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Library Trends

Education for Librarianship Abroad in Selected Countries

HAROLD LANCOUR, J. CLEMENT HARRISON

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

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Introduction

HAROLD LANCOUR

A striking phenomenon of the post-war period has been the rapid development of the various agencies for the preparation of librarians. The older well developed countries have been, or are in the midst of, significant remodeling operations in their educational systems; the newly developing countries are emerging from the period when all their trained personnel must be educated abroad and are beginning to establish their own training programs.

While the year of 1963 for this issue of *Library Trends* was determined largely by chance, it has proven to be a fortunate choice. There has been a major advance in library education in many parts of the world. A careful reading of the several papers which follow reveals a remarkable parallelism in the several developments in many countries. It is not just accident that new advanced level programs have recently begun, or will be instituted shortly, in such widely separated places as France, Yugoslavia, Taiwan, England, Nigeria, Poland, and the Netherlands.

The basic reasons for the development of librarianship throughout the world are easily summarized, one point leading to the next: (a) the rapid expansion of knowledge and its records and the steady growth of literacy have greatly increased the library's role and functions throughout the world, (b) the librarian's duties and responsibilities have multiplied in number and degree, and (c) this broadening and deepening calls for library personnel with a high degree of general and professional education.

Along with the evidence attesting to the ever higher academic level of education for librarianship several other salient points appear again and again. One of these is the continuing importance attached to practical training within a library. To be sure, this is now generally conceived as only a part of the total training in which formal theo-

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retical instruction is increasingly important. Nevertheless, in Europe especially, it is still possible to delay full admission to the professional ranks while the student completes his field experience.

The American and Canadian reader will likely be puzzled by the distinction which is drawn in many countries between university librarians and those in public libraries. This does not necessarily imply an inferior status to one or the other but is a confirmation of the sharp dichotomy which perforce exists in any educational system designed to develop an elite.

Another point worth remarking, which follows from the higher standard of education required for librarians, is the lengthening of the training period. One year of theoretical training in library science is becoming the usual minimum.

The editors of this issue wish to record their spirited appreciation of the work gladly given by the several contributors. This is, truly, an international issue in the fullest and most useful sense. Several countries are not represented, some because of the limits of available space and some because of inability to find a contributor competent to deal with the subject. It is expected that reports from the countries not represented here will be published later.

Contrary to the policy of Library Trends, all references in this issue have not been verified. In many instances the reference material was not readily available in this country.

Language accent marks have been omitted in some of the manuscripts because of the delay there would have been in obtaining the necessary characters.

The reading of these papers makes abundantly clear the profound and lasting influence of the Carnegie Corporation, UNESCO, and, more recently, the Ford and Rockefeller Foundations in furthering the cause and growth of library education in many parts of the world.

It should be noted that this issue has brought together for the first time, in an intellectual way at least, a wide representation of the leaders in library education throughout the world. Let it be said clearly, here and now, that the time may be at hand for the formation of an International Association of Schools of Librarianship.
As early as 1880, just three years after it was formed, the Library Association began to turn its attention to professional training. By 1884 a syllabus of examinations had been worked out by a special committee appointed for that purpose in 1881, and in July 1885 the first examinations were held at two centers, London and Nottingham. This was the small beginning, but the surprising thing to an observer of the situation, particularly to an American observer, is not so much the smallness of the beginning, but rather the unconscionable time that subsequently elapsed before the establishment of the first library school in Great Britain—at University College London in 1919. Some consideration of the reasons for this unusual and somewhat peculiarly British state of affairs is essential to an understanding of the major problems with which British library education has been confronted throughout its history.

The holding of the examinations by the Library Association at London and Nottingham in 1885 was a very different beginning from that represented by the establishment of the Columbia College School of Library Economy just two years later. This was not due so much to any important difference between the British and American librarians of the day on what should constitute the proper courses of study (on both sides of the Atlantic there was an inordinate emphasis on what Wellard has described as "the standard techniques of librarianship"\(^1\)), but rather to the difference in the facilities available and in the means by which control was to be exercised over the system.

The British approach emphasized control by means of a system of examinations operated by the professional body itself, with little or no attention paid to the facilities that might or might not be available to those wishing to prepare themselves for those examinations. There could hardly have been any other way (however strongly one

\(^1\)The author is Assistant Professor, Graduate Library School, University of Pittsburgh; he was Director of the School of Librarianship, Manchester College of Science and Technology, Manchester, England, 1946-60.
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wishes that there might have been). In the first place, it was very much part of a strongly traditional British system of preparation for the professions, going hand in hand with a deep seated belief in the supreme value of apprentice-type training for almost any career. William F. Poole was one American librarian (and there were others who supported him at the time) who held similar views on this side of the Atlantic. It was at the American Library Association Conference at Buffalo in 1883 that he told his audience: “In fact, I have entertained the idea that practical work in a library, based on a good previous education in the schools, was the only proper way to train good librarians.” In the Britain of the 1880’s, however, there was no Melvil Dewey to take the opposing view; nor indeed, under the circumstances, could there have been.

Poole’s own words: “... based on a good previous education in the schools ...” (echoed by Dewey’s “... the education needed is the best attainable ...”) bring us face to face with another major point of difference between the British and the American approaches, arising from the very different national attitudes towards the provision of facilities for higher education at the first-degree level and beyond. Writing in The Guardian in 1959, B. V. Bowden, Principal of the Manchester College of Science and Technology, drew attention to this situation as follows: “The English university world has always been a very small one. At the time of the American War of Independence there were nine universities in the United States; we then had two in England. Fifty years ago Ramsay Muir pointed out that we then had fewer universities in this country in proportion to our population than any other civilized country in Europe with the solitary exception of Turkey. How are we doing today? The proportion of the population of this country in full-time attendance at a university is much smaller than it is in most other countries. How are we to compare our universities with America’s? About 40 per cent of English children survive in school to the age of 16. About 11 per cent go to sixth forms in school and 6 per cent to universities. Our university population is about a hundred thousand—theirs about three million; ours has doubled since 1939 and so has theirs; ours is likely to rise to 150,000 during the next ten years and theirs to seven million.”

Quite clearly the founding fathers of British library education three quarters of a century ago could at no time have considered the possibility of insisting upon “the best attainable education” as a necessary prerequisite for entry to the professional ranks.

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It must also be remembered that only in comparatively recent years have there been clear signs of a weakening of the opposition on the part of the British universities to the inclusion of facilities for "professional" or "vocational" studies within their walls. This again is closely connected with the strong position of the various professional associations. The winds of change are now blowing, it is true, and they are blowing through even the most hallowed halls of the most ancient of the universities, but none of this could have been foreseen in the early years of education for librarianship. Under the circumstances of the time there was but one road that could have been followed, viz. the operation of a system of professional examinations leading to a series of qualifications at various levels, the creation and maintenance of some kind of official list or "register" of members so qualified, and the encouragement (it could scarcely have been more than that) given to local groups of librarians in the larger centers of population to seek the cooperation of institutions of higher education below university level (and largely vocational in their curriculum) in inaugurating part-time courses for the benefit of students in the immediate vicinity. What might now be regarded as an undue emphasis on the importance of practical experience in those local libraries was also inevitable. Very few university graduates could be expected as recruits, and the handful who did enter the "profession" were to be found only in the larger national and university libraries. Here the level of academic attainment was all that mattered while the professional qualification was largely ignored and regarded increasingly as appropriate only to the much greater number of entrants to the rapidly expanding public library field (the Carnegie movement was at its peak in Britain between 1890 and 1910).

The position of the Library Association in this and other respects was greatly strengthened by the granting of its Royal Charter of Incorporation on its twenty-first birthday in 1898. On May 9 of that year, to quote Minto, "It was then moved and carried by acclamation: That the Fellows and Members of the Library Association gratefully accept the Royal Charter of Incorporation which Her Majesty the Queen has most graciously conferred upon them, and regard it at once a gracious recognition of the work accomplished by the Association, and an incentive to still greater efforts in the future for the promotion of its objects." The Charter, thus granted, established the Library Association as "the responsible representative body of the profession." Of special interest and significance are the third and tenth
of the "purposes" or "objects" of the Association, as stated in the Charter: "(3) To promote whatever may tend to the improvement of the position and the qualifications of Librarians," and "(10) To hold examinations in Librarianship and to issue Certificates of efficiency." No other agency, either association or institution of higher education, had such powers.

It is also of interest to note in passing that "Fellows" of the Association had already been elected, although there was not yet in existence any "register" of qualified (or "chartered") librarians. This professional accolade was being awarded by the Council to the very small number of librarians who had successfully completed the examinations for the "Full Certificate" (or "Diploma") under the several schemes of examination successively imposed upon a somewhat bewildered profession since the first examinations of 1885, and also upon a select number of senior members "distinguished in librarianship or scholarship." The official "Register of Librarians" was inaugurated in 1909, and in 1914 it was decided to restrict admission to the Fellowship (F.L.A.) to those who had passed the whole series of examination and obtained the Diploma. At the same time the category of Associate (A.L.A.) was introduced, to be awarded to those who had passed four of the six examinations, then comprising the whole syllabus. Reference will be made later to the substantial revision of the byelaws governing the Register that was to follow in 1928.

The Era of Part-Time Courses

If the beginnings of the system of professional examination and qualification were small, it would seem that the beginnings of professional training in Britain were microscopic. It was, of course, no real responsibility of the Library Association to provide facilities for training, although so far as can be discovered, it was in 1895, in the pages of The Library (the Library Association's official journal at the time) that we find the first concrete evidence of any effort being made to supply this obvious need. It was not, however, so much an official venture on the part of the Association as the work of an individual enthusiast, J. J. Ogle, Librarian of the Bootle Public Library, who had entered successfully for the first examination ten years earlier. Ogle's column in The Library, entitled "Library Assistants' Corner" (later "Our Junior Colleagues' Corner") "... dealt with notes and queries on subjects of practical librarianship, giving a series of questions to be answered by assistants." In 1899 this column was taken over by
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Henry Guppy, first editor of The Library Association Record, which began publication in that year and has remained the official journal of the Association ever since. The column seems to have expired in 1901.

By this time, however, a more serious attempt to provide for the training needs of the profession was being made in the form of the organization of part-time classes in preparation for the Association's examinations in a small number of larger cities, notably London (dating from 1898) and Manchester (from 1899). Of a less formal nature was a series of short annual Summer Schools, started in London in 1893 and ending in 1897. The part-time courses by 1950 were being provided "... in at least fifteen provincial towns, mostly in Technical Colleges, ..." and constituted a factor of great significance in British library education. Over a period of fifty years, the part-time classes were usually conducted weekly from September to June (in preparation for the Association's summer examinations) in technical and commercial colleges maintained by the local education bodies. These classes remained the most widely available and the most used form of professional training. The courses were conducted and financed by the educational institutions out of public funds, both local and national, but in almost every case the local professional group (usually a Branch of the Library Association) nominated the teaching staff and distributed information concerning the courses. In all cases the courses provided were specifically aimed at preparation for the Association's examinations, and the only qualifications awarded were those of the Association. Many other professions were conducting their program of professional "education" in the same way. From all of this the universities (over which neither the local education body nor the Ministry of Education has any control) remained aloof.

From 1902 to 1917 the London School of Economics (not then, as it is now, a part of London University) seems to have served as the main center of part-time instruction in librarianship in London. "In 1902, on the recommendation of the Education Committee (of the Library Association), the Council arranged with the London School of Economics to co-operate in conducting courses of instruction in the subjects of the examination syllabus on the following conditions, viz. that the Council of the Association should nominate the lecturers; that the classes should be open to all comers; that the Association continue to hold the professional examinations and to grant certificates; and that the Council should have equal representation with the Gov-
ernors of the School of Economics on the Committee managing the classes." Quite clearly, this is something very different from the system of accreditation of professional schools by professional bodies as found in the United States. It is also very different from anything that might be found in a British University, where any attempt to introduce such a system of control or supervision by outside bodies would be strongly resisted. It is, therefore, more than surprising, at least at first glance, that the next stage in the evolution of British library education was the establishment of the School of Librarianship at University College London in 1919.

Before turning to this, however, one other development of significance must be noted. Correspondence courses in preparation for the professional examinations were first organized by the Library Association in 1904. In W. A. Munford’s words, they were to “... remain, mutatis mutandis, the only method of preparation available to many young assistants, particularly those in the smaller towns and the remoter counties.” Since 1930 the administration of these courses has been the responsibility of the Association of Assistant Librarians, a previously independent professional body which became a section of the Library Association in that year.

Any attempt to comprehend the somewhat peculiar set of circumstances that eventually led to the establishment of the first British library school at University College London in 1919 must take as a point of departure an appreciation of the ever-increasing influence upon British librarianship of the Carnegie United Kingdom Trust. It was established in 1913, and to the impoverished library world of the day appeared to be endowed with the resources of Croesus. Over a period of about twenty years following the publication of the “Adams Report” 10 by the Carnegie United Kingdom Trustees in 1915, this body came close to dominating almost the whole field of British librarianship, most notably in the increasingly important areas of public libraries and library cooperation. In the area of library education it can be said that if the Trustees had not agreed to finance the operation (as they did for five years) there would have been no London University School of Librarianship in 1919 nor possibly any British library school at university level until after the end of World War II.

Although the School was opened in October 1919, “... under the management of a Joint Committee ...” 11 of University College and Library Association authorities, there was no question of insistence on the part of the Association of conditions similar to those in the case of

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the part-time courses at the London School of Economics. In the first place, a completely new qualification, the Diploma in Librarianship was introduced. In the second place, by granting certain exemptions to university graduates the School took what was probably the first step towards making it clear that there was a place for the graduate in British librarianship. That it was not notably successful in achieving this objective is shown by the preponderance of nongraduates attending the School in its early years (although they had in most cases attained a standard of secondary education superior to that of the majority of entrants to librarianship as a whole at that time). For the first time in the history of education for librarianship in Britain, there were now to be found full-time students at a full-time professional school under a full-time director and all within the walls of an institution of university rank.

This was indeed a far cry from Mr. Ogle's "Library Assistants' Corner" of 1895. It was also far removed from what many members of the Library Association, including several Council members, held to be the right and proper path for library training to follow. Since CUKT influence and CUKT financial support for the venture were the deciding factors and bearing in mind also all that had gone before, it should come as no surprise to discover that the reception given by the profession to this remarkable new venture was no more than lukewarm, and in many quarters downright frigid. To quote Wellard: "Immediately that old obstacle to professional harmony was raised between the majority who viewed librarianship as a variety of techniques and the minority who saw it as a branch of learning."

There was also the thorny problem raised by what was seen by many to be an abdication on the part of the Council of the Association of its Queen-given right to control completely the examination and qualification of librarians. It was held by some that "... librarianships will inevitably go in due course to the college certificated librarian, generally to the exclusion of the non-collegian, ..." and by others that "... its (the School's) diploma would 'destroy' the Library Association diploma." This problem was eventually solved by a compromise that was embodied in the revised byelaws of the Association which became effective in 1928, whereby holders of the Diploma of the London School became entitled to admission to the Register as Fellows.

Although the London School produced a number of distinguished members of the profession during the years between the wars, at-
tracted a slowly increasing number of university graduates, and received strong support in the important "Kenyon Report"\textsuperscript{14} of 1927, there is little to show that it exercised any significant influence upon the profession as a whole. Indeed, it could be said that the overwhelming majority of librarians who qualified for admission to the Register by means of attendance at part-time classes or correspondence courses or both were scarcely aware of the School's existence. In 1939, on the outbreak of World War II, the School closed its doors, and its Director, J. D. Cowley (who had succeeded the first Director, E. A. Baker, in 1934), was called to active service. There were probably few in the profession who mourned the closing of the School and few who cared whether or not it would be reopened at the end of the war. Almost certainly nobody in the country could have foreseen that in 1946, just twelve months after the conclusion of hostilities, no less than six library schools, including the reopened London School, would be in operation, with two others announced for January 1947.

\textbf{The Development of Full-Time Schools}

In 1933 a graduated system of examinations, with Elementary, Intermediate and Final parts to be taken in a prescribed order, was introduced for the first time. Certain exemptions from parts of the Final Examination were granted to university graduates, although under the new regulations governing admission to the Register, all candidates for the Associateship had to pass the Elementary and Intermediate Examinations. The new syllabus was a great improvement over anything that had gone before, but still did not lend itself to any rational form of full-time preparation for the examinations based upon it. It was part of an apparently never-ending process of patching-up the old rather than a step towards planning for the new. At the same time and throughout the thirties, there was a steady and notable rise in the standard of entry to the profession. The days of industrial and commercial depression in Britain served to divert many outstanding recruits to the comparatively secure positions available in the public services, including the library service. In the United States and in many other countries these young men and women went to college; in Britain the position was quite different, even as late as the nineteen-thirties.

The London School, the views of the Kenyon Committee (1927), the new regulations governing the Register, the revised syllabus of 1933, the influx of an increasing number of entrants of a higher stand-
ard, the whole expansion of library service throughout the country, all began to form some kind of pattern. Confused though it was and increasingly overshadowed by the economic distress of the times and the threat of a world war, it indicated that at long last the old order was changing. Before the end of 1946 it was obvious that in the area of library education the new order was being created far more rapidly than anyone could have anticipated.

It would be misleading to convey the impression that the desirability and feasibility of a reorganization of the British system of library education had not occurred to anyone in the country prior to the outbreak of World War II. Even the conservative John Minto had expressed the view as far back as 1932 that "one looks forward to the time when, at no very distant date it is to be hoped, there will be established at the larger municipal libraries permanent library schools where systematic practical training in librarianship will be available for all already in the service and for those who aspire to take up librarianship as a profession."18 There is no record to show that any project along these lines was ever considered by the Library Association, although it is generally understood that the planning of the new Manchester Central Library (opened in 1934) did allow for the possible use of two or three rooms for such a purpose.

Ernest A. Savage was much more outspoken in his criticism of the existing system; the chapter on "The Training of Librarians" in his *Special Librarianship in General Libraries and Other Papers,* published in 1939, should be regarded as essential reading for any student of the history of British library education. He was one of the very few librarians of his day who saw clearly that the root of the problem was the failure to recognize the essential distinction between professional and non-professional duties in libraries and the consequently different training needs of these two groups of workers within the profession. He saw, as few others did, how harmful the prevailing practice was to professional status. "But while our system of training," he wrote in 1939, "is designed to suit any and every employee of a library, excepting only the domestic staff, is it possible to raise status and to win higher rewards? I feel sure that it is not. How can we expect to persuade the business men on town councils that issuing books and a great part of the clerking, as simple as any of the kind, is librarianship, even if the workers are certificated? Higher status and better remuneration will come only when we define professional duties and reserve them for professional librarians. We ought not to expect
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every assistant (save the domestic staff) to train for librarianship. This practice has a nipping effect upon status." 17 Much later, in 1955, Savage was continuing his campaign with unabated vigor. "The monopoly of the L.A. in holding qualifying exams must be broken, or librarianship will become a closed, crusted calling. The London University Diploma is not enough to limit this monopoly. The L.A. exams, decided by examiners with no knowledge of examinees' work, are unsound practice: The old London University external exams proved that. A change in our practice is therefore desirable." 18 A significant difference between 1939 and 1955 is that by the latter date Savage was no longer a lone voice in the wilderness; there were surprisingly many who agreed with him. Developments during the war years produced something approaching a transformation of the scene by 1946.

The role played by the Library Association prior to the establishment of the London University School in 1919 was vitally different from its position during the period of planning and negotiation that resulted in the opening of five new schools in 1946 and two more in 1947. (The London University School, reopened in 1945, can also be regarded as "new" to a very large extent. It was soon to reorganize itself as a wholly graduate school and later extend its program to offer a Diploma in Archive Administration as well as its Diploma in Librarianship). In 1919 the Council of the Library Association appears to have been a somewhat reluctant partner in an enterprise about which it was far from completely assured and in which the dominant influence had been the Carnegie United Kingdom Trust. Before 1940 the CUKT had made clear to the library profession that it wished to withdraw from its heavy commitments in a field it had supported so generously over a period of nearly thirty years. This meant that in considering plans for post-war professional reorganization, including library education, the Library Association knew that it would be very much on its own. Whatever was created as part of such plans of reorganization would be the Association's own creations, for better or for worse. The importance of this point, affecting the future relations between the Association and the post-war library schools, has not been generally realized.

The early wartime work of the Council of the Library Association, and of the Emergency Committee which it appointed, culminated in the publication in 1942 of Lionel R. McColvin's report, The Public Library Service of Great Britain. 19 The main significance of this report, which has almost certainly received more attention in the British
library world than has any other similar publication, lies in the fact that it was very much the basis for the official Library Association's proposals for post-war reorganization, *The Public Library Service, its Post-War Reorganization and Development*, published in 1943 and adopted, with a number of amendments not concerned with the section on library education, at the first post-war Annual General Meeting of the Association in 1946. There is little to suggest that McColvin had any special qualification for the task of making recommendations to the Council on the subject of professional training, and indeed there was not a single British librarian then available with experience in the administration of a full-time library school. This might also be borne in mind in considering the new syllabus of examinations, announced as part of the new program which went into effect in 1946.

McColvin's recommendations concerning library staffs and their recruitment, training, grading, and salaries take up more than twenty-five pages of his report, and one of the most extraordinary features of the section devoted to the library schools of the future is the detail into which he was prepared to go. Two examples will suffice: "How many tutors do we need at each school? Two—a senior and a junior. These two should be quite competent to cover the field, for, remember, it will be a general course." And again: "For reasons we shall expand later, the schools should not be too big. An average of 25-30 students at each would be sufficient." Fortunately, in the official "Proposals" of the following year, the Council accepted McColvin's major recommendations but avoided such detail.

