EEO-1 so it is rare that any payroll system does not already include gender.[6]

The second reason BLS stated for discontinuing the survey is that from their analysis the series was not used enough. This analysis initially included the number of times requests were made for the Women Worker Series from the web site and an informal Internet literature search by BLS. Of the scores of articles cited by comments from their *Federal Register* notice, BLS concluded that only six articles in a twenty-year span used CES women worker data and that most of these used additional data sources in conjunction with CES information. Finally, they concluded that most articles addressing women's employment and earnings issues used data from the Current Population Survey.

The idea of an "informal Internet literature search" as a means of determining "use" is abhorrent. It is frightening to consider that policy to discontinue producing valuable information can be made on the presupposition that everything is on the Internet. Of the nearly five thousand comments sent to BLS, 90 percent urged it to continue collecting data on women workers. Studies in the letters from the LCCR and DeLauro were cited from organizations such as the Federal Reserve Bank of New York, the Economic Policy Institute, Economic and Labor Market Information Bureau of the State of New Hampshire, Bureau of Labor Statistics, and the Institute for Women's Policy Research. This doesn't even begin to take into account the numerous articles and reports generated by journalist and the media.

Finally, the bureau indicated that data concerning labor market information on women is already being provided by other surveys, primarily the Current Population Survey (CPS). Their assertion is that the CPS provides a more detailed breakdown with more significant number of variables as well as a historical series for researchers who are looking at changes overtime.

The primary problem with this assertion is that comparing the women worker data in the CPS to the data in the CES is like comparing apples with oranges. First, the populations they are measuring are completely different. The CPS is taken from a sample of households, while the CES is taken from payroll records from businesses. Second, the CES is a much larger survey whereas the CPS is taken from a smaller sample of households. Third, the CPS reliance on household interviews introduces subjective reporting bias and error of industry coding that is not as inherent in payroll surveys due to the fact that the codes originate from the businesses.

Missing: Information about Women's Lives, by the National Council for Research on Women, puts the discussion of the discontinuation of the WWS into its proper context, namely the diminishing quality and quantity of information provided by the federal government.[7] Does it really matter? The answer to this question often depends upon our willingness to believe whether or not effective policy can be made through an informed society or even if an issue exists that needs to be addressed. In the case of women and work, I would agree emphatically with Greer that much more needs to be done. ∎

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"Captain Kingston asserted that, if a torpedo was placed under his cabin while he was at dinner, he should feel no concern for the consequence."
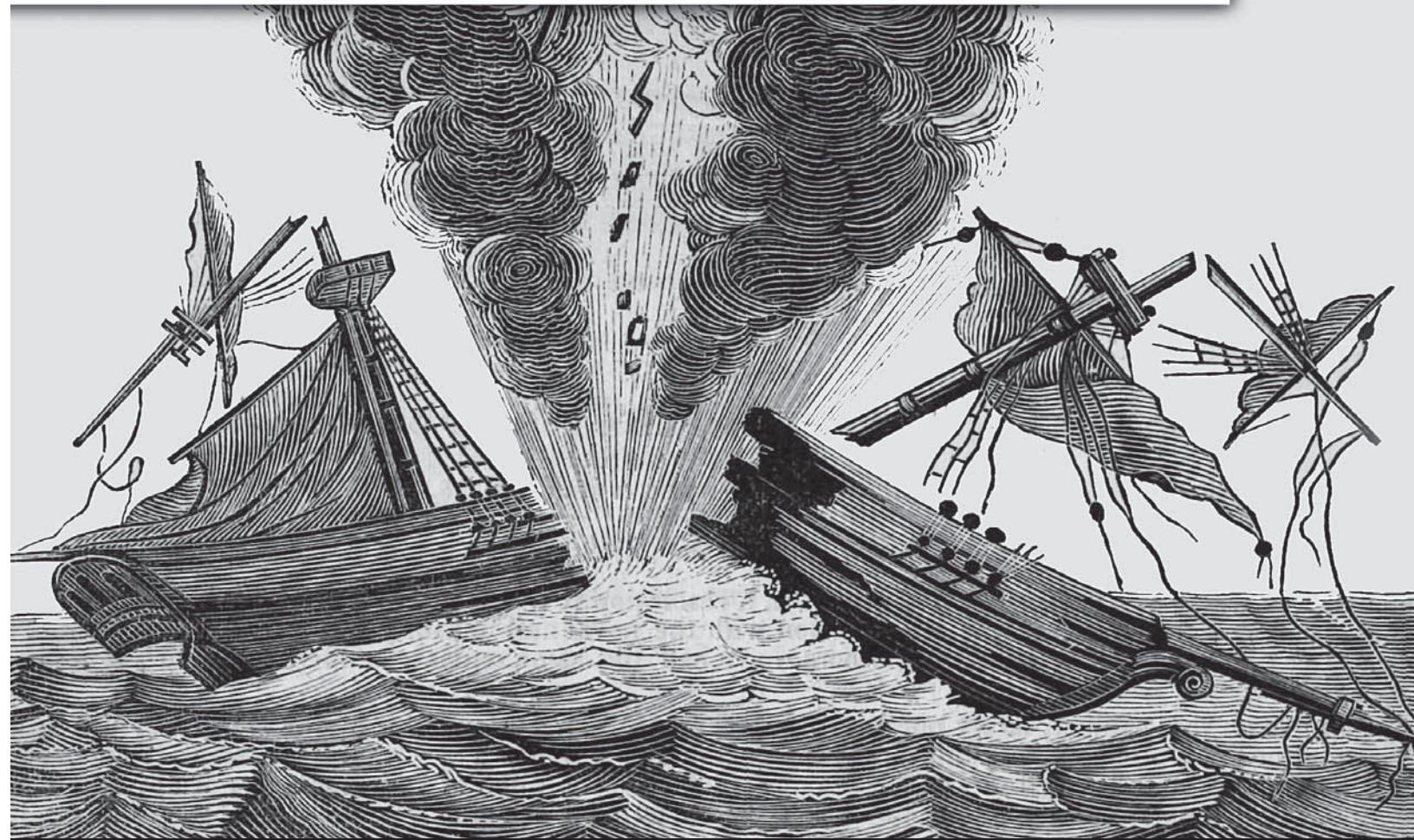
Captain Kingston was wrong.

Straight from the pages of American State Papers comes this fascinating account of an experimental torpedo designed by steamboat and submarine inventor Robert Fulton. The destruction of the brig "Dorothea" on October 15, 1805 "proved a fact much debated and denied" and led Fulton to note: "Occular demonstration is the best proof for all men."

American State Papers, 1789-1838 perfectly complements other digital collections in Readex's acclaimed *Archive of Americana*, which also includes *U.S Congressional Serial Set, 1817-1980* and *Senate Executive Journals, Series I, 1789-1866*.

Digitized from the original printed volumes, these three collections feature superior images, authority-based indexing, the most extensive bibliographic records available and advanced search capabilities that ensure unprecedented access to these essential U.S. government publications.

Request an "occular demonstration" today.

Government Documents
Student Papers

By Ben Amata, Contributions Editor

When Andrea Sevetson took over the editorship of *DttP,* we discussed some ideas for possible theme issues. One that I proposed was publishing some student papers from government documents courses.

This issue is our first experiment with this idea. The editorial team selected five papers on government information topics that we found interesting: "Government Gone Mad? Is the United States Government in the Business of Restricting Public Access?"; the "United States Agency for International Development (USAID)"; "A Social History of Paperwork Reform Efforts"; "Internment of Italian-Born

Immigrants During World War II"; and "Adding Little ZIP to the Mail." We asked the instructors of those students we selected to provide a brief introduction to each paper in order to provide a context. Our thanks go to instructors Mabel K. Suzuki (University of Hawaii at Manoa), Debbie Rabina (formerly of Rutgers University, starting Fall 2005 at the Pratt Institute), and Judith Robinson (State University of New York at Buffalo) for being willing to make this a part of their coursework and for doing the "first pass" for us.

We hope that this experiment provides our readers with some interesting reading along with the opportunity for pro-

United States Agency for International Development (USAID)

Nicole Yuin Marsh

The assignment for the LIS 618 (Government Documents) students was to investigate the creation of a government agency, describe its significant activities, important public figures associated with the agency, administrative changes over time, the current relevance of the agency, the nature of its publications, its web presence, and any interesting aspects of the agency. Students made an oral presentation and wrote a fifteen- to twenty-page paper on their agency. All web sites referenced in this article were accessed in April 2004.—Mabel K. Suzuki

Choosing a U.S. government agency for this project was easy. My father spent his career working for the United States Agency for International Development (USAID). He retired in 1983 and continued to work as a consultant to USAID through 1995. Understanding USAID is a window into understanding what my father did on a daily basis as well as an opportunity to understand the institution that allowed my family to travel around the world. The transient nature of this job creates a community of global citizens, and I have always felt that I have a bit of home spread in many places.

Along with the many exciting stories of living overseas and his involvement in successful programs, my father often expressed deep disappointment in the failure of some of the programs in which he participated. For example, we lived in Liberia from 1980 to 1984 and left because of a military coup d'état. Ever since, Liberia has been in a state of civil war and chaos, and any progress that USAID may have made there would no longer be apparent. Furthermore, the United States' lack of responsibility and minimal support in the recent situation poses questions about, or perhaps clarifies, the true intentions of foreign aid. It is no secret that the primary goal of foreign aid is U.S. national security and prosperity. However, it has been perhaps my naïve hope that USAID was truly a

humanitarian arm of the State Department, dedicated largely to the altruistic aspect of foreign aid. Many critics of USAID have broached this subject. And my father himself has questioned the overall success of USAID. I can see the painful process when one's heart is in the right place, but one's actions are limited by the boundaries of politics and human evolution.

President Kennedy's Vision

USAID was established under President Kennedy's Executive Order 10973 on November 3, 1961. It was created under the authority of the Foreign Assistance Act (P.L. 87-195, Section 621) to unify and strengthen the efforts of foreign aid programs, thereby increasing their effectiveness.

Kennedy vocalized the general public's dissatisfaction and disinterest with current foreign assistance programs and dedicated himself to refocusing attention on the importance of foreign aid. He stressed the need to reorganize the bureaucratic and fragmented nature of existing programs and argued that in order to make this feasible, a new agency was needed—one that was focused on long-term goals rather than short-term

emergency response. USAID was the product of this belief.

In his White House address to members of Congress and the diplomatic corps of the Latin American republics on March 13, 1961, Kennedy introduced "Alliance for Progress," one of his pet projects. This program promised a ten-year foreign aid commitment to modernize Latin America. Its goal was to achieve long-lasting economic and political stability for these countries, which would at the same time improve U.S. national security. Kennedy's shift to long-term foreign aid development policies was based on the belief that unrest is due mostly to poverty, illiteracy, hopelessness, and hunger. He argued effectively that foreign assistance was crucial on two levels. First, the collapse of other countries created instability for the U.S. And second, the U.S. has a moral obligation to help less developed countries become self-sufficient—this responsibility rests on U.S. conscience.[1]

Criticism of "Alliance for Progress"

Implementing foreign aid projects often proves to be problematic, and while it was perhaps a great vision, this was also true for Kennedy's "Alliance for Progress." Riordan Roett, author of *The Politics of Foreign Aid in the Brazilian Northeast,* argues that too much attention was placed on the success of USAID's first major mission, specifically in Brazil's Northeast, where poverty was rampant. Roett discusses two newly established agencies, USAID and the Superintendency for the Development of the Northeast (SUDENE), a local Brazilian organization established in 1959. Roett argues that instead of working together on the same goals, the politics and approaches of the two agencies conflicted, which resulted in competition. His main argument is that USAID became so focused on the success of Brazil's program as a way to prove both the agency's worth and the effectiveness of democracy over communism that it essentially failed to accomplish the *real* goal—of helping Brazil in its modernization efforts. In essence, USAID's lack of cooperation and willingness to work with and include local leadership ultimately caused the program to fail. Roett points out that while the foreign service officers he met while researching this project were well-intentioned and genuine in their humanitarian efforts, the politics behind the agency conflicted with their idealistic goals. He commends Kennedy's focus on increasing economic aid and his commitment to development; however, he argues that Kennedy's vision was based on an outdated interpretation of the process of change.[2]

History and Predecessors

To understand the roots and goals of USAID, one must look at the previous fifteen-year trend of foreign assistance (see sidebar on page 19 for a timeline). The first major push in foreign assistance was the Marshall Plan, created after World War II under the Economic Cooperation Act (P.L. 80-472, Title I). Its purpose was to offer assistance to war-torn Europe and to help Europe achieve economic, and thus political, stability; the long-term goal of this assistance was to attain U.S. security through this improved global stability.

While very successful, the Marshall Plan was created as a temporary emergency tool and was in effect for only three years, from April 2, 1948, through June 30, 1951. With the end of the Marshall Plan, the government recognized the need to establish a permanent agency that would address the combined needs of military, economic, and technical assistance. The several ensuing attempts to create such an agency ultimately led to the birth of USAID in 1961.

The first attempt to reach this goal was the establishment of the Mutual Security Agency, under the Mutual Security Act of October 1951 (P.L. 82-165). In 1953, the Foreign Operations Administration Agency (FOA) was created to take over this task. Soon after, in 1955, a new agency under the State Department, the International Cooperation Administration (ICA), absorbed the FOA. ICA existed until 1961, at which point the government established USAID to consolidate, organize, and improve these fragmented efforts.

USAID Today

USAID is an independent federal government agency that receives overall foreign policy guidance from the secretary of state. It is considered a humanitarian arm of the State Department. Andrew S. Natsios is the current administrator of USAID. He was appointed by President George W. Bush and sworn in on May 1, 2001. Bush also appointed him special coordinator for international disaster assistance and special humanitarian coordinator for Sudan.

Natsios is the principal advisor on international development issues to both the president and the secretary of state. With guidance from the president, secretary of state, and National Security Council, he is responsible for formulating and executing foreign economic and development assistance programs. Natsios also administers USAID appropriations, such as the Iraq reconstruction contracts, and he oversees the regional offices around the world. USAID currently provides assistance to more than ninety countries and has mission offices in more than eighty countries. In 2003, the U.S. spent a total of $31.6 billion on economic and security assistance to the world, $9.8 billion of which was allocated to USAID.[3]

Every three years USAID publishes a strategic plan that outlines the goals and priorities for the coming years. The *2004-2009 Strategic Plan* was published in August 2003 and for the first time was submitted as a joint report from both USAID and the Department of State. This cooperative planning and combined effort, as reflected in the joint report, is a relatively new situation. The *Strategic Plan* objectives state:

The future of the Department and USAID must be based on the foundation of required coordination and integration when it best serves the American public. . . . Together, the Department and USAID will collaborate to ensure focus on both short-term diplomatic issues, as well as longer-term institutional and capacity building efforts.[4]

The *2004–2009 Strategic Plan* begins with an introduction from then secretary of state Colin Powell and follows with a letter from Andrew Natsios. While focusing on different aspects of foreign aid, both stress the goal of Bush's *National Security Strategy* and the "fight against terrorism." The four main points outlined in the report are: "achieve peace and security," "advance sustainable development and global interests," "promote international understanding," and "strengthen diplomatic and program capabilities."[5]

The Bush administration's priorities are indicated clearly in the *Strategic Plan,* which elaborates on thirteen main areas:

In the coming years, the principal aims of the Department of State and USAID are clear. These aims are anchored in the President's *National Security Strategy* and its three underlying and interdependent components—diplomacy, development, and defense.

- Arab-Israeli Peace
- A Stable and Democratic Iraq
- Democracy and Economic Freedom in the Muslim World
- A Stable and Democratic Afghanistan
- Reduction of the North Korean Threat to the Region and World
- Reduction of Tensions Between India and Pakistan
- Drug Eradication and Democracy in the Andean Region
- Strengthened Alliances and Partnerships
- A More Effective and Accountable United Nations
- HIV/AIDS Prevention, Treatment and Cure
- Reduced Threat of Famine
- Accountable Development Assistance
- Aligning Diplomacy and Development Assistance[6]

While the first half of the *Strategic Plan* focuses primarily on national security issues, the second half begins to address goals for improving health care and environmental issues in developing countries. A great deal of attention is placed on the HIV/AIDS situation and promises are made to address this enormous concern. Also noted is the effect that HIV/AIDS has on other important elements in the community, such as a functioning education system.

USAID has undergone a great deal of changes during the Bush administration, and indeed with each and every administration. The particular focus of the Bush administration has provided USAID with an increased budget and responsibilities.

USAID continues to be a key player in the rebuilding efforts in Afghanistan and Iraq and in Bush's "war on terrorism" in general—all activities defined under the umbrella of U.S. national security. Natsios also commends Bush's Millennium Challenge Account, which rewards countries that encourage economic freedom by increasing aid to these countries.[7]

Some are critical of USAID's handling of these efforts. One recent debate and criticism of USAID involves contract assignments in Iraq. In March 2003 Natsios invoked emergency procedures in Iraq, which meant that only a select group of U.S. companies could bid for the reconstruction contracts. This was received by many with great disapproval and with many claims that the U.S. was giving contracts to companies based on their political connections.[8] There is also concern regarding USAID's bad track record in evaluating the work of its contractors.[9]

Rick Barton, a former agency official and current senior adviser at the Center for Strategic and International Studies (a Washington think tank), is critical of the way foreign aid is being distributed. He believes that USAID is being asked to spend too large a budget in too short a time and as a result, contracts are being distributed irresponsibly.[10]

Since the Vietnam War, USAID has lived a struggling existence, as seen by its downsizing over these past couple of decades. Reports show that in 2000 USAID had 38 percent fewer hires than in 1990. Furthermore, the agency was more directly involved in implementing projects in the past, whereas the agency's main responsibilities today are planning and monitoring the projects. Sixty percent of the current USAID workforce are contractors.[11]

The recent budget increase, however, and the new responsibilities related to rebuilding Iraq have placed USAID in a prominent position once again. This increase is apparent by comparing the 2001 administered budget of $7.8 billion to the 2003 budget of $14.2 billion. USAID and its critics are waiting to see the outcome of these relief efforts.[12]

Publications Produced by, for, and about USAID

There is an abundance of information published for and by USAID. However, the majority of these publications are not depository items. They are produced for USAID employees and partnership organizations around the globe. While often technical, statistical, or instructional in nature, many of these publications can be a great resource for information on developing countries, and in particular for tracking progress in a variety of areas, such as health and education.

The best place to locate USAID publications is online, often as downloadable PDF files available through their web site, or through their well-organized, up-to-date database, which includes citations to many current and historical documents. The majority of USAID publications are technical reports and program reports. Every two weeks a list of

new reports is distributed, sometimes with as many as one hundred new items. The following section outlines major resources and publications, as well as databases that enable easier access to this plethora of information.

USAID Library

The USAID Library (http://library.info.usaid.gov) consists of more than ten thousand monographs and periodicals on sustainable development and about the agency itself. It does not include materials published by USAID, but rather those published by commercial publishers, donor agencies, and other organizations active in international development.

While the collection exists primarily for the use of USAID staff and partnership organizations, it is also open to the general public for in-house use. The library is located in the Ronald Reagan Building, the same building as the main USAID office, in Washington, D.C. There is also a USAID Library Catalog online that is searchable by subject, keyword, author, title, call number, and series; one can also limit searches by language, format, type of publication, and location.

My attempt to search for a book I found particularly useful in this report (and critical of USAID), *The Politics of Foreign Aid in the Brazilian Northeast*, was in vain. After looking at titles available in the online catalog, I sensed that the collection includes items that are more technical and practical in nature, and perhaps excludes perspectives and criticism on USAID work itself.

Development Experience Clearinghouse (DEC)

Technical and program documents produced by USAID will generally be found in the online Development Experience Clearinghouse (DEC), which contains about 115,000 USAID reports. More than 14,000 of these reports are downloadable in full text as PDF files. The DEC is the principal online resource for documentation of USAID-funded international development.

The purpose of DEC is to provide these documents to USAID offices and mission staff, as well as private voluntary organizations, non-governmental organizations, universities and research institutions, developing countries, and the general public worldwide. Its mission is to enhance information access through the Internet in order to improve current and future USAID development projects.

The DEC online database, Development Experience System (DEXS, accessible from www.dec.org), includes bibliographic records of these publications. DEXS is searchable by a number of combined fields, including: country or region, sector (such as agriculture, democracy, economics, education, environment, health, humanitarian), title, keyword, author, document identification number, contract number, project number, and so on. It also contains past project descriptions from 1946 to 1996 and is updated

Timeline: Historical Perspective on U.S. Foreign Assistance

March 31, 1942
Institute of Inter-American Affairs formally established first technical assistance by United States.

November 9, 1943
Agreement signed to furnish aid to war-ravaged countries through UN Relief and Rehabilitation Administration.

December 27, 1945
International Monetary Fund (IMF) and International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (World Bank) formed.

May 15, 1947
Congress approves economic and military aid to Greece and Turkey.

June 5, 1947
Secretary of State Marshall's speech voices U.S. interest in rebuilding European economies.

April 3, 1948
Truman signs Economic Cooperation Act (Marshall Plan) creating Economic Cooperation Administration.

January 20, 1949
President Truman's Point IV inauguration speech.

June 1, 1950
Act for International Development (Point IV) creates authority for Technical Cooperation Administration.

June 30, 1950
Termination of Marshall Plan.

October 31, 1951
Mutual Security Act of 1951 unites military and economic programs and technical assistance, Mutual Security Agency established.

July 10, 1954
Public Law 480 authorizes sale and use of U.S. surplus foods for economic development.

March 1, 1961
Peace Corps created.

March 13, 1961
President Kennedy calls on people of hemisphere to join in an "Alliance for Progress."

September 4, 1961
Foreign Assistance Act combines International Cooperation Administration, Development Loan Fund and other U.S. assistance functions.

November 4, 1961
U. S. Agency for International Development created (USAID).

Timeline from USAID's web site: www.usaid.gov/multimedia/ video/marshall/timeline.html.

biweekly, sometimes with as many as one hundred new reports. Once a desired publication is retrieved, if it is not available online as a full text document, DEC will prompt the user to complete the online request form and specify the format preference: print, electronic, or CD.

The form asks for the user's affiliation, which is helpful in understanding the target audience and how it varies widely from staff members to others in the global community:

- ▌ U.S. Business Organization
- ▌ U.S. Educational Institution (including libraries)
- ▌ U.S. Government Office or Organization
- ▌ U.S. Individual (including students)
- ▌ USAID
- ▌ Contractor
- ▌ Developed Country Individual or Organization (non-US)
- ▌ Developing Country Individual or Organization
- ▌ Development Organization (Peace Corps, NGO, PVO, and so on)

All publications are free to USAID employees, as many as five copies are free for any partnership organization, and they are available to the general public for the minimal cost of reproduction and postage.

Another great feature of DEC is that it allows contractors and grantees to submit their reports online. DEC is a tool that helps promote a level of efficiency that is otherwise difficult to achieve in an agency that has so many offices and employees spread throughout the world.

Budget and Strategic Planning

USAID publishes the following materials on a consistent basis, all of which are available in full-text directly from USAID's web site (www.usaid.gov/policy/budget):

- ▌ Strategic Plan—Published every three years, the most recent plan covers 2004–2009. For the first time in 2003, the plan was submitted as a joint report from USAID and the Department of State. It outlines the strategic development goals and discusses how they relate to U.S. national security.
- ▌ Congressional Budget Justification (CBJ)—This annual report is submitted to Congress as a basis for them to determine the annual appropriation. It is a helpful source to locate actual spending over the past few years as well as the estimated appropriations for the years to come.
- ▌ Fiscal Year Performance Report—This annual report is a requirement for USAID, and its purpose is to illustrate the progress of the programs and countries that receive assistance from USAID.

Annual Publications

Many annual reports are specific to a country, region, or program. These are often available as full-text PDF files, and can be accessed easily by selecting the country or topic area from the drop-down lists on the USAID web site. In addition to the country's annual reports, there are also important statistics and other material published and available online. Some country offices also have their individual web sites, which can be accessed by selecting "Mission Web Sites."

Frontlines Magazine

USAID's employee newsletter, *Frontlines* (www.usaid.gov/press/frontlines), is published every month except January. It has existed for nearly the entire life of the agency, with its first issue in November 1962. In a short interview with my father, Noel Marsh, a former foreign service officer (FSO), he stressed the importance of this internal newsletter for officers working abroad. He said not only were they informative, but they were key to maintaining his sense of community. *Frontlines* is now available online and anyone can apply for a free electronic subscription.

USAID Evaluations

USAID has many ongoing evaluations as well as past examples of best practices in many areas. These are accessible online (www.dec.org/partners/evalweb) and promote improvement in current and future projects. It is managed by USAID's Center for Development Information and Evaluation (CDIE).

USAID Automated Directives System (ADS)

ADS (www.usaid.gov/policy/ads) is a publication really meant only for the use of USAID employees. It replaces what used to be *AID Handbook* and includes USAID's official policies, operating procedures, and regulations. Marsh commented on the importance of these types of operational manuals, since they explain the rules and guidelines as determined by congressional regulations. One personal example that Marsh discussed was the need to follow the ordering procedures when purchasing vaccines. He explained that as an FSO he consulted the manuals in order to determine whether the vaccine had to be purchased from the U.S., or if, hypothetically, it was ten times cheaper in another country, whether the rules would permit the purchase from that country. Marsh also mentioned that the manuals were so incomprehensible the FSOs frequently joked that the manuals required translations into that same language.

U.S. Overseas Loans & Grants Online (Greenbook)

Also referred to as the Greenbook, this publication is a historical record of U.S. foreign aid to the rest of the world (available from http://qesdb.cdie.org/gbk/index.html). The most recent edition reports all loans and grants authorized by the U.S. gov-

ernment for each fiscal year, from 1945 to 2000; it lists assistance by purpose and country. This is a great resource that's available for free online as a 257-page downloadable PDF file. There is also a more malleable online version that allows the user not only to access existing tables, but also to create tables based on selected preferences. The Greenbook is prepared annually under the requirement of congressional committees.

Yellowbook

The Yellowbook (www.usaid.gov/business/yellowbook) includes active (since 1999) contracts, grants, and cooperative agreements with firms, nonprofit institutions, and universities. It lists them by country or region.

Web Site

USAID has a very comprehensive web site (www.usaid.gov). One great feature is the accessibility to historical information both about the agency as well as produced by the agency. Information on past and current projects is also easily accessible by navigating the site or using the DEC. There are numerous ways to search on the site, but the most common searches are by country (choosing from a drop-down list of more than ninety countries) or by program area (a list of nine areas, each with many subcategories). The left-hand side of the home page consists of ten buttons that link to projects or country profiles that are current hot topics. For example, one finds information on projects or country profiles concerning Iraq, Afghanistan, Liberia, HIV/AIDS, and so on. Also helpful is a link to the various USAID Mission web sites; these are individual web sites for some overseas offices. USAID also encourages job seekers to apply by clearly presenting their job listings, requirements, and guidelines.

This site is very well designed and definitely current, with daily updates. I noticed major changes and improvement efforts during the month in which I perused it regularly. At one point, I needed to revise a section of this paper to adjust for an improved section concerning budget publications. However, despite the web site's appeal and access to great resources, there is no avoiding the sense that USAID makes every effort to promote their causes and frame each project as an enormous success, at times to the point of propaganda.

Reflections on USAID

In order to get an idea of the kinds of experiences and responsibilities of an FSO working for USAID, a good resource is the recently published series of eighty-six oral histories, "Foreign Affairs Oral History Collection." The oral histories can be accessed from the DEC (www.dec.org) by searching for the title "United States Foreign Affairs Oral History Project."

The overriding sentiment from a few retired FSOs is a strong sense of dedication and idealism and a genuine thankfulness to have participated in USAID. While officers speak of their experiences working on successful projects and programs, they also address many USAID programs with criticism, and at times even sadness, for the lack of success. One main reason for the failed programs, or short-lived successes, is the receiving country's ensuing instability or return to corruption. Steven Sinding mentions "Moi's Kenya, Marco's Philippines, the Shah's Iran and Mobutu's Zaire" as examples of situations where huge amounts of money were wasted, to illustrate his point that foreign assistance is beneficial only when decent policies are in place and that no amount of aid can compete against bad policies and corrupt regimes.[13]

The FSOs also discuss the changing nature of the agency. In some cases these changes were positive, such as the less male-centered approaches to family planning. More often, however, they stress the increasing lack of resources and the increasing bureaucracy of USAID, which negatively affect the projects. Noel Marsh pointed out that although evaluations are necessary, USAID tends to overevaluate, which takes valuable time away from implementing the projects.[14]

Sinding, a former mission director, expresses his opinion that programs in family planning, child survival, and agricultural research for increased food production have been the most successful USAID projects. He emphasizes that the success of the family planning and population control projects is largely due to the available resources. For the future success of USAID, Sinding stresses the importance of continuing policy dialogue, not just providing technical assistance. He also feels that leadership training and technical training are two areas that remain crucial.

Both FSOs speak with nostalgia and look fondly on their years working abroad; they are thankful for the opportunity to have worked for USAID. Unfortunately, they worry about the future state of USAID and emphasize the lack of sufficient resources, along with the increasingly bureaucratic nature of the agency.

Conclusion

USAID has achieved some positive improvements in other countries, especially in the area of health, including child survival and family planning. The agency contributed tremendous efforts into programs for preventing and treating malaria, tuberculosis, and more recently HIV/AIDS. However, though socially minded in its approach to many projects, the primary mission of USAID is the self-advancement and stability of the United States. Providing humanitarian assistance is not the primary goal, but rather a means to achieving U.S. national security. The 2000 revision of USAID's mission is as follows:

> The mission of USAID is to contribute to U.S. national interests by supporting the people of developing and transitional countries in their efforts to achieve enduring economic and

social progress and to participate more fully in resolving the problems of their countries and the world.[15]

In his case study, David Porter examines the motivations behind foreign assistance and argues that the distribution of aid is based on the "realist model" of international relations theorist Kenneth Waltz. Waltz claims that in order to survive, a nation must adopt policies of self-interest. Porter points out that USAID's foreign aid disbursement is determined primarily according to the advantages a particular country has to offer the U.S. He describes foreign aid as a political tool, and discusses the primary U.S. concerns, including economic, political, and national security interests. Gaining allies, or more accurately *influence*, is an important part of USAID's purpose. And another chief consideration of USAID is the geopolitical power and military presence, or potential, of the receiving country. Porter explains that while USAID is not responsible for staffing military bases in foreign countries, it often plays a role by providing economic assistance. Porter analyzes USAID's Food for Peace project, and while he admits that the analysis is incomplete, states confidently: "It appears clear that allocation of both economic and food aid reflect the systemic interests of the donor state and not the basic human needs of the recipient state."[16] Finally, Porter says that in order to truly evaluate the success of USAID, one should assess the relationship between the U.S. and the receiving country, of which he claims there are many instances of positives and negatives.

USAID is gaining attention and political importance with its participation in Bush's "war on terror" and the huge increase in appropriations in 2003. I find interesting, and unfortunate, the fact that USAID and the State Department find their values and missions so congruous that in 2003 they submitted a joint strategic plan. I was under the naïve impression that USAID, though politically motivated, was more selfless in its humanitarian efforts. However, based on the direction that USAID is taking under the guidance of this administration, as reflected in the clearly laid out goals of the 2004-2009 joint strategic plan, I believe that USAID is moving further away from Kennedy's more altruistic vision and elements of moral responsibility. ∎

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Government Gone Mad?

Is the United States Government in the Business of Restricting Public Access to Government Information?

Mark L. Gatti

Students were offered two choices for their capstone projects in LIS 567 Government Information—create either a federal agency profile or an original article for the DttP *student paper competition. Four brave souls opted to write for* DttP, *knowing that their instructor could submit only two of the four to the competition. The* DttP *paper assignment began with an examination of* DttP *content and the documents literature as groundwork for developing a topic idea <http://informatics.buffalo. edu/faculty/Robinson/courses/567/project/paper.htm>. The need for original synthesis was emphasized and contrasted with the more familiar academic format of "term paper," unsuitable because it would rehash ideas already familiar to documents specialists. To rate space in* DttP, *a student paper would have to expand, update, or stimulate documents discourse. One draft, submitted early in the semester, allowed the instructor to react to the topic ideas. The next time the instructor saw the papers was in their final form, one week before* DttP*'s deadline.*—Judith Robinson

A good deal of outcry has come from librarians, information professionals, and even some members of the government over restrictions imposed on public access to government information since September 11, 2001. Some critics say our democratic principles are in peril, and that the U.S. government's steps to safeguard certain information threatens democracy. Others concede that restricting access to government information is necessary in some cases, such as times of war. There's a fine balance needed in this post-9/11 environment for making certain the government does not go too far in restricting access to information and the government's duty to protect sensitive information that could threaten this country if in the wrong hands. But has the government gone too far?

The purpose of this paper is to take a realistic approach on current public access to government information. Although restricted access to some government information is a reality, it is a necessary one. In times of war, the government must take steps, sometimes unpleasant, to protect its citizenry. Yet, even as access to some government information is being restricted, public access to government information has never been greater. Electronic government is giving the public unprecedented levels of access to government information; and in many cases, instant access. The argument needs to be looked at in perspective.

The following authors generally argue against restricting government information, though some attempt to take a balanced approach. Edward Herman attempts to provide a sensible guide for protecting public access to government information.[1] In Herman's view, the U.S. government must take the initiative to protect information from getting into the hands of Al Qaeda or other enemies. Aimee C. Quinn attempts to find a reasonable balance as well.[2] Anthony Ross and Nadia Caidi's fine study looks at the legislative action taken in the United States and Canada and how library communities have

reacted.[3] John A. Shuler is critical of the U.S. government in his assessment of federal information policy.[4]

Electronic government, or e-government, offers access to government information at previously unheard-of levels. Paul T. Jaeger provides an introductory examination of e-government, its benefits to citizens, what impedes it, and its potential.[5] Jaeger and Kim M. Thompson discuss e-government's benefits to public access and the democratic process, and segments of society that do not participate in e-government.[6] Christopher G. Reddick examines e-government's development in American cities.[7] And L. Elaine Halchin offers a sobering view of e-government's vulnerabilities to possible terrorist activities, as e-government simultaneously offers valuable information to prevent and prepare for terrorism.[8]

Is Access to Government Information Fundamentally Diminishing?

The Government Documents Round Table of the American Library Association has produced a set of "Key Principles on Government Information." The second principle emphasizes the value, need, and government's responsibility for unobstructed flow of government information to keep citizens well-informed and offer government accountability to its citizens.[9] Yet in wartime, governments traditionally restrict the availability of data to the public to protect that data from the enemy. Herman maintains that P.L. 107-40 (2001) [Authorization for the Use of Military Force, 115 Stat 224] essentially acknowledged the United States is in a war, albeit not a traditional one.[10] Quinn suggests that access to public information

isn't necessarily a civil right, although it's "a fundamental right for any democracy to operate."[11] Shuler notes that surveys and polls indicate that most Americans are willing to give the government more power to keep America safe from terrorism.[12] Are fears that government assuming too much power and restricting too much information warranted?

Two memoranda have heightened fears of government restriction of information. The first one, from Attorney General John Ashcroft on October 21, 2001, if fairly viewed, shouldn't be a source of such fears.[13] The "Memorandum for Heads of All Federal Departments and Agencies" states that the Department of Justice and the Bush administration are committed to "full compliance with the Freedom of Information Act (FOIA), 5 U.S.C. 522 (2000)." The Memo further notes that "it is only through a well-informed citizenry that the leaders of our nation remain accountable to the governed and the American people can be assured that neither fraud nor government waste is concealed."[14] But what some are at issue with is Ashcroft invoking Exemption 5 of the FOIA, 5 U.S.C. 552(b) (5). The Memo states:

> Congress and the courts have long recognized that certain legal privileges ensure candid and complete agency deliberations without fear that they will be made public. Other privileges ensure that lawyers' deliberations and communications are kept private. No leader can operate effectively without confidential advice and counsel.[15]

The memo asks federal agencies to make discretionary decisions to disclose information protected by the FOIA, but only after "full and deliberate consideration of the institutional, commercial, and personal privacy interests that could be implicated by disclosure of the information."[16] That fact that it is up to each individual agency to make these decisions should alleviate fears of a centralized suppression of information. It is also important to note that this memorandum was written to protect national security. A September 2003 GAO Report mentions that "regarding effects of the new policy, FOIA officers most frequently reported that they did not notice changes in their agencies' responses to FOIA requests compared to previous years," and further notes that "48 percent reported that they did not notice a change with regard to the likelihood of their agencies' making discretionary disclosures, [while] one third of the FOIA officers reported a decreased likelihood."[17] Halchin seems to want a specific policy by the administration that addresses content on agency Web sites.[18] Halchin, who is opposed to agencies "removing or altering, withholding, or failing to update information on their Web sites," seems to want a more centralized policy and is not impressed that the Bush Administration has left agencies to form their own policies, or to rely on policies set forth in the Ashcroft Memo. Although much criticized, the Ashcroft Memo is sound policy, balanced, sensitive to citizens' right to information, and only suggests protecting government information in the light of national security, while leaving it to the agencies' discretion.