Of much more significance are the questions relating to the location of the proposed new schools, what would be taught at them, and the nature of the qualifications to be awarded. An approach was made about this time to more than one university with a view to discovering their probable attitude towards a formal proposal on the part of the Association for the establishment of a school of librarianship. The University of Manchester was one of the universities approached, with Charles Nowell, then Manchester's City Librarian, acting as the Association's spokesman. These semi-official negotiations proved a dismal failure. In the first place, the universities themselves were approaching an almost frantic state of preparation for the great post-war expansion in higher education then being planned (49,000 students at the British universities in 1938; 97,000 in 1958). Secondly, and much more significant from the professional point of view, was the general acceptance by those responsible of McColvin's
somewhat remarkable views, expressed as follows in his report: "... we are convinced that the schools should be teaching and not examining bodies; therefore if a university accepts responsibility it must agree to this condition and not seek to award its own Diploma or other certificate." Quite simply, no university could have accepted such a condition (as surely McColvin and his other colleagues on the Council must have realized), just as the University of London would not have accepted it as far back as 1919.

The die was inevitably cast, therefore, in favor of seeking the cooperation of technical and commercial colleges, institutions that were largely vocational and professional in nature and under the control of their local education authorities, with financial assistance from the central government. Negotiations with a number of these institutions were conducted throughout 1945, with McColvin's recommendations forming the basis of the Association's case. A strong emphasis was placed upon the needs of the returning ex-service men and women, whose professional studies had been interrupted by the war, and upon the financial assistance that it was known the Government was prepared to give to them. Indeed, there is little doubt that at the time this was seen to be the prime consideration; to some, possibly, it was the only consideration. The present writer still does not feel he was over-stating the case unduly when he wrote in 1955: "It was in these rather strange circumstances that the nine new schools were founded between 1946 and 1950. In the eyes of the Library Association Council and the profession at large, they were simply training agencies within the long-established framework of the Association's examination and registration system; a system which had developed over a period of sixty years against a background of apprentice-type training, with little intellectual content to the work, and a confused pattern of methods of preparation—private study, part-time classes, summer schools, week-end courses, correspondence tuition. This system had operated reasonably well, without claiming to be anything more than mere technical training, because the Association's exclusive control over both syllabus and examinations ensured reasonable standards of national certification. All candidates, whatever their background, practical experience or method of preparation, had to submit themselves to the one series of tests. That in the minds of many was all that mattered; and, despite the greatly changed circumstances brought about by the establishment of nine full-time professional schools, there are still many who think it is all that matters today." One of the
main achievements of the new schools over the past seventeen years has been the conversion of an increasing number of the country's librarians to the view that it is not all that matters.

The announcement of the post-war syllabus of examinations in 1946 was followed by the opening of five of the new schools, in the Glasgow and West of Scotland College of Commerce (now the Scottish College of Commerce), in Leeds College of Commerce, in Loughborough College (now Loughborough College of Further Education), in Manchester College of Technology (later Manchester College of Science and Technology—in 1961 the school was transferred to the Manchester College of Commerce), and in the City of London College (later transferred to the North Western Polytechnic, London). Schools at Brighton Technical College and Newcastle upon Tyne College of Commerce were opened in 1947, and by 1950 two additional schools had been established at Birmingham College of Commerce and Ealing (Middlesex) Technical College. These new schools were, in a real sense, the creatures of the Library Association in the first instance, but it is important for the foreign student of British library education to realize that the Association does not possess any effective means of supervision or accreditation of a library school once it has been established. It is true that reference is made in various publications to "approved" schools of librarianship; in point of fact the schools have never been "approved" nor does any machinery exist whereby it could be done. The Ealing School, for instance, was established despite the view of the Library Association at the time that a third library school in the London area was not called for. All the new schools, as part of institutions under local education authority control, are subject to inspection by Her Majesty's Inspectors, but this is conducted without any reference to the Library Association.

Of greater significance than this aspect of the schools' relationship with the Library Association is the syllabus of examination, within which their programs have inevitably been constructed. The revised syllabus of 1946, while retaining the three-fold structure of its predecessor, was much more clearly designed to provide for programs of full-time instruction. An Entrance Examination (later much revised and re-titled First Professional Examination) was to be followed by a Registration Examination, admitting successful candidates to the Register of Chartered Librarians as Associates (A.L.A.). A full-time course of an academic year's duration was thought to be a suitable preparation for the Registration Examination. University graduates
were granted exemption from the Entrance Examination and thus enabled to enter a library school directly upon completion of their degree course, if they so wished. Preparation for the Entrance Examination on the part of non-graduates would continue to be on the old lines—by attendance at part-time classes or by means of a correspondence course. It is of interest to note that some insistence upon the value of practical experience was still maintained; students were unable to apply for the Entrance Examination until they had completed a year's service in a library. It was further laid down that candidates for election to the Register were to have completed at least three years’ service in a library and reached the age of twenty-three (a year at a library school being regarded as equivalent to library service for this purpose). For the minority, who might seek to aspire to the highest professional qualification, there was to be a Final Examination, with five years’ service in a library and the attainment of the age of twenty-five as additional prerequisites. As in the case of Registration, the syllabus of the Final Examination was thought to lend itself easily to a one-year full-time course at a library school. All this certainly represented a tremendous advance on anything that had gone before, and the whole syllabus was apparently blessed with the virtue of neatness and compactness, well suited to the long established system of external control and examination by the professional association. Some reflection might have suggested that it was all rather Procrustean, but at the time the remarkable dual achievement on the part of the Association, in creating both a new syllabus and the new schools that were to teach it, tended to stifle criticism.

Certainly it was a remarkable achievement and at the time of the opening of the five new schools in the autumn of 1946, more than one member of the newly and somewhat hastily appointed faculties must have felt that new frontiers of library education were at long last within reach. There were others in the profession, however, who did not share this optimism. There had been a considerable emphasis in both the “McColvin Report” and the subsequent negotiations with the colleges concerned on the emergency needs of the returning ex-service men and women. It was estimated that over a period of three to four years the new schools would have completed their task in the provision of full-time and accelerated courses to enable these students to make up some of the time lost during the war. And after that? The fact that the number of schools and full-time students actually increased in number after the emergency period is one of the remark-
able features of post-war British library education, and no little credit for this must go to the schools themselves, despite the early difficulties under which they labored.

These difficulties, including understaffing, sub-standard physical quarters and professional libraries, the inadequacies of the externally imposed syllabus and system of examining, the continued indifference and even hostility displayed by some members of the profession, were first clearly perceived and analyzed by Harold Lancour, then Associate Director of the Library School of the University of Illinois, who spent nine months in Britain between September 1950 and June 1951, under Fulbright auspices, studying British library education. His visit was probably somewhat premature; the schools were still full of teething problems, and the early emergency period had barely ended. Nevertheless his critical observations, whether made in private conversation, formal address, or the professional journals (a report of one of his more important contributions will be found in North Western Newsletter, July 1951)²⁴ proved thought-provoking and often disturbing. A more concrete result of Lancour's visit was that during the next few years two of the directors of British library schools were given opportunities to serve as summer session faculty members of the Illinois School. There can be no doubt that in these and other ways his visit was to influence the course of library education in Britain.

The emergency period over, the future comparatively secure, the faculties somewhat strengthened, the schools themselves began to look at the situation rather more closely and critically. Two of the directors of the new schools were now serving as nationally elected members of the Council of the Library Association and of its Register and Examinations Executive Committee and Education Sub-Committee (it was later to be established that a place on the Education Sub-Committee was to be reserved for a representative of the Schools).

In 1952, at a meeting at Manchester, a "Schools of Librarianship Committee" was formed, consisting of all full-time faculty members of the ten schools in Great Britain and the school at University College, Dublin. This committee (later to become a somewhat unwieldy body as a result of the considerable increase in the number of full-time teaching staff at the schools) has performed a number of important functions, including the provision of a forum for the discussion of common problems, the scrutiny of examination papers, and various cooperative enterprises. It has been increasingly consulted by
the Library Association, and its representatives played an important part in framing the new syllabus of examinations, finally approved by the Register and Examinations Executive Committee in April 1961. Much of the attention of the Schools of Librarianship Committee has been directed towards the less desirable features of the system of external examination. Some measure of success was achieved in this area by the acceptance on the part of the Library Association of proposals for the creation of "moderating" committees. These committees, a fairly common feature of the examination systems of other professional associations in Britain, consist of representatives of the examining, assessing, and teaching bodies in the various main subject areas of the syllabus. Participation in the setting of examination papers or in assessing the results is still denied to the teaching representatives; their contribution in this area is limited to the making of suggestions and comments upon examinations that have already been held. In 1962 the Schools of Librarianship Committee was reconstituted as the Association of British Library Schools. The problem presented to the old Schools of Librarianship Committee by the increase in the number of teaching staff in the full-time library schools has been solved by the appointment of an "Executive Committee," made up of the President and Secretary of the Association, the directors of the library schools in the United Kingdom and the Republic of Ireland, and three elected members who are not directors. The "approval" by the Library Association in 1963 of full-time attendance at certain courses held at the Liverpool College of Commerce may be regarded as tantamount to the recognition of an additional library school, giving a present total of eleven schools in Great Britain. As in the case of the other schools, this is not approval of either instruction or program, but simply of attendance on the part of the student, so that the time he spends at the school can be counted as part of his period of library service prior to admission to the Register of Chartered Librarians maintained by the Library Association.

A quantitative appraisal of the schools' performance in terms of their output of qualified librarians under the Library Association system was made by William Caldwell, Director of the Newcastle upon Tyne School of Librarianship during the course of a conference on library education held in London in May 1957. Caldwell's careful analysis of the figures led him to state that "66% of the Chartered Librarians elected from 1947-1956 are products of full-time courses at
library schools.” 26 (He was considering only those students who had attended the schools in preparation for the Registration Examination). He added, “... the total of students who have experienced a full-time course at a British library school since the war is therefore 3,323, and a further 976 attended the University College school from its inception until it closed during the war years, making the grand total approximately 4,299.” 27 In other words, nearly four times as many students attended a full-time library school between 1946 and 1956 as during the whole of the twenty years prior to 1939. The number of students at the schools continues to increase steadily, even though almost everyone seems to be agreed that there are too many schools—a criticism made by Lancour in 1950-51.

It is scarcely necessary to say more in order to indicate the nature of the revolution in British library education brought about by the new schools since their establishment during the years following World War II. Their achievements, in the face of difficulties created by their own inadequate resources on the one hand and widespread professional obscurantism on the other, have been remarkable. Their graduates are now to be found in senior positions in libraries of all types throughout the United Kingdom. Many of the present and future leaders of the profession in the developing countries of East and West Africa, South Asia, the Caribbean, and other parts of the world received their professional education and inspiration in the overcrowded lecture rooms of Loughborough, Manchester, North Western Polytechnic in London or one of the other British schools. These schools have played a significant role in helping to raise the status of librarianship in Britain; they have attracted to the profession many recruits of high caliber, including an increasing number of university graduates; and they created in their more responsive students a lively spirit of questioning and criticism. In recent years their resources, in terms of teaching staff, programs, and departmental libraries, have improved considerably. Today more than one British school has a larger full-time teaching faculty than that found in a number of the long-established accredited schools in the United States and Canada. These points are stressed because of the ample evidence that even today there is little realization in some other parts of the world of the transformation that occurred in British library education during the post-war years. Paradoxically enough, the very success of the new schools may lead them to become one of the
major obstacles in the way of further progress. To understand this, it is necessary to record some of the more recent happenings in British library education.

In January 1962 the Vice-Chancellor of Sheffield University announced "... a plan to provide the University with the first postgraduate school of librarianship outside of London." This new postgraduate school, offering its own qualification, is now due to open its doors in October 1964. A meeting of the Council of the Library Association on April 26, 1963, was informed that "It is now probable that a full-time school of librarianship will be set up by Queen's University, Belfast, offering a one-year librarianship diploma course for graduates. . . ." Clearly, Lancour's proposal of "... two or three schools affiliated to Universities. . . ." made to a somewhat skeptical audience a dozen years ago, makes more sense to the profession in 1963. It would seem highly unlikely that this new move will stop at Sheffield and Belfast, if only for the simple reason that in Britain, as elsewhere, it is so obviously the wave of the future.

This natural and inevitable tendency towards post-graduate library education in a country in which there will be three times as many students at the considerably increased number of universities by the late sixties as there were in 1939 may be regarded as the first and major threat to the position of the existing non-university schools, preparing candidates for the examinations of the Library Association. A second threat has already made itself felt in the new program and qualification of the Institute of Information Scientists (founded in 1960), and arises from the continued discontent of the special librarians, documentalists and others in the information sciences area with the traditional forms of library education. It is possible that the needs of this latter group will be met by one or more of the future post-graduate university schools and the announced plans of the new Sheffield University School of Librarianship include a reference to "the growing need for new staff trained for scientific and technical library work." Bearing in mind that in Britain, as elsewhere, there is an urgent need to attract more science graduates to the profession, it is difficult to see how this will be achieved at a non-university level.

As recently as September 1959 it was possible for the Education Officer of the Library Association to attempt to describe the British system of library education in the pages of Library Journal, without making a single reference to the actual or potential role of the universities. It will provide some measure of the accelerated rate of
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change in the situation to pause for a moment and consider how misleading this would be today.

Traditions, including bad ones, die hard in Britain, as the new schools discovered during their early years. The schools themselves were to destroy some of the most cherished traditions in British library education and, in so doing, they speeded up the process through which they themselves will soon be forced to abandon their position as the principal agencies of library education. They still will have an important role, however, and they will be strengthened in this respect by the new syllabus of examinations of the Library Association when it comes into operation in 1964. This future role will be the training of the many members of the "... solid, respectable, grammar-school educated secondary echelon, ..." who will still be required to fill the professional positions of an intermediate or "middle" status (to use a designation more frequently employed on the Continent than in Britain or North America). The higher professional positions, to be occupied by the future leaders of the profession, will inevitably and increasingly be reserved for the university graduate, who has acquired his professional qualification at a post-graduate library school. When that time comes to Britain, as it has to many other countries, it will not be easy for the present non-university schools to accept their new role; nor will it be the least of their many contributions to British librarianship if they do so graciously and co-operatively.

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J. Clement Harrison

12. Wellard, op. cit., p. 140.
13. Ibid., p. 141.
17. Ibid., p. 160.
22. Ibid., p. 184.
27. Ibid., p. 25.
East Germany: the German Democratic Republic

HORST KUNZE

In the research libraries of the German Democratic Republic three categories of staff with specific vocational courses of training are employed: (1) specialist librarians with an arts or science degree, (2) professional assistant librarians, and (3) trained sub-professional library assistants. Each of these groups works in special fields, requiring a variety of knowledge and skills. This is why each of these occupational groups is given a self-contained course of training entirely its own.

1. The Specialist Librarian with an arts or science degree (wissenschaftlicher Bibliothekar)

The work of the specialist librarian is characterized by the close linking of theory and practice and the combination of work done in a special field of knowledge with practical administrative activities. He is responsible for the careful selection and the exact cataloging of recent accessions, for giving information to readers directly, by letter, or by telephone, and for the compilation of all kinds of bibliographies. Apart from this, he is expected to instruct all the staff of his department or office. The training of the specialist librarian, which was changed in 1954-55, starts after the student has finished high school (a twelve-year general school) and has passed the respective school-leaving examinations. His professional training covers a total of seven years: a five-year period of university studies plus two years of work as an assistant librarian. The five-year university course can be taken only at the Humboldt University of Berlin and is organized by the Institute of Library Science in the Philosophical Faculty of Berlin University. This Institute supplies basic instruction in library science.

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and at the same time includes a second special subject, which is taught at Berlin's Humboldt University.

The basic training for a librarian includes lectures and classes on library administration, history of libraries, bibliography and documentation, bibliology, development of the sciences, the cursory reading of foreign texts on library problems (in Russian, English, French, Latin), and a practical course lasting several weeks each year. The study of the special subject takes considerably more time. The selection of this subject depends on the inclination of the student as well as on the needs of the research libraries; today specialist librarians are trained for the various natural sciences, also an essential advantage of this type of training. If the trainee passes the State examinations in library science and his special subject, he is attached, as a university graduate, to a research library for a compulsory two-year period as assistant librarian. These two years serve the purpose of enhancing and extending his knowledge of library science; when it is finished, he has to hand in a thesis. Mainly, however, this period is to prove to what degree the assistant librarian is able to apply his command of library science theory to his practical work as a librarian.

Thus the study of library science in the German Democratic Republic is characterized by the combination of library science with a special subject chosen by the student. The linking of the study of library science with another branch of knowledge has been a national tradition in Germany. Its new quality is the systematic fusion of the two courses of study from the first day of university attendance (instead of the former habit of completing one training after the other, e.g., a five-year course of history at the university followed by a course in library science and practical librarianship in a library).

Since 1959, there is also the possibility of passing the State examination in library science, as guest examinees, for university graduates who have been employed by a research library after finishing a full course in a special subject at a university or an equivalent college, without having qualified for library science. This guest examination is arranged by the Institute of Library Science of Humboldt University, which contributes to the systematic preparation of the applicants by organizing periodic conferences and consultations.

2. The Professional Assistant Librarian (Bibliothekar)

The professional assistant librarian is usually expected to work in all the different departments of a research library; this frequent
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change of assignments is typical of his activities. Making his own decisions and instructing the non-professional staff, he heads branch offices of the accession department or works in the cataloging department, the binding division, the search division, the lending department, or the reading-room; he advises readers, and in general, supports the specialist librarian and helps him with all the tasks that come his way. His three-year professional training is provided at the library schools in Berlin (Deutsche Staatsbibliothek) and Leipzig (Deutsche Bücherei). These institutions train professional staff for research libraries, and their teaching programs include library administration, bibliography, cataloging, history of libraries, bibliography, instruction in four foreign languages (Russian, English, French, Latin), typewriting, and physical education. As this part of the staff, too, cannot do without a well-grounded general education, it is desirable that the student librarians have passed the school-leaving examination of the twelve-grade comprehensive school (roughly equivalent to matriculation examination). The curriculum of the library schools also includes social science, history of literature, and development of the sciences. The three-year course is composed of a theoretical and a practical part. The theoretical part (two years) is supplemented by prolonged periods of practical work in general and special research libraries as well as by an introduction to the peculiarities of public libraries. The professional training is completed by a certificate examination consisting of a minor thesis, a written examination, and oral tests.

In this case, too, library staff can sit for a guest examination. This possibility was instituted in accordance with a regulation on guest examinations at professional schools issued on December 15, 1960.1

3. The Trained Sub-Professional Library Assistant (Bibliotheksfacharbeiter)

The vocational group of trained sub-professional library assistants in research libraries is a new one; it was created in 1951. The scope of work of these staff members includes sorting and arranging, all types of minor administrative work, and technical checks. Primarily, the trained library assistant is employed—and in this case often in a responsible position—in stack-rooms, delivery stations, reading-rooms, and periodical rooms; he helps in search procedures and does duplicating and easy cataloging. He supports and helps the assistant librarian in a variety of tasks, preferably with the large amount of
indexing to be done, which demands maximum attention and utmost accuracy.

After the trainee has successfully completed the eight- or ten-grade general school, he can start his vocational training which covers two years. It is based on articles of apprenticeship which can be entered into with any general research library and includes both the practical training and the theoretical instruction given by the library and by a vocational school. The schooling imparts to the apprentice general and special knowledge in library economy, the ability to type, and a second foreign language besides Russian. At the end of the period of apprenticeship, the trainees have to pass written and oral examinations.

For capable employees who have done excellent practical work, there is a possibility of rising from one staff group to the next one, i.e., from library assistant to assistant librarian, from assistant librarian to specialist librarian. Either grants or salaries are paid during all the various stages of training. University students and the trainees of the schools of library science are given grants in accordance with the legal provisions that apply to these educational institutions; the apprentices receive wages according to scale.

(The editors sought without success to obtain an article from West Germany.)

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ADDITIONAL REFERENCES

A survey of library training in the Netherlands at this point in time is extremely difficult, for it is a period of transition. For some years, work has been proceeding on a completely new system of professional training at both the higher and lower level, and it is expected that by 1964 education for librarianship will have a completely different look from what it presents today.

Under these circumstances there is little point in giving a detailed historical account of library training in the Netherlands. It is necessary, however, to say something about the general library situation, this being the background for a historical outline of the development of library training as it is at the moment. There is a close relationship between the latter, in its origin and growth, and the general organization of libraries.

In general it can be said that some of the characteristics of the Dutch nation find their replica in the organization of the country's libraries. Just as the citizen of the Netherlands considers his independence a privilege to be carefully guarded, so do the libraries—but, as in the case of the individual citizens, the libraries are ready to cooperate, as shown in the system of inter-library loans. The operation of this system of inter-library loans is made possible by a well-developed organization of union catalogs.

This practical co-operation derives from the organization of the librarians of the country. There is, in the first place, the Netherlands Library Association, founded in 1912 and celebrating its fiftieth anniversary last year. Membership in this association is open to all who perform professional duties in any kind of library in the Kingdom of the Netherlands. It gives, therefore, research librarians as well as public librarians and special librarians a chance to meet and discuss their common problems, while at the same time the different groups

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have, within the framework of the general objectives of the Association, their own separate working committees.