The second memo, Andrew H. Card's "Memorandum for Heads of Executive Departments and Agencies: Action to Safeguard Information Regarding Weapons of Mass Destruction and Other Sensitive Documents Related to Homeland Security," has also caused distress.[19] Briefly put, the memo calls for the protection of sensitive government records that deal with chemical, biological, radiological, and nuclear weapons. The memo continues and states that any government information that "could reasonably be expected to assist in the development or use of weapons of mass destruction . . . should not be disclosed inappropriately."[20] Card's memo, as well as Aschroft's, was so upsetting to some that Rep. Henry A. Waxman and other members of the Government Reform Committee introduced the Restore Open Government Act of 2004 to the House of Representatives on September 14, 2004.[21] The bill calls for overturning both the Ashcroft and Card memos. This raises the question, how open must open government remain in times of war? Ashcroft and Card seek to protect sensitive government information that would be dangerous in the wrong hands and would help our leaders govern if restricted. For an open government to truly remain open, sensitive information can be protected without drastically reducing public access. An informed citizenry is vitally important, but so is a protected citizenry. Public access at all costs is a danger to democracy in the long run. So, is public access to government information fundamentally diminishing? With the advent of Electronic government, it seems to be fundamentally growing.

What about Electronic Government?

President Bush signed the E-Government Act of 2002 into law December 17, 2002, just a little over a year after the September 11 tragedy.[22] The new law gives the United States government's official seal of approval for the growth and advancement of e-government by protecting and expanding public access to government information. Some notable features of this law include Sec. 207 "Accessibility, Usability, and Preservation of Government Information." Subsection (e) calls for improved preservation of electronic information and the improvement to public access to electronic information. Section 207 (f) (2) deals with the availability of government information on the Internet. Agencies must determine what information will be available and public comment is to be solicited in the process. Section 202 (c) holds agencies responsible to make certain access to electronic government information doesn't become diminished. Section 213 calls for improving public awareness of online government information and services and enhancing the quality of community technology centers and other institutions that provide public access to government information. Section 204 and Section 207 (f) (3) paved the way for the online government information portal, FirstGov.

It will take several years to see the full impact of this law and the growth of e-government, but it is unrealistic to claim that public access to government information is diminishing in any way to cause real concern. Any fears of government suppression of information should be alleviated.

Halchin and others aren't so optimistic.[23] Halchin suggests that the Bush administration has two different approaches to e-government. The first approach is its expansion of e-government; the second approach is the administration's concern about information available on agency Web sites. As mentioned earlier, agencies are free to use discretion about what information to withhold. Yet, Halchin fears such decentralization could cause certain information to be withheld too long or even lost. It seems, though, that a centralized policy would give the administration more power over what information availability, giving critics further reasons to despair.

Electronic Government: Hopes and Concerns

Jaeger and others see real hope for electronic government.[24] Jaeger states that "though e-government has clear benefits for businesses and governments themselves, citizens may actually receive the widest array of benefits from e-government." E-government, according to Jaeger, can allow citizens to be much more informed about government policies and issues, have greater access to government services and forms, and generally participate more fully in public participation in the government. Reddick sees evidence of growth of e-government in American cities.[25] The potential and realities of e-government are already being felt. Jaeger and Thompson see great potential in e-government, yet warn that certain segments of the population are not benefiting from these new government services.[26] They claim that "information poverty" is prevalent to some underserved parts of the population. They call for e-government to embrace these populations, and to deliver on its promises and potential. It's not suppressed information that is a concern, but information that one way or another isn't getting through to some people.

Calling for a Realistic View

I am calling for a more balanced and realistic view of public access to government information. Yes, certain information is being withheld, but it is the interest of national security. Certain principles, such as keeping the citizenry informed, should never be blatantly compromised, but there needs to be some leverage in war or national crisis. The free flow of information is an ideal, but realistically can never be fully met.

Only data that is at risk from falling into enemy hands or otherwise poses a threat to our national security is being withheld. This should cause not alarm but confidence that the government is taking necessary steps for our protection.

With the passing of the E-Government Act of 2002, especially in the midst of the current terrorist crisis, we should remain confident that our government is not in the business of suppressing vital information from its citizens, but is actually promoting public access to information. We need to view this issue in perspective. The United States far surpasses the United Kingdom and the European Union in distributing government information, and the United States certainly isn't the only country to safeguard sensitive information in times of crisis.[27]

Conclusion

This paper discussed the fears about suppression of government information, the reality that the government must take steps to protect its citizenry from harm, and the actual growth of public access to government information with the advent of e-government. And it called librarians, information professionals and other readers to look at the problems and potentials with public access to government information in a more realistic and balanced way. ▮

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A Social History of Paperwork Reform Efforts

Anne Marie Lyons

During the fall 2004 semester, students in the Government Information Resources class at Rutgers University, School of Communication, Information and Library Studies, were assigned a term paper that incorporated all skills learned during the semester. The purpose of the paper was for students to use their newly acquired knowledge of government resources and to demonstrate how these may be used in a research project. Students were required to write a research paper on a subject of their choice, using the widest variety possible of print and online resources.

An important component of the assignment was the section devoted to methodology, where students were asked to record the search process and include their observations about the various tools used. The student papers presented a wide range of topics, and each search process produced surprises and challenges. It was a wonderful opportunity for students to learn the complexities of government sources as well as the wealth of information that can be found.—Debbie Rabina

The paper focuses on a chronological history of paperwork reform efforts in the United States. In exploring that history, the paper offers an interpretation of how the design and implementation efforts of the regulations established by the Paperwork Reductions Acts contribute to and reflect a history of the government's social attitudes and values in regards to information needs, organization, and management. Implicit in these paperwork reform efforts is how Congress identifies problems and prioritizes problem-solving initiatives on behalf of United States citizens. Pursuant to the term project parameters, the paper only refers to primary documents and not secondary analytical sources. A methodology section describing research gathering precedes the rest of the text.

Methodology

My initial research method for this paper involved consulting various government indexes. These indexes included the *Monthly Catalog, GAO Documents Index, CIS Index, CQ Almanac, Congressional Record* indexes, and *Legislative Histories Index.* At the beginning of this project, I was only aware of the Paperwork Reduction Act of 1995. I soon found leads to the Paperwork Reduction Act of 1980, as well as to periodic amendments to the Acts between 1980 and 1998, which in turn expanded my search efforts in the annual indexes.

Upon discovering the existence of the Commission on Federal Paperwork, I then discovered that there had been an even earlier act—the Federal Reports Act of 1942. The subsequent literature I found helped me to identify the federal agencies and Congressional committees that were most often involved with paperwork reform initiatives. These discoveries also gave me valuable new search terms to use in consulting government indexes. Physical shelf-reading in applicable sections of the government documents collection also helped to identify relevant publications that were omitted from both the indexes and the government documents card catalog.

One problem I kept encountering was that many paperwork reform events would be listed throughout the years in the annual indexes, but these entries did not necessarily signify

substantial activity. I often spent time chasing entry leads that resulted in nothing more than short paragraphs and remarks from members of Congress. Two bibliographic sources were invaluable in helping me establish a timeline of significant paperwork reduction events: chapter 8 of Hernon's *United States Government Information* text book, and the Commission on Federal Paperwork's *History of Paperwork Reform Efforts.*

Another component of the research methodology was to focus my thesis. The Paperwork Reduction Acts have had an incredible amount of influence on all types of legislation. In turn, the Acts themselves have been also been shaped by numerous existing statutes. I decided to adhere to my original interest in the acts—the social characteristics and impacts of the Acts on federal agencies and U.S. citizens. I restricted my final collection of bibliographical resources to those documents that explicitly depicted how Congress recognized problems caused by paperwork burdens, how it prioritized problem-solving initiatives, and what the human effects were of its successes and failures.

War and Economic Crisis

The advent of World War II and wide-scale economic depression caused extreme upheaval in the functions of the United States government. New federal agencies were being created almost on a daily basis to contend with the issues caused by war and economic crisis. These agencies adopted the usual federal strategies of collecting statistical information from citizens in order to identify the scope of the problems, as well as to pinpoint the precise populations being adversely affected. In addition to economic problems, agencies also had to track production statistics for the war effort.

It was not long before Senators and House Representatives began reporting to Congress their constituents' concerns regarding the overwhelming paperwork burdens imposed by federal agencies. Furthermore, federal agencies themselves were reporting major problems with tracking, processing, and managing exceedingly massive quantities of paperwork.[1]

1939 Central Statistics Board Report

In 1938, the Central Statistical Board was solicited by President Franklin Roosevelt to produce a report measuring paperwork burdens. He was specifically interested in the:

> number of financial and other statistical reports and returns regularly required from business and industry and from private individuals by agencies of the Federal Government under existing law, and the authority under which each is collected; specific indications of the extent and kinds of duplication existing among them, and the diversity of the accounts and records which they necessitate.[2]

Although the study's purpose was to analyze paperwork burdens on all citizens, the studies' actual methodologies focused on small businesses, unregulated larger businesses, and federal agencies. The board found many instances of information duplication, particularly with financial and tax figures. For example, a typical small business had to report their annual payroll costs on twelve federal forms per fiscal year.[3]

The Board also studied the information records businesses and agencies kept for their own purposes, as well as the information collection requirements of the government. Some federal agencies, such as the Bureau of Labor Statistics and the Bureau of the Census, required separate payroll statistics for manual workers and non-manual workers.[4] Many employers did not keep this information, so it became a burden to calculate these figures for the government. Furthermore, the Board found that some of these employers could not take the time to accurately figure out the separate payroll numbers. If the numbers submitted by employers were found to be inaccurate by a federal agency, the business owner was penalized for fraudulent information.

Recommendations of the Central Statistics Board included: allowing agencies to continue to directly collect the information they needed, yet appointing some central agency to recognize and decrease duplication; having federal agencies examine their legal bases for reporting and information collection, and ensuring that they did not conflict with other agencies or contribute to further paperwork duplication; and mandating official hearings before the President of the United States for federal agencies that claimed they could not avoid duplication. The board also stressed the importance of confidentiality and privacy rights of citizens, which should always take priority over duplication.

1941 Senate Report

A year later, the Senate Special Committee to Study Problems of American Small Businesses released a condensed version of the Central Statistics Board survey, along with a framework for a Federal Reports Act, and thirty pages of testimonies about federal paperwork burdens from American small business owners. Not only did Federal information requirements add to business operational expenses, they were also sapping the time of small business owners and managers. This was because smaller companies could not afford to hire clerical staff, which meant that owners and managers were spending their time completing federal forms. One business owner, who employed only two other employees, reported that 33.34 percent of his office labor overhead was spent on fulfilling federal information requests.[5]

The report also includes an additional thirty pages of letters from heads of federal administrative agencies. The letters are in response to the committee's solicitations for opinions about the possibility of a central agency in charge of all information collection efforts and statistics. Most respondents agreed that there should be a central agency in charge of overseeing

information collection in order to identify duplications, but the agency should not have the authority to determine information needs and methods for collection. Almost all respondents felt that the Central Statistics Bureau was best prepared to fulfill the role of the proposed central agency.

Federal Reports Act of 1942

On Christmas Eve 1942, President Roosevelt signed into law the first official paperwork reform legislature, the Federal Reports Act of 1942 (56 Stat. 1078, Public Law 77-831). The purposes of the Act were to "coordinate Federal reporting services, to eliminate duplication and reduce the cost of such services, and to minimize the burdens of furnishing information to Federal agencies." [6] The director of the Bureau of the Budget (and not the Central Statistics Board) was granted the authority to: validate and authorize clearance of information needs of federal agencies; review and approve information collection methods; establish a central information collection agency, if necessary; and authorize the distribution of information from one federal agency to other federal and nonfederal entities. Most importantly, the Act designated the director of the bureau as the authority figure in determining which information needs were duplicated between agencies, and how these duplications should be consolidated to ease paperwork burdens during information collection. The director was free to institute rules and regulations that would support the implementation of the Act, as well as to enforce penalties against agencies that failed to comply.

Additionally, the Act protected private information rights of citizens, including bank reports and income tax returns, by establishing penalties for "unlawful disclosure of information."[7] Congress was most concerned with protecting competitive business information for small business owners. However, instead of designating specific types of private information that could not be disclosed, the Act awarded a blanket exemption to the Bureau of Internal Revenue. There were similar complexities with privacy, information needs, and information collection within the Bureaus of Public Debt and Accounts, as well as within the Treasury Department, so these agencies were likewise awarded exemptions from the Act.

An important fact was overlooked, though: "tax and financial reporting . . . constituted over half of all public reporting."[8] These exemptions evolved into one of many problems that would plague the implementation efforts of the Federal Reports Act for the next thirty eight years. The Bureau of the Budget itself would become another problem.

1957 House Report

In 1956 and 1957, the House Subcommittee to Study Federal Printing and Paperwork released two major paperwork reports that evaluated the implementation efforts of the Federal Reports Act of 1942.[9]

In part 1 of the report, the subcommittee reported that the director of the Bureau of the Budget was having a difficult time fulfilling assigned paperwork reform provisions. One problem was, due to the exemptions allowed by the 1942 Act, some other agencies felt that their information collection needs should likewise be exempt. As a result, the director was experiencing numerous problems with clearing information requests and reviewing information collection forms in order to identify duplications. In essence, the director's authority was constantly being questioned by more powerful agencies that acted uncooperatively towards regulations they felt infringed upon necessary information collection needs.

Another problem was retrospective and current records management. Some federal agencies found that inordinate amounts of time was spent on maintaining records, analyzing data, and resolving duplication issues. The subcommittee discovered that there were few standards and guidelines established to guide common records management practices. As a result, different agencies had a variety of inconsistent methods and rules for recording information needs and justifications.

Additionally, as the director was solely responsible for clearing agencies' information requests, there was a serious backlog in release allowances. Many agencies were frustrated by these delays, and consequently continued to collect unauthorized information.

The subcommittee recommended significant changes that seemed to have potential for eliminating many of the problems. First, they suggested that officials from large federal agencies who had a successful history of working with large quantities of paperwork, identifying duplication, and reducing paperwork in relation to information collection, should act as consultants and advisors in directing paperwork reduction implementation efforts. Two of these agencies included the Department of Defense and the Division of Organization and Personnel. Also, the General Services Administration had proved to be an excellent leader in guiding federal agencies for civilian services in recognizing and eliminating duplication. In other words, Congress should take advantage of experts who had already successfully fulfilled the 1942 Act's provisions, instead of relying on the overextended Bureau of the Budget.

Another recommendation was that the National Archives and Records Service should be granted immediate authority status in establishing and enforcing standards and methods for consistent record management practices. Although this would not solve the problems with historical records, it would at least be effective in getting federal agencies on the same page from that point forward.

Lastly, the subcommittee recommended that existing statutes guiding information collection practices for federal agencies should be examined and amended to improve paperwork reform efforts. The committee was especially concerned about the amount of duplicative financial information burdens imposed on citizens by the Internal Revenue Service and the Treasury Department.

Despite the subcommittee's findings and promising recommendations, little was changed in paperwork legislature to alleviate burden and disorganization. In fact, despite subsequent reports, hearings, and studies, Congress would not pass another law addressing paperwork issues for forty years.

The Paper People Experiment

In 1960, the Bureau of the Budget invited twenty-five other federal agencies, including the departments of Agriculture, Education, and Labor, to conduct an evaluation of current information management practices from 1950 to 1960. The Bureau and the other agencies identified 1,100 items consisting of strengths, weaknesses, and suggestions for improvement in regards to these current practices.[10] A few selected items from the list of 1,100 were then presented as a progress report to the President. The bureau included "paperwork simplification" as a priority item in this report. Examples of successful thinning out of federal paperwork included: $50,000 saved by the Treasury Department for simplifying customs forms; $275,000 saved by the Internal Revenue Service solely as result of "the revision of the 'Notice of Adjustment' form;" and

$5 million saved by the Post Office in "streamlining money order forms." Furthermore, the overall reduction of federal paperwork from 1950 to 1960 freed up five million square feet of space, thereby saving the government more than $7 million a year that would normally be used for filing cabinet purchases, and for the salaries of file clerks and typists.[11]

The bureau considered the paperwork simplification efforts to be so successful that it urged federal agencies to adopt similar work simplification techniques as well. For example, by searching for simpler and cheaper ways to do work, the Bureau of Customs was able to reduce its labor force by 18 percent, even though its remaining employees experienced a 90 percent increase in workload. The Immigration and Naturalization Service reduced its immigrant investigative force by 60 percent. The IRS work force decreased by 6 percent, yet was handling one million more tax forms since 1953. [12]

In these cases, the cut-and-dried techniques used to reduce paperwork were applied in a likewise cut-and-dried manner to human employees. There was no mention of potential morale problems for employees who were expected to take on heavier workloads, and it does not seem likely that federal agencies used their financial savings to compensate these employees. There was no discussion about the quality of work produced, or possible repercussions of reduced positions, such as, for example, potential

national security problems caused by backlogs in the Immigration and Naturalization Service.

Commission on Federal Paperwork

In December 1974, Public Law 93-556 was passed to establish a Commission on Federal Paperwork. The commission was in response to Congress finding once again that unprecedented federal paperwork requirements were continuing to burden "private citizens, recipients of Federal assistance, business, government contractors, and State and local governments."[13] The commission was expected to work with federal agencies to determine the validity of information needs, information collection and dissemination processes, and information management. Afterwards, a report of the findings would be presented to Congress.

During the next three years, the commission produced a great number of reports that studied paperwork burdens on all aspects of government operations. Some of the report titles include: *History of Paperwork Reform Efforts*; *Impact of Federal Paperwork on State and Local Governments: An Assessment by the Academy for Contemporary Problems*; *The Reports Clearance Process*; *Information Resources Management*; and *Records Management in Federal Agencies*. In 1977, a *Final Summary Report* was issued, which identified common paperwork problems across all agencies, as well as presented recommendations for improved paperwork practices.[14] The common paperwork problems sounded familiar, including numerous instances of duplicated information collection; failures of the Office of Management and Budget (OMB; formerly known as the Bureau of the Budget); and lack of cooperation between federal agencies. The proposed recommendations also resonated with those of earlier studies: distribution of OMB responsibilities to more experienced heads of federal agencies; establishment of standards for information collection methods; and hearings and penalty enforcement for instances of duplication.

Paperwork Reduction Act of 1980

In December 1980, almost forty years after the Federal Reports Act, the Paperwork Reduction Act of 1980 was passed.[15] Its purpose: "To reduce paperwork and enhance the economy and efficiency of the Government and the private sector by improving Federal information policymaking, and for other purposes." Although this purpose statement was less specific and more vague than that of the 1942 Act, the provisions in the Act did make strong efforts to provide explicit, quantifiable, and detailed methods and timelines for overseeing and achieving paperwork efficiency, less duplication of information solicitations, and more cooperation between federal agencies. The

methods for quantifying progress and the timelines offered for direction, provided important measures for accountability, which were absent from the 1942 Act.

On the other hand, despite the codified Paper Reduction Act of 1980 being considerably more specific and lengthier than the Federal Reports Act of 1942, practically all of its provisions duplicated those established by its predecessor. These provisions reflected the same 1942 issues that still remained unresolved almost forty years later: paperwork burden; debate over the establishment of a central collection agency; determination of the validity of information requirements; recognition and resolution of duplicated information collection; lack of efficiency; and high economic costs. Worse, authority for the enforcement of the Act was re-extended to the OMB, despite its glaring lack of success and history of incompetence.

In defense of the OMB, it is important to keep in mind that Congress ignored the recommendations of various Senate and House committees to designate the Central Statistics Board as the overseeing information collection authority. Congress instead decided to appoint an agency that was already overburdened and overextended with its normal responsibilities. In the 1980 Act, Congress pointed out that a special office within the OMB—the Office of Information and Regulatory Affairs (OIRA)—had been created for the sole purpose of working on the provisions of the Act, but sections 3504 and 3505 of the code made it clear that the director of the OMB was still responsible, and therefore would be held accountable, for the enforcement and the success of the provisions, including clearing information needs, identifying and resolving duplication, and acting as a liaison between federal agencies with similar information needs.

The 1980 Act did step into entirely new territory: it included the first formal provision for automatic data processing (ADP) as related to paperwork reduction efforts. Although the ADP provision listed in section 3501 is brief, general, and tentative, it would act as a predecessor for future paperwork reform efforts, as well as for future paperwork reform problems:

> To ensure that automatic data processing and telecommunications technologies are acquired and used by the Federal Government in a manner which improves service delivery and program management, increases productivity, reduces waste and fraud, and, wherever practicable and appropriate, reduces the information processing burden for the Federal Government and for persons who provide information to the Federal Government.[16]

Elimination of Publications Acts

On the heels of the Paper Reduction Act of 1980, the OMB released Bulletin 81-16: "Elimination and Consolidation of Government Periodicals and Recurring Pamphlets," in 1981.

Pursuant to the bulletin, federal agencies had to cease all printing of new periodicals and pamphlets, "develop an internal control system plan to be reviewed and approved by OMB, for controlling the future production of publications," and then report to OMB the resulting "funding reductions."[17] Unfortunately, according to the OMB's 1983 analysis and report on the "Eliminations, Consolidations, and Cost Reductions of Government Publications," most agencies did not have an inventory of all of the periodicals and pamphlets they published, nor did they have the time to create an itemized "internal control system plan" for OMB. In response to the agencies' lack of response, OMB then released a supplement to Bulletin 81-16, instructing all agencies to list biographical information for each publication; reapply each publication for clearance status and dissemination approval from OMB; and report potential financial savings for discontinuing publications. Even OMB admits that the "compilation of this proved to be difficult and time-consuming for many agencies."[18] Here are just a few steps in the compilation process:

❚ agencies had to form new review boards to review publications;
❚ review boards had to develop criteria for eliminating publications;
❚ agencies had to create itemized inventories, formatted to OMB's specifications;
❚ OMB collected the inventories, and then immediately returned them back to agencies so that a second inventory of reductions could be completed; and
❚ OMB then "transferred" final inventories into a computer, created one printed version, and distributed that version to all agencies, so that they could review their particular sections for errors and omissions.

On one hand, there were a few benefits that resulted from OMB's project. Agencies were able to inventory all of their publications, and identify duplications in content, as well as potential areas for consolidation. There is also no evidence that OMB directed certain publications to be discontinued, or that agencies were given quotas to fulfill, so it can be assumed that agencies had autonomy in determining which of their own publications should be eliminated.

On the other hand, OMB was already spotting potential problems. From an ADP standpoint, many agencies had to create a totally different data system to capture the information the OMB was soliciting. In other cases, some agencies decided not to identify their publications as either periodicals or pamphlets, thereby avoiding potential eliminations. Other agencies claimed that continuation of their publications was ensured by existing statutes. OMB was not able to confirm these statutes, but suspected that the statutes may have authorized publications without necessarily requiring publications to exist.[19] Most recently, the American Library Association's Government Documents Roundtable reported that OMB's Bulletin 81-16 "resulted in massive curtailment of the executive agencies' publications of government books, pamphlets, periodicals, and

films, a few of which have been turned over to commercial publishers at much higher rates to the purchasers."[20]

Paperwork Reduction Reauthorization Act of 1986

In 1986, the Paperwork Reduction Act of 1980 was quietly amended and became the Paperwork Reduction Reauthorization Act of 1986.[21] By "quietly," it is meant that the 1986 Act was not an independent act, but a Title included in the much larger Appropriations Act of 1986, Public Law 99-591. The amendments consisted mainly of minor changes, such as in timeline dates and wording of statements, but with the exceptions of two significant changes.

First, an administrator from OIRA was appointed by the President to assume many of the responsibilities originally assigned to the director of the OMB. Although the director was still ultimately responsible and accountable for the results of the OIRA administrator's efforts, the burden of work would fall upon the administrator. Second, even the automatic data processing provision still remained brief and unspecific, there was an interesting addition. Besides the purposes of ADP set forth in the 1980 Act, data processing should now also "improve the quality of decision making."

Paperwork Reduction Act of 1995

In May 1995, Congress passed the Paperwork Reduction Act of 1995.[22] Again, the provisions are similar to both those of the 1980 Act and the Federal Reports Act of 1942, but there are also new additions. Furthermore, there is a distinctly different tone to the purpose statement of the 1995 Act: "To further the goals of the Paperwork Reduction Act to have Federal agencies become more responsible and publicly accountable for reducing the burden of Federal paperwork on the public, and for other purposes." In section 3501, "the greatest possible public benefit" becomes the second most important priority under paperwork reduction, while government financial savings, which was the second priority in the 1980 Act, is now listed as the fifth priority. The Paperwork Reduction Act is no longer just about the reduction of a burden; it is now a vehicle through which the government can practice customer service and gain public trust.

The provision statements for "information technology"—the terminology that has replaced "automatic data processing"—are fleshed out substantially. New priorities include: "the dissemination of public information on a timely basis . . . that makes effective use of information technology;" computer security; public accessibility to information; and new information technology acquisitions. The definition of "public burden" is expanded to include "acquiring, installing, and utilizing tech-

nology and systems" and "searching data sources." There is also the introduction of new vocabulary terms, such as "information resources management" and "information system."

The directors of the OMB and OIRA are still in charge of overseeing and enforcing the 1995 Act, but their duties and responsibilities are substantially integrated with information technology. A major portion of the director's tasks is creating information technology and records management standards, guidelines, and policies. The director is expected to consult with the director of the National Institute of Standards and Technology, and the archivist of the United States. The director must also ensure that all information technologies adhere to the Computer Security Act of 1987.

Additionally, in section 3506, "Federal agency responsibilities" increases from four brief provisions in the 1980 Act to seven extremely detailed provisions in this current Act. There are three significant changes. First, although the director of the OMB is still responsible for all provisions, heads of federal agencies must accomplish many of the director's tasks within their federal agencies. These tasks include verifying and clearing information needs and collection practices, identifying and reducing duplication, and adhering to any existing statutes, such as privacy laws.

Second, there is, again, an emphasis on customer service. Federal agencies must provide information in response to public requests (as applicable by law) in a timely fashion. When collecting information, federal agencies must make collection methods (such as questionnaires, forms, worksheets) as clear and easy to understand as possible. (In section 3501, "reviewing instructions" is also a term of public burden.) Furthermore, in order to ensure that federal agencies are practicing the best customer service methods, they must also solicit customer feedback

Finally, heads of federal agencies are also in charge of similar information technology and management tasks as the director of the OMB, including computer security and technology standards. They are also responsible for keeping current with new information technologies, promoting information technology use, and initiating legislature to "improve technology practices."

Present Status of Paperwork Reform Efforts

In 1998, Congress passed the Government Paperwork Elimination Act (GPEA) as Title XVII under the Appropriations Act of 1998 (Public Law 105-277, 112 Stat. 2681). Surprisingly, with the exception of a minor phrase change to section 3504 of the Paperwork Reduction Act of 1995, the GPEA does nothing to amend the 1995 Act, nor does it address any of the paperwork burden issues. In fact, it assigns an additional task to the OMB director: the responsibility for researching, integrating, and

ensuring the operability of electronic signatures, a method of allowing federal paperwork to be completed electronically in a safe and nonfraudulent environment.[23]

In 2003 and 2004, members of Congress called for additional studies, hearings, and reports to investigate the present status of paperwork burden for the purpose of creating new amendments to the Paperwork Reduction Act of 1995. The last entry appears in the May 18, 2004, edition of the *Congressional Record.* It is a speech from Minnesota House Representative Betty McCollum.

Judge McCollum claims that the paperwork restrictions enabled by the 1995 Act is distorting information collection and the public release of data related to environmental matters. She fears that the 1995 Act is being used to further the anti-conservative agenda of the Bush Administration."[24] Interestingly, history repeats itself in Judge McCollum's speech. Similar arguments had been presented during the enactment hearings for the Federal Reports Act of 1942, where some members of Congress claimed that the Act would further the "New Deal" agenda of President Roosevelt.

Conclusion

The greatest cause of the social failures of the paperwork reduction efforts is due to the historically consistent lack of proactive attention towards the current concerns and needs of United States citizens. Every paperwork act has been a delayed reaction to situations that have been present for a considerable amount of time, and therefore have grown into insurmountable problems that cannot be solved by one document of legislature. For instance:

- statistical and data collection problems first starting gaining attention at the start of World War I, yet Congress does not address these issues until almost twenty years later in 1942;
- it is immediately obvious that the Bureau of the Budget cannot handle the significant number of tasks assigned to it by the 1942 Act, yet not only is the bureau not relieved of its workload, it actually receives even more responsibilities in the Paperwork Reduction Acts of 1980 and 1995;
- Senate and House committees were conducting studies and reports on automatic data processing opportunities as early as 1965, yet ADP provisions are not officially incorporated into paperwork reform efforts until 1980; and
- during the Vietnam War years, Congress was finding evidence of severe public distrust in and dissatisfaction with the United States government, yet it is not until the 1995 Act that Congress finally addresses customer service concerns.

Finally, the fact that paperwork burden problems in 1942 are still the same exact paperwork burden problems in 2004

should be evidence enough for Congress to recognize that paperwork reduction legislature has been grossly inadequate.

A significant contribution to both paperwork burden and duplication is largely due to federal agencies' collection of information and data from citizens who themselves would not normally keep track of those kinds of information and data because it is irrelevant. As a result, special technological accommodations and increased time and effort must be spent on recording information that only federal agencies find valuable.

Federal agencies exist to ensure the smooth operation and functionality of the United States on behalf of its citizens. Instead of forcing the public to accommodate the needs of the government, the government should instead re-evaluate its own information needs and consider that if certain data does not improve the lives of citizens, then it most likely is not going to improve the function of government. ▌

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Internment of Italian-Born Immigrants during World War II

Barbara Gugluizza

During the fall 2004 semester, students in the Government Information Resources class at Rutgers University, School of Communication, Information and Library Studies, were assigned a term paper that incorporated all skills learned during the semester. The purpose of the paper was for students to use their newly acquired knowledge of government resources and to demonstrate how these may be used in a research project. Students were required to write a research paper on a subject of their choice, using the widest variety possible of print and online resources.

An important component of the assignment was the section devoted to methodology, where students were asked to record the search process and include their observations about the various tools used. The student papers presented a wide range of topics, and each search process produced surprises and challenges. It was a wonderful opportunity for students to learn the complexities of government sources, as well as the wealth of information that can be found.—Debbie Rabina

Although the internment of Japanese Americans and aliens of Japanese ancestry during World War II has been widely talked about over the years, the internment of aliens of Italian and German descent and their classification as enemy aliens has been largely forgotten, until recently. This paper will focus on the internment of and wartime restrictions placed on persons of Italian descent during World War II. Efforts by Congress in recent years to acknowledge these injustices will also be discussed, as will a House resolution calling for a National Day of Remembrance to increase public awareness of these events.

Prelude to Restrictions

President Franklin D. Roosevelt responded to the attack on Pearl Harbor on December 7, 1941, by immediately issuing Proclamation 2525. This proclamation gave Attorney General

Francis Biddle the power to "apprehend, exclude, regulate and confiscate property from United States citizens and aliens of Japanese citizenry."[1] This proclamation was quickly followed by Proclamations 2526 and 2527, which were issued on December 8, 1941, against nationals of Germany and Italy, respectively.[2] These proclamations rendered nationals of Germany and Italy enemy aliens, and they were "subjected to apprehension, detention and various restrictions."[3] On the evening of December 7, FBI agents began arresting Japanese and German nationals considered to be dangerous to the security of the United States.[4] The agents also arrested Italian nationals even though the U.S. had not yet declared war on Italy. In fact, the arrests of Germans and Italians came one day before Proclamations 2526 and 2527 were issued, and four days before the U.S. declared war on Italy (December 11, 1941).[5] Three days later, on December 10, FBI director J. Edgar Hoover stated that 147 Italians had been arrested, according to a Department of Justice report to Congress reviewing the restrictions placed on persons of Italian descent during World War II.[6]

Restrictions

The Department of Justice report stated that more than 600,000 Italian-born immigrants to the United States were labeled enemy aliens during the war.[7] At the time, Italians were the largest foreign-born group in the United States.[8] As a result of this classification, federal agents were given the authority to search their homes if there was reason to believe that the houses contained items considered to be contraband.[9] Other restrictions placed on persons of Italian descent included the requisition by the U.S. Navy of several fishing boats on the West Coast, the majority of which were owned by Italian-born immigrants.[10] Presidential Proclamation 2537 (January 17, 1942) amended Proclamations 2525, 2526 and 2527 and further restricted the rights of persons classified as enemy aliens.[11] The proclamation stated that those classified as enemy aliens were required to register to obtain Certificates of Identification from the U.S. attorney general and were obliged to carry them at all times.

Because of their classification as enemy aliens, many persons of Italian descent were removed from their homes. On January 29, 1942, the Department of Justice announced that strategic locations would be cleared of enemy aliens by February 24, 1942.[12] Curfew zones were issued by the attorney general for enemy aliens in restricted areas along the West Coast, also effective February 24, 1942. Enemy aliens were required to be in their place of residence from 9 P.M. to 6 A.M.[13] At all other times, they were required to be "only at their place of residence or employment as indicated on their certificates of identification, or to be going between one of those places." If they were found to be in any other place, they were subject to being apprehended or interned.[14] Shortly after, the attorney general announced that 135 zones in California, Washington, Oregon, and Arizona would be prohibited from access by enemy aliens.[15]

On February 10, 1942, the Department of Justice restricted the travel and other conduct of Japanese, German, and Italian aliens.[16] Those individuals that were labeled enemy aliens were permitted to travel within the limits of the community between their homes and their work, their homes and houses of worship, and between their residences and government agencies. In addition, these individuals were allowed to travel to places outside of the United States provided that they "comply with all regulations governing such foreign travel." However, the enemy aliens were not allowed to "travel or make trips or move from one locality to another" domestically without documenting their movement. They were obligated to file travel documents at least seven days prior to their trip that indicated the following: their names, addresses, intended destinations, purpose of travel, method of transportation, and intended dates of return. The travel documents were filed in the local United States attorney's office, while a copy was forwarded to the Federal Bureau of Investigation.

These regulations were amended four days later by stating which specific areas were prohibited from entry by enemy aliens, including sixty-eight areas in California, twenty-four areas in Oregon, and seven areas in the state of Washington.[17] Those individuals labeled enemy aliens began evacuating their homes in these areas and relocating on February 15, 1942.[18] These regulations issued by the Department of Justice were officially sealed with the signing by President Roosevelt of Executive Order 9066 on February 25, 1942, which gave the secretary of war and the military commanders the power to prescribe military areas in places that they deemed appropriate. It also gave them the power to exclude any and all persons from these designated areas. Executive Order 9066 superseded "the designations of prohibited and restricted areas by the Attorney General under the Proclamations of December 7 and 8, 1942."[19] Not everyone classified as an enemy alien was restricted from designated areas, however. According to the DOJ report, United States attorneys were allowed to authorize exceptions to these restrictions for a convincing reason and after an investigation.[20]

To ensure that the aliens of enemy nationalities followed these restrictions, Congress passed Public Law 77-503, and it was signed by the president on March 31, 1942. The law imposed misdemeanor penalties on any person violating the military orders that were issued. If convicted of such an offense, the offenders would either be fined an amount of $5,000 or less, face imprisonment of up to one year, or both.

Raids and Confiscation of Contraband

The regulations controlling the "Travel and Other Conduct of Aliens of Enemy Nationalities" (February 10, 1942) also prohibited them from possessing certain items, as previously stated. The items that were thought to be contraband included shortwave radios, cameras, firearms, and radio transmitters.