The second organization to be mentioned in this respect is the Central Association for Public Libraries. Founded in 1908, it has for its primary objects to promote and to maintain public libraries and to champion, so far as they relate to this, the interests of librarianship and of library science in general. Public libraries in the Netherlands are, with a few exceptions, private bodies founded and maintained by associations or foundations that find in this task their only reason for existence. That is why a central association was necessary in which all public libraries are united and which acts as a semi-official organization between the subsidizing authorities (state, municipality and often the province) and the public libraries. The individualistic nature of the public library system, however, manifests itself in the fact that there are many Roman Catholic and some Protestant public libraries side by side with the classic non-denominational public library. All these public libraries are kept together by the Central Association.

It is no surprise that the initiative for library training was taken by this Association. Since 1922 courses have been organized for a so-called assistant's certificate. They last for two years, during which time the candidate has to work actively in a public library and take courses given for candidates from different parts of the country in a number of training libraries. The curriculum includes orientation on place and function of the public library in the community, the several branches of library science and administration, and a general survey of the arts and sciences and the literature relating to them. Lessons of a practical kind are given at the public libraries where the candidates are working.

One of the requirements for public grants to a public library is that the professional staff must be recruited from among holders of the assistant's certificate. To qualify for an executive post, however, a director's certificate is required. This can only be obtained by a holder of an assistant's certificate who has had at least one year of practice. Training for the director's certificate is given in a ten-months course at The Hague, partly in the Royal Library, partly in the Public Library. In this course, stress is laid on topics in the field of library administration, on the role of the public library in the social structure, on readers' needs, interests, and habits,—in short, the knowledge without which a director cannot well accomplish his task.
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The Central Association for Public Libraries and the Netherlands Library Association have co-operated closely since an agreement was made between them in 1927. The basis of this co-operation is dual membership, which makes it possible for public library officers to be members of both associations on payment of one subscription. Four committees established by the two associations together look after the common interests. The monthly Bibliotheekleven is the official journal of both associations. However strange this arrangement may seem, as viewed from the standpoint of organization, it has proved to be practical and successful. Thanks to the many new members from the public library service, after the agreement of 1927, the Netherlands Library Association could record a considerable increase in membership, which was to be repeated during World War II, when another large group came to strengthen the ranks of the Association. Within its framework a section for special, commercial and industrial libraries was started in 1941. As in other countries, the interests of special librarians differed considerably from those of the librarians of research libraries and public libraries, but in contrast to the United States and Great Britain, no separate association was established. This certainly was to the benefit of all librarians, who were members of the Association, and the latter profited a good deal from the fact that a lively and active group had made its entry.

The field in which this activity has become most evident is undoubtedly that of training. The section for special libraries understood how important a thorough professional training would be to the young industrial librarian, and so it was that in 1946 a start was made with a training course, which had already been prepared during the War. This was such a success that, with the passing of the years, more courses were arranged, which since 1950 have been organized in conjunction with the Netherlands Institute for Documentation and Filing, under the responsibility of a joint training committee. Two years ago considerable additions were made; the number of courses now totals six. There are three “A” courses: “A 1” intended for library staff working in technical libraries, “A 2” for the staff of non-technical libraries, such as libraries of non-technical government institutions, and “A 3” for the lower middle positions in research libraries. The “C” course is intended for trained technical staff charged with literature searching in industrial libraries. This course is particularly directed at imparting knowledge of classifying, searching, and reporting. The “D”
course is a continuation course for holders of the A-certificate and is intended for those who need a wider vision and a deepening of their knowledge in connection with their position in a library. The "B" course for trade archivists has no bearing on the subject of this article.

From the foregoing it is clear that the various courses cater to the needs of most kinds of librarian. The one and very important exception is the members of the academic staff in the great research libraries: the Royal Library at The Hague, the university libraries, the libraries of the technological institutes, of the College of Agricultural Sciences and of the School of Economics. During the War years plans were made for library training on an academic level, but they resulted only in a non-obligatory course for newly-appointed members of the academic staff.

This was the state of affairs a few years ago. Since then there has been a rapid change, a revolutionary development indeed, which makes it impossible to predict what the situation will be after another two or three years. Therefore, we must restrict ourselves to an account of the events in the immediate past and the expectations of the near future.

The first sign of change was the establishment of a new chair in library science at the University of Amsterdam. Since 1954 this University has had a professorship in the science of the book and bibliography, but these subjects were intended to be minors in the study of the history of literature. The chair in library science, however, finds its origin in the difficulty of recruiting good academic people for the scholarly positions in the great research libraries. This is caused partly by the fact that in the large scholarly library of our age there are too many tensions which make it difficult for the scholarly librarian to hold his own and uphold his learning, in turn due partly to a lack of knowledge of library science, which in many respects is still fallow land. It was hoped that by making library science an academic discipline, more students would become interested in the theory and practice of librarianship.

Now, after some years of experience, plans are under way to make the two chairs the nucleus of an academic library training program, by which it will be possible for students of all disciplines to study library science in addition to their main study. It will be a two years' course after the so-called doctoral examination, but with the possi-
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bility of attending the lectures of the first year before the doctoral examination. The second year should be spent in two research libraries; during the year lessons of a more practical character are given, and the period will be concluded by a final state examination. One might call this a Library School with two restrictions: library science will not be an independent discipline crowned with a doctor's degree, although it will be possible to uphold a thesis in the field of library science for a doctorate in one of the faculties; secondly, this Library School is only meant for students of a university, training them for posts on the academic staff of a great library.

As to how far this may have led to a change of ideas in other fields of library training cannot be said, but it is a fact that the long-existing dissatisfaction with the courses for public librarians was ended by the realization that they might soon be integrated in a library school. Following upon a preliminary report by a Committee of the Central Association for Public Libraries in 1961, a Commission on Library Schools was appointed, which issued its report in December, 1962. One of the recommendations made in this report was the establishment of a "foundation" (not in the American sense of the word) for library and documentation schools. A new law on continued education of the same year makes it possible to have such schools financed by the Government. The foundation was realized at the end of 1962, and since then the Board has been busy with the preparatory work for the establishment of two library schools in Amsterdam and Groningen. The curriculum of two years will confine itself, for the time being, to the training of assistants in public libraries. It is hoped that these schools will open in September, 1964.

It hardly needs saying that enormous progress would result from these developments. It is also significant that efforts are being made to insure that the new schools will be opened to students of any denomination. It is the intention to have the two years' program at one of the schools extended by means of a continuation course (similar to the now existing course for the director's certificate), and it is also hoped to integrate after some time the "A" and "D" courses for special librarians. An incidental problem that will arise will be co-ordination with the two chairs at the University of Amsterdam.

It stands to reason that, as things are, it is impossible to prophesy what the developments in the near future will be. Plans are still too vague, and there is too much uncertainty about government grants,
LEENDERT BRUMMEL

etc. It is, however, certain that library training in the Netherlands never has known such a crucial time as today, a time that is, without any doubt, a period of the greatest interest and full of promise.

Reference

Spain

JAVIER LASSO de la VEGA

THE LIBRARIES OF SPAIN fall generally into two groups: national and provincial libraries, and municipal libraries. Employees of the first group belong to the CFABA (Cuerpo Facultativo de Archiveros, Bibliotecarios y Arqueologos, or Society of Archivists, Librarians, and Archeologists). Employees of the municipal libraries may belong to CFABA under special circumstances. However, they are not a part of the career service, and the qualifications for membership are different.

To enter CFABA in the national or provincial library service, it is necessary to qualify competitively. The title of Licentiate or Doctor of Philosophy and Letters, as issued in a Spanish university, is prerequisite to entering such competition. Municipal library employment requires the qualification of membership in CFABA (but without appointment to the national-provincial service), or the qualifications prerequisite to competition for CFABA, or possession of a certificate of Librarian issued by the Library Schools of Barcelona or Madrid.

National libraries, including buildings, personnel, supplies, and books, are financed largely from the national budget. The creation of the career service for these libraries represented by CFABA was accomplished by a decree of May 8, 1859. Admission was made to depend upon (a) the individual's record of literary or bibliographical writings and publications, (b) superior academic degree issued by a School of Philosophy and Letters of a Spanish university or by the School of Diplomatics, (c) knowledge of ancient and modern languages, (d) special accomplishments in classification or organization in a library or archives, and (e) demonstration of capacity in librarianship.

CFABA was modified by another decree of November 18, 1887, which required entrance only through a qualifying competitive exam-
ination. At the same time museum curators were brought into the CFABA. To enter the examination for the academic title of archivist, librarian, or archeologist, a licentiate from a Spanish university had to be held. Alternatively, entrance could be gained by winning a prize offered annually by the National Library for bibliographic work. The same 1887 decree created a Council of Archivists, Librarians, and Archeologists. entrusted to it was the practical and theoretical instruction of personnel destined to the service of archives, libraries, and museums.

A single career scale was created for CFABA in 1889, regardless of the nature of the establishment or functions performed by the individual, in which promotion was attained by strict rule of seniority. Later, by a law of 1894, entrance to the competitive examination was limited to university degree holders in the appropriate fields of study. In the same year, for the Advanced School of Diplomats the standards of the courses for archivist, librarian, and museum curator were decreed. In 1897 the subject matter for the library examination was established by decree, and it included comparative historical grammar of the Romance languages; general and critical paleography; ancient and medieval geography, especially of Spain; history of literature in relation to bibliography; archival practice; and library organization and practice.

The Advanced School of Diplomats later was integrated into the School of Philosophy and Letters and gave rise to another decree in 1902 regulating the prerequisites to examination for entrance to CFABA and the requirements of the competition itself. According to the special interests of the individual, academic studies were required in paleography, bibliography, Latin, archeology, mummification, and epigraphy. For librarians the examination consisted of answering (in an hour and a half) four questions relating to libraries, one purely theoretical and another on administrative organization. Practical exercises included (a) the cataloging of a manuscript, an incunabulum, and a modern book, and (b) reading and translating texts in an ancient and modern language selected by the examinee upon applying for admission to the competition.

Later in 1932, further changes in the prerequisites to the examination were made, the most important of which was obligatory professional education in librarianship. Also, from this date, the Ministry of National Education, which administered the system, began to differentiate between the preparation required for librarians, archiv-
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ists, and archeologists, on the grounds that a single person could not reach a satisfactory level of competence in all fields.

The conditions described hereafter prevailed in the most recent competitions, as ordered on March 29, 1960. The first part of the examination is common to all three specialities and consists of three sections:

1. Translation of either French or Italian prose without dictionary. The language may be chosen by the examinee. The text, identical for all examinees, is selected at random at the time of starting the examination, with 400 words to be translated in a maximum of two hours.

2. Translation of either English or German prose with dictionary under the same conditions set for French or Italian with the exception of a permissible period of three hours.

3. A written exercise on two subjects selected at random from a published list of twenty topics on legislation and organization of the Spanish public administration in general, of the Ministry of National Education in particular (with special reference to the Ministry’s Department of Archives and Libraries and Fine Arts), of the legislation and organization of CFABA and of CAABA (Cuerpo Auxiliar de Archiveros, Bibliotecarios, y Arqueologos, or Sub-Professional Society of Archivists, Librarians, and Archeologists) of the occupational skills of concern to CFABA, and finally of the administrative system of the governmental agencies concerned.

The first part of the examination lasts four hours. A passing mark on part one is required before undertaking the second part. The second part of the examination varies according to the field of interest, and for librarianship comprises the following:

1. Development, during a period of four hours, of two themes identical for all participants, selected at the beginning of the examination from a list of thirty topics relating to the history of writing, of books, and of the principal libraries of the world (with emphasis on Spanish libraries), and to bibliography, library economy, and documentation.

2. Transcription and translation and paleographic and stylistic comment on a short manuscript in Latin written prior to the fifteenth century and of another of the fifteenth or sixteenth century. A Latin dictionary may be used, and a period of five hours is allowed.

3. Cataloging of a medieval manuscript and of an incunabulum in Latin to be done in a period of four hours.

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4. Cataloging and classifying, using the Universal Decimal Classification, of five modern books in languages other than Spanish. The examinees may utilize various cataloging instructions, tables of the Universal Decimal Classification, and rules for assigning headings in the dictionary catalog. The time for this part of the examination is four hours.

5. Cataloging of four titles (one of music, an engraving, a map, and a recording) utilizing current instructions and providing a provisional registration of the intellectual property and another of the legal depository. Four hours are allowed, and the legal texts may be consulted. The successful candidates are assigned by the Department of Archives and Libraries to certain libraries for the purpose of practical experience and training and to become accustomed to their duties.

From the analysis of the examination program, one may deduce the high level of knowledge and erudite preparation of the members of CFABA. The large number of aspirants to the Society has led candidates to obtain special tutoring from professors and specialists. Without such expert assistance and the use of libraries specializing in this material, it is not easy to pass the examination.

In recent years the Department of Archives, Libraries, and Museums has organized courses for the preparation of professional librarians and advanced courses for those already in the profession. They serve to prepare persons for national, provincial, municipal, and ecclesiastical libraries (as well as those of private associations and corporations) as documentalists, researchers, and specialists in certain phases of library science. The study of bibliography, to which scholarly disciplines attach as much importance as to practical knowledge of documentation and archeological investigation, proves very useful to the student in general. There are two fields of study: the first, of a general nature, gives a basic professional preparation, and the second, more advanced, is for those students who wish to acquire specialized knowledge and skills.

Independent of the study courses, the Department organizes conferences and colloquia which students are required to attend. Professors and specialized personnel conduct field trips to various institutions both in and outside of Madrid. Students also are required to complete assignments of a practical nature assigned by each professor. Examinations are given at the end of the first and second quarters. Grading, on a ten point system, is based on test results, the student's work during the course, his application and attendance, and
his performance in the seminars. A student who does not pass a course may take a special examination in the last half of September.

For the title of librarian, acquired upon successfully completing the first course, the subjects of study are documentation, simplified cataloging, library organization and administration, bibliography and reference services, and Universal Decimal Classification and simplified dictionary catalogs. Subjects for the second (advanced) course are graphic and calligraphic interpretation, Spanish paleography, special cataloging, Universal Decimal Classification and Simplified Dictionary Catalogs, history of the book and of libraries, and special bibliography. For years students from Latin America and personnel from other universities and special schools have taken these courses, especially those in documentation. Admission is limited to those with a bachelor's (or higher) degree or equivalent.

The Library School of Barcelona, an institution of the provincial legislature directed by the librarian of the legislature, has operated for many years. Librarians trained in this school serve the extensive and important network of popular public libraries in Catalonia. A distinguished group of excellent professors maintains a modern curriculum, with application of all the practices of a working library, encouraging a maximum of cultural service to the public which it attracts and influences. The subjects studied are those appropriate to the profession. The scope and quality of training of these librarians is illustrated by the work done in preparation for their degrees. The following examples are of the year 1961: (1) written development of the theme “The Present State of the Decimal Classification System”; (2) complete cataloging of an incunabulum and of a French, German, and English work; and (3) translation of texts French, German, and English.
Greece

LEON CARNOVSKY

Greece is a nation of many libraries, some of considerable distinction. This is not surprising in a country to which the world owes so much for its culture and civilization, and to which it constantly turns for the study of archeology, literature, and political origins. Even today, though Greece is faced with the most formidable problems of internal economy and international relations, the interest in its cultural heritage remains high, and one is aware of a genuine concern for its preservation through libraries and for its wider dissemination throughout the nation. Herein lies the considerable enthusiasm encountered everywhere for a program of education for librarianship.

At the same time it would be shortsighted to ignore the difficulties that confront the establishment of a library school. Greece remains a poor country, although its economic status is gradually improving. The nation's multiple needs coupled with a relatively low tax yield militate against the addition of even one more public service, however desirable. This economic problem suffuses the whole library pattern in Greece; libraries cannot rely on anything approaching adequate support, and as a result the salaries of their personnel are low. Under the circumstances one wonders if enough qualified students could be attracted to justify a library school. There are further questions: Can existing libraries absorb into their staffs all the graduates of such a library school and are enough positions potentially available? Answers to such questions can only be speculative; still, they are worth attempting, and, indeed, they cannot be ignored.

Status of Librarianship in Greece

The libraries of Greece are highly diversified. The National Library,
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the libraries in five provinces (Andritsaina, Demetsana, Zante, Corfu, and Samos), and those in twenty-two towns are directly under the control of the Ministry of Education. Approximately thirty libraries have been established and are controlled by their municipalities; in addition there are numerous communal and regional libraries. The many government ministries in Athens and the various scientific institutions, museums, colleges, and institutes all maintain libraries, as do the universities and such specialized schools as the Polytechnic, Fine Arts, Economics and Political Science, etc. An extensive network of book deposit stations, established throughout much of Greece by the Ministry of Education, is covered periodically by one of three bookmobiles for the exchange of book collections. The libraries in Greece range in size from the Greek National Library to these small centers. It would be impractical, as it is unnecessary, to describe them all; however, we shall comment briefly on a few of the important libraries in Athens, and subsequently offer some observations on the library situation in general.

Greek National Library. The Greek National Library, adjoining the University of Athens, has 800,000 books, 3,500 manuscripts, 300 incunabula, and vast collections of historical documents and rarities. It is housed in a handsome building, now unfortunately far too small; its original and supplementary shelves are filled, and hundreds of volumes more recently acquired must be stacked on the floor. This library, a depository, receives two copies of all books published in Greece; it is particularly strong in belles-lettres. In spite of its physical shortcomings, the National Library reading rooms are well patronized, and if the Library could be systematically organized and its classification system and catalogs brought up-to-date, it could take its rightful place as an intellectual center for Greece—the proper role of any national library. At present it is short of staff and in need of a gigantic overhauling.

Library of Parliament. The Library of Parliament, like the National Library, is a depository library, and so receives a copy of all books published in Greece. Its holding are particularly strong in political science, law, and related fields; it contains about 700,000 volumes including more than 3,000 incunabula and rarities. Though aimed primarily at service to the government, it is open to the general public and is patronized by students and intellectuals. Thanks to roomier quarters than the National Library possesses and to larger appropriations, the books cover more fields of knowledge and are more readily
accessible than those in the National Library. Given a more up-to-date scheme of classification, the Library of Parliament, like the National Library, gives promise of developing into a first-rate scholarly and reference library for Athens.

*Gennadeion Library.* The Gennadeion Library, the gift of John Gennadius, is undoubtedly one of the best in Greece; indeed, it is one of the significant libraries of the civilized world. Its 50,000 volumes are devoted to the Byzantine and recent history and civilization of Greece, as well as to the Balkans and Turkey. Under the administration and support of the American School of Classical Studies, it is open to scholars and interested readers without restriction. The collections are organized by a unique scheme, and although, like all classification systems, it is not without difficulties, it permits ready location and access to the books. Catalogs by author and by subject facilitate use of the library.

*Athens College.* Athens College is an American sponsored institution, accredited by the New York Board of Regents (it is incorporated under the laws of the state of New York) as well as by the Greek Ministry of Education. It includes elementary and pre-collegiate instruction and terminates its program at about the junior college level. In 1962 construction of a new library building was begun and will shortly be completed. It will incorporate many of the most modern aspects of college library construction and may well serve as a model for future library building in Greece. It is administered by an American-trained librarian.

*Public Libraries.* Public libraries are found in all the major Greek cities, frequently with extensive book collections; in addition, there are hundreds of others. As previously noted, many libraries are supervised by the Ministry of Education, and many more are supported locally by their communities, municipalities, or local groups. Others are attached to nongovernmental literary or cultural institutions and may be used by the public. With few exceptions the libraries suffer from inadequate quarters, limited collections of recent and contemporary publications, shortage of personnel, and restricted seating facilities. Needless to say, a corps of trained librarians could not readily change this condition into a more satisfactory one; yet it is difficult to see how improvement can be achieved without them, especially if they are imbued with a sense of the importance of libraries and equipped with the knowledge and tools to make libraries a viable force in the life of the nation.
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Public libraries supported by foreign governments. In addition to the Greek government-supported libraries and special libraries, there are libraries in Athens and elsewhere supported by other governments, perhaps most notably the United States Information Library and the British Council Library. Although these libraries are freely open to the public, because of the nature of their collections—almost exclusively in English—they tend to be used by a somewhat selective, sophisticated clientele. Both libraries are well organized and administered; the books are arranged by an up-to-date classification and are constantly replenished by fresh publications. They maintain liberal home loan policies and are used frequently. Probably nowhere else in Greece can one find so good a collection of scientific and technical publications as in the United States Information Library in Athens, and the British Council Library is incomparably superior to any other in the country in the provision of materials testifying to the British literary genius. Should a library school be established, such libraries would provide excellent models of much that is best in contemporary librarianship. Though not "public" in the accepted sense, the libraries of the French and Italian Institutes deserve notice for the importance of their collections.

The Bookmobile Program. Late in 1957 the Ministry of Education undertook a program to extend free library service throughout the country. Under the direction of Mrs. Stella Peppa-Xeflouda, the librarian of the Ministry, a mobile library service was inaugurated, greatly aided by a four-ton bookmobile, the gift of UNESCO. (Two smaller book trucks have since been provided, one by the government, and the other by the United States Information Service.) With its collection of 15,000 books, the headquarters librarian undertook the establishment of book collections in towns and villages, beginning with the area around Athens and gradually extending its activities to numerous other areas and islands. In each community a collection of 50 to 150 volumes was left by the bookmobile on its first stop, usually in the office of the clerk of the community, and was subsequently exchanged for other books on later visits. These visits are made approximately monthly in the Athens area and less frequently (two or three months) in more distant sections. The secretary of the community, or someone designated by him, acts as custodian; he maintains the records of borrowers and loans, with the materials for registration and other details being provided by the Ministry of Education. In most of the communities the books deposited in the centers consti-
tute the only reading matter available, and they have been enthusiasticly received and patronized, particularly by students and children. Such centers are not libraries in the conventional sense; the collections consist of some children’s books and a miscellany of books for students and adults, but they have served to introduce a considerable number of people to reading.