It was believed that the items could possibly pose a threat to the security of the nation. If these items were found to be in their possession, they would be confiscated. The aliens were obligated to turn in these items to the local police within days after the regulations went into effect on February 10, 1942.[21] United States attorneys issued search warrants allowing FBI agents to search the residences of enemy aliens for possession of contraband items.[22] According to the DOJ report, spot searches were carried out in close to 2,900 Italian residences across the United States. These searches resulted in the confiscation of contraband from 1,632 individuals.[23]

Individual Exclusion Program

While most aliens of Italian descent faced travel restrictions and evacuation from designated areas, others faced even harsher restrictions under a formal program called the Individual Exclusion Program. The Western Defense Command, led by Lt. General John DeWitt, had planned at the start of the war to remove all Japanese, German, and Italian enemy aliens from the Pacific Slope region, which encompassed the area between the Pacific Ocean and the Sierra Nevada Mountains.[24] Instead, the government decided to remove everyone of Japanese descent, including American-born citizens, from California and parts of Arizona, Oregon, and Washington.[25]

In regard to German and Italian-born immigrants, the War Department offered an alternative plan, which was agreed to by the Department of Justice. This plan did not include a mass evacuation of Germans and Italians from the West Coast but instead gave Lt. General John DeWitt, the commanding general of the Western Defense Command, the power to individually exclude persons of these ancestries if they were found to be potentially dangerous to the security of the nation.[26] Assistant Secretary of War John McCloy said that individuals would be excluded either because of "suspicion of the individual," which would forbid them from entering other military zones, or because of the "sensitivity of the area where he resided," which would not prevent the individual from entering other military areas.[27] The exclusions began in the beginning of September 1942.[28]

According to the DOJ report, the Western Defense Command consulted with the FBI and the Office of Naval Intelligence to determine who would be recommended for exclusion. Available intelligence information would then be provided to the Individual Exclusion Board, which consisted of three field grade military officers.[29] The suspects (and attorney if the suspect had one) were informed of the evidence against them and questioned about such evidence. After making their recommendation, the board would send it for approval to the Civil Affairs Division, which would then contact the U.S. attorneys in the suspects' local area for their recommendations.[30] The entire file was sent to Commanding General DeWitt for his final decision. If excluded, the suspects would be photo-graphed and fingerprinted, both of which would be sent to the FBI. The individuals would then be advised about matters concerning their property and their transportation from the exclusion area and offered assistance in removing themselves by the target date. They would then be placed under surveillance until their departure from the area of exclusion.[31] According to the DOJ report, about 335 exclusion cases were heard between September 1942 and April 1943, in which about twenty-four of the excluded individuals were of Italian descent.[32]

Internment

Those individuals that were placed under arrest, under suspicion that they posed a threat to the nation's security, faced even harsher restrictions during this time period, as they were removed from their families and interned at locations around the country. The Department of Justice and the War Department established a policy in November 1941 stating that a person under alien enemy proceedings would not be interned until after a hearing was given.[33] Under the policy the suspect alien would be arrested by an FBI field office and an arrest report would be sent to the Alien Enemy Control Office of the Immigration and Naturalization Service (INS) and the office of the Provost Marshal General. The suspect alien would then be taken to an INS facility and kept there temporarily while awaiting a hearing by a local board, which consisted of three civilians from the area where the suspect alien lived. The board was responsible for the following: reading or hearing evidence presented by the FBI, listening to evidence presented by the suspect alien, questioning the suspect, and making recommendations as to whether the apprehended suspect should be released, paroled, or interned.[34]

About half of the Italians arrested in the first six months of the war were released or paroled, while the remainder were interned in military camps.[35] While some of the aliens arrested had violated immigration or registration laws, others were arrested as a result of suspicion by their neighbors.

Many of the Italians who were interned were sent to the following locations: Fort Missoula, Montana; Camp Forrest, Tennessee; Fort MacAlester, Oklahoma; Fort George Mead, Maryland; Fort Sam Houston, Texas; Tuna Canyon, California; Fort Bliss, Texas; Angel Island, California; Ellis Island, New York; Stringtown, Oklahoma; Sharp Park, California; Fort Howard, Maryland; San Antonio, Texas; Seagoville, Texas; Fort McDowell, Texas; Camp McCoy, Wisconsin; and Fort Lincoln, North Dakota.[36] According to the DOJ report, 418 individuals of Italian descent were interned in locations around the country during World War II.[37]

Effect on Livelihood

Besides affecting their travel, the restrictions placed on persons of Italian descent had an enormous effect on their livelihood and caused much economic hardship. For example,

Italian railroad employees were temporarily removed from their positions because the curfew and travel restrictions prevented them from doing their jobs.[38] Fishermen on the West Coast were greatly affected as they were prohibited from wharfs and piers as a result of the restrictions. In addition, as stated earlier, their boats were requisitioned by the U.S. Navy. Many individuals that were excluded under the Individual Exclusion Program had trouble finding employment because they were forced to inform potential employers of their exclusion, which labeled them as "potentially dangerous" individuals.[39] Furthermore, many families lost the breadwinner of the family when that member was interned.

An End to the Restrictions

Although the restrictions placed on Japanese Americans and Japanese-born immigrants lasted throughout the duration of the war, the restrictions placed on Italian-born immigrants lasted less than a year. The attorney general announced on October 12, 1942, that Italian immigrants and citizens were found to be loyal to the United States and the enemy alien restrictions placed on them would be lifted.[40] However, those individuals that were part of the Individual Exclusion Program faced exclusion for a longer period of time.

Publication Proclamation 24 was issued on September 4, 1945, following Japan's surrender. The proclamation eliminated the restrictions imposed on the specified areas of the Western Defense Command. In addition, it rescinded all individual exclusion orders, as well as all public proclamations and restrictive orders issued to civilians during the war.[41]

On December 7, 1945, Proclamation 2674 was signed by President Harry S. Truman.[42] The proclamation rescinded regulations related to travel by those persons deemed to be enemy aliens as well as those regulations dealing with the possession of prohibited items under Presidential Proclamations 2525, 2526, and 2527.[43]

According to House Report 108-410, President Gerald Ford formally rescinded Executive Order 9066 exactly forty-four years after it was issued, on February 19, 1976, in his speech "An American Promise."[44] In his speech, he stated, "I call upon the American people to affirm with me this American promise: that we have learned from the tragedy of that long-ago experience, forever to treasure liberty and justice for each individual American, and resolve that this kind of action shall never again be repeated."[45]

Acknowledgement of Injustices

For almost sixty years, the treatment of Italian nationals during World War II was largely unknown. In fact, according to the DOJ report, there was a deliberate policy that kept these measures from being known to the public during the war.[46] The complete story of what happened was not officially acknowledged by the government until recently. On July 1, 1999, New York Representatives Rick Lazio and Eliot Engel introduced H.R. 2442 into the House of Representatives.

The bill called for a report acknowledging the injustices suffered by persons of Italian ancestry during World War II. It was referred on September 24, 1999, to the House Judiciary Committee, Subcommittee on the Constitution, in which a hearing was held on October 26, 1999. Several individuals that had been interned, arrested, or excluded as well as family members of those individuals that were deceased testified at the hearings. They gave an account of what they experienced during this time period and the effect that these events had on their lives. The bill was passed in the House of Representatives without amendment on November 10, 1999, and referred to the Senate.

On September 28, 2000, the Senate Judiciary Committee reported on the bill and it was passed in the Senate with amendments on October 24, 2000. President Clinton signed it into law on November 7, 2000, and it became Public Law 106-451, *Wartime Violation of Italian American Civil Liberties Act.* This act resulted in a formal acknowledgement by President Clinton of the injustices that occurred. In addition, the Department of Justice issued a report, as a result of the act, that detailed the kinds of injustices that occurred to persons of Italian ancestry during World War II, including arrests, detention, internment, exclusion, curfews, travel restrictions, and confiscation of property.

The report also contains a list of individuals that were arrested and detained as well as a list of those individuals excluded under the Individual Exclusion Program.[47] The names of all the Italians that were interned are noted as are the locations of where they were interned.[48] Furthermore, the report contains a list of ports from which Italian Americans were prohibited from fishing, the names of those individuals whose boats were confiscated, as well as the names of the railroad workers who were prevented from working in the prohibited zones.[49]

A Day of Remembrance

In honor of the Japanese Americans, German nationals, and Italian nationals that faced restrictions and internment during World War II, a resolution is currently on the table in the House of Representatives (H. Res. 56). The resolution supports the goals of the Japanese American, Italian American, and German American communities in recognizing a National Day of Remembrance. A specified date such as this would increase public awareness of the events surrounding the restrictions and internment faced by individuals of the before mentioned ancestries during the war.[50]

According to House Report 108-410, the resolution "provides that the House of Representatives recognizes the

historical significance of February 19, 1942, the date Executive Order 9066 was signed by President Roosevelt."[51] At the present time, the Japanese American community already recognizes a National Day of Remembrance on February 19 of each year for this purpose. The importance of this day is reaffirmed by H.Res. 56, according to the report.[52]

California Representative Michael Honda submitted the resolution on February 5, 2003, and it was referred to the Committee on the Judiciary. The resolution was reported by the Committee on the Judiciary on February 3, 2004, in House Report 108-410.[53] On March 4, 2004, the resolution was agreed to by a vote of 404-0 in the House, without amendments, and a vote to reconsider was laid on the table (according to *Thomas,* http://thomas.loc.gov). According to *Thomas,* the resolution has not been sent yet to the Senate for voting.

Methodology

As I was not well acquainted with this topic prior to my search using U.S. government publications, I did a preliminary search in Google and found a timeline of the events surrounding the restrictions placed on Italian-born immigrants during the war. This information was useful in helping me decide where to look for information. I decided to begin my search by searching the *Cumulative Subject Index of the Monthly Catalog of U.S. Government Publications* (1900–1971) for the word "internment." I was unable to find anything related to my search for Italians interned in World War II. Therefore, I decided to look up "Italian Americans" in the *Cumulative Index.* However, the entries listed under "Italian Americans" and under "Italians—United States" were not relevant to my search. When I was performing initial research on this topic using Google, I remembered coming across the words "enemy aliens" several times, which led me to believe that these terms may be useful in locating sources. I did not find an entry for "enemy aliens," but the terms "alien enemies" produced several results.

I saw a listing for "Alien enemies, Italian Proclamation," and found Presidential Proclamation 2527, which appeared in the *Federal Register.* Since the 1941 and 1942 *Monthly Catalogs* both had indexes, I decided to concentrate my search on these two volumes, since I had discovered from initial research using Google that the restrictions were imposed in 1941 and ended in 1942. In the 1942 volume I was able to find several documents that were relevant to my topic. For example, I found the regulations controlling "Travel and Other Conduct of Aliens of Enemy Nationalities," which were imposed in 1942. In addition, I found Presidential Proclamation 2537, "Regulations Pertaining to Alien Enemies" which "prescribe[d] regulations additional and supplemental" to those prescribed by the proclamations of December 7 and 8. This document also appeared in Volume 7 of the *Federal Register*, which I found on microfilm.

Many documents listed in the *Monthly Catalog* seemed to be very helpful at first glance, as they were Department of Justice reports dealing with the policies and procedures surrounding the regulations imposed on aliens of enemy nationalities. However, I was unable to locate any of these materials.

I had also discovered in my preliminary Google search that there was an act that was signed into law in November 2000 relating to the acknowledgement by the government of the injustices suffered by Italians during World War II. Therefore, I decided to perform a search in the web version of the *Monthly Catalog.* I looked up the words "Italian Americans" and located Public Law 106-451, the *Wartime Violation of Italian American Civil Liberties Act*, which called for a report by the Department of Justice detailing the injustices suffered by persons of Italian descent during World War II. Using the same search terms, I was able to find the 2001 Department of Justice report.

The Department of Justice report was an excellent source of information, and could have saved me time in searching through the *Monthly Catalog* for a number of documents. The appendices to the DOJ report included such documents as Executive Order 9066 and Presidential Proclamations 2525, 2526, and 2527. I also found a citation for Presidential Proclamation 2537 and a citation for the regulations restricting the "Travel and Other Conduct of Aliens of Enemy Nationalities" (February 10, 1942).

I also found information about H.Res. 56, the resolution calling for a National Day of Remembrance, by doing a search in the electronic version of the *Monthly Catalog* for "Italian Americans." I had wanted to find out more on the status of the resolution. Therefore, I did a search in http://thomas.loc.gov, and found a summary detailing the steps taken in the resolution and its current status.

Overall, I found my search strategy to be effective, as I found several sources of information for my topic. Although I could have saved a lot of time in reading the DOJ report first and reading through the citations, my method of looking through the *Monthly Catalog* helped me to become better acquainted with that particular resource.

Conclusion

This paper summarized the injustices suffered by persons of Italian ancestry during World War II, which included being labeled enemy aliens, curfews, relocation, internment, and confiscation of property. Fifty years later, a formal acknowledgment of these injustices has been made by Congress and signed into law by President Clinton, and a report has been issued by the DOJ detailing these injustices. Meanwhile, a resolution calling for a National Day of Remembrance to educate the public about the injustices suffered by individuals of Japanese and German ancestry has been passed, in the hope that injustices such as these will not happen again. ∎

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Adding a Little ZIP to the Mail
The Development and Growth of the ZIP Code

Carrie T. Hayter

During the fall 2004 semester, students in the Government Information Resources class at Rutgers University, School of Communication, Information and Library Studies, were assigned a term paper that incorporated all skills learned during the semester. The purpose of the paper was for students to use their newly acquired knowledge of government resources and to demonstrate how these may be used in a research project. Students were required to write a research paper on a subject of their choice, using the widest variety possible of print and online resources.

An important component of the assignment was the section devoted to methodology, where students were asked to record the search process and include their observations about the various tools used. The student papers presented a wide range of topics, from the popular to the arcane, and each search process produced surprises and challenges. It was a wonderful opportunity for students to learn the complexities of government sources, as well as the wealth of information that can be found.—Debbie Rabina

Every building in the United States has one, and every person with a home, office, or post office box has one. Stretching from Times Square, 10036, to Honolulu, 96801, ZIP codes define more than just location. To marketers and advertisers, they define the people we are. The adoption of the ZIP code system was one of the most successful promotional campaigns in Postal Service history, and perhaps in the U.S. government's history. For a

system that remains to this day voluntary for private citizen mailers, it has tremendous penetration. The Postal Service processed 202.2 billion pieces of mail in 2003, virtually all of it ZIP coded.[1] The story of the development of the ZIP code reflects the growth of this country's size and population, and shows the impact of machines and automation in our lifetimes.

A Brief History of U.S. Mail Delivery

While systems for delivering messages over long distances have existed since ancient times, the first official notice of a postal service in America occurred in 1639, when the General Court of Massachusetts designated a tavern in Boston as the official repository of mail brought or sent overseas.[2] Several regular postal routes and post offices were established starting in the late 1600s. Mail at that time was delivered via horseback and stagecoach, and was typically delivered to and from post offices, where recipients picked up their mail.[3] During the American Revolution, the United States Post Office Department was officially born in 1775, when the Second Continental Congress agreed to appoint a postmaster general as a paid position. Benjamin Franklin, who had served as postmaster while the colonies were under British control, was appointed as the first postmaster general. The Post Office Department is the second oldest federal department in the United States.[4] It was Franklin who encouraged local postmasters to offer penny delivery, in which mail that was not retrieved at the post office would be delivered to the recipient for one cent.

As the nation expanded west, new routes were born. The first transcontinental mail reached Los Angeles in 1858.[5] From 1790 to 1860, the number of post offices increased from 75 to an astounding 28,498.[6] In the 1800s, mail began to be moved via steamboat and rail, and railroads continue to this day to carry some mail.[7] But mail delivery changed with the times, and the first mail was carried by air in 1918.[8]

In 1863, the Post Office standardized postal rates and created classes of mail with different mailing rates.[9] At the time, mail was typically dropped off and picked up at post offices. But in 1863, Congress ordered that in cases where the postage on a letter was sufficient to pay for local delivery, the Post Office should deliver mail directly to the recipient. Free city mail delivery began in 49 cities in 1863, and 440 mail carriers were employed to deliver the mail to homes and businesses.[10] For the first time, mailers had to put street addresses on their letters.[11] Large cities adopted the plan, which required that cities have sidewalks, street signs, and numbered houses. Personal mail delivery eventually required that recipients install mail slots or boxes, since hours were wasted with letter carriers trying to find someone at each house to claim the mail. In 1896, Rural Free Delivery was established to serve the roughly 65 percent of Americans who lived in rural areas at the time.[12]

Postal delivery today relies on more than just your local letter carrier in a postal truck. Contractors deliver mail by car, truck, snowmobile, and boat. In the Grand Canyon, mail is delivered by mule to the Native Americans who live in the canyon. In some parts of Alaska, mail is dropped by parachute.[13] This elaborate delivery system across the country is free to the recipient.

The First Numerical Zoning System

By World War II, the volume of mail being handled by the Post Office Department was growing steadily. For the year ending June 30, 1944, the Post Office handled 34,930,685,000 pieces of mail, up 2,112,424,000 pieces from just one year earlier.[14] The sorting of mail relied basically on memorization techniques. Once mail reached the city it was addressed to, human sorters distributed the mail according to street delivery address. In large cities, the Post Office estimated that it could take up to a year for an employee to memorize street names and numbers to achieve proficiency in distributing the mail to the right carriers.[15] It was time for a better system.

Other countries had already instituted numerical zoning programs. For instance, during World War I, London put in place such a system and later expanded it to all of Great Britain. The U.S. postmaster noted in 1944 that in London, "it is declared to be 'bad taste and worse manners' not to insert the zone number in the addresses."[16] He looked forward to similar success of a zoning system in the United States.

On May 1, 1943, the Post Office Department began a numerical coding system at 124 large post offices throughout the country.[17] Each carrier delivery district in the large city was given a number corresponding to the post office from which each carrier originated. Mail was addressed with a number between the city and state, in the format of "Birmingham 7, Alabama."[18] With these numbers affixed to the mail, it was much easier for inexperienced postal workers to sort mail and route it to the correct carrier for delivery. In 1943, the year of the launch of the plan, the postmaster general reported that large mailers and the public were cooperating with the new zoning system, and the post office was investigating expanding the program beyond large cities.[19] In 1944, the postmaster general reported that the Postal Zoning system, as it was then being called, had exceeded all expectations. He reported that 40 percent or more of the mail for delivery now bore zoning numbers, and that during the Christmas season of 1943, the proportion of zoned mail was about 70 percent. The system noticeably improved the speed of delivery in the zoned areas, and the Post Office could get better work results out of less-trained substitute workers using the system.[20] The loss of experienced personnel to the war effort also greatly influenced implementation

of the system, as experienced postal workers, like many others in the country, were being called into military service, and employers at home had to fill slots with new, temporary workers.[21]

One of the difficulties in adoption of the Postal Zoning system, however, was simply public awareness and information. How would the average letter writer know the zone number of the intended recipient? Although the program launched in 1943, it was not until the mid-1950s that the Post Office Department issued a directory of zone numbers for the United States, making it easier for bulk and individual mailers to cooperate with the system.[22] The 1950s also saw major public education campaigns to educate users of the zoning system. The Post Office reported that each addressee in zoned cities had received mailings about their own zone location, and transit ads, posters, and TV and radio announcements had been used to further educate the nation about the zone system.[23]

Speed in mail delivery is inversely related to how much handling the letter actually requires in order to get to its destination. The Post Office noted in 1958 that the zoning system, especially when used in conjunction with bundling by the customer to individual zones, vastly increased efficiency in mail delivery. At the end of the 1958 fiscal year, the department estimated that 20 percent of third-class mail and 30 percent of second-class mail was sent in individually zoned and tied bundles.[24] Mail delivery at Christmas time was also greatly improved due to the zoning system, especially since the Post Office hired temporary, inexperienced workers during this period to assist in handling the mail.[25]

The Modern Five-Digit ZIP Code

The zoning system was a success for the Post Office. It increased productivity and efficiency in the large post offices where it was used. But the post-World War II boom era saw a massive expansion of urban areas, and the Post Office felt that expanding the zoning system was the best way to keep up with the increased demand on the department.[26] In 1962, the Post Office was studying ways to improve the zoning system. A postal inspector by the name of Robert Moon reportedly had suggested a three-digit code for all addresses back in World War II.[27] That idea evolved into today's five-digit mailing code, which, in 1962, Postmaster General J. Edward Day announced would become available by July 1, 1963.