Needless to say, the centers constitute only the bare bones of a free public library service to Greece. One need not dwell on their limitations; the important thing is that they do exist and may serve as the roots from which a more extensive and far-reaching library service may spring.

The Library Plan. Such an extension of library service is already being planned by the Ministry of Education. Mr. George Kournoutsos, Director of Fine Arts, Belles-Lettres, Theater, and Libraries, contemplates establishment of a permanent library in each of the 50 nomoi or government districts, as a nucleus to provide library service to the neighboring small towns and villages. In short, with the fruition of this plan something like the county library service to be found in England and the United States would blanket the country and would transform the rural areas from a condition of extreme book poverty to one of abundance. However, it would be fantasy to contemplate such achievement in the immediate future. Neither funds nor personnel are presently available; until both are provided, progress must be slow. This is not necessarily bad. The potential reading public must be prepared through better schooling for an interest in and intelligent use of such libraries. Yet a beginning has been made, one that holds great promise for the future. Clearly an interest already exists, particularly on the part of the younger people; it would be tragic to permit such interest to go unsatisfied for lack of funds and personnel to capitalize upon it.

Greece has already expressed its interest in further development of its libraries and in the multiplication of libraries for popular use, by enactment, on November 26, 1949, of Emergency Law No. 1362 for “the establishment, restoration and uniform organization of public libraries throughout the country.” This farsighted piece of legislation included elaborate provisions for the financing, staffing, and operation of the libraries, including a section on library training. Many of the provisions might have to be revised in the light of current conditions, but basic provisions are sound; they may well serve as a basis for further development. Yet if real progress is to be made two things are
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absolutely essential: (1) the allocation of sufficient funds to enable the Ministry of Education to put existing legislation into effect, and (2) the establishment of professional training facilities to insure library personnel imbued with enthusiasm for their difficult task and equipped with the requisite technical competence to carry it out. The two are obviously interrelated; without trained personnel it is difficult to establish suitable libraries, and without the libraries the trained personnel would have nowhere to go. However, as noted previously, the situation is by no means at a stalemate; Greece already has many libraries greatly in need of trained personnel. The establishment of a first-rate library school would soon furnish appropriate means of providing administrators and technical assistants for existing libraries, and at the same time develop a continuing corps to organize and to staff libraries yet to be established in accordance with the provisions of Law 1362.

Proposals for Library Education

In the light of the library situation in Greece and with an eye to potential future developments, a program of library training was proposed. This included suggestions for the location of a library school, a program of study, admission and graduation requirements, and administration. In summarizing these proposals my report to UNESCO stated:

The . . . program has not been conceived as an ideal, but as one that may make possible the development of a solid library profession in Greece. Such a program as has been outlined combines liberal, humanist studies with essential training in the techniques of present and future library administration and development in Greece. One of its aims is immediate: to permit present libraries to solve their many urgent problems; another aim is to prepare others for careers in libraries contemplated for the future. With broadly educated and technically trained personnel available, the Ministry of Education may plan more realistically an increase in the number of libraries, and may put into effect a program admittedly long overdue—to improve the administration of the present libraries and to enhance their book resources. It is pleasant to contemplate creation of the library network broadly conceived in Emergency Law 1362, and envisaged in greater detail by Mr. Kournoutos, the Director of Libraries in the Ministry of Education; and given a corps of professionally trained librarians such development becomes a real possibility for Greece.
In addition to this program, a plan of in-service training, under the direction of the Ministry of Education, was proposed, and the report concluded:

Librarianship in Greece is certainly not dormant, yet it is handicapped above all by a lack of sufficient trained and dedicated personnel. The establishment of a carefully thought-out library school should go far to removing this handicap. Indeed, when one realizes the problems which have beset Greece, one can only admire the progress already made in library development. The nation deserves the greatest commendation for its vision in recognizing the importance of education and culture, in spite of the material demands imposed by wars, internal strife, and poverty. The time is ripe for Greece boldly to move forward in an expanded library program, benefiting from the examples of other countries and at the same time avoiding their mistakes. A library school can contribute significantly to such a program, and with its creation Greece would join the company of other nations throughout the world where the profession of librarianship is a recognized one, one that makes its own distinctive contribution to the maintenance of the better life.

Following UNESCO's receipt of the proposals for library education in Greece, Mr. Preben Kirkegaard, Director of the Danish Library School in Copenhagen, was sent to Greece, in 1962, to follow up the suggestions in the original report. Kirkegaard proposed a program aimed at developing librarians for special and large public libraries, professional assistants, and heads of small public libraries. It called for an independent institution in Athens, with a curriculum geared to the preparation of personnel at different levels. At the present writing a draft bill for an official library school has been prepared and the government is definitely interested. Governmental action, however, has not yet been taken.

In the meantime, education for librarianship has not been dormant. In 1962 the Ministry of Education conducted a seminar in bibliography for librarians in and around Athens. It was attended by thirty-four persons, and at its conclusion a basis was laid for the organization of a Greek library association.

Also, a program of library training was initiated at the YWCA in Athens; this was undertaken at a very elementary level and was not designed to take the place of a state-sponsored library school. Beginning with twelve students in 1962, the program in 1963 enrolled twenty-five students. Courses were offered in cataloging and classifica-
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tion, reader and reference service, administration, and literature and bibliography.

These programs represent a response to a definite need. A solid and permanent plan of library education must await action by the Greek government.

References


Czechoslovakia

FRANCIS J. KASE

The early beginnings of education for library work in the Czech provinces were closely connected with and deeply influenced by the efforts of Ladislav Jan Zivný (1872-1949), a prominent Czech library pioneer. In his capacity as editor of Česká Osvěta, Zivný stressed the importance of professional library education. In his articles and lectures he informed the public about the high development of library education in the United States and Great Britain. As early as 1910, when library education in the Czech provinces was limited to sporadic cases of on-the-job training in a few libraries, Zivný published a comparative study of education for librarianship in the United States, Great Britain, Germany, France, Italy, and Russia, in which he noted the primitive state of library education in Austria-Hungary. His pioneering efforts were at least partially crowned with success when the first course for librarians was organized under his leadership in Prague in the winter of 1918. Another course followed in 1919, this time under the sponsorship of the Ministry of Education and Culture. The next important step in the development of library education was connected with the enactment of the Public Library Law of which Zivný was one of the principal initiators and co-authors.

The Law on Communal Public Libraries of July 22, 1919, became the legal basis for establishing a formal library profession in the Czechoslovak Republic. The law provided in Section 9 that "The management of the library shall be entrusted to a special librarian who shall have a consultative vote on the library board. In communities of

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more than 10,000 inhabitants, the salary of the librarian shall be fixed at such a sum that the librarian may devote his full time to his profession only, while in other communities the librarian's compensation shall be fixed by an agreement.5

This provision was later implemented by Article 45 of the Decree of November 5, 1919:

Only a person who was graduated from at least the senior high school or from an equal educational institution, and had passed, as a rule, after one year of special study, the state examination in librarianship, may be appointed as librarian in a library serving more than 10,000 inhabitants. In libraries serving from 2,000 to 10,000 inhabitants, the position of the librarian may be entrusted to persons who were graduated from at least the upper elementary school, had attended an appropriate special course, and had passed the state examination in librarianship. A special decree shall be issued to regulate the extent of the special education in librarianship.6

Pursuant to these provisions, the Ministry of Education and Culture of the Czechoslovak Republic issued the Decree of January 30, 1920, No. 64.583 ex 1919, by which a State Library School was established to provide for the professional education of librarians of public and research libraries. The school was placed under the supervision of the Ministry of Education and Culture which later issued regulations for entrance examinations and examination rules (Decrees of September 25, 1920, No. 59.981, and of March 21, 1921, No. 21.628, respectively). The curriculum lasted one year and was designed to give students an adequate theoretical and practical library education. An entrance examination was required in order to ascertain the extent of the candidate's general education, his knowledge of Czechoslovak literature, and of the essential works of world literature. Graduates of senior high schools were required to take only an examination in literature and, in certain cases, the entrance examination requirement could be waived entirely.7 Classes at the Czech library school began in October 1920 and were followed on August 27, 1921, by courses at the German branch of the library school.8 The original curriculum of the State Library School consisted of the following courses:

1. Libraries of various categories, their history and present state, both domestic and foreign.
2. Library legislation, domestic and foreign.
3. The law of the press, depository copies.
4. Library administration.
5. General cataloging (including maps and music).
6. Special cataloging (manuscripts, documents, letters, first editions, engravings).
8. Bibliography, domestic and foreign; international bibliographies.

Final examinations were of two kinds, for librarians of public libraries and librarians of research libraries. The examination for the latter category comprised all the before mentioned courses, that for the former was limited to courses 1, 2, 4, and 5. The total registration the first year was 100 students of whom 38 took the final examination the same year.

Simultaneously with the teaching of library science at the State Library School, various courses were organized throughout the country. The legal basis for these was provided by the Law on the Communal Public Libraries and the Decree of the Ministry of Education and Culture of June 24, 1923. The courses were held regularly at intervals of several years in various cities, e.g., in Tábor, Ústí nad Orlicí, and Znojmo during 1924, with an additional German course in Rumburk. At the same time, teachers' colleges added lectures on librarianship to their curriculum, mainly because, as a rule, local school teachers in smaller communities had to carry out the functions of a librarian.

While the opening of a State Library School represented a major step forward in the history of Czechoslovak librarianship, it soon became apparent that the school left much to be desired. The shortcomings were specified in various articles by L. J. Zivný and Bohuslav Koutník. They agreed that the school should have two sections, one aimed essentially at education for the work in public libraries and the other directed toward research libraries. At the same time there were complaints with regard to inadequate space, equipment, and especially the lack of practical training. The director of the State Library School, Zdeněk Tobolka, formerly Director of the Library of the Czechoslovak Parliament, desired a reorganization with regard to the needs of research libraries, while Zivný and Koutník gave priority to public libraries. The controversy about the purpose of the school was interrupted by a sudden closing of the school in June 1927. From the day of the opening of the State Library School in 1920, until its closing in 1927, 169 students were graduated from the school, 80
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of them having completed the requirements for librarians of public libraries and 89 for research libraries.\footnote{12}

In the same year that the State Library School was closed, a new school of library science was established at the Faculty of Philosophy of the Charles University in Prague, under the name “Courses for Education of Administrative and Research Librarians,” with a two or four semester curriculum. The new school owed its existence to the persistent efforts of Zdeněk Tobolka who insisted on having a library school for the primary aim of educating professional personnel for work in research libraries. The courses at the Faculty of Philosophy began in the fall semester of 1927 (Decree of the Ministry of Education and Culture of September 26, 1927). The emphasis in the curriculum was on history and library science proper. In the first year, the following courses were given:

- Introduction to library science
- Library legislation
- Principles of library administration
- General bibliography and cataloging
- History of librarianship in Czechoslovakia.

In the second year:

- Law of the press
- Administration of research libraries
- Special bibliography
- History of librarianship abroad
- History of printing.\footnote{13}

It should be pointed out that the curriculum still was of a merely supplemental nature, and the courses were not considered as an integral part of the study at the Faculty of Philosophy.

Since the State Library School was opened again the following year (1928), the study of librarianship was possible at either one of these institutions. The revised curriculum of the State Library School was largely designed for the librarians of public libraries (Decree of the Ministry of Education and Culture of July 19, 1928). The reformed school had two sections, Czech and German, both with a one-year curriculum.

The following courses were taught at the State Library School:

- Contemporary Czechoslovak (or German) literature with special emphasis on the needs of public libraries
Contemporary world literature
Local (municipal) government law and administration
Adult education, its organization and practice
Fundamentals of psychology with special emphasis on the needs
of adult education and librarianship
Introduction to librarianship and library practice
Library administration
Cataloging

The State Library School was closed several times for lack of funds. There were also many complaints that the school placed too much emphasis on the needs of adult education and neglected librarianship proper. It is estimated that approximately twenty students registered at the State Library School each year. The total number of graduates from the courses at the Faculty of Philosophy of the Charles University in Prague in the years 1927-1939 was 323, of whom 170 were graduated from the junior section and 153 from the senior section (with two state examinations). It has been pointed out that the graduates from the State Library School proved to be more faithful to the library profession than those from the university courses. The graduates from the former school remained in the library profession in a great majority of cases, while those from the university courses remained in the library profession only while studying at the Philosophical Faculty and quit immediately after finishing their studies to take jobs in other fields.

A major reform of the library science studies was undertaken under the German occupation in 1943. The State Library School curriculum was extended to two years, thus dividing the study into two kinds of library education, the lower, one-year school, and the higher, two-year school. The school remained open throughout the entire period of German occupation of the Czech provinces (1939-1945), while the courses at the Faculty of Philosophy were closed simultaneously with the closing of Czech universities in 1939.

Education for librarianship in the liberated Czechoslovak Republic in 1945 was entrusted to the State Library School which successfully survived the period of German occupation. At the same time, the courses for the education of librarians at the Faculty of Philosophy of the University were reopened by a Decree of the Ministry of Education and Culture of October 8, 1945. The State Library School appeared to have been more attractive to the students of library
Education for Librarianship Abroad: Czechoslovakia

science with its total enrollment of seventy students as contrasted to a mere twenty at the courses of the Faculty of Philosophy.\textsuperscript{19} There was a vigorous attempt to remove this dichotomy in library education by the Association of the Czechoslovak Librarians which expressed a demand in its program of activities in 1946 for a unification of library studies in Czechoslovakia. Some librarians requested that library education be concentrated at the Faculty of Pedagogy of the University of Prague, a demand which was at least partly successful in 1948, when new courses of library science were opened in the Department of Public Education and Librarianship at the Faculty of Pedagogy. However, this drive for the unification of library education failed because, instead of two different schools of librarianship, there were now three such schools in Czechoslovakia in 1948-49, the courses at the Faculty of Pedagogy having been added to those of the State Library School and Faculty of Philosophy. In the spring of 1949, the courses at the Faculty of Philosophy were closed, and the activities of the State Library School were terminated at the end of the spring semester of the same year. The courses at the Faculty of Pedagogy were transferred back to the Faculty of Philosophy in 1950, where the teaching of library science was entrusted to a new, independent school.\textsuperscript{20} The school had a two-year curriculum and was put on the same level with other departments of the Faculty of Philosophy. For the first time in the history of Czechoslovak education for librarianship, the school of library science constituted a special university department. In the fall of 1952, the curriculum of the library school at the Faculty of Philosophy was extended to four years.\textsuperscript{21} However, a two-year course of study was still possible, providing the necessary qualifications for semiprofessional work in libraries of all categories. The general curriculum and the content of individual courses were modeled on the plans of study of the Soviet library institutes and were combined with domestic traditions and experience.\textsuperscript{22}

With the reorganization of the Czechoslovak school system in 1953, the study of librarianship underwent a new revision. From then on, education for librarianship was offered on two levels, as secondary school training, where library theory and practice were taught in high schools as a special field in addition to general education subjects, and at the university level. Library education at the high school level is given at special schools devoted to adult education in Prague, Brno, and Bratislava, with a four-year curriculum.\textsuperscript{23} Education for librarian-
ship at the university level was concentrated at the Faculty of Philology of the University of Prague and at the Faculty of Philology of the Comenius University in Bratislava. At the present time, library science at the university level is taught at the Department of Library Science of the Institute of Culture and Journalism of the Charles University in Prague and at the Department of Library Science of the Comenius University in Bratislava.

The basic principles underlying the organization of education for librarianship in Czechoslovakia were outlined by Jaroslav Drtina, Director of the Department of Library Science at the University of Prague, in his report to the International Conference on Education for Librarianship, held in Prague, March 25-27, 1958. Although the study of library science at the university level has undergone a new revision since the conference, its basic principles, stated in Drtina's report are still largely valid. The curriculum, as outlined by Drtina, shows a heavy emphasis on the ideological side which has been increasingly apparent ever since 1948. A comparison of the curriculum of 1945 of the State Library School in Prague (Table I, p. 173), with the principles outlined by Jaroslav Drtina and the courses taught at the Library School of the Faculty of Philology of the Charles University in Prague in 1958 (Table II, p. 175), as well as the courses presently offered by the Institute of Culture and Journalism in 1960, reveals the continuing expansion of political indoctrination in library science courses. The proportion of political education is even higher than the schedule of classes indicates, for Marxist-Leninist ideology has permeated many other subjects, such as history, administration, and even cataloging. Moreover, the so called "readers' guidance" courses are in fact another means of political indoctrination.

The study of library science in Czechoslovakia is divided into three major sections: (a) general studies called "common foundation courses," (b) library science proper, and (c) ancillary disciplines. The common foundation courses consist of classes on Marxism, study of languages, and physical education. The teaching of Marxism-Leninism dominates the entire area of general studies. The courses of political economy require a total of 120 hours of the curriculum, dialectical and historical materialism another 120 hours, and principles of Marxism-Leninism 224 hours. In addition, physical education takes 308 hours of the total. It should be pointed out that physical education and sports are under a strict control exercised by both the government and the Communist Party and that, consequently, courses and various
activities of this kind are largely just another form of ideological indoctrination. A thorough background in the field of common foundation courses is regarded as essential for the study of library science and subsequent practice. It is held that the librarian must first master the Marxist-Leninist ideology in order to learn the right approach to various problems and to grasp the proper interrelationship of the

### TABLE I

**The Curriculum of the State Library School in Prague (1945)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Course</th>
<th>2-Year Program</th>
<th>1-Year Program</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1 2 3 4</td>
<td>1 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introduction to philosophy</td>
<td>2 2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introduction to sociology</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Political education</td>
<td>2 2</td>
<td>1 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introduction to economics</td>
<td>2 2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introduction to psychology</td>
<td>2 2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Readers' psychology</td>
<td>2 2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introduction to public law</td>
<td>2 2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Auxiliary sciences to history</td>
<td>2 2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cultural history of the 19th and 20th centuries</td>
<td>2 2 3 3</td>
<td>3 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Czech literature for librarians</td>
<td>3 3 3 3</td>
<td>3 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>World literature for librarians</td>
<td>3 3 3 3</td>
<td>3 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Science literature</td>
<td>2 2 2</td>
<td>2 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The adolescent and the library</td>
<td>2 2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Descriptive cataloging</td>
<td>2 2 2</td>
<td>2 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subject cataloging</td>
<td>2 2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advanced cataloging</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public library administration</td>
<td>2 2 2 2</td>
<td>2 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administration of research and government libraries</td>
<td>2 2 2 2</td>
<td>2 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Binding and conservation of books and manuscripts</td>
<td>1 1</td>
<td>1 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Special libraries</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reference and bibliography</td>
<td>2 2 1 1</td>
<td>2 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Documentation</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Book trade</td>
<td>1 1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public library laws</td>
<td>2 2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research library laws</td>
<td>1 1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Government library laws</td>
<td>1 1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>History of public libraries</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>History of research libraries</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>History of writing and publishing</td>
<td>2 2</td>
<td>2 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Book arts</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adult education</td>
<td>2 2 2 2</td>
<td>1 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Statistics</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bookkeeping</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seminar in library science</td>
<td>2 2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Typing</td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: (See Reference 53)
economic, political, and cultural aspects of contemporary life. The explanation for the amount of time devoted to physical education by library science students is the need of preparing the future librarians for their physically strenuous profession.

The study of Russian, two additional languages (English, French, or German, according to the student's choice), and Latin, forms an obligatory part of the general studies in the library science curriculum. The interest of the students has turned lately from the study of English to the study of German, apparently in view of the vast amount of German literature in the Czechoslovak libraries. The emphasis on the study of Latin is somewhat surprising and is explained by the considerable amount of Latin works in the collections.28

While this arrangement was well suited to the educational needs of the largest group of librarians, especially those in public libraries and various medium-sized and smaller libraries, it proved inadequate as a preparation for work in technical and scientific libraries. A more pragmatic approach to this part of the library education program, based on a more realistic appraisal of the economic needs, called for specialization other than that offered by the course in humanities. A regular program of technological studies for librarians was instituted in 1955-56. This technical education was devised in such a way as to give the library science students a sufficient background for handling the contemporary technical literature, but not to deal with theoretical or production problems.29 The content and the scope of the courses in technology are shown in Table II, (p. 175).

The sector of librarianship in the narrower sense comprises library science proper, including not only bibliography, cataloging, techniques and organization of library work, history of writing, printing, and books, but also applied pedagogical psychology, work with the reader, a course on the types of libraries, and world library literature. The study of library science is preceded by an introductory course which gives the student a general outline of the scope and purpose of a librarian's work. Unless there are other, more specialized courses, "Introduction to Library Science" is supposed to include the following basic topics:

(1) theory of librarianship, its essence and contemporary meaning, and a comparative study of Western and Soviet library theories, (2) a general outline of librarianship in Czechoslovakia and abroad, as well as forms of international cooperation in librarianship, and (3) problems of library education.

[174]
## TABLE II

**The Curriculum of the School of Library Science of the Faculty of Philology of the Charles University in Prague**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Course</th>
<th>Total hours</th>
<th>No. of Hours Per Week by Semester</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economics</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dialectical and historical materialism</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fundamentals of Marxism-Leninism</td>
<td>224</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Russian</td>
<td>128</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>World language</td>
<td>128</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Latin</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical education</td>
<td>308</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introduction to librarianship</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Theory and history of bibliography</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>World history</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>History of Czechoslovakia</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cataloging</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Practical exercises in cataloging and bibliography</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>History of writing, books and printing</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cultural policy</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Techniques and organization of library work</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pedagogical psychology</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work with the reader</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Special bibliography</td>
<td>116</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>History and organization of libraries</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Russian and Soviet literature</td>
<td>116</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>World literature</td>
<td>244</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Children's literature</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Practical exercises in literature for the children</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work in outside libraries of various types</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exercises in practical library work</td>
<td>224</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Psychology for librarians</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Selected chapters on world library literature</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second world language</td>
<td>116</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introduction to Czech grammar</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Czech grammar</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Theory of literature</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Czech literature</td>
<td>188</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Practical exercises in Czech literature</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ancient Czech literature</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The course is expected to help the student acquire the following knowledge:

(1) correct and progressive view of the social mission of library work in a socialist society, (2) realization that each library or bibliographical project is a mere part of library theory, and that each library is a component part of an organizational whole, (3) knowledge of ideas and organizational principles, especially those governing socialist librarianship, (4) essential knowledge of Czechoslovak librarianship, of the various types of libraries, major libraries, central library organs, etc., (5) knowledge of foreign libraries, in particular, those in the Soviet Union and the people's democracies, as well as of the fundamental problems of the international cooperation in librarianship, (6) knowledge of the problems of education for librarianship in Czechoslovakia and abroad, especially thorough knowledge of education for librarianship at university level, its development, aims, etc., (7) practical methods of utilization of bibliography on library science, library dictionaries and encyclopedias, and methods of getting acquainted with the essential reference literature for books and periodicals, and (8) methods of effective use, for the purpose of independent study, of the libraries of the department of library science and the Central Research Cabinet of Library Science of the University Library in Prague.
"Cataloging" includes descriptive and subject cataloging, as well as special cataloging (manuscripts, incunabula, music, drawings, maps, phonograph records, old prints, microfilms, legal regulations, patents, literature produced by industrial organization, and letters). Not even cataloging escapes the influence of the Marxist-Leninist ideology. A close connection between ideology and cataloging is impressed upon students in the organization and divisions of the classed catalog and the public catalogs.

“Library Techniques and Organization of Library Work” embraces the following fields:

(1) Introductory questions, (2) Theory of library collections (study of library collections, systems of library collections, building of collections, transfer and weeding of literature), (3) Acquisition (sources and technique, accession, designation), (4) Inventory of the library collections and its preparation, (5) Marking of books, symbols, conservation and sanitary protection of books, (6) Circulation techniques, (7) Control of library collections and its reflection in the catalogs, (8) Planning of library work, control of its functioning and fulfillment of planned tasks, and (9) Organization of library work.31

The adequacy of the library technique course was questioned by Drtina in a recent article.32 It was found, in particular, that the theory, as taught at the library school, was far behind actual practice, that this subject was a sort of a “life-saver” for the worst students, and that the students of the advanced technical information course, offered later in the course of study, discovered an entirely new world of techniques of which they had never heard. The author calls for a revision of the course which would effectively eliminate all duplication, especially with respect to library materials, cataloging, classed catalogs, and various automation devices, the latter being by no means an exclusive concern of the course on library techniques but primarily a bibliography and reference problem.

“History and Organization of Librarianship” includes:

(1) History of libraries, either individual or groups of libraries, organization of libraries, their administration and social influence
(2) History of library science, development of views concerning organization, techniques and building of library collections, cataloging and classification, working with the reader, as well as development of education for librarianship
(3) Biography of the leading representatives of librarianship in
Czechoslovakia and abroad; history of library associations on national and international planes.33

"Pedagogical Psychology, with Special Emphasis on Working with the Reader" and "Working with the Reader" are closely connected and comprise courses on general pedagogical psychology, pedagogy for advanced students, and readers' psychology. The knowledge of psychology is regarded as essential not only for the future librarians of public libraries but of research and scientific libraries as well. The psychology courses therefore are also expected to provide instruction in methods of research.

"History of Writing, Books, and Printing" should provide a knowledge not only of the history of writing, book making, and printing in the West, but also of the developments in the East, with special reference to China and India.

"Types of Libraries" consists largely of a series of lectures by practicing librarians from various libraries. It is said to have been a failure with regard to student interest34 and has been discontinued.

"Selected Chapters from World Literature on Librarianship" has as its ostensible purpose to acquaint the students with the latest developments in the field of librarianship, but its content appears to have strong Marxist-Leninist overtones. It is openly admitted that the purpose of the course is political, and that it aims at correcting some "erroneous" views. It has been found that "the students, who know foreign languages, read Western library literature, but do not take their reading critically, and are influenced by superficial phrases which conceal the reality." Therefore, the students are supposed to receive, in this course, an appropriate "explanation of the positive and the negative sides of librarianship in the capitalist countries, as well as the proper solution of the library problems on a world-wide scale by calling to the students' attention the common as well as the different aspects of librarianship in the capitalist and socialist countries."35

The emphasis on the study of "Bibliography" is extraordinary. The initial course includes an introduction to the meaning of bibliography, terminology, various concepts of bibliographical work, history of bibliography, its present development and status, and the organization of bibliographical work in the Czechoslovak Socialist Republic and abroad. The introductory course is designed to provide the students with an adequate knowledge of basic bibliographical tools and their utilization. In succeeding courses, the students become ac-
quainted with general bibliography and, later, with the theory and practice of special bibliography, such as selective and recommended reading bibliographies. During this course, the students learn the art of annotation, from both the theoretical and practical points of view. In further study, the teaching of bibliography proceeds to documentation. Documentation is taught in other courses as well, e.g., in the course on methods of technical and economic information. After mastering the fundamentals of bibliography and documentation, the students have to study special bibliography, e.g., on Marxism-Leninism, as well as current technical and agricultural literature. The specialization of the students in various fields leads to a more intensive study of bibliography which is expected to provide not only a knowledge of the pertinent literature, but also of the basic structure, terminology, developments and main problems in the field of specialization. All bibliography courses consist of lectures and practical exercises.

The study of bibliography is supplemented by a special course, the purpose of which is to explain the general cultural policy of countries in the process of transition from capitalism to socialism. Librarianship, as an integral part of the whole, is expected to fit into the general picture of transition, and the students of library science are therefore to be thoroughly informed about the fundamental problems confronting the government during the transitional stage.

At the present time, there are two graduate schools of library science in the Czechoslovak Socialist Republic, the Department of Library Science of the Institute of Culture and Journalism of the Charles University in Prague and the Department of Library Science of the Comenius University in Bratislava. These two library schools are designed for students who desire a library education at the university level. The admission requirements are about the same as for other types of university education. Librarians who already have a complete university education in fields other than librarianship are not required to study at the above mentioned graduate library schools but have to attend special courses instead. Candidates for the library profession may also enroll in the so called "cultural schools" with special library courses which provide a library education at a lower level. The length of study at the Department of Library Science of the Institute of Culture and Journalism of the Charles University in Prague is five years. However, the five year span includes apprentice-
ship in book manufacture, library practice and, like all schoolwork in a Communist country, a great deal of ideological training. Moreover, the students of library science are selected strictly from the point of view of their political acceptability, because "a thorough political education, correct orientation and work attitude, and a Marxist-Leninist scientific ideology, permeating all library work and reflecting the librarian's attitude, are the basic prerequisites of a successful work performance." 37

The first year of study consists of work in printing shops (thirty hours a week), with only nine hours a week devoted to library studies proper. While the work in printing shops is the main part of the first year's curriculum, practice in other book manufacturing fields, such as book binding, is also included. The next three years are devoted to library studies. At the end of the fourth year the students are required to take a comprehensive examination in Marxism-Leninism, library science, and bibliography. During the fifth year of study, those students who have successfully passed the comprehensive examination may take jobs in libraries and finish their studies while so employed. However, the dissertation must be submitted and accepted within two years after successful termination of the fourth year of study. In addition, an examination in the graduate's field of specialization is required for a diploma. 38

In addition to full-time library studies, the department of library science also offers a five-year correspondence course for practicing librarians from Prague and various regions of Bohemia and Moravia. The correspondence courses have essentially the same curriculum as the regular courses, with oral consultations taking place three times each term, the students being instructed in this way regarding the fundamentals of librarianship as well as various matters which require explanation by the teacher. 39 The course of study continues five years and is designed primarily for employed students. The course content is about the same as that designed for full-time students, but practice in book manufacture is not required. Among the admission requirements are two years of experience in library work and a recommendation from the applicant's place of work. 40

The applications for admission to correspondence courses at the Library School of the Institute of Culture and Journalism in Prague greatly exceed the available facilities. Courses have been offered since 1952, and every year a considerable number of applicants have to be turned down. In the academic year 1961-62, there were only seventy-
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one full-time students enrolled at the school, while there were 107 in the correspondence course.41

Only some thirty percent of applicants were accepted in 1962. The selection was made according to whether or not the admission of a particular student could be justified from the point of view of its "significance to society," or with regard to the importance of the applicant's working place or its geographical location. In practice, higher priority was given to applicants from public libraries, border regions, and the Ostrava region. The committee on admissions decides whether or not a university education for each candidate is necessary. No consideration can be given to applicants who merely want a better job. It is emphasized that admission can be determined neither by the applicant's wish nor by the request from his place of work. The qualifications of the applicant are ascertained at an interview during which the applicant must prove his political maturity as well as basic educational background at least on the level which is usually provided by study at a senior high school. The emphasis on basic general knowledge is strong. It has been pointed out that it is possible to admit to these studies someone who has deficiencies in his knowledge of Marxism-Leninism, librarianship or literature, but that a lack of a general knowledge cannot be excused under any circumstances.42

The following list of lectures, seminars, and exercises required by the library department of the Institute of Culture and Journalism shows the heavy emphasis on the ideological side of the curriculum: 43

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Course</th>
<th>Total Number of Hours</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Marxism-Leninism</td>
<td>368</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical education</td>
<td>160</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Russian</td>
<td>88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>World language</td>
<td>160</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second world language</td>
<td>104</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introduction to the study of librarianship</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cultural policy</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cultural work</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General and special bibliography</td>
<td>212</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cataloging</td>
<td>140</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>History of writing, books and printing</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Library techniques</td>
<td>98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Library practice</td>
<td>224</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General and educational psychology</td>
<td>56</td>
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<td>Introduction to pedagogy for librarians</td>
<td>52</td>
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<td>Course</td>
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<td>Working with the reader</td>
<td>32</td>
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<td>History and organization of the library profession</td>
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<td>Modern printing methods</td>
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<td>Library proseminar and seminar</td>
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Furthermore, each library science student is required to choose one of three fields of specialization, i.e., literature, technology, or natural sciences, and he must also take some additional courses and seminars in his chosen field.

The teaching of ideology is not limited to the main course on Marxism-Leninism but includes other courses as well, such as courses on cultural policy and cultural work. The emphasis on foreign languages is remarkable. It is admitted that English is a dominant language of specialized literature, followed by Russian, French, German, and Spanish. A rise in the importance of Russian and Chinese—at least to the level of the English language—is anticipated. At the same time, a decline in the importance of German and French, counterbalanced by a spread of Hindu, Japanese, Spanish, Indonesian, and African languages, is expected. The future librarians are also invited to study other less common languages, such as Hungarian, Bulgarian, Swedish, etc. Knowledge of Latin is no longer required.

The study of general and applied psychology as part of a library science curriculum is perhaps unusual although certainly not irrelevant. The emphasis on physical education seems quite peculiar. It has already been pointed out, however, that in the Communist countries all physical education, gymnastics, and sports are government controlled and that, to a considerable extent, physical exercises are a part of ideological indoctrination. Among mental requirements, organizational ability, an analytical mind, and rapid thinking are especially stressed. Furthermore, the library science candidates are expected to be proficient in scientific and research methods, because they are expected to become the future “advisers in the methods of study, and work with specialized literature.”

Considerable thought has been given to an effective merger between theory and practice in library training at the university level. This has
been attempted in two ways: (a) junior teachers of the faculty take part in the practical work of a library, and (b) students of the library school are employed in various libraries for a limited period of time. As far as the practical training of the teachers is concerned, it has been proposed that their practice in the libraries be limited exclusively to research work. The frequency of such practical work would vary from one day a week to a full semester of employment. However, it appears that the proposals for the employment of teachers in the library are largely academic, because any extended practical assignment is out of the question in view of the shortage of teachers and their full teaching schedule.47

The study of library science in class rooms is supplemented by practical exercises in the library of the Institute of Culture and Journalism. In addition, students are sent to various libraries throughout the country for a limited time, usually not exceeding three weeks. Although the time for outside practice was extended to a full month during 1961-62, it appears that this method of training for librarianship has been only partly successful. Only a few libraries were willing and had facilities to accept trainees, or groups of trainees, for a limited period of time. In addition, the trainees lacked the opportunity to learn enough during their short stay. The host libraries often do not want to be bothered with an elaborate training program but give the trainees various inferior odd-job assignments, such as moving books from storage, filing, and checking duplicates. A hope has been expressed that some improvement in the practice can be effected by selecting certain libraries with adequate equipment for the on-the-job training of the students on a regular basis and by establishing permanent cooperation between the library school and the host library.48

Moreover, it appears that the directions issued by the library school for the practical training of its students were too vague and unrealistic, such as, 11 days' training in library methods and 13 days in bibliography.49 Under such circumstances, some libraries simply left the trainees alone or gave them some elementary tasks which did not require any instructions or supervision.50 More elaborate plans for the practical training of library science students were set forth in the curriculum of the department of library science of the Institute of Culture and Journalism (described earlier).
FRANCIS J. KASE

University education is, of course, not the only form of training for
the present and future librarians. There are various courses below the
university level designed mainly for voluntary library workers and
library assistants as well as special extension courses for professional
librarians. Such classes are sometimes organized by district (public)
libraries or by the National Library as a correspondence course.51

The program of library training, as outlined in the curriculum of
the library school of the Institute of Culture and Journalism or, earlier,
in that of the Faculty of Philology of the Charles University in Prague,
seems to give serious consideration to the basic philosophical concepts
of the library profession, the proper setting of the library in society,
and the real historical perspective of contemporary librarianship. If
this kind of education for librarianship could be divorced from its
dominant ideological purpose, it would be preferable to the trade-
school approach to library education. However, an educational sys-
tem in which allegiance to an ideology is of prime importance is
bound to value ideological conformity more highly than intellectual
excellence. In the last analysis, such a system is self-contradictory; by
placing a premium on obedience, submission and conformity, and by
denying opportunity to those who are intellectually independent, it
produces mediocrities. Education for librarianship could hardly be an
exception to this rule. Education for librarianship in the Czechoslovak
Socialist Republic, like education in general, still moves within the
narrow bounds of ideology. The library science curriculum is still
burdened with too much Marxist-Leninist doctrinal dogmatism to
show a significant improvement, although there are some indications
that the doctrine is not the sole consideration in teaching library sci-
ence. A statement made by Jaroslav Drtina at the International Con-
ference on Education for Librarianship held at Prague on March 25-27,
1958, to the effect that bibliography is a subject equivalent to Marxism
in the state examination,52 sounds like a move toward a more sensible
form of education.

However, it would be erroneous to be too optimistic about such
isolated statements because it is much too obvious that Communist
pronouncements made at international meetings are largely made for
foreign consumption. Czechoslovakia, as the most obedient of the
Soviet satellites, has little chance to benefit from an educational revo-
lution of the kind which is presently swaying Russia. It is generally
agreed that while an extension of opportunities for mass education
to its people has been one of the major Soviet achievements, it repre-
Education for Librarianship Abroad: Czechoslovakia

sents, at the same time, the most potent seed of change for the future Soviet society. No such revolution occurred in Czechoslovakia where the level of education of the masses has always been far above the Russian level. Moreover, there has not been any perceptible change in the political climate in Czechoslovakia comparable to that in the post-Stalin Soviet Union. At the same time, the Czechoslovak people appear to have learned the wisdom of the maxim “better quiet than dead,” and they do not seem likely to become insurgent in the near future. Under such circumstances a hope for a real, institutional change appears dim indeed, and it can be safely assumed that education in the Czechoslovak Socialist Republic will remain within the strict framework of communist orthodoxy for some time.

References

2. Ibid., p. 30.
12. Drtina, op. cit., p. 84.
15. For example in 1932. See “K zastavení předešlé na Státní škole knihovnické v Praze,” Časopis československých knihovníků, 12:50, 1933.
18. Ibid., p. 92.


24. The Faculty of Philology of the Charles University in Prague was created by dividing the former Faculty of Philosophy into two separate faculties, the Faculty of Philology and the Faculty of History and Philosophy. Drtina, "Bibliotekovedenie . . .," p. 90.


27. Drtina, "Bibliotekovedenie . . .," *op. cit.,* p. 106.

28. The study of Latin has been omitted in the present library science curriculum of the Institute of Culture and Journalism of the University of Prague.


43. Hyhlik, *op. cit.,* p. 304.


Education for Librarianship Abroad: Czechoslovakia

51. Helbichová, Danuše. "Skolení a doškolování knihovnických pracovníků," 
Education for Librarianship at the university level in Poland has a tradition going back to the beginning of the twentieth century, when several of the universities introduced courses in bibliography for students in the Faculty of Letters. Such scholars as Bądtkie, Lelewel, and Estreicher conducted the courses along with their scientific research.

After World War I, in the wake of the new political and cultural conditions in the country, an effort was made to set up a program of studies specifically designed for the training of professional librarians. It was difficult to incorporate such a program in the advanced schools along with the traditional disciplines. Therefore, the efforts of the librarians resulted in the program being introduced only into the Faculty of Social Work in the Free University of Warsaw, which, being a private institution, did not have the right to confer academic degrees. This program, which functioned from 1925 to 1939, was designed primarily for the training of librarians for public libraries. Other candidates had to be content with the several courses organized by the large university libraries, which prepared for the State examinations, both higher and lower, and which had been obligatory since 1930 (interrupted during the war they were taken up again in 1945, continuing until 1948).

It was not until 1945 that the first regular Chair of Library Science (similar to a graduate library school in U.S.A.) was inaugurated at the University of Lodz by Professor J. Muszkowski, eminent specialist in the book-world, who had revived the fine traditions of the pre-war Free University. The Chair was placed first in the Faculty of Humanities, then in the Faculty of Letters.

The scholastic system at that time envisioned two parallel forms of university education. One, four years in length, led to the licence; the

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other, of three years length, led to a professional certificate. This was in response to the urgent need of all professions whose pre-war personnel had been dispersed. It was essential to make up the loss quickly. In the first instance, library science was treated as a specialization of two years in the third and fourth year of studies in the Faculty. It led to the licence in library science. The program, elaborated in detail by Muszkowski, included the usual subjects of librarianship, such as history of books and libraries, bibliography, library science, and public libraries, and also subjects in the areas of bookselling and publishing. His idea was to organize a center of studies not only for librarians, but for all workers with books, including booksellers and publishers, as well as research workers and educators.

The other program was considerably reduced and restricted to library science courses introduced in the final third year of philosophy, history, and sociology. Ending in an examination, the courses led to a professional certificate. They comprised 210 hours of lectures and seminars and 180 hours of practical work in a large library. The students were taught library administration, book selection, cataloging, bibliography, and services to readers. The aim was practical, not theoretical. This form of education was not satisfactory in the long run.

The entire system of higher education was modified around 1954, and the course of study extended to five years. Following the general changes, a five-year library education program, similar to the other disciplines, was set up in the universities of Lodz, Warsaw, and since 1957 at Wroclaw. The Chairs of Library Science are in the Faculties of Letters; the course leads to a licence in library science. The program includes three groups of subjects. In the first group are subjects required of all students such as philosophy, Polish history, logic, economics, and foreign languages. These are adapted to the requirements of the librarian. For example, the history course includes a survey of the principal historical sources and publications, and logic prepares one for the classification of books. Three modern foreign languages, in addition to the required Latin, are required; the other departments require only two. Included in the second group are library science subjects, treated both historically and practically, which include history of books and libraries, librarianship, public libraries, and bibliography. From the fifth semester on, there are in addition two parallel alternative courses, one concerned with special collections, such as manuscripts, maps, prints, and music, and the other with problems
relating to publishing and book-selling. Noted in the third group are other required subjects, including a comprehensive history of science throughout the ages, its main directions, organization, personalities, and classical works covering 225 hours during the fifth to ninth semesters. The second additional course is outside the library school and includes the history, literature, and bibliography of a discipline chosen by the student from the respective faculties of the University. The students are obliged to take part in various jobs, exercises, prosemars, and seminars and also in a scheme of practical work, covering four weeks, organized each summer in a university library. At the end of each academic year, the students sit for the examinations. The fifth year is primarily devoted to the preparation of the thesis for the licence.

This program is now offered in two centers, at Warsaw and Wroclaw. The third library school, the University of Lodz, after offering an identical program for nine years, has changed its character since 1956. Part of the Faculty of Letters, like the other two library schools, has had as its purpose the preparation of students who, in accordance with the previous academic system, had completed three years of university studies, including some specialized courses in library science, and who were working in libraries. Over a period of two academic years, students are taught the history of books and libraries, bibliography, classification, cataloging, and public libraries, the methods being adapted to the needs of individual employees. Instead of lectures and the usual courses, they are offered outlines and reading lists as a basis for their studies, and monthly seminars are devoted to the discussion of special topics. The seminars of the second year are devoted to the readings for the licentiate thesis. The licentiate in library science is awarded at the end of two academic years upon successful completion of a thesis acceptable to the Faculty and of an oral examination covering two foreign languages, philosophy, history or literature of Poland, library science, bibliography, and a special problem chosen by the student in such areas as cataloging, classification, or public libraries.