The Post Office assigned a five-digit number to each mailing address in the country. The new system was known as the Zoning Improvement Plan, and the numbers were known as a ZIP code.

The proposed ZIP code system really represented a shift in the way mail was transported and delivered in the country. To make full use of the zoning, the Post Office Department set up new transportation hubs, which eventually evolved into 552 sectional sorting centers that each serve 40 to 150 post offices in a region. The numbers in the five-digit ZIP code each served a purpose. The Post Office Department divided the United States up into ten regional areas, starting with 0 in the Northeast and continuing on to 9 in the western U.S. This number is the first digit in the ZIP code. The second digit indicates a state or geographic region of a heavily populated state, or two more less-populated states. The third digit is a major mail destination within the state, such as a large post office or one of the newly created Post Office Sectional Sorting Centers. The last two digits of the ZIP code represent either a postal delivery unit of a large post office or an individual post office that is served from a sectional center.[28] The ZIP code system was implemented by reviewing the already zoned cities and assigning zones to six hundred more cities. The Post Office simultaneously created directories for the largest cities in the U.S. and made a directory for geographical areas, states, and towns.[29]

Implementation of the ZIP code was, from the very beginning, forward-thinking. The Post Office in 1963 fully expected the codes to be used when the department eventually implemented optical scanning equipment, which at that time was not yet in use.[30] The Post Office also fully encouraged the use of ZIP codes as a presorting scheme for large bulk mailers who were using "automatic data processing equipment" and who could bundle the mail for dispatch directly to processing centers, skipping as many as six handling steps between deposit and delivery.[31] The Post Office also launched a popular public awareness campaign in the form of Mr. ZIP, a cartoon character who urged the use of the ZIP code in all mailings. In a "get 'em while they're young" marketing move, Postmaster General Day alerted youngsters during the 1963 Christmas season that Santa Claus' ZIP code was 99701.[32]

The new five-digit ZIP code caught on surprisingly quickly. In 1964, just one year after the implementation of the program, the Post Office estimated that 88 percent of the 52,000 largest volume mailers in the U.S. had agreed to participate in the ZIP code system, and that 30 percent of people in large cities were using the ZIP code in their mail.[33] In the first year, the Post Office reported, "the Envelope Manufacturers Association estimated that 'tens of millions' of envelopes [were] already on order with ZIP code return addresses. . . ."[34] By 1964, ZIP code directories for all fifty states had been produced and distributed to post offices. The ZIP code directories in large cities proved to be something of a hot commodity; 150 city directories had to be reprinted when the first runs sold out.[35]

By 1965, the success of the ZIP code program was clear in the postmaster general's annual report. Postmaster General Lawrence F. O'Brien described the ZIP code as "the core of our program, and we think it will provide us in the next few years with a veritable mail-handling revolution in this country. We cannot emphasize too strongly its importance, in the long run, to the handling of mail."[36] By 1965,

the 552 sectional sorting centers, which acted as hubs in the mail distribution network in the country, were in operation. These centers made up the physical framework that made the ZIP code system work as a routing and sorting system.[37] The Post Office was also moving forward in its research and planning to use optical character readers in conjunction with the ZIP code.

The Post Office made more changes during the first ten years that helped ensure the success of the ZIP code system. Bulk mailers had been required by the Post Office to presort their mail by destination ever since 1926.[38] By January 1, 1967, all bulk mailers in the U.S. were required to presort their mail using ZIP codes. The 275,000 second- and third-class bulk mail permit holders represented at that time about 39 percent of the total mail volume in the country.[39] However, this requirement for bulk mailers did not take effect entirely smoothly.

Some members of Congress objected to the ZIP code system being mandatory for any mailers, and they held hearings on the issue in 1965 and 1966.[40] These hearings were an opportunity for the legislators to explore the successes and failures of the ZIP code as a whole. Representatives wondered if the ZIP code would really increase postal efficiency. They worried that mailers would not be able to comply, and that the expense of trying to comply would force companies out of business.[41] The benefits of the ZIP code, several congressmen claimed, had been oversold.

The business mailer was definitely the primary target of the ZIP code proposal even before the new mandatory usage regulations came into effect. By 1963, 80 percent of all mail in the U.S. was business mail of some sort.[42] The Post Office actively promoted the use of ZIP codes by bulk mailers by urging them to take further advantage of their already-automated addressing systems to presort mail, thereby increasing the speed and accuracy of the mailings.[43] In introducing the system, the Post Office worked individually with mailers who contacted the department seeking help updating their mailing lists. For large-volume mailers who used electronic equipment to handle their mailing lists, the Post Office could provide the mailer with magnetic tape or punch cards that had a master file of all the ZIP codes. This could be adapted to feed in the ZIP code file to the mailer's file to match addresses and ZIP codes. And for large mailers without computerized systems, the Post Office offered the option of adding ZIP codes to the mailers' address file manually, at a fee of $1.50 per 1,000 addresses.[44]

The Post Office also offered information for bulk mailers about acceptable standardized address formats, based on a maximum twenty-three-character address line, since that was established as a fairly standard length in automated addressing systems at the time. With the new ZIP code taking up five character positions in the address line, the Post Office prepared a publication that presented two-digit state codes and gave shortened versions of all the long town names in the country. So Truth or Consequences, New Mexico, became Truth or Cons NM, and Blue Mountain

Lake, New York, became Blue Mtn Lk NY.[45] The Post Office educated users about how to write their address now that the zoning code moved from between the city and state to its current position after the state. As more and more mailers adopted the system and saw its benefits to their own businesses, the objections in Congress that had been spurred by public concern fell by the wayside. The rise of computers and automation, as well as the increasing importance of communication across long distances, all worked together in the 1960s to push the ZIP code to acceptance.

Buy-in from the government and public was critical to the success of the ZIP code. The Post Office reported that the IRS converted its mailings to the ZIP code by 1967, and that the Social Security Administration was also using the ZIP code system to mail its monthly benefit checks by February 1967.[46] The telephone industry agreed to place ZIP code information and maps in their business directories in the mid-1960s as well.[47]

The rest of the 1960s saw great expansion of the program and a continuation of the public education program to increase use of the ZIP code. The Post Office organized National ZIP Code Week in 1966, and the department partnered with the Advertising Council to promote the ZIP code in a year-round campaign.[48] A twenty-five-minute film was produced and shown to more than one million business people during 1966 to educate them about the advantages of the ZIP code. The Post Office noted that the business community was further interested in the ZIP code because of a "news story . . . listing 21 ways in which the system, since it is a geographic code, is being used for nonpostal purposes, including market research, development of sales territories, advertising, and bank surveys to determine the location of new branches."[49]

This is the first hint at the unintended second consequence of the ZIP code system: its use as one of the most powerful demographic tools available to marketers and advertisers. By 1967, the Post Office noted variety in uses of the ZIP code. "The California Council of Growers bases much of its planting tips to farmers on their ZIP codes. An Ohio gas firm uses the codes to determine concentrations of stockholder groups. . . . The Kentucky Health Department requires the ZIP's of patients to trace the source, concentration, and spread of communicable diseases."[50] The Post Office announced a joint project with the Census Bureau to devise methods for making census data available by ZIP code.[51] By the mid-1970s, when the government had fully embraced ZIP code usage, the Post Office touted how government data that collects demographic and economic data could be harnessed by business to profile customers and enhance marketing.[52]

Increased mechanization in all aspects of mail sorting also improved mail delivery efficiency and accuracy. The Post Office developed machines to edge and stack letters for correct processing in sorting machines, and machines to face mail in the correct direction and then cancel the postage. Optical character reader technology also advanced in the late

1960s. An optical character reader was first used in 1966 in the Detroit post office. The OCR machines were estimated to be able to read and sort 36,000 ZIP coded addresses per hour.[53] The ultimate goal was to have a computer read an address, starting with the ZIP code, and automatically sort the letter for distribution. These machines would work in concert with a system that would imprint a machine-readable code on each letter that would then be readable by all other sorting machines in the delivery process.[54] This was the birth of the now-familiar bar code imprinted on the front of our mail.

The Post Office was justifiably proud of the quick success of the ZIP code. The department noted that within three years of its introduction, the "ZIP code had entered the mainstream of American life. There were ZIP code jokes, toys, lollypops, songs, shoes, children's books, jewelry, and ashtrays."[55]

But all was not well with the Post Office Department. After breakdowns and work stoppages in the late 1960s and 1970, the 1970 Postal Reorganization Act passed Congress and became law. It changed the Post Office Department into the U.S. Postal Service, also changing its symbol from a man on horseback to today's eagle logo.[56] But more importantly, the act changed the way the Postal Service did business. The new service was no longer a cabinet-level agency. It operated under the auspices of a board of governors rather than Congress. A new independent rate-setting commission was established, and the act greatly revised employment and labor organizing within the department. The Postal Service today operates as a self-sufficient entity, paying for itself solely through its own revenues.[57] This change made increasing efficiency and cutting down on costs a key concern for the new U.S. Postal Service.

A Rocky Start for ZIP+4

By the 1970s, the ZIP code was firmly entrenched in American life. But the Postal Service knew that automation was the key to ensuring continued efficiency and accuracy in delivery. Despite the improvements in efficiency as a result of the ZIP code system, the mail sorting process was still labor intensive. While the ZIP code helped sort mail to its ultimate delivery location, postal workers still had to key the ZIP codes into a machine to sort the mail.[58] The Postal Service began a major push to more fully automate its sorting facilities. The particular emphasis was on OCR equipment and bar code sorters, the two key components in making the ZIP code reach its full potential.[59] However, the machines are only as good as the coded information provided. Five-digit codes provided location information up to the delivery post office. From there, postal workers would still have to sort mail by memorized routing schemes to get it to the right carrier and finally to its local delivery address.[60]

In 1978, the Postal Service proposed a program to expand the ZIP code to nine digits in order to make better use of automatic and computerized sorting equipment, particularly optical readers. The first five digits of the code would remain the same for all addresses. The sixth and seventh numbers stood for a delivery sector, which could be a group of streets or blocks, or a single high-rise office building. The last two digits were a specific delivery segment, such as one floor of an office building or one side of a street.[61] The nine-digit code would be able to sort mail down to the specific mail carrier route, all with minimal human intervention. The Postal Service acknowledged that better use of automation was possible with the current five-digit code, but that the five digits limited how far the Postal Service could harness the power of new technology. Expanding the code and acquiring OCR and bar code sorting machines would cut down on the manual labor involved in sorting the mail, which would cut down on the labor expenses of the service as a whole. Around 1980 and 1981, the Postal Service spent eighty-five to eighty-six cents of every dollar in its budget on wage and benefits.[62] As the great workforce that had been built up in the Postal Service during and after World War II began to retire, the Postal Service would not need to replace those workers.[63]

On November 28, 1980, the Postal Service published a notice in the *Federal Register* asking for public comment about the proposed expanded ZIP code.[64] Despite a few misgivings, the original introduction of the ZIP code had been a big success. But the ZIP+4 plan faced a rocky road ahead.

Public concern over the new expanded ZIP codes centered on mailers' difficulties in obtaining and remembering the longer numbers; the fear that the expanded ZIP would be mandatory for mailers; and finally the costs of converting mailing lists to the new ZIP code. Public and business concern was so great that both houses of Congress held hearings and commissioned reports on the proposal. As Senator John Glenn noted in opening a November 25, 1980, Senate hearing on the plan:

> We are already known by our telephone numbers, driver's license numbers, our social security numbers, insurance policy numbers . . . and so on. Americans are as individualistic as any people on Earth, and we have always found identification by number to be somewhat abhorrent. . . . The issue before us today is whether we have gotten to the point, in terms of the delivery of postal services, where it is necessary to give in once more to the machines at this time and accept yet another burden of number identification. . . .[65]

More than one senator in the hearing mentioned George Orwell's *1984* vision of an inhuman future.

Congress was also concerned about the poor track record of the Postal Service in the last ten years. The plan for implementing the nine-digit ZIP code had been under consideration in the service for a few years, and because of poor management, the plan was at that time still inadequately ready for rollout.[66] The growth of private delivery

services and the rapidly changing technology of the times left some legislators wondering if the new proposal "was an idea whose time has passed."[67]

The objections to the expanded ZIP code closely mirrored the fears that mailers and legislative leaders had back in the mid-1960s when the five-digit ZIP code was implemented.[68] Major concerns were raised about the savings of the plan. Would business mailers who spent tens of thousands of dollars to update mailing lists really see savings significant enough to make up that cost? Would the Postal Service's major upfront expenditures to acquire new equipment really pay for itself in any foreseeable future? The Postal Service always intended the ZIP+4 program to be voluntary, but they planned to offer rate incentives to bulk mailers to promote adoption of the system.[69] If bulk mailers who used the expanded coding system got a reduction on postage rates, how would the Postal Service recoup its upfront expenditure any time soon? Congress felt that the math did not add up. Senators at this 1980 hearing felt that such rate incentives translated into a nonvoluntary system—those who did not participate would be forced to spend more on mailing than those who did.[70]

The Postal Service to this day does not make the ZIP+4 extension mandatory for mailers.[71] And the service addressed the issue of the general private citizen mailer by pointing out that in 1980, only about 6 percent of the total volume of mail handled by the Postal Service was handwritten or personal mail.[72] So even well before the advent of electronic mail, personal correspondence in which citizens had to look up and apply a ZIP code was a small percentage of the mail in the U.S.

But Congressional concerns about the expanded ZIP code were such that on August 13, 1981, Congress passed P.L. 97-35, which postponed implementation of ZIP+4 until October 1, 1983, while further studies could be done.[73] In the meantime, Congress and the GAO studied the issue.

Both the GAO and the House of Representatives found that "the Postal Service has repeatedly overstated and misrepresented the benefits that might accrue to it."[74] As the GAO pointed out, no one was able to accurately assess the potential adoption rate by mailers, nor was there a firm plan on a postal rate incentive program in place. But ultimately, the GAO's report to the Congress ended up fully supporting the plan to acquire new OCR and bar code equipment. The report also offered qualified support to expand the ZIP code to nine digits provided the Postal Service demonstrate that the new equipment could perform satisfactorily, that it has an established postal rate incentive, and that that incentive would be enough to promote enough usage of the new ZIP+4 system to make the benefits outweigh the costs.[75] A later status report by the GAO on the Postal Service's implementation of increased automation and the ZIP+4 code found that while some questions still existed as to the workability of the equipment, those problems would not have any permanent adverse affect on the success of the plan.[76] In the end, the Postal Service's ZIP+4 plan was finally implemented on October 1, 1983.

The Postal Service again engaged in a large public education campaign about the ZIP+4 program, this time aimed largely at business mailers. A postage discount program was implemented to encourage bulk mailers to use the nine-digit code. The Postal Service again offered to provide mailers with a computerized ZIP+4 directory at no charge, and they also provided information to link up bulk mailers with fee services that could match addresses with the correct ZIP+4 extension.[77] Mailers with lists fewer than five thousand addresses could have the Postal Service manually add the ZIP+4 codes at no charge.[78] The Postal Service also worked with mailers on changes necessary to accommodate bar codes on mail.[79]

Mail today is sorted almost entirely without human handling. Machines face and cancel the mail, and OCR machines read and interpret the address on a letter and spray a bar code on the face, then sort it according to delivery location. For addresses and ZIP codes that cannot be read by the OCR readers, images of the letter are sent to a center where workers read the address and key in the ZIP code and address information so the machine can apply a bar code via a remote system. Machines also read the bar codes at the delivery stations and sort them into trays in the order of delivery of the letter carrier's route.[80] The Postal Service also offers software to customers that enable them to apply bar codes to their printed envelopes.[81]

The ZIP code system is much bigger than the Postal Service. The Census Bureau maps its data to ZIP codes and enables business and demographic data to be manipulated by ZIP code. The U.S. Department of Agriculture, the Environmental Protection Agency, and dozens of other government agencies organize data along ZIP code lines. Marketers, advertisers, sales professionals, and political researchers rely heavily on ZIP codes for the success of their business. While we may not have reached the Orwellian *1984* society feared by a pre-computer-literate society, we are certainly more reliant on numbers for identification than ever before. But just as people in Manhattan have fought over which area code they are assigned, ZIP codes too can become a source of identity and pride. Just ask the kids from Beverly Hills, 90210.

Methodology

After getting the idea to research the development of ZIP codes from classmate Eleanor Marquis, I dove into the *Monthly Catalog* as a starting point for my research. I started with the *Index of Documents* from 1900–1976. Under ZIP code, I found several references to the program, as well as cross-references to the entry for the Post Office, where I found references to postal zoning systems. I turned also to the yearly indexes for the *Monthly Catalog* and to the online post-1976 index for *Monthly Catalog* documents to fill out the more recent information and make sure I hit every year.

I also consulted the card catalog in the Government Documents section in Alexander Library. The card catalog had many of the same documents listed in the *Monthly*

Catalog, but it did help to fill out some of the more recent relevant items.

Most of the documents in the *Monthly Catalog* and card catalog pointed me to the section of the documents on the shelf that were put out by the Postal Service. On the shelves, I found many booklets, pamphlets, and annual reports that discussed the development of the ZIP code. Shelf browsing within the Postal Service section of the shelves proved to be quite fruitful. While not everything in the *Monthly Catalog* was on the shelves, I found many documents on the shelves that contained information about ZIP codes but that were not primarily focused on that topic. The yearly *Annual Reports of the Postmaster General* were especially helpful, since they provided a year-by-year description of the growth of the ZIP code system. Through shelf browsing the Postal Service section of government documents, I was able to find many more items than had been listed in the catalogs alone under ZIP code.

I turned next to the U.S. Postal Service web site at www. usps.gov. That site provided a thorough, up-to-date history of the Postal Service, as well as an introduction to Mr. ZIP, the public face of the ZIP code. I also found more recent annual reports online.

The New York Times archive through ProQuest also proved to be very helpful at filling out the public story of acceptance of the ZIP code, as well as a chronology of the ZIP+4 controversy. *The New York Times* also provided information about the people behind the ZIP code, including the designer of the early coding system in World War II, who is not credited in any government document.