The Chair of the University of Wroclaw organized, in addition, some regular study through a five-year correspondence course for the young librarians who for various reasons had not been able to proceed to the university and only possessed a baccalauréat (approximately high school diploma). The program is almost the same as for regular students. The students use handbooks, outlines, and selected reading lists. To facilitate their studies, conferences are arranged each
year in order to supervise work done at home, and at the end of the year there are required examinations. These studies lead to a licence in library science.

All three of the library schools have the right to confer the degree of Doctor. During the years 1952-1962, two hundred and four candidates obtained the degree of Licentiate and eleven the Doctor of Library Science.

In addition to the work of these three library schools, there are other forms of teaching at an advanced level. In order to accelerate professional training and increase the number of qualified librarians in the rapidly expanding scientific libraries, regular courses were organized between 1952 and 1959, intended for librarians employed in libraries of the higher technical colleges and possessing a degree in any subject. These studies, of a self-instructional nature, led to a period of a month's internship in a university library, and at the end of this period a professional examination was held; this was at two levels, higher and lower. One hundred and seventy-two candidates became qualified by this form of professional education. The librarian who specialized in any field of librarianship had during the years 1947-1960 many opportunities to study his specialization thoroughly. Special courses of several weeks duration, devoted to manuscripts, incunabula, maps, bibliography, preservation, etc., and leading to an examination or conference were organized in the large research libraries. Similar provision was introduced for information officers and, more recently, for documentalists.

In spite of its considerable development, the teaching of library science at the university level in Poland still leaves much to be desired. Its forms are not yet stabilized, and it is still a subject of criticism, submitted to constant change and reorganization. The latest decrees of the Government, specifying much more precisely the status of personnel and dividing them into three grades, higher, lower, and administrative (this last is excluded from the professional grades), call for a different preparation for each grade. For the higher grade, reserved for holders of the professional degree and divided in turn into four categories, the candidate must pass a state examination, introduced in 1962, in addition to the licence; this higher grade is for library directors, departmental heads, etc. This raises the question as to whether education for librarianship should be unified, with provision made in the program for all the various needs of a profession which is becoming less and less homogeneous, or whether,
on the other hand, only a basic preparation should be given, with the more specialized studies transferred to courses provided as part of actual professional work in a library. Furthermore the problem, acute everywhere, of adapting library science studies to the needs of special librarians and documentalists, is also an urgent one in Poland. In order to introduce supplementary instruction in library science for graduates in the other disciplines, particularly for those outside the humanities, it is now proposed to introduce in 1964 a two-year university course. The library schools are now preparing this program. There is also the question of the proper proportion between theory and practice, which always arouses sharp controversy. Recent tendencies favor a greater amount of practical work.

Library science instruction at the secondary level is much less developed in Poland. The first attempts go back to the period after World War I. Many courses were then organized by the large public libraries and also by the Librarians’ Association. A school of library training, offering a one-year course, was established 1929-1930. It operated until 1939 in various forms and prepared students for public library work. After World War II the development of libraries served to increase the demand for more systematic instruction, and in 1949 a Center of Library Science was established at Jarocin. It offered regular courses for librarians already working in public libraries. The students had at their disposal a collection of the main publications and a study and work room in the Center itself. During the years 1949-1958, one hundred and thirty courses of different categories were organized by the Center and attracted 5,613 students.

Between 1950-59, five library schools at the high school level were in operation in cities in various parts of the country. At these schools, over a period of four years, the students were taught general subjects side by side with professional courses. The studies led to a professional baccalauréat. During this time the qualifications of public librarians were raised considerably, demanding at least a baccalauréat and two to three years of professional study. As a result, the high school courses were abolished and the work taken over by the Center of Library Science, offering a two-year course for holders of the baccalauréat. The program includes both professional courses, such as history of the book and libraries, cataloging, public libraries, and the preservation of documents, and other subjects, considered necessary for the future public librarian, such as literature, education, and two modern foreign languages.
Apart from this regular professional education, there is a Center of Correspondence Instruction. The courses last a year and are designed for those who possess the *baccalauréat*. They are based upon a series of publications and on consulting centers set up in the regional libraries. This instruction has for its purpose the preparation of students for future professional work and also the improvement of the attainments of those already working in libraries but lacking professional training.
The Union of Soviet Socialist Republics

MARGARITA RUDOMINO

A vast network of libraries exists in the Soviet Union. The immensity of the country, the rapidly growing intellectual demands of the people, the general literacy of the population and insatiable thirst for knowledge, and the great demand of the economy for highly qualified specialists have all contributed to the fact that in the U.S.S.R. the network of libraries, their book collections and numbers of readers have reached exceptional proportions and are expressed in large figures. Thus the holdings of libraries number almost two billion volumes; the general number of libraries of all systems and departments reaches 382,000 volumes, and readers number one hundred million. To serve such an “army” of people possessing the most varied tastes and needs, a great force of librarians is necessary. At the present time in public libraries alone, there are almost 150,000 librarians.

Libraries in the U.S.S.R. are under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of Culture, ministries of education, of higher education, of other ministries and departments, of the Academy of Sciences U.S.S.R., of trade unions, and other social organizations. Depending on their book collections, they are divided into general libraries and special libraries.

Soviet librarians view the library’s role as a cultural-enlightenment institution. They view organizing of the social use of books as one of the active means for Communist education and for raising the cultural level of the masses. The Soviet librarian, as a result, is charged with great educational duties. Thus general cultural demands as well as serious professional ones are made of him such as: (1) mastery of the fundamentals of social sciences, good Marxist-Leninist preparation, satisfactory general development; (2) ability to create a library, for which an understanding is needed of the trends in the

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development of science and an awareness of the books being published; (3) knowledge of book processing systems and of the means for the mechanization of these processes; (4) ability to compile catalogs and various card files, to introduce the readers to them; (5) mastery of the art of reader guidance; (6) ability to compile bibliographic aids; (7) skill in the use of bibliographical handbooks, not only in his native language but in foreign languages; and (8) ability to analyze, generalize and communicate experience in library work.

In order to avoid turning into a simple "preserver" of books, the librarian must constantly follow developments in science and technology, industry and agriculture, and culture and art. He must participate actively in the life of the country and constantly improve himself. Only in this manner will he be able to answer the various questions of the inquiring reader, whose cultural level is constantly growing.

The great changes that have taken place in library education in the Soviet Union will be clearer if we turn to the situation which existed in Tsarist Russia a little over a half-century ago.

At the beginning of the 20th century there did not exist in Russia one educational institution which trained librarians nor one special journal or library society. On the eve of the revolution, Tsarist Russia possessed 25,000 libraries, only half of which (with a collection of almost 9 million volumes) served broad groups of the population. Before the Great October Socialist Revolution, the first attempts in Russia to organize library education and unify librarians into a society of librarianship were extremely timid and could not lead to effective results. Speaking at the first library congress in 1911, one librarian said, "We are all, unfortunately, self-taught and libraries will be serviced by self-taught people as long as there is no awareness of the necessity for establishing schools of librarianship. . . ."

In 1913 in Moscow, the Shaniavskii Public University opened three-week courses "for librarians of public and social libraries," as the announcement read. These were the first such courses ever offered in Russia. There were 358 persons who registered for the courses; more than 100 were refused. L. B. Khavkina organized the courses. She was a well-known student of librarianship and founder of library education in Russia. In determining the goals of its beginning she said, "The time has passed when a librarian was treated as a dispensing machine. The modern library is an educational institution and, therefore, to work in it one must be trained both generally and professionally."
democratic principles were put into practice only after the victory of the revolution.

Library workers have received broad training since the first years of the young republic's existence. In 1918 at the height of the civil war and military intervention, the Institute of Adult Education was opened by order of the People's Commissar of Education A. B. Lunacharskii. Today, this is the Krupskaiia Library Institute in Leningrad. It played a great role in bringing the cultural revolution to Soviet Russia.

Librarianship received the close attention of V. I. Lenin. The founder of the Soviet state saw to the systematic organization of librarianship, the creation of a single system of libraries, and the maximum utilization of all libraries for serving all people and for raising their political and cultural level. Lenin called for broadening the network of libraries and reading rooms; for their immediate supply with literature, textbooks, and newspapers; the establishment of interlibrary loan between libraries; and for the attraction to librarianship of the population itself. He looked after the protection of libraries and book stacks.

Extensive searching for forms of organization in library education led to the creation in the country of the following system for training library personnel. Four independent library institutes (in Moscow, Leningrad, Khar'kov, and Ulan-Ude) and library divisions attached to pedagogical institutes and universities in twelve union republics prepare librarians and bibliographers of higher qualifications. The training of teachers in special library disciplines, as well as of scholars in the area of librarianship, bibliography, and history of the book is achieved through a graduate study program.

The preparation of specialists with secondary qualifications is accomplished in library tekhnikums and in library divisions of cultural-enlightenment schools, as well as in grades 9-11 of high schools with an instruction program in librarianship. Students in both high school and college receive a library education while working (in the evening and correspondence division) and by attending classes fulltime (in the day division).

Library institutes and departments attached to higher educational institutions train librarians of higher qualifications for all types of libraries. In order to enter these institutions, one must possess a high school education and pass the entrance examinations (the number of those desiring to enter, as a rule, exceeds by several times the number
of vacancies). With regard to acceptance in higher educational institutions, as in the Soviet higher school in general, preference is given to those persons who have worked at least two years. At present, about 20,000 students are studying in the four library institutes mentioned previously. Since their beginnings, the institutes have graduated approximately the same number of specialists with a higher library education.

The academic programs of the library institutes and the library departments are divided into four years and embrace three disciplines:

**General disciplines** provide a humanistic education for bibliographers and librarians based on the study of philosophy, political economy, education, psychology, history of the U.S.S.R. and foreign countries, history of Russian and foreign literature, and the fundamentals of modern natural science. The study of one foreign language is obligatory and in technical library divisions, two. This program of courses comprises about 50 percent of the study plan, 2,000 hours being allotted to it.

**Polytechnical disciplines** provide students with a knowledge of the fundamentals of industrial production and agriculture. Four percent of the study plan is allotted to these disciplines.

**Special library disciplines** are provided in courses on the history of the book, history of librarianship, and librarianship and bibliography. The course in librarianship includes the organization and planning of a library network and all divisions of library work: acquisition, processing of books and organization of catalogs, and work with the reader. The study of bibliography is divided into general and special bibliographies, and bibliographies of literature in the social sciences, natural sciences, technology, and belles-lettres. To conform with the tasks of educating special personnel—for public, research, technical and children's libraries—this program includes such courses as the history of children's books, history of technical books, etc.

In the higher institutions of librarianship, qualified instructors, specialists in library and bibliographic disciplines, teach in the various branches of knowledge. Two-thirds of the teachers in the Moscow and Leningrad library institutes possess scholarly degrees and ranks. Teachers of special library disciplines are closely connected with the practical work of libraries and utilize their rich experience in their courses.

The special library disciplines occupy about half the academic pro-
gram. The study of these disciplines is assisted by corresponding textbooks prepared and published by the library institutes: General Librarianship by O. S. Chubar'ian; Library Collections and Catalogs edited by IU. V. Grigor’ev; Work with Readers, edited by V. F. Sakharov; History of the Book by I. E. Barenbaum and T. E. Davydova; and Bases of Bibliography edited by A. D. Eikhengol’ts. There are also textbooks for courses in subject bibliographies. A great deal of student time is devoted to practice work in libraries. Students in the first year combine study with practice work in libraries and in the fifth year are directed to apprenticeships in regular library appointments.

The institutes have available special academic buildings, auditoriums for lectures, special rooms for practice classes, and their libraries. The library of the Moscow Library Institute, for example, has a book collection of half a million volumes; the library of the Leningrad Library Institute numbers about 250,000 books. The library institutes publish “Transactions,” “Scholarly Papers,” and other periodic publications in which are printed articles by the faculty and the best work of the graduate students. Undergraduate work and materials of teacher-worker conferences are published in special collections.

The institutes always maintain ties with their graduates, including those working in the far corners of the country. From time to time graduates gather at teacher-worker conferences in the institute from which they graduated. At these unique “library readings” they give reports, communications, observations, and generalizations from their experience. The participation of the institute teachers helps the librarians to interpret the results of their activity and to plan for the future. Thus there occurs the mutual enrichment of the teachers and the practical library workers.

Library workers not possessing a higher library education can receive one without taking time off from their work. They attend the evening or correspondence divisions of the library institutes. The requirements for acceptance at these divisions are the same as for the day divisions; the period of study in the correspondence and evening divisions is five years. Librarians who work in cities where there are library institutes are accepted in the evening divisions. Four-hour class sessions are conducted at the end of the working day in the evening four times a week. The programs and academic plans of the evening departments differ in no way from the academic plans of the basic day departments. Lectures are read by the same profes-

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sors, and examinations are the same as those given to the day students.

In general, library workers possessing no special library education are enrolled in the correspondence departments. They live and work in cities, regional centers, or villages where there are no library schools. The programs and academic plans of the correspondence departments do not differ from those of the day departments. The study plan of the correspondence divisions is organized in the following manner:

**Beginning session.** Correspondence students of the first year gather together for 10 days in a special session. Introductory lectures in the basic disciplines are read which acquaint students with the fundamental and most complicated problems, and outlines are provided for independent work, etc.

**Independent work in the intersession period.** Having received the study and methods materials, the correspondence students work independently with the literature recommended to them. They complete problems in the period stipulated by the academic timetable (on the average, a student must complete 8-10 assigned problems in each academic year). In the last three years, in addition, the student must write papers in special library disciplines. These are sent for verification to the correspondence division of the institute.

**Examination sessions.** These take place twice a year and last for a month. Besides taking tests and examinations, the students listen to lectures at these sessions, attend seminars and practice classes, and receive consultation. Lectures and methods handbooks are published regularly to aid the correspondence students. Consultation centers are organized in those cities where the number of correspondence students exceeds 200. Thus, for example, the Moscow Library Institute has consultation centers in Saratov, Rostov, Kalinin, and Novosibirsk. Students living in these cities or in the oblast can receive consultation and attend examination sessions without going to Moscow. At the present time nearly 10,000 librarians are receiving a higher library education through correspondence divisions.

Librarians who have not received a higher education in library institutions and who have various specialties (chemists, physicists, mathematicians, biologists, doctors, historians, economists, etc.) can study librarianship at higher courses for young specialists at the institutes or at the larger libraries. The period of study for these courses is two years; classes meet two or three times a week for 4-6
hours without interruption from work. In the last ten years, 350 young specialists have finished courses at the Lenin State Library. The courses train librarians of higher qualifications for research libraries, based on the higher education they have already received. The Moscow and Leningrad library institutes and the Library of the Academy of Sciences U.S.S.R. have created programs of graduate studies. These programs train scholars in librarianship and bibliography, as well as prepare teachers for library educational institutions. Persons accepted in these programs have a higher degree in librarianship and display an inclination and ability for research work. Training in the graduate study program consists of three years of full time attendance and four years if the student continues working. At the end of this period the graduate student is obliged to defend a dissertation on a selected theme in librarianship or bibliography. If the defense is successful, the student is awarded the degree Candidate of Pedagogical Sciences with a speciality in “Librarianship” or “Bibliography.” All graduate students, as well as undergraduate students, receive a state stipend. In the last few years, 150 dissertations in librarianship, bibliography, and history of the book have been defended in the U.S.S.R.

For the preparation of librarians with secondary school qualifications, there are library tekhnikums and library divisions attached to cultural-enlightenment schools. At the present time there are about 100 of these in various cities of the Soviet Union. These secondary school institutions train librarians mainly for rural libraries, but also for regional, city and children’s libraries. Those who have completed a general secondary school and passed the entrance examinations are accepted in the library teknikums and cultural-enlightenment schools. The period of study is two years. In the Russian Federation alone there are 20,000 students enrolled in secondary school institutions.

At the present time three library subjects are taught in secondary library schools: “librarianship,” “bibliography,” and “organization of collections and catalogs” (reader guidance occupies an important place in this course). Special subjects studied, besides those disciplines named, are the bases of agricultural and industrial production, speech, poster making, binding, and a foreign language. A knowledge of all these subjects is necessary to the future library worker. Besides class practice studies, academic and practical work occupies a large place in the training of library specialists.

As regards to the programs of grades 9-11 in secondary schools
where some librarianship is taught, general classwork occupies 24 hours a week, and 12 hours a week are given to the study of special subjects. The academic plan of a library tekhnikum forms the base of their program with some reduction of the material in the special disciplines. This training provides the student graduating from such a school with the possibility of working in libraries as a library assistant. There are also evening and correspondence divisions attached to secondary library schools. About 10,000 working librarians study in these divisions yearly.

Other possibilities exist for raising the qualifications of working librarians. Almost all libraries of the country systematically organize courses for increasing the qualifications of their employees according to their training for a given type of library. Methods divisions of republic, oblast, and regional libraries conduct seminars for libraries within their geographical area. In these seminars, separate problems of librarianship and bibliography are discussed, and the newest developments are studied.

The undoubted successes in the area of library education in the U.S.S.R. have been achieved most of all through the continual and unfailing aid of the state. While the first library courses of L. B. Khavkina existed exclusively through the charitable aid of private persons, this still did not free the student from payment of a monetary fee, since such aid did not cover all expenses. But today, all library education in the U.S.S.R. is free on all levels. In addition, the students receive a government stipend. Non-resident students and pupils of secondary schools live in dormitories. Special cafeterias, clinics, gymnasiums, and other living and cultural establishments are all available to the students.

The state has created every possibility for those who wish to study. It is worthwhile mentioning the system of advantages for students of correspondence and evening divisions. The goal of these divisions is to encourage interest in receiving an education and in every way to lighten the difficulties of combining study with work. Thus, while working in libraries, students of correspondence and evening divisions of departments of institutes get a month’s leave during the examination period and still receive their salaries. In the last or fifth year, they are given an additional month’s leave for preparation for the state examinations, again with the continuance of salary. The cost of the correspondence student’s trip to the examination session is paid.

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Another graphic example of the state's interest in the development of library education is the establishment of a new East-Siberian library institute, which opened for classes on December 1, 1960. Youth from 15 regions and oblasts of Siberia and the Far East receive an education in this institute. They represent 11 nationalities: Russian, Buriat, Yakut, Evenk, and many others. The main library of the institute in Ulan-Ude numbers 100,000 books and journals. By 1965, 2,700 students will be studying at the institute, including 1,500 in the correspondence division. In addition, 600 practical workers will increase their qualifications yearly at the institute. At present, a special town is being constructed for the library institute on a large scale: a dormitory, a building for the main library to hold 500,000 books, class buildings, a faculty residence area, and a stadium.

The system of higher and secondary library education existing in the Soviet Union has fully justified itself. A vast force of specialists in librarianship has been trained. They are working successfully in libraries of various types. In the near future this force will be constantly increased on an ever growing scale. Much work now being done by librarians, especially by those with secondary qualifications, will be mechanized. The demand for specialists with a higher education will constantly grow. The future of libraries as establishments for the collective utilization of books and the future of the library profession during the full building of Communism is a question repeatedly raised in the pages of our special publications. In spite of the vast role of television, radio and broadcasting in information and education, the book, as experience has shown, remains important as a source for intellectual development, and reading in the future will remain an essential need for every person. This need will be strengthened by the growth of intellectual inquiries in the Soviet man. The program of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union recognizes that the complete development of book publishing and printing in our country is one of the basic means for the development of the Soviet society.

In the future, the libraries will have the widest participation of society in their work. This, however, will not lessen but raise the role of the professional librarian as a qualified guide in the library, one able to organize correctly the collective use of the book and to advise on reading. In the future, the librarian in any library must have a higher education. The Ministry of Culture of the Ukrainian SSR has already begun the training of librarians with higher library education
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at a rate that will provide rural libraries with highly qualified specialists. The task of training librarians with a higher education for school libraries is also being considered.

Soviet librarians have discussed among themselves what they consider to be the best forms for training personnel for research libraries. There are two opinions: some consider that it is necessary to create special departments in library institutes for training librarians for research and technical libraries; others propose the creation of higher library courses attached to library institutes and to accept there librarians having a higher education in other disciplines and to teach them librarianship. Classes in these courses, for example, will give to the historian working with history books, or the chemist working with chemical literature, a speciality as a librarian. Each of the opinions has its advantages and at present both are being put to practical use. The training of specialists for research and technical libraries is also connected at the present time with the training of documentalists, workers in centers of scientific and technical information. Special courses exist for this as well as a graduate program in the All-Union Institute of Scientific and Technical Information. Also, a department of scientific information has been newly organized at the M. V. Lomonosov State University in Moscow.

In the future, new library institutes will be opened, and there will be new training centers in the union republics. The needs of the country are vast, as are the demands made on the representatives of this peaceful, honorable and very needed profession.

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Turkey

OSMAN ERSOY AND 
BERIN U. YURDADOĞ

From ancient times Turkey has been recognized as “the cradle of the libraries.”¹ Thousands of clay tablets were excavated at Hattusas (present Boğazköy), the capital of The Hittites. During the Greek and Roman periods Pergamum and Efesus were well-known for their libraries. The making of parchment in Pergamum (present Bergama) was quite a significant contribution to the culture of that period.

In the Middle Ages one of the greatest libraries of the world was located in Istanbul. It is a pity that this library was destroyed by the Crusaders.² Fortunately, other libraries were quick to appear and fill the gap created by the destruction of one library. The conquest of Istanbul by Mehmet the Conqueror was a source of anxiety to the rest of the world for some time. But “the proud tradition of Byzantium did not die in 1453; . . .” as Dr. L. S. Thompson rightly stated, “. . . for the great libraries of mediaeval Constantinople were not transferred in their entirety to Italy but were liberated in part by Mehmet the Conqueror, a humanist in the best sense, for the library of the Topkapı Sarayı (the so-called “Seraglio”), where remnants may still be seen.”³

During the Seljuks (1071-1308) and the Ottomans (1300-1923), book making reached its excellence with richly decorated and illuminated manuscripts. Several of the Turkish libraries today, especially Stileymaniye Library, contain excellent examples of these manuscripts.

Though the libraries go back far in history, and though librarianship as a profession has a long past, education for librarianship is quite new in Turkey. Modern librarianship starts, as everything else in Turkey, with the Republican era. When John Dewey was invited to Turkey in 1924 to study the educational problem in general, he prepared an

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official report. Among his recommendations was a clause about training librarians for existing libraries. He suggested that some young people should be sent to the United States to study libraries. He also pointed out that a course on library practices should be set up in at least one of the teacher training colleges to train librarians for small libraries in small and remote communities.  

Whether due to John Dewey’s recommendations or to some other reason which made the need more pressing, Fehmi Edhem Karatay, a promising young man, was sent to Paris to the “Ecole de Bibliothécaires established in 1923 under the aegis of the American Library Association.”

Upon his return to Turkey, Karatay, the very first Turk who was sent abroad to study library sciences, was appointed Director of Istanbul University Library. When he found out that there was literally no other trained librarians besides himself, he decided to set up a course, the first on this subject in Turkey. The course was given to the practicing librarians in Istanbul libraries, from September 15, 1925, to May 1, 1926. The treatment of the subject in the course resembled that of the American school in Paris. Thus, together with a new system of education, the concepts of modern librarianship and practices such as preparing dictionary catalogs or using the Dewey Decimal Classification were introduced to Turkey within the first three years of the Republican era.

The second course in library science was slow to follow. When the Higher Agricultural Institute was founded in Ankara and Dr. Josef Stummvoll was asked to establish and organize a library for the Institute, the same problem was faced again—lack of trained personnel. Therefore, Dr. Stummvoll set up a three-month course in the beginning of 1936. The course was not restricted to the librarians of the Ministries alone, but was open to all who showed an interest. When the course was completed an examination was held, and those who passed it were given certificates.

The third course in this field differs from the first two by its consistency. Adnan Ötügen, founder and Director of the Turkish National Library was sent to Germany to study librarianship. On his return to Turkey his chief concern was to impart his newly acquired knowledge on the subject to others. The most important factor which gave prestige and consistency to his course was that it was set up at the Faculty of Letters. When it started in March 23, 1942, however, the course was an evening class open to the university students as well as others
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interested in the subject. Therefore, the educational background of the students varied from junior high school up to university level. In 1952 the course was recognized as an optional course of the Turkish Department of the Faculty of Letters. With this character, the course went on until the establishment of the Library School (the present Chair of Library Science) in the same Faculty.

While Adnan Ötükken was busy with his courses, Aziz Berker was appointed Director (presently General Director) of Libraries, Ministry of Education. Unlike Karatay and Ötükken, he had no chance to go abroad to study library science. But he was a man with uncommonly sound common sense. He educated himself on whatever literature he could find and he made a thorough inspection of the libraries which fell under his responsibility: archival, public, children's, and school libraries. Since there were many problems to be solved and it was necessary to take them one at a time, he decided to give priority to the personnel problem along with a new law pertaining to libraries and librarians.

In 1941, before Adnan Ötükken started his courses in Ankara, he suggested that what Turkey needed was a school of library science to educate (not just to train) librarians. At that time there were some faculties giving university education in Ankara, but they were not as yet united as the University of Ankara. Since most of the libraries were in Istanbul, and the University of Istanbul was a well-established institution, he suggested that the University of Istanbul was an ideal place for the kind of library school Turkey needed. When this could not be realized, he set up courses for librarians working in archival, public, children's, and school libraries. These courses were held in the summer and are still going on. After the establishment of the Chair of Library Science, the Ministry and the Chair combined their activities to get better results.

Another course which had a lasting effect on the development of library education in Turkey was given by Dr. Lawrence S. Thompson. When he was invited to come to Turkey, Dr. Thompson prepared and executed a heavy schedule for himself. In addition to the inspiring report he prepared after he had seen the status of libraries in Turkey, he directed and gave a course for librarians.

The urgent need for a library school became more pronounced when Dr. L. S. Thompson's suggestion was supported by a group of Turkish and American librarians, among whom Mrs. E. A. Heilman (then Mrs. Emily Dean, the Director of the USIS Library in Ankara)
should be specially mentioned. "The enthusiasm of the Ankara group for the project," as Robert B. Downs points out, "convinced officials of the Ford Foundation, who, in 1954, approved a four-year grant to the University of Ankara, to inaugurate the program. . . . At an early stage, the American Library Association was asked to step in and assist with the establishment and direction of the new school." 12 In 1955 Mr. Downs came to Turkey to work on the organizational phases and teach the first classes.

With an idea of giving it more flexibility, the school was called the Institute of Librarianship, not a chair, in the beginning. After Mr. Downs’ short stay, Elmer M. Grieder came for a two-year period. In spite of his heavy schedule at the Institute, Mr. Grieder found time to give intensive courses to a group of teacher-librarians on school libraries, at Gazi Training College for Teachers in Ankara. For the second two-year period Dr. Lewis F. Stieg came as Director. By that time the number of students had increased to such an extent that it was impossible for one person to administer the institution and give all the lectures in a foreign language, and with the help of only two native assistants. Therefore, another American professor had to be added to the teaching staff. Upon Dr. Stieg’s and Miss Norris McClellan’s return, a serious problem had to be faced. The four-year grant from the Ford Foundation had expired, and the Turkish staff was not yet ready to take over the responsibility. An additional two-year grant brought Dr. Carl M. White and Miss Anne Ethelyn Markley to Turkey and made it easier for the Turkish staff to prepare themselves for responsible positions. In July 1960, the Institute of Librarianship was changed into a Chair of Library Science to give it a better academic status. 13 After the Ford Foundation’s additional grant expired, the Faculty of Letters applied to the Fulbright office and thus could invite Miss Nance O’Neall and Dr. Ralph H. Hopp, each for a year. In the academic year 1963–64 Dr. Arthur McAnally will serve as the last Fulbright professor. By that time it is hoped that the Chair will have a stronger Turkish staff, consisting of two associate professors, one assistant professor, and one instructor with the Ph.D. and another assistant professor about to take his Ph.D. Ever increasing number of students will certainly create new problems for the staff.

As for the instruction, when it was an Institute the library school was planned to give both undergraduate and graduate courses. But it did not work out as planned. Those who came with a high school diploma completed their education in four years (eight semesters)
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with a strong liberal arts background, and were awarded a B.A. degree. A university graduate, however, spent two years (four semesters) and was awarded only a certificate, not an M.A. degree to show that he had completed graduate study. Therefore, the graduate course had to be dropped.

Another factor bothering the staff was that the students were obliged to obtain all their minors in the Faculty of Letters. New regulations give more freedom to the students and greater flexibility to the curriculum. Now the students can obtain their minors in any of the faculties of the University of Ankara.

Contents of the courses are more or less the same as in any modern library school. Since the aim of the Chair of Library Science is to educate rather than to train, the emphasis is upon principles and philosophy of librarianship rather than the technical skills. This is to be expected, as the trends in library education follow closely the trends in other countries, especially in the United States. Yet it is found that Turkish students must also be given practical work, since the number of “modern” libraries is not high, though the libraries per se are quite numerous. Experiments are going on to find a proper balance between the theoretical and the practical aspects of library practice.

The staff believes that a curriculum with a dynamic character will give better results. Though titles of the courses are usually retained as they are originally decided, the content shows a change when the need arises.

The number of students is more than can be adequately educated by the present staff. Besides the increasing interest in librarianship as a profession, the Emily Dean Award, given for excellence in the graduation thesis, is a strong factor in attracting better students to the Chair. Yet Turkey needs more trained librarians than the Chair can possibly prepare. The statistics from 1958 to 1962 with the year of graduation first, and the number of graduates following are: 1958, 8; 1959, 8; 1960, 32; 1961, 19; and 1962, 23.

Seventy-five percent of the graduates prefer to take positions in special libraries. The salary situation in the other libraries is not good enough. Simply to meet the needs of the libraries under the direction of the General Directorate of Libraries of the Ministry of Education, Turkey should produce 1,758 well-trained librarians. Obviously, at the present slow pace, the graduates of the Chair of Library Science will not meet this need for many years to come. More library schools are needed, but before they are established there must be careful
planning so that the mistakes made in the present school are not repeated.

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7. Ibid., p. 6.
8. Ibid., pp. 7-24.
9. Milli Egitim Bakanligi, Dosya No. 5032/2/228, November 27, 1941.
10. Ötüken, op. cit., p. 34.
14. In the Turkish educational system, the schools one has to attend before entering the university are elementary school (5 years), secondary or junior high school (3 years), and lycée or senior high school (3 years). Kindergarten education in the beginning is optional and unofficial in Turkey. Thus a child starting to go to school when he is 7 years old, will normally graduate from lycée when he is 17 or 18 years old. The normal university education is 4 years. But it requires a six-year university education to be a physician or an engineer.
CURT D. WORMANN

Education for librarianship can only be understood in relation to the development of libraries themselves; therefore, this article begins with a short historical survey of the library situation and the cultural and social factors influencing it.

The early Zionist leaders and thinkers, who dreamed of an independent Jewish state in Palestine and who laboured to bring it into being, were inspired by the ideal not only of building a physical homeland for the Jewish people, but of creating in it the conditions necessary for a renaissance of Jewish culture. They realized that libraries were an important tool in fulfilling this goal. Therefore, in the last twenty years of the 19th century libraries were founded in the Jewish part of Jerusalem and in Jaffa, the center of the new Zionist immigration to Palestine, by scholars and teachers. Books were sent from abroad for this humble beginning of the library movement in Palestine. Collections of books were to be found in new rural settlements in spite of all the difficulties and uncertainties of daily life and the poverty of the new immigrants. As the Hebrew language was revived and renewed, books and literature in that language formed the core of the new libraries.

Amongst the Zionists of the pioneer period were Jewish professional librarians in various European countries who realized from the beginning the importance of libraries for all educational and cultural activities, especially in the planning of a university in Jerusalem.

As early as 1905, Dr. Heinrich Loewe, Senior Librarian at the University of Berlin, published a pamphlet Eine Jüdische Nationalbibliothek in which he stressed the need for a library program and a library system. In his opinion the national library should be not only an academic library but also a public library, and he especially mentioned "free public libraries" in the United States and England, as the author is Director of the Jewish National and University Library, and Director of the Graduate Library School of The Hebrew University, Jerusalem, Israel.
well as the new public library movement in Germany. In strong terms he stated that it was not sufficient to collect books, but that professional knowledge was necessary for arranging them and making them available. "It would take expert work to transform the book treasures in Jerusalem into a real library. It should be observed that Hebrew and Hebraistic knowledge, desirable as they are, just the same as the most comprehensive Semitic studies, are far from qualifying a person as a librarian. Likewise the concept of bibliography is in no way identical with library science. . . . For the successful establishment and growth of the library in Jerusalem it will therefore be necessary for a young scholar, at the beginning of his career in Europe, to be trained as a librarian so that later he could create a Jewish library school for his institution."¹

This vision of a Jewish library school was realized fifty years later! Only after the First World War, during the time of the British Mandate of Palestine, was the Zionist movement able to work on a broader scale. In 1920 the World Zionist Organization took over full responsibility for the library in Jerusalem, which then contained some 30,000 books, giving it the name of The Jewish National Library. When the Hebrew University was opened in 1925, the Library was integrated into it and became known as The Jewish National and University Library. The library of the Zionist immigrants in Jaffa was transferred to the new Jewish city of Tel Aviv and was developed as the first large public library.² In 1920 the Zionist Organization appointed Dr. Hugo Bergmann, formerly of the University Library of Prague, to the post of Director of the Library in Jerusalem. He was given the task of creating a national library for the Jewish people which was to be the central library of the new Jewish community in Palestine and the nucleus of the new university library. Dr. Bergmann, in the face of great difficulties, but with the help of friends of the Library all over the world, succeeded in building up a remarkable collection of books in a comparatively short time. In 1929, when the Library moved into its new building on Mount Scopus, it possessed over 225,000 volumes. Bergmann also created a real spirit of teamwork; in the first years he was not only the outstanding library pioneer, but also the only professional librarian. "There was then no trained librarian in Palestine and the country had absolutely no library tradition."³ Bergmann, who was educated in the tradition of central European academic libraries, decided nevertheless to introduce the American system "not only because of its technical perfection, but also because

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of its public spirit in placing the reader at the center of all library planning.

Bergmann had always known that in spite of the devotion and enthusiasm of his co-workers, and in spite of much practical on-the-spot training, libraries in Palestine could not be developed systematically without professional librarians. In 1924 he visited the library school of the American Library Association in Paris and arranged that every year it would train one or two librarians from the staff of The Jewish National and University Library in Jerusalem. The year 1925, in which the first librarian from Jerusalem went to this school for professional education in librarianship, marks the beginning of library education in Palestine, although, as in the case of many newly developing countries, this took place outside the country. Two members of Dr. Bergmann's staff studied for two years at the School of Librarianship and Archives, University College London, and one librarian, educated at the school in Paris, went for further training to the United States. In the same period Bergmann invited two professional women librarians, trained in the United States, to put American methods into practice in the Jerusalem library, especially in the cataloging and classification departments.

Among the immigrants who came to Palestine after 1933, there were professional librarians from European countries, some of whom had held responsible positions in general libraries but who had been expelled by Nazi Government legislation. For many of them library work in Palestine, under entirely different conditions and without a thorough knowledge of the Hebrew language and modern Hebrew literature, was extremely difficult. Nevertheless, a considerable number of them overcame the obstacles. The need for more professional librarians increased with the formation of new libraries of different types as an outcome of the rapid growth of the Jewish community.

The Histadruth (General Federation of Labor), realizing the cultural and educational significance of libraries, established a special Library Department which supports many libraries in town and country, and for some time ran a traveling library. This Department and the organization of communal settlements (Kibbutzim), which possessed considerable library collections, tried to train their librarians by giving them an elementary knowledge of library techniques. They worked together with The Jewish National and University Library in Jerusalem which was from the beginning the center of the library movement in the country.
CURT D. WORMANN

Professor Gotthold Weil, successor to Hugo Bergmann and former head of the Oriental Department of the Preussische Staatsbibliothek in Berlin, wrote in this connection: "Special attention was given to strengthening relations with the agricultural settlements. As a result of two official trips which I undertook in 1943, when I inspected 50 libraries in communal and other agricultural settlements, a course of one week's duration for librarians in workers' settlements was arranged in February, 1944, in which the whole Library staff participated. The libraries of some village councils and municipalities, too, were inspected at their request, and their librarians trained at our Library for some time." 6

During the years of the Second World War, it was impossible to send librarians for professional training abroad; moreover, it was clear to all responsible librarians and educators in Israel that, without detracting from the value of foreign library education, a solution for systematic library training had to be found within the country itself. This was not a question of national pride but of real cultural necessity; the conditions in Palestine as in every newly developing country were not comparable to those in the United States or Europe. A synthesis of different library trends and methods had to be found as a creative accommodation to the needs and purposes of the country. Therefore, when the author of this article was appointed to the post of Director of The Jewish National and University Library in October 1947, he saw as one of his most important tasks the organization of a library school in the framework of the Library and the Hebrew University. 7 However, a few months later, as a result of the War of Independence, the Hebrew University and the Library were cut off from their home on Mount Scopus, and The Jewish National and University Library with 500,000 books, rare manuscripts and other library treasures was left isolated and unused. (On July 7, 1948, Mount Scopus was declared a demilitarized zone under the supervision of the United Nations.)

Build New Library

The first task now facing the Director of the Library and his staff was to build a new library for the University, a national library for the new State of Israel and a treasure house for the Jewish people. He had to begin from scratch in makeshift quarters scattered throughout the battered and divided city of Jerusalem. 8 The Library had systematically to organize a collection of books, including bibliograph-
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ical tools, reorganize its services, and enlarge very considerably the
scope of its activities to keep pace with the speedy development of
the University and the manifold demands of the new state for mate-
rial of all kinds. At the same time, in spite of all difficulties, The Jew-
ish National and University Library had to fulfill an active and de-
cisive role as the national library of the Jewish people in salvaging the
remnants of hundreds of thousands of books from the Nazi holocaust
in Europe and in transferring them from destroyed Jewish libraries
in Europe. In addition, the Library had to safeguard books and
manuscripts from Oriental countries where Jewish communities were
being liquidated.9

Although the National and University Library could not devote
itself to promoting library education on an academic level, the Direc-
tor and many staff members contributed to various activities in the
sphere of education for librarianship. Together with the Division for
Public Libraries in the new Ministry of Education and Culture and
with the Library Department of the Histadruth, the National Library
prepared intensive short courses on different levels for librarians who
were already working in libraries, or who were prospective candidates
for public and school library posts. Their tasks and significance in-
creased almost from month to month as mass immigration to Israel
brought with it the urgent problem of cultural ingathering of new-
comers from different countries with varying backgrounds. Librarians
from the main Library in Jerusalem and from other professionally
organized libraries in the country lectured in these courses. In addi-
tion to these short courses in the form of lectures and seminars, the
Histadruth tried for some time to give instruction by correspondence.

In 1946 the Library Department of the Histadruth, in co-operation
with professional librarians, started publishing a journal for librarians
and bibliographers, Yad la-koré (The Reader's Aid) which was later
taken over by the Israel Library Association. The Histadruth pub-
lished (and still publishes) valuable bibliographical lists to aid li-
brarians and readers.10 In 1950 the Library Department began pub-
ing its Librarianship Series for persons working in public libraries
and in workers' libraries affiliated with the Histadruth. The Library
Department of the Histadruth, together with members of the National
Library and other professional librarians, published in 1954 a Hebrew
translation and adaptation of the 6th edition of the abridged Dewey
Decimal Classification, edited by Dr. I. Joel, Deputy Director of The
Jewish National and University Library. This translation was made

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primarily to create basic material for the previously mentioned librarianship courses. In 1958 a second, revised edition was issued.

In 1952 the Israel Library Association (ILA) was established, and the problem of education in librarianship on different levels came to the fore. This association, whose membership consists of librarians, bibliographers, documentalists, and archivists, takes an active part in the encouragement of professional training. Its bulletin, Yad la-koré, contains valuable material on all aspects of library activities including articles and information about libraries and librarianship in Israel and abroad, as well as specialized bibliographies and translations of many articles originally published in library journals abroad.

All the various institutions and persons connected with librarianship and professional education have always appreciated contact with libraries and librarians abroad. Therefore, continuing the tradition of the Mandate period and the library movement of the 1920’s, the Government of Israel, the University, the Technion in Haifa (Institute of Technology), municipalities, and librarians themselves have tried to obtain fellowships and grants for study in Europe and the United States, particularly for professional education at accredited library schools and for specialized postgraduate studies. Since the founding of the State in 1948, Israel librarians have enjoyed assistance of this nature from UNESCO, the U.S. Government, the special project of the International Relations Office of the American Library Association, the Rockefeller Foundation, the American Medical Library Association, the British Council, and in recent years, the English Friends of the Hebrew University. This assistance continued to be of great value after the opening of the Hebrew University Graduate Library School in 1956. From time to time Israel also enjoys the visits of prominent librarians from various countries who give guest lectures and valuable advice. Some librarians from the United States and England have worked for a time in academic libraries in Israel, contributing to library progress and helping with in-service training.

After the establishment of Israel, the need for librarians increased from year to year in public libraries, libraries of institutions of higher learning, and newly founded special libraries in the natural and applied sciences. The Research Council of the Government, in cooperation with academic libraries, undertook the training of special librarians and the education of documentalists. The half million Jewish books salvaged from Europe and brought to Israel urgently needed processing for all the libraries in the country. At the same time "Many
Jewish scholars, active in various fields in the countries of their origin, have found a new life here. Because of the systematic destruction of European centers of Jewish learning and culture, Jewish research nowadays is carried on mainly in Israel and in the United States.”

For all these reasons, it was impossible to delay tackling the question of a library school. In 1954, after seven extremely difficult years, The Jewish National and University Library, together with the Hebrew University and the relevant government offices, took up the project of a Graduate Library School. Dr. Luther Evans, then Director-General of UNESCO, was approached; he visited Israel in 1954, responded favourably to the request, and succeeded in obtaining the services of Leon Carnovsky, Professor at the Graduate Library School of the University of Chicago, as a consultant on behalf of UNESCO. Professor Carnovsky spent three months in the country in the winter of 1955 and prepared a report of his survey of the library situation in Israel. It is of interest to quote the introductory remarks of his Report: “Education for librarianship in any country can be planned realistically only in the light of its libraries, existing and contemplated. Not only this, but one must always bear in mind such relevant factors as the state of society, both cultural and economic, and the readiness and ability of the nation to support a program of library education and to absorb its products. If this be granted, we must conclude that no program, however sound elsewhere, is necessarily sound in another climate or even at another period; it must always be evaluated in the light of conditions in the country immediately concerned. We shall therefore begin with a brief survey of the library situation in Israel, indicating some general facts regarding existing libraries and attempting to estimate their needs. Then we shall suggest, in broad and somewhat imaginative strokes, a future library development for the country. Against this background we shall consider the nature of a library education program for Israel.”