After reviewing the *Monthly Catalog* and the documents published by the Postal Service, I followed up on references in those documents to find the Congressional hearings, Congressional reports, GAO reports, and Federal Register citations about the ZIP+4 plan. Not every legislative item was available; I definitely had the frustrating experience of hunting fruitlessly for missing microfiche. And one citation in a Congressional hearing that listed a relevant citation to the Federal Register actually turned out to have a typo in the page number, which led me down a confusing path on the wrong role of microfilm. But once I figured out what was wrong, I could use that resource easily. I was never able to find a certain document referenced in one of the Postal Service documents. The report said there was an executive order requiring the executive branch to start using ZIP codes on all its correspondence by January 1, 1967. I searched the National Archives inventory of all executive orders from President Johnson before that date, but came up empty-handed. However, overall, while I could not locate everything in the various indexes and finding aids, I found enough to get a good picture of the development of the ZIP code and the ZIP+4 controversy. ∎

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Tips from Tim

What's in a Name?

Tim Byrne

The U.S. Government Printing Office is currently bringing up its new ILS and scheduled the unveiling of the new public catalog for August 1. Many of us are anxiously awaiting this date. One thing of great concern to me—what they will name the new catalog? Let's face it, CGP (Catalog of U.S. Government Publications), while descriptive, just doesn't grab you. Look at *Thomas* versus *GPO Access*. While both names are equally descriptive of the resources they contain, I am convinced that a sizable number of people prefer to use *Thomas* because they like the name better. *Thomas* is named after Thomas Jefferson, our third president, author of the Declaration of Independence, and founder of the University of Virginia (my alma mater). *GPO Access* is named after, well, GPO. As school children we are taught to respect and admire Thomas Jefferson. Let's face it, few second graders dress up like GPO for the class play.

I prefer to name things after individuals who played a prominent role in our nation's history. I know many libraries come up with clever acronyms to name their library catalogs, but I have been down on acronyms since the USA PATRIOT Act. Sadly, few people even realize that it is an acronym.

Given GPO's past history of naming things, I thought it might be helpful to give them some suggestions for the name of their new catalog. I realize that this issue of *DttP* is scheduled to come out sometime after the scheduled debut of the new catalog, but bringing up a new library system is an enormous task that sometimes does not come in on schedule. So, hopefully, my suggestions will be timely and have an effect on GPO deliberations. If not, here's what might have been.

Name it George. Think about the political. While there are probably laws that restrict the government from naming things after a sitting president, that is easy to get around. GPO can say that the catalog is not named after our current president (wink wink, nod nod), but rather other Georges from history. George Washington, first president and father of our country, certainly can hold his own against Thomas Jefferson. George Bush the elder, former president and CIA director, certainly deserves something named after him. George III doesn't get enough credit for the role he played in the founding of our country. Given the growing influence of religion in today's politics, GPO could hint that the catalog might be named after St. George, who is well-known for dragon slaying (though perhaps instead of actual dragons, our metaphoric dragon could be Social Security).

So let's try it on and see how it feels. You have a patron looking for information on terrorism. You can just say, "George will have all the info on terrorism you need." Looking for the impact of religion on current politics, just say, "Let's check with George on that!" In fact, for all your government info needs, you can just say, "Let George do it."

Wendell might be an appropriate name. Wendell Ford, former chair of the Joint Committee on Printing, was the sponsor of the bill that established *GPO Access*. While honoring a member of the minority party might not fly well, one has to wonder where GPO would be today, or whether GPO would be today, if not for *GPO Access*. Calling the catalog Wendell is the least we should do.

How about calling the catalog Adelaide in honor of Adelaide R. Hasse, the first librarian at GPO, mother of the SuDoc classification system, and compiler of the *1909 Checklist of United States Public Documents*? It would be nice to recognize a woman's contribution to GPO, as I am sure Judy Russell, first woman to hold the position of Superintendent of Documents, would agree. Unfortunately, Adelaide just doesn't roll off the tongue very well.
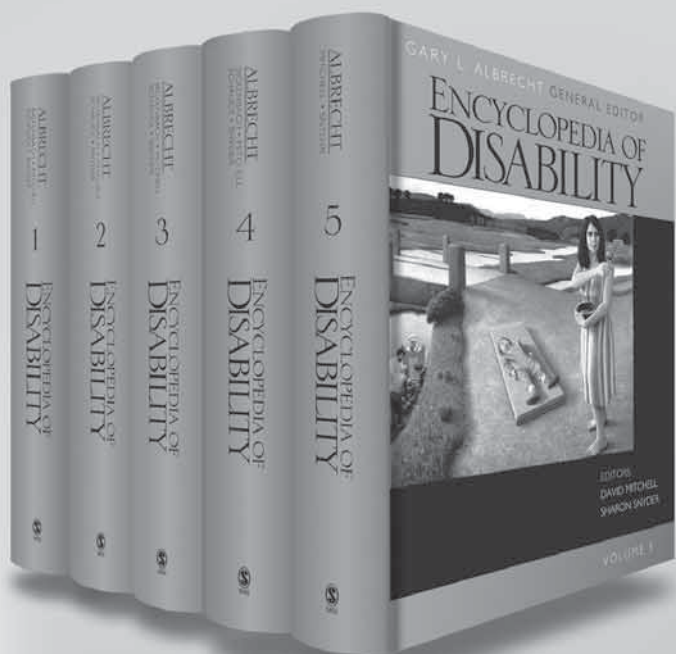
Samuel (Sam) might not be a bad choice. Samuel Adams was another early patriot and founding father, although a bit of a hothead who only owned one suit. However, he was a brewer, which puts him high in my book.

Greenspan is probably a name few would pick, but that's because most have not noticed the close relationship between the ups and downs of the prime rate and the number of catalogers employed by GPO. Information coming from Greenspan does tend to have a significant impact on our nation. Several years back, when there was a lot of discussion of amending Title 44 and possibly moving the FDLP to the executive branch, my first choice for a new home was the Federal Reserve. This agency already has lots of experience with depository institutions, and I just can't see that lack of money would ever be a problem.

Finally, the most obvious name: Bruce. We should really consider honoring Bruce James, our Public Printer, who has successfully moved the Government Printing Office from a nineteenth-century print shop to a twenty-first-century information agency, completely skipping the twentieth century in the process. If the catalog were named Bruce, then we could all be confident that we would have a catalog of government information that we could trust. ∎

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Reviews

Homeland Security: A Documentary History. Bruce Maxwell. Washington, D.C.: CQ Pr., 2004. $99. ISBN: 1-56802-884-9.

American history is full of dates and turning points. Each event has, for better or for worse, transformed the United States in immeasurable ways. "Taxation without representation" was the catalyst that gave birth to a war for independence and, eventually, the birth of a nation. Other cries from history—"Remember the Alamo" and "Remember the Maine"—rallied the country to fight a common enemy. When President Franklin Delano Roosevelt stood before Congress and the country declaring "December 7, 1941, a date that will live in infamy," he was rallying the country to join the Allied war effort against Japan and the other Axis powers.[1] American involvement into the war made victory possible for the Allies and turned the United States into a superpower. Sixty years later another date of infamy would emerge when terrorists attacked the World Trade Center and the Pentagon on September 11, 2001. The attacks brought forth a few changes in the structure of the federal government through the creation of the U.S. Department of Homeland Security (DHS) in 2002, new security controls in airports, and the passage of the USA PATRIOT Act. Bruce Maxwell's *Homeland Security: A Documentary History* organizes a plethora of historical documentation that helps the reader understand the highs and lows of America's turning points on homeland security.

In the introduction of his book, Maxwell provides a clear definition between *homeland defense* and *homeland security* (xxi) and does a fairly good job of explaining which government agencies are involved in homeland security. The introduction also includes a brief discussion on the national strategy for homeland security, its mission, and some of the major initiatives (xxii–xxiv). The book also includes the

organizational chart for the DHS and a chronology of the documents listed in the book. The bibliography is quite extensive, providing you with titles of articles, books, government documents, reports, and web sites. The section on web sites contains abstracts as well as Internet addresses (475–99).

Maxwell perused more than "1,000 documents to select the 142 that are reprinted" (xvii). Each section deals with a specific issue pertaining to homeland security and lists pivotal documents going as far back as 1798 and ending on July 2004. Each section also contains an introduction that explains the historical context of the documents. Sections include President Abraham Lincoln's suspension of habeas corpus, Japanese internment during the Second World War, the McCarthy hearings, the Oklahoma City bombing, the USA PATRIOT Act, and the creation of the DHS, to name just a few.

Each section of documents builds on the previous section, providing layer after layer of the events that would lead to the September 11 attacks and its aftermath. Though not a novel by any means, *Homeland Security* does tell the story of how the United States has endured times when our personal rights have been restricted and somehow we managed to survive. Are we going through yet another historical cycle where our civil liberties are being put to the test? Can the answers to our current dilemma be found in the past? I don't know for sure, but Maxwell's book does serve as a beginning research primer that places homeland security in the United States into historical perspective.

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CQ's State Fact Finder 2005: Rankings across America. Kendra A. Hovey and Harold A Hovey. Washington, D.C.: CQ Pr.. $99.95. ISSN 1079-7149.

In its 11th annual edition, *CQ's State Fact Finder 2005: Rankings Across America* is a guide to state statistics relevant to government and policymakers, those in businesses, and to the general public. Like its predecessors, this volume arranges the rankings around a core of thirteen subjects ranging from state fiscal matters to policy, health, and technology. Its user-friendly editorial and organizational features render its contents accessible to diverse audiences. In addition, the consistent use of data sources and structure across volumes allows for ready comparisons of its ranking both across states and across time by comparing tables with those in companion editions. Presenting similar information to other basic statistical guides, such as the *Almanac of 50 States: Basic Data Tables with Comparative Tables* or the *State and Metropolitan Area Databook: A Statistical Abstract Supplement 1997–98*, this guide features up-to-date briefs on state fiscal and policy issues. The consistent data and structure combined with attention to timely issues make this guide a unique ready reference guide for users ranging from undergraduates becoming acquainted with state level statistics, to policy practitioners looking for very current numbers, to those making personal decisions about where to relocate or vacation.

The 2005 edition opens with an annual state fiscal snapshot. The accompanying brief paints a slightly more optimistic picture of the fiscal health of states than has existed in recent years since the deflation of the dot-com

bubble. The authors report that state revenues are up, while spending remains high due to ballooning health care costs. It cautions that federal requirements governing individual school performance under the No Child Left Behind Act may also place pressure on state education budgets. This discussion of current issues provides a useful framework for interpreting the tables describing quarterly tax revenues in this section. In addition, data sources are prominently labeled in the outside margins of the pages. Interpretive statements summarizing overall patterns in the data are also featured in the margins here.

The education section, one of the thirteen thematic areas featured in the volume, discusses the federal requirements for state schools under the No Child Left Behind Act in greater detail. The initial page of the section displays a line graph depicting spending on higher education as a share of state general fund spending for the years 1988 through 2004. The sharply descending line from left to right is a clear illustration of the continued decline in state spending for education. This graph, one example of an element common to all of the thirteen subject sections, is another way the volume's authors effectively highlight some of the major trends in state spending, policy, and governance. The values and rankings reported for each of the tables that follow are arranged according to an alphabetical listing of the states. The margin areas contain a second list of the states in rank order for easy comparison. Source notes at the end of each subject section report the data sources and relevant notes on data collection.

While many of the thirteen subject areas covered in the 2005 edition are present in other statistical handbooks, such as the *Almanac of the 50 States: Basic Data Profiles with Comparative Tables,* the recent edition of the technology section in *CQ's State Fact Finder* is a welcome and novel collection of information on the use of computers and the Internet, high-tech sector employment, state-level e-government, and also the percentage of libraries with Internet access (Arizona is ranked number one, with 100 percent of its libraries wired). One timely and interesting addition to this section would be statistics on the deployment of electronic voting machines for the general election—a trend that made a large-scale debut in 2004 and that will continue to expand in the coming years.

The section "Finding Information Users Want to Know" renders this series more user-friendly than other available statistical handbooks. This narrative chapter helps readers choose which statistical tables to look at based on a variety of questions that pertain to state characteristics. This section addresses questions relevant to a diverse set of researchers: questions relevant to baby boomers, such as "which state is the best for retirement"; questions asked by prospective business owners, such as "which states have the lowest labor costs"; and inquiries by those interested in policy, such as "which states help the poor most?" Rather than answering these provocative questions, the discussion associated with each question points the user to tables in *Fact Finder* that will help them explore the state rankings that are most salient.

CQ's State Fact Finder's focus on a single year and its clear emphasis on the ranking system are both a strength and a weakness for this reference work. Volumes such as *The State and Metropolitan Area Databook: A Statistical Abstract Supplement 1997–98* provide data on similar subject areas for a series of years, which allows users to discover short-term change over time for a given topic within a single table. Researchers using the *Fact Finder* will need to compare across volumes to piece this same information together. However, *Fact Finder* is frequently updated, and the data sources and collection methods are consistent enough to assure that sound comparison may be made across volumes.

All in all, *State Fact Finder 2005* is a valuable addition to reference collections for both universities and for public libraries because of the unique features that distinguish it from other basic handbooks. In addition to providing readers with clear organization around the thirteen subject areas, the book opens with an introductory section in a question format that helps researchers decide which statistical tables will be the most relevant to their topic of interest. The introductions to the subject sections, which introduce current issues and the graphs and pie charts highlighting aspects of the data, make this statistical guide a good first stop for discovering the major trends that affected state economics and policy during the most recent year. ∎

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American Library Association Council Report

Cathy Nelson Hartman, GODORT Councilor

The ALA 2005 Annual Conference broke all records for attendance, with 27,800 attendees and vendors registered for the conference. This is a thousand registrants more than any previous conference, and eight thousand more than 2004.

GODORT Steering discussed several issues and asked that their concerns be expressed in Council sessions. Steering was concerned that a statement about access to government information was removed from the final draft of the ALA Strategic Plan and placed in an appendix. As GODORT Councilor, I made a motion that "Protect free, permanent public access to government information" be added in Goal Area III: Public Policy of the Strategic Plan. The motion to amend passed, so this statement returns to the Strategic Plan, which was adopted by Council. Also, several GODORT members expressed concern about talk of possible increases in conference registration fees or membership fees and asked that their concerns be represented in Council discussions. No formal request was made to raise the fees at this time. However, predictions for the

ALA budget show little or no growth in revenues and increasing expenses over the next few years. I noted during discussions that ALA members' institutions are also expecting flat budgets, that travel expenses are increasing, and that the financial needs of ALA must be balanced with the difficulties members face with increasing fees. This issue will certainly be discussed again at the Midwinter Meeting in 2006.

Council members approved several resolutions of possible interest to GODORT members including:

❚ RESOLUTION on DISINFORMA-TION, MEDIA MANIPULATION & the DESTRUCTION of PUBLIC INFORMATION—ALA opposes the use by government of disinformation, media manipulation, the destruction and excision of public information, and other such tactics.
❚ RESOLUTION ON THE CON-NECTION BETWEEN THE IRAQ WAR AND LIBRARIES—ALA calls for the withdrawal from Iraq of all U.S. military forces.

❚ RESOLUTION ON THREATS TO LIBRARY MATERIALS RELATED TO SEX, GENDER INDENTITY, OR SEXUAL ORIENTATION—ALA affirms the inclusion in library collections of materials that reflect the diversity of our society

The Committee on Legislation (COL) presented two resolutions—one follows up on the recent victory in Congress that limits the range of the U.S. PATRIOT Act with a "Resolution on the U.S.A. PATRIOT Act and Libraries" and a second resolution promotes the "Right of Communities to Provide Broadband Internet Services." Both resolutions were adopted. COL also recommended that a follow-up letter be sent to Congress for the resolution adopted at Midwinter 2005, "Resolution Opposing GPO's Decision to Eliminate Print Distribution of Important Government Information." The letter again calls for a hearing to determine if the Federal Depository Library Program is meeting the needs of the American public for information about their government. ❚

2005 Annual Conference Wrap-Up, GODORT Highlights

Chicago, IL, June 24–28, 2005

First Steering Committee
Chair John Stevenson reported considerable GODORT activity this spring.

❚ GODORT fielded questions from the documents community on GPO's proposed changes to the FDLP. Communications from the Chair at the GODORT web site provides details.
❚ Treasurer Ann Miller reported a recovering budget and asked for caution in spending in order to grow funds for an endowment.
❚ The possibility of ALA raising conference fees or membership dues was discussed; Steering passed a

resolution asking GODORT Councilor Cathy Hartman to bring our concerns on this to Council.
❚ Liaisons Bernadine Abbott Hoduski (Freedom to Read Foundation), Marianne Mason (ALA Literacy Assembly), and Mary McInroy (CUAC), gave reports.

GODORT Update
❚ Noriko Gines (United Nations) gave an update on UN publications and electronic resources.
❚ Judy Russell, Superintendent of Documents, responded to GODORT's previously submitted questions. The handout and her

speech are available on *GPO Access* (www.access.gpo.gov/su_docs/fdlp/pubs/ala_update05.pdf).
❚ Mike Wash (GPO, co-director Office of Innovation and New Technology) also spoke.
❚ Patrice McDermott (ALA Washington Office) and Tom Susman (Ropes & Gray LLP) spoke on "What's in Store for Government Information?" and shared some warnings and predictions with the audience.

Federal Documents Task Force (FDTF)
❚ FDTF sponsored an Open Forum with Judy Russell, who responded

to questions that included the travel budget of GPO, the status of the GPO WAIS server, how GPO is handling web harvesting, GPO staffing levels, item selection, and more.

▮ FDTF members read "GPO's Future Digital Content System" document and will respond to areas of concern, per the GODORT Chair's request.

International Documents Task Force (IDTF)

▮ IDTF liaisons to GODORT Committees, IFLA and ACRL/WESS presented reports and representatives from Bernan, Coutts, Center for Research Libraries, LexisNexis, OECD, Readex, Renouf, United Nations, and World Bank reported on new developments.

▮ Agency liaisons provided reports that will be posted to the IDTF web site.

▮ David Griffiths reported on concerns and issues with the United Nations classification scheme. A working group on the classification scheme was created.

State and Local Documents Task Force (SLDTF)

▮ SLDTF discussed future publications. A call for volunteers interested in state and local documents to write chapters in a publication is anticipated soon.

▮ Guest speakers included Connie Frankenfeld, Illinois State Library; Michael Esman, National Agriculture Library; Lyle Benedict for Chicago Municipal Documents; and Pat Finney, Center for Research Libraries.

Bylaws and Organization Committee

Policies and Proceedures Manual (PPM) editing. The committee corrected inconsistencies in language, added a new section on Special Officers (Archivist, Parliamentarian and Web Site Administrator), and added specific wording on

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GODORT Award Nominations are due December 1, 2005

ALA GODORT presents three major awards to recognize achievements by documents librarians, one award designed to encourage participation in professional study or publication, and a scholarship for an individual pursuing a library science degree. Awards will be selected by the Awards Committee at the 2006 Midwinter Meeting and presented at the 2006 Annual Conference in New Orleans. The Awards Committee welcomes nominations and applications by December 1, 2005.

Nomination/application forms for all awards and the scholarship are available from the GODORT web site (http://sunsite.berkeley.edu/GODORT/awards/) or from the Awards Committee chair, John B. Phillips. Applications will be accepted via e-mail (preferred), mail, or fax. Please send to John B. Phillips, Chair, GODORT Awards Committee, Documents Dept., Edmon Low Library, Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, OK 74078-0375; phone (405) 744-6546, fax (405) 744-5183, or e-mail bart@okstate.edu.

Awards

The James Bennett Childs Award is a tribute to an individual who has made a lifetime and significant contribution to the field of documents librarianship. The award is based on stature, service, and publication, which may be in any or all areas of documents librarianship. The award winner receives a plaque with a likeness of James Bennett Childs.

The LexisNexis/GODORT/ALA Documents to the People Award is a tribute to an individual, library, institution, or other noncommercial group that has most effectively encouraged the use of government documents in support of library service. The award includes a $3,000 cash stipend to be used to support a project of the recipient's choice. LexisNexis Academic & Library Solutions sponsors this award.

The Bernadine Abbott Hoduski Award recognizes documents librarians who may not be known at the national level but who have made significant contributions to the field of state, international, local, or federal documents. This award recognizes those whose contributions have benefited not only the individual's institution but also the profession. Achievements in state, international, or local documents librarianship will receive first consideration. The award winner receives a plaque.

The NewsBank/Readex/GODORT/ALA Catharine J. Reynolds Award provides funding for research in the field of documents librarianship, or in a related area that would benefit the individual's performance as a documents librarian, or make a contribution to the field. This award, established in 1987, is named for Catharine J. Reynolds, former head of Government Publications at the University of Colorado, Boulder. It is supported by an annual contribution of $2,000 from NewsBank Inc./Readex.

Scholarship

The W. David Rozkuszka Scholarship provides financial assistance to an individual who is currently working with government documents in a library and is trying to complete a master's degree in library science. This award, established in 1994, is named after W. David Rozkuszka, former Documents Librarian at Stanford University. The award recipient receives $3,000.

Please consider nominating a deserving individual for one of these awards prior to December 1, 2005. ▮

internal liaisons between committees and task forces.

Cataloging Committee

❚ GPO cataloging practice. Gil Baldwin responded to questions on GPO cataloging policy and procedures, submitted by the committee before the conference, and participated in an informal exchange of information and ideas. The committee learned that the FY2006 GPO budget request will include funds for cataloging pre-1976 documents; if approved, the project could take five years to complete. GPO expects to implement the policy of creating a separate bibliographic record for each format in which a title is issued in the fall, and will give libraries at least two months' notice. Mr. Baldwin requested comments by July 29, 2005, on a proposal outlining how GPO would supply physical description for remote access documents in the 300 field.

❚ ALCTS Liaison Becky Culbertson reported on the GODORT Cataloging Committee's review of the draft of AACR3, Part I. Feedback from the review process has triggered a major change in course, including a new name: Resource Description and Access (RDA).

Conference Committee

The committee hosted the GODORT exhibit space and organized the GODORT annual reception at the Chicago-Kent College of Law. Award winners honored at the reception are listed on the GODORT web site.

Education Committee

❚ The committee will draft a letter for the GODORT chair's signature advocating that government resources be included in ALA's @ your library® campaign.

❚ A group headed by Jenifer Abramson is working on a list of information the committee needs in order to develop a list of core competencies for government information specialists.

Government Information and Technology Committee (GITCO)

❚ GITCO held a Q&A session on phases 2 and 3 of GPO's FDsys with Mike Wash. Authentication, PKI, digital deposit, privacy, DRM, commitment to open source software and nonproprietary document formats, LOCKSS, P2P, redundancy and failure control, and OAIS were all discussed. It was generally felt that the planning for FDSys has been thorough.

❚ University of Iowa Library IT renewed its commitment to the CD-ROM Documentation database and will migrate it to a more stable server by fall 2005.

❚ Transfer of the Digital Projects Clearinghouse database to GPO could not be agreed upon. The GITCO working group will continue planning on a database for non-federal projects. GPO's digital projects database is expected to launch in September 2005. GPO has asked GITCO for assistance in evaluating five databases recently moved to the AKAMAI system.

❚ A working group—Mark Phillips, Grace York, and James R. Jacobs—will prepare information regarding best practices and tips for archiving of the GODORT web presence.

Legislation Committee

❚ Members worked on talking points for the National Weather Service and USGS water data privatization issues and for GPO FY2006 appropriations.

❚ They reviewed GPO Information Dissemination Policy Statements (ID) 71 and 72. They determined that no further action was necessary on ID72, but decided to ask the Chair of GODORT to send a requesting minor revisions to ID71.

❚ Other letters. The committee also decided to ask the chair of GODORT to send a letter to Congress regarding the American Community Survey and Census 2010 funding, and to the Superintendent of Documents regarding the lapses

in communication between GPO and their depository partners.

Membership Committee

❚ Chelsea Dinsmore reported on the Membership Development preconference held on Friday, June 24. Major points were development of a membership plan based on organizational goals and on maximizing organizational and people resources.

❚ A complete list of state and regional government documents library organizations is now on the committee web site. Nancy Kolenbrander also did a small survey of dropped members and found that half intended to renew but had not yet done so. Many others had dropped due to job duties. The survey needs to continue with a larger sample.

❚ Andrea Morrison presented a draft survey of GODORT members covering points such as organizational effectiveness, communication with members, and opportunities for involvement.

❚ Twenty-eight people attended the New Members Lunch.

GODORT Programs

GODORT sponsored two well-attended programs at the ALA Annual Conference. The preconference, *Demystifying Government Sources: Government Information for the Rest of Us,* was held at the Northwestern University Library and attended by more than fifty people. The program *Born Digital, Dead Tomorrow: Strategies for the Preservation of Web-based Government Information* was well-received by an audience of more than one hundred. Handouts from the program will be available via the Program Committee's web site: (http://sunsite.berkeley.edu/GODORT/program/program_2005_chicago.htm). Planning is moving forward with next year's preconference on international government information, and the program: "Information Literacy is the Destination, Government Information is the Road: Using Government Resources to Illustrate Information Literacy Concepts."

Publications Committee

❚ *DttP:* Free access will soon be available from Stanford for volumes 1–30. Access for v. 31–present is available to subscribers/members through ALA. A task force will explore issues involving the electronic *DttP* and report back to Publications at Midwinter 2006.

❚ Web managers met separately, reviewing the process of creating and updating pages, page responsibilities, archiving processes, and ideas for handling current news. They also covered expectations of web managers and introductions of new members.

Rare and Endangered Government Publications (REGP)

❚ August Imholtz reported that the U.S. (hard-copy) Serial Set inventory project will move from Harvard to Washington University (in St. Louis). Aimee Quinn reported on the progress she and Donna Koepp have made on the Committee's publication concerning the U.S. Serial Set.

❚ The committee approved a proposal for a GODORT program (at the 2007 Annual Conference) concerning Congressional documents in the history of eighteenth- through nineteenth-century United States.

❚ Finally, the committee welcomed the appointment of two new LITA liaisons, and voted to more actively implement the existing provision in the *PPM* that allows for the participation of a GITCO Committee member on the REGP Committee.

On Friday afternoon, June 24, the committee enjoyed a tour of the Newberry Library and viewed many interesting seventeeth- through nineteenth-century government documents from the library's holdings in Special Collections.

Membership (Business) Meeting

❚ Treasurer Ann Miller reviewed the current and proposed budget and stated that GODORT is currently doing well financially and complimented the members for lowering conference equipment costs. The new budget was approved with some changes, including Membership Committee costs for recruiting members and a proposal by Publications to increase the stipend for the *DttP* editor from $500 to $750. The Membership Committee will be able to draw on an annual budget for conference badge ribbons and for printing costs for a GODORT brochure.

❚ A revised GODORT dues structure proposed by the Membership Committee was passed. It includes a student dues rate of $10.

❚ The Legislation Committee resolution on the USA PATRIOT Act and Libraries was introduced and passed.

Second Steering

The new slate of committee appointments was complete and approved. Arlene Weible led a discussion about adopting changes in the GODORT conference schedule, with shorter Steering meetings and having Friday meetings in one large shared room.—*Andrea Morrison*

Cartographic Users Advisory Council (CUAC) 2004/2005 Liaison Report

The Cartographic Users Advisory Council (CUAC) held its regular meeting May 6–7, 2004, at the Suitland, MD offices of the Bureau of the Census. Full minutes of the meeting were subsequently published in issues of *base line*, ALA/MAGERT's newsletter and are also posted on the CUAC web site (www.cuac.wustl.edu).

At the 2004 meeting, John Ebert, Head of the Geography and Map Division of the Library of Congress (LC/G&M), offered LC as a venue for a 2005 conference on map and geospatial issues, to be planned by CUAC.

2005 CUAC co-chairs Bruce Obenhaus and Linda Zellmer formed a conference planning committee, and over the next year the committee mapped out what the conference would include, topic- and food-wise.

The "Map and Geographic Information Collections in Transition" conference was held May 12–13, 2005, in the Library of Congress' Mumford Room. Approximately 190 registrants, vendors, speakers, and LC/G&M staff attended the conference. Speakers from commercial agencies, academic institutions, and government agency offices presented sessions ranging from "The Future of the Paper Map" to "Data, Copyright, and Access Issues." Nearly all presentations are now available in PowerPoint on the CUAC web site (see link above).

Because the topics were so timely and relevant, and the networking opportunities so plentiful, much interest was voiced in having another conference in five to seven years. CUAC members wish these planners all the best in that endeavor.

Expenses for the conference were covered by $100 seed money from each of CUAC's sponsoring organizations, registration fees, in-kind support from LC/G&M, and $6,000 raised in commercial sponsorships. Any funds remaining when all expenses have been paid will be used first to establish a MAGERT archives at the University of Illinois–Urbana/Champaign, and then will cover CUAC yearly meeting expenses.

Next year's CUAC meeting will return to the normal agency presentation format. I will be one of the co-chairs for the 2006 meeting.
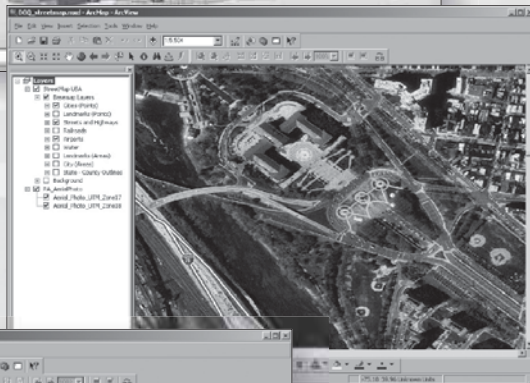
I would like to thank GODORT's membership for voting to expend $100
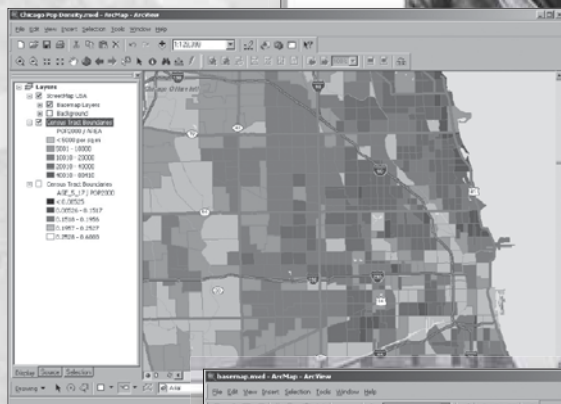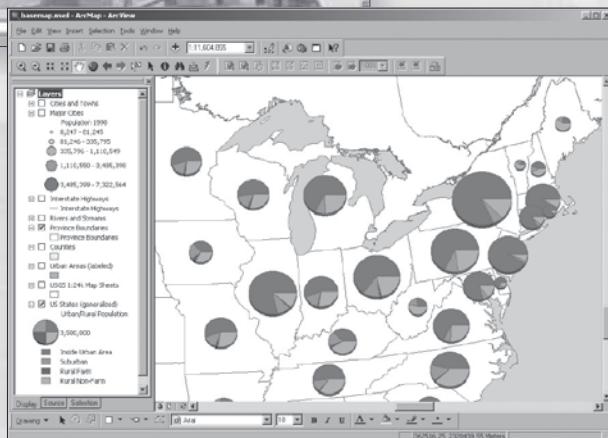
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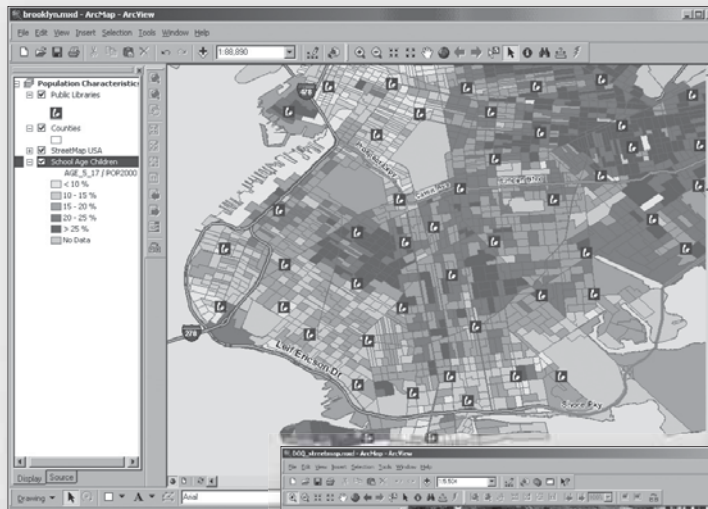
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in seed money to help fund this conference. Content-wise and people-wise, I believe the conference was a success.

I would also like to personally extend my gratitude to fellow GODORT representative on CUAC Donna Koepp, who is leaving CUAC this year. She has been a mainstay on CUAC for many years, and helped me immensely when I first began my term with the group. She was an excellent liaison to both GPO and Library of Congress while I have been a CUAC member, helped the documents and geospatial user community in numerous ways during her career including participation in the review committee for the National Map plan, and earned the respect of federal agency employees and documents and map librarians for her exceptional knowledge of geospatial information in all formats, old and new.—*Mary McInroy, GODORT representative to CUAC, mary-mcinroy@uiowa.edu* ❚

Rozkuszka Scholarship Fundraiser a Success!

The GODORT Development Committee is pleased to report that the silent auction for the Rozkuszka Scholarship Fundraiser, held at the 2005 ALA Annual Conference in Chicago, raised more than $2,200. Donations bring the total to $3,000 which will support the 2006 W. David Rozkuszka Scholarship. Any revenue generated beyond the $3,000 will be deposited in the scholarship endowment fund. David Rozkuszka provided the initial monies in his estate for the scholarship. Our goal is for interest from the endowment to grow enough to support the annual scholarship. Until that time, the Rozkuszka Scholarship Fundraiser will try to generate enough revenue each year to completely support the scholarship as well as build the endowment.

We want to thank those members and friends (listed below) that donated items to the silent auction. Your generosity ensured that we reached our goal to support a scholarship for 2006. And we would like to thank those who bid on the items as well—we couldn't reach our goal without your support!

- ❚ George Barnum (U.S. Government Printing Office)
- ❚ David Braden, Readex
- ❚ Gayle Christian (Georgia State University)
- ❚ Esther Crawford (Rice University)
- ❚ Sherry DeDecker (University of California, Santa Barbara)
- ❚ Julia Gelfand (University of California, Irvine)
- ❚ Cass Hartnett/Marilyn Von Seggern (Northwest Government Information Network)
- ❚ Robin Haun-Mohamed (U.S. Government Printing Office)
- ❚ Stephen Hayes (University of Notre Dame)
- ❚ Bernadine Abbott Hoduski (retired)
- ❚ Linda Johnson (University of New Hampshire)
- ❚ Ann Miller (Duke University)
- ❚ Jill Moriearty (University of Utah)
- ❚ Andrea Morrison (Indiana University)
- ❚ Maureen Olle (Louisiana State University)
- ❚ Sandra Peterson (Yale University)
- ❚ Julie Tanis Sayles (student, University of South Florida)
- ❚ Barbie Selby (University of Virginia)
- ❚ Andrea Sevetson (U.S. Census Bureau)
- ❚ Lynne Siemers (Washington Hospital Center)
- ❚ Gwen Sinclair (University of Hawaii at Manoa)
- ❚ John Stevenson (University of Delaware)/Marilyn Whitmore (Library Instruction Publications)
- ❚ Barbara Summers (Southern Illinois University Carbondale)
- ❚ Susan Tulis (Southern Illinois University Carbondale)
- ❚ Julia Wallace (University of Minnesota)
- ❚ Tammy Winter (Southern Illinois University Carbondale) ❚

Index to Advertisers

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For complete address information and updates to this document, and for the committee and task force directories, see http://sunsite.berkeley.edu/GODORT/Directory.

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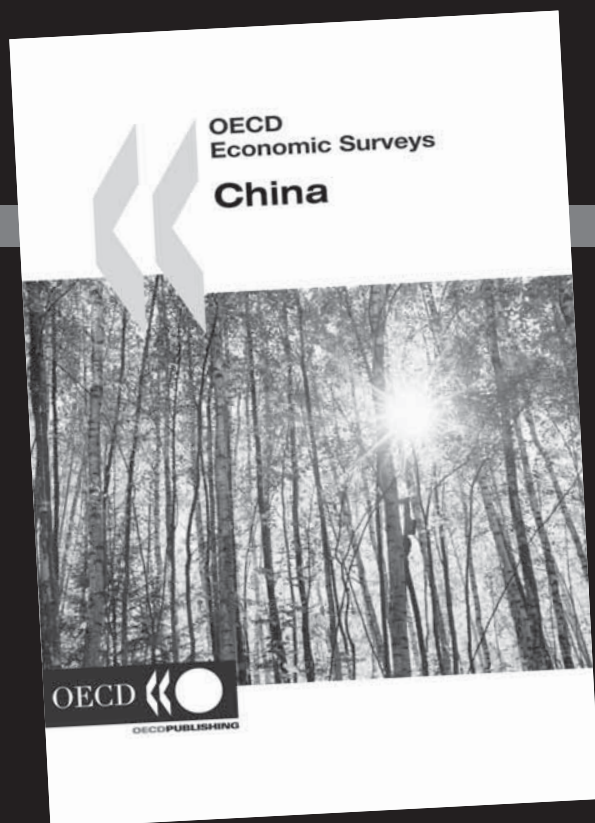home: 405-744-6309
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