In the first part of his report, Carnovsky reviewed the library situation in Israel in 1955, and tackled the problem of the then nonexistent library system. He drew up a blueprint for the development of libraries and librarianship in Israel, and came to the conclusion that, without detracting from the value of the various on-going activities in the field of library training: “If a library profession is to emerge in Israel it must be based on a full-scale curriculum within a library school.” In the fourth part of his report, Carnovsky set out in detail the program for the library school, its curriculum, admission require-
ments, teaching staff, facilities, and administration. During his stay in Israel he gave several lectures, and before presenting his proposals and conclusions, he discussed all the questions involved with the relevant institutions and persons. The success of his plan is attributable not only to his excellent report but to his professional authority and his personality. His proposal that the proposed library school should be on a postgraduate academic level and affiliated with the Hebrew University was accepted by the Senate and the governing bodies of the Hebrew University. In accordance with Carnovsky's advice, the Director of The Jewish National and University Library was appointed to the post of Director of the new Graduate Library School.¹⁶

Acting upon Professor Carnovsky's recommendation, UNESCO sent Mrs. Nathalie Delougaz, formerly on the staff of the University of Chicago Library and of the Library of Congress, as UNESCO adviser for two years in order to implement the program of library education in co-operation with the University and its Library. UNESCO also sent books, audio-visual aids, and other technical equipment for the future school. The University obtained a fellowship from UNESCO for a member of the library staff to study methods and trends in library education abroad and to spend some months with Professor Carnovsky at the Library School in Chicago. This enabled him to take over the office of Executive Secretary of the School from Mrs. Delougaz.

Graduate Library School Opens

As scheduled, the School was opened at the beginning of the academic year 1956-57, i.e., in November 1956. In July 1963 the School completed its seventh year; although there were changes in the curriculum as well as in the methods and techniques, the basic trends and principles have remained the same. We shall describe and analyze the main patterns and specific features of the School from the point of view of our current experience and of our plans for the future, and not in strict chronological sequence.

The School offers training for professional positions in four types of libraries: academic, special, public, and school libraries. Candidates for admission to the School must be in possession of a bachelor's or equivalent degree. They must have a command of English in addition to Hebrew, and as a second foreign language either French or German. The course in librarianship extends over one year (in special cases over two), consisting of three trimesters of eleven weeks each,
twenty-four hours a week. Students without previous library experience are required to undergo a period of one month's training under professional supervision in a library selected by the School. On completion of the training period, the student must submit a report on his work.

The curriculum consists of both practical and theoretical subjects. The practical studies, such as cataloging, classification, bibliography, library organization, and administration are devoted to the principles of practical work in the fields. The theoretical courses, such as the history of writing and printing, the history of the library, and the modern library, are aimed at promoting understanding of the functions of the library in the past and in the present. Special emphasis is placed on the library's role in the promotion of research, as well as on its social and educational tasks. At an advanced stage students are expected to attend more specialized courses such as special problems of the academic or special library, palaeography, children's literature, subject cataloging, etc. These courses are connected with the types of work and types of libraries in which the students may be interested. On successful completion of both written and oral examinations at the end of the academic year, students are awarded a University diploma attesting to their having qualified as librarians.\(^17\)

The general set up of the School is very similar to that of American graduate library schools as well as of the School of Librarianship and Archives, University College London. The theoretical subjects are also influenced by methods of academic training of librarians in France and Germany. We try, of course, to adapt the patterns of the above institutions to the special needs of Israel.

After an analysis of all the factors involved and with the full agreement of the University authorities, Professor Carnovsky came to the conclusion that, in the first stage, the students of the School should receive a University diploma, but not a Master's degree.\(^18\) In the coming years we shall have to decide whether the School, on the basis of its consolidation, achievements, and activities in the field of research, should be integrated into the general study and degree program of the University.

With regard to the teaching staff, we followed Professor Carnovsky's suggestion, namely: "We strongly urge that every effort be made to obtain at least one person whose complete time would be given to the School. . . . This person would serve as executive secretary and would be responsible for the daily running of the school. He would
examine applicants, keep records, advise on curriculum requirements, teach one or two of the basic courses, and in general relieve the director of routines."

All the other instructors are librarians from The Jewish National and University Library or other libraries in the country, or members of departments of the Hebrew University or other educational institutions. There are, of course, disadvantages and shortcomings in this system of a part-time staff, but apart from budgetary reasons, it is very difficult to release qualified librarians for a full-time teaching position because most of the libraries themselves are in urgent need of senior librarians for responsible posts. On the other hand, the teacher's daily contact with library problems and his availability to students have their advantages, especially in a country like Israel which is still in an experimental stage in this field.

The methods of instruction are the same as in other modern library schools: classes, lectures, seminars, case and field studies, including excursions and visits to other libraries. The Jewish National and University Library serves as the main laboratory for the students. The Pioneer Women organization in America enabled the University to construct a special wing for the School in the new Library building, and these spacious and functional premises are dedicated to the memory of Sophie Udin, an outstanding American librarian in Israel. The students have a good professional library at their disposal on the premises, and they can also make free use of the holdings of the National Library and its subject reading rooms. The Library has a comprehensive collection of library science books and periodicals.

The Board of the School, on which the governing bodies of the University are represented, has discussed the question of practical experience for students before their admission to the School. The Board encourages prospective candidates to work part time in libraries, during their undergraduate studies, or in some cases to spread their studies in the School over two years, thus enabling them to work in a library at the same time. As already mentioned, the School requires students without previous library experience to undergo a period of one month's training under professional supervision before receiving the diploma. The School further tries to direct graduates to professional positions in libraries which provide adequate additional in-service training.

One of the problems which even today is only partly solved is the lack of text books and other material in Hebrew, which is the teach-
ing medium of the whole University. The Library School and its staff had to start almost from scratch: to prepare a dictionary of library terms in Hebrew and English, to edit collections of study aids, and to translate them into Hebrew. We are still to a very large extent dependent on books and periodicals in European languages; the required reading is mainly in English, and the bibliographical lists contain predominantly American and English publications in the field of librarianship and related subjects.

The Library School has started its own series of publications in Hebrew. The first issue was a translation, published in 1957, of Professor Carnovsky's Report, with a foreword giving the story of the School and containing the detailed curriculum of the first year. The second, published in 1961, was a book in Hebrew on cataloging principles with exercises by Dr. Hannah Oppenheimer, who lectures on this subject in the School. Owing to the heavy demand, a second, revised edition appeared this year. Further publications in this series are now in preparation—on bibliography and on library organization and administration. On the initiative of the Library School and the Israel Library Association, the Reuben Peiss edition of Alfred Hessel's History of Libraries was translated into Hebrew with the aid of a grant from the American Government and was published in Tel Aviv in 1962; short bibliographies of books and periodicals in Hebrew were added to it. This book is helpful for all courses in the history of libraries.

One of the most complicated problems common to all educational and cultural activities in Israel is how to integrate specific Jewish subjects, rooted in Jewish religion and the Jewish literary heritage, into the general scheme of study based on modern Western civilization, and also how to find an approach to the Oriental world. In the School's curriculum, therefore, instruction in cataloging, classification, bibliography, and history of books and libraries, is divided into two parts, Jewish and general; the teachers try to show the distinctive as well as the common features. The specific Jewish studies in the curriculum are also important for librarians from abroad, as Carnovsky foresaw: "It is not too much to expect that, in time, an adequate training programme established here might attract, as students, librarians and custodians of Jewish collections in other countries." In fact, the Library School has had students who have returned to their home countries after graduation and are working in the Jewish and Hebrew departments of libraries there. In addition, we give a special course,

In connection with the development of the National Library, it was mentioned that its first Director introduced the American-English library system, and that all libraries in the country are organized more or less on these lines. This pattern serves as a basis for all applied instruction, especially in cataloging and classification, but the curriculum also introduces students to other systems. For instance, although the basis of the classification course is the Dewey decimal system, an introduction is given to other systems, especially U.D.C., the Library of Congress, Ranganathan, and Bliss. The Library School tries, like other library schools all over the world, to find the right balance between theoretical and practical instruction. The School recognizes, of course, the urgent need of giving young professional librarians the tools and techniques for their work, but we also know that: “. . . a technology is a means, not an end. Lacking theory to give it direction and purpose, it drifts aimlessly.”

The School also has to have in mind the future responsibilities of librarians as educators, helping to shape the cultural and spiritual physiognomy of the new society. The first announcement on the aims of the School already stressed these various aspects: “The purpose of the school is to develop in students the understanding of the role of the library in human civilization, adequate knowledge of books and bibliographies, an appreciation of the needs of library users, and a thorough knowledge of library techniques. Emphasis is laid both on the academic side of librarianship and upon its social and educational role, especially in connexion with the integration of new immigrants into the cultural life of the nation.” We therefore insist that all students be acquainted with the role of the library in society and with the main trends of adult education in this country and abroad.

Library history is presented not only as the history of individual institutions and collections, but as part of the cultural, scientific, and social life of nations with due emphasis on the economic and political factors which have influenced library development. The sociological and historical approach is especially necessary in Israel. Here there is not only the gap between the two cultures (as formulated by C. P. Snow), but also a gap between the values of the Jewish legacy and the trends of modern life. In addition, there is a rather dangerous gap between the cultural and social level of the settled inhabitants and the new arrivals, especially from Oriental countries. Librarians must
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be not only willing, but professionally equipped to help bridge these gaps.

The Graduate Library School is engaged in various activities connected with the development of public libraries in Israel. The School took part in the establishment of a modern bookmobile service in Jerusalem, a gift of the Edmond James de Rothschild Memorial Group. Another project sponsored by this foundation was the founding of a model regional library network. A survey of the cultural needs and means of the population was made in four different regions (both Jewish and Arab) with the active participation of the School. In Jerusalem the first municipal central public library is now being organized with the School’s professional advice.

A model public library in Kiryat Hayovel (in the Hadassah Community Centre, Jerusalem), which serves an area of new immigrants, received professional assistance. This library enjoyed substantial help in the form of books, equipment and audio-visual aids from UNESCO.\(^24\) The Executive Secretary of the Library School, together with a graduate of the Library School, carried out a survey on the reading habits and needs of the users of this library.\(^25\) Similarly, guidance has been given to a modern children’s library in Beth Hakerem (Jerusalem), run by the women’s organization, “WIZO.”\(^26\)

In the last part of his report, Professor Carnovsky deals with the problem of training for archivists and gives a short survey of existing archives in Israel. He comes to the conclusion, endorsed by the University, that it would be preferable to have a separate course of study for archivists, although in co-operation with the Graduate Library School.\(^27\) The University, together with the Government Archives and the Library School, organized a two-year course for academic archivists in 1961–62, and another one is planned for the academic years 1964–65.

The Library School accepts a maximum of thirty full-time students every academic year. The problems of recruiting are more or less the same as in library schools abroad and will not be dealt with here. In spite of the fact that 128 graduates have passed through the Library School, there is still a very severe shortage of professional librarians and documentalists in the country, the main reason being the rapid development of libraries and information centers. In Israel today there are more than one thousand libraries of various types. There is no possibility, but also no real necessity, of training all librarians in Israel on an academic level. The Library School and its instructors
take an active part in providing training on an undergraduate level for junior positions and subprofessional jobs and for librarians working in smaller public libraries. The School puts its premises and facilities at the disposal of the Israel Library Association for refresher and specialized courses. A special committee of the Israel Library Association has now prepared a detailed program for examinations in different stages on an undergraduate level. It is a good sign that early graduates of the School are already active as teachers in courses for beginners and library assistants.

For this kind of instruction and for undergraduate education generally, the problem of professional literature is even more acute than for academic librarians. In addition to the publications already mentioned in connection with the curriculum of the Graduate Library School and the professional journal Yad la-koré, some other publications in Hebrew deserve to be noted. R. Levy, a pioneer in the development of libraries under the auspices of the Histadruth, published *Principles of Cataloguing: A Manual for Librarians*, Tel Aviv, 1959. The Histadruth Library Department published *The Special Library: Management and Organization* by H. Wellisch, Tel Aviv, 1962. In 1960, Eliezer Tibon published *The Book, the Newspaper and Printing* (Tel Aviv), which contains a historical survey and a chapter on libraries. One of the main aims of librarians, bibliographers, and archivists is to encourage the publication of professional literature in Hebrew and to make the general public acquainted with the activities and goals of the library movement in our time.

The Minister of Education and Culture recently appointed a committee to formulate a plan for the establishment of public libraries throughout the country. The committee will draft a Public Libraries Bill and make recommendations regarding the Ministry’s policy for public libraries over the next five years. This committee, whose chairman is the Director of the Jewish National and University Library, will pay special attention to the training of librarians for public, school, and children’s libraries through courses and in-service training. The committee will also be responsible for the development of public libraries in Arab areas of Israel.

Israeli librarians, deeply aware of the ethical principles of their profession, are striving for unity in diversity. They are devoted to expanding the part played by the library in the advancement of learning and culture, and they sincerely hope to make a modest, but not insignificant contribution to the progress of international librarianship.
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14. Carnovsky, op. cit., p. 3.


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27. Carnovsky, op. cit., p. 15ff.

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United Arab Republic (Egypt), Iran, Iraq, Lebanon, and Syria

NASSER SHARIFY

In the October 1959 issue of Library Trends, the "Patterns of Library Service in the Middle East" is skillfully presented by Michael Holloway, the British Council librarian in Iran. A similar article by Lawrence Thompson appeared in the Library Quarterly in 1954.

The term Middle East is used loosely in current literature, and one can neither define it nor indicate what countries it should specifically include. For the purpose of his article, Holloway included the Arabian Peninsula, the United Arab Republic of Egypt and Syria, Jordan, Lebanon, Israel, Iraq, Iran, Afghanistan, and the Soviet Central Asian Republics, but detailed discussion will be limited here to the U.A.R. (Egypt), Iran, Iraq, Lebanon, and Syria, these being the countries assigned to the writer by the editors of this issue. Turkey and Israel, which geographically are components of this area, receive separate treatment in this issue.

Ralph Flynt, in his paper at the Institute on the Future of Library Education, in April 1962, observed "... that library education is the least studied of the fields relating to librarianship." This is particularly true with regard to the Middle East, where the professional training of librarians is still in its infancy. Short papers by Kent and Abu Haidar and by Harby and Fahmy on library education in Arabic-speaking states, which were presented to the UNESCO regional seminar on library development held in Beirut in 1959 and Cairo in 1962, gave brief accounts of certain short courses held in the region, together with information on the Egyptian library school.

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Foreign library experts who have conducted courses of various kinds have, in most cases, submitted reports to the agencies sponsoring their missions and to the respective governments and have often written articles on their particular activities. In this respect, mention may be made of the articles by Bonny,7 Gaver,8 Stummvoll,9 and Akers.10 Articles dealing with general library development in the Middle East such as those written by Holloway11 and Thompson12 and the article on Iran by Galloway13 included sections on education for librarianship. The survey conducted in 1958 by UNESCO,14 _Library Needs in Underdeveloped Countries_, took into account the need for trained personnel for public and special libraries. As can be seen, a study of the problem of training, including an assessment of the work already accomplished in the area, does not exist. Nor will the present article attempt to assess the results of the courses conducted, but will give factual information about them. However, the time has now come to evaluate the courses so far conducted and the progress achieved by the Egyptian Library School.

Although very active in its program for the training of librarians, as will be seen throughout this article, UNESCO has never organized a meeting of experts to study seriously and solely the problems facing education for librarianship in various countries. There is a great need for such an undertaking, to be carried out by UNESCO's Library Division. Regional library seminars and meetings have been organized by UNESCO and other organizations to discuss major problems concerning various types of libraries, with library education figuring on the agenda as it were only incidentally receiving somewhat meager treatment.

Mention should be made here of the recent seminars held in the region at which the need for library training was discussed. These are (1) the UNESCO Regional Seminar on Library Development in Arabic-Speaking Countries,15 held in Beirut (hereafter referred to as the Beirut Seminar) in December 1959, at which Egypt, Syria, Iraq, and Lebanon were present; (2) the UNESCO Regional Seminar on Library Development in South Asia, held in Delhi16 (hereafter referred to as the Delhi Seminar) in October 1960, at which Iran was present; (3) the Cento (Central Treaty Organization) Regional Seminar on Library Development, held in Ankara17 (hereafter referred to as the Ankara Seminar) in March 1962, at which Iran was present; and (4) the UNESCO Regional Seminar on Bibliography, Documentation, and the Exchange of Publications in Arabic-Speaking States, held in Cairo18
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(hereafter referred to as the Cairo Seminar) in October 1962, at which Lebanon and the U.A.R. were represented. In all of these seminars, the question of professional training for librarians was considered as one of the pressing problems facing the development of modern library services in the area, and recommendations were made on the development of the present programs and on the creation of new library schools. Similar recommendations are found in the reports of almost all the overseas library experts who have served in the region. It is obvious that the need for training librarians in the Middle East is generally recognized and yet comparatively little has been accomplished.

The condition of library services in the Middle East seems puzzling to many people. At present few libraries exist, and with a few exceptions they are poorly organized and very little used. Their holdings are both inadequate and out of date. These libraries have neither the necessary equipment nor trained librarians to run them, and consequently they play little or no part in the educational, social, and economic development of the region. Yet if one reviews the history of civilization, reading carefully those sections devoted to the countries of this region, it will be found that they have a brilliant tradition of scholarship behind them and that their people have made important and valuable contributions. The history of libraries in these countries goes back to many centuries before Christ. Libraries, consisting mainly of collections of clay tablets, already existed in Assyria and Babylonia. The library of Ashur-bani-Pal (626 B.C.) at Nineveh was famous. Alexandria and Pergamum were great libraries of antiquity. In Iran the ruins of the library at Persepolis (capital of Achaemenides), which existed 25,000 years ago, can still be seen today, not far from the city of Shiraz. Historical records show that considerable attention was paid to books and libraries by Sasanid rulers, Abbaside caliphs, Ghaznavi sultans, Samanide kings, and many other rulers in the region. Scholars such as al-Fārābī (died 950), Avicenna (980-1037), Ghāzālī (1058-1111), Ibn Khaldūn (1332-1406) and Ibn al-Nadim (compiler of the first known bibliography of Arabic books, entitled al-Fihrist) contributed to the classification of human knowledge.

There is no doubt that the region enjoyed, and still enjoys a rich culture, but until recent years learning and scholarship were the monopoly of a very small minority; the poor and underprivileged remained illiterate. This is still evidenced today in the behavior of many learned professors and scholars who, in their teaching, are inclined to
to conceal the bibliographical sources of their knowledge from their students and more particularly from other scholars, as a magician who will not give away the secret of his knowledge and skill. In their writings, old-fashioned scholars seldom refer to the works of others even though such works may be in constant use. There exists a strange belief among them that they should not reveal the sources of their knowledge, perhaps through fear of losing the high respect they have acquired thanks to their magical scholarship and be considered no better than the ordinary man in the street. Throughout the ages, recorded knowledge has been simply stored away and carefully guarded by jealous librarians, well out of reach of ordinary readers.

The problem of tracing and identifying the factors affecting the very slow development of the library movement in the countries of the Middle East—countries which have such an outstanding and age-long cultural tradition—deserves a separate study. Such a study should take into consideration the fact that little need was felt for technical information, and that most of the literature produced in this region falls into the category of “books of emotion”—poetry, literary prose, etc., rather than into the category of “books of information,” and that therefore no healthy balance exists between the two.

In the western world, the principle of conservation of printed and replaceable material has long been almost entirely abandoned in favor of the concept of the library for use by all. The same is not true in this region, where the principle of conservation is still triumphant and libraries are still considered to be centers for the housing and safeguarding of the cultural heritage. The survival of this principle of conservation has also been observed by Holloway and Gaver. In the western world, librarians are chosen on the basis of their professional training, specialized technical knowledge and skill and competence in organizing library materials for use, and offering required services to users, but in the Middle East, generally speaking and with few exceptions, senior library posts are still offered exclusively to scholars with the reputation of having a great love for books but with no professional training whatever. Often his great love for books and his scholarly knowledge, based on a few manuscripts hidden in the collection of his library, give rise on his part to great personal jealousy and rivalry, causing him to do his utmost to keep the resources of his library out of reach. His lack of modern technical and professional knowledge makes him cling to obsolete methods and to reject new concepts and techniques, with the result that subject classification of

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library materials and open access systems are not practiced in the majority of cases. Thompson notes: "Until quite recently the library has been viewed as a quiet retreat for the elderly scholar who must not be disturbed by seekers for miscellaneous bits of information, newspaper and periodical readers, children, and other denizens of the public library in western Europe and America." 23

At present, the real problem lies in the fact that in most libraries, and especially in university and faculty libraries, senior positions are held on a part-time basis by professors who besides being busy teaching their respective subjects hold one or more jobs outside the university. They nevertheless "... hold the power of control in the library, though they are often unfamiliar with its actual operation." 24 Naturally, they are not able to do any of their jobs well. For this situation the low salary-scale of the profession is to blame, as well as the misunderstanding on the part of high officials of the concept and functions of university libraries. In this connection Stummvoll said: "... it appears to them that the running of a library is a mere technique of administration that can be done as a part-time job by professors or by so-called administrators." 25 The problem of part-time librarians is further discussed by Stummvoll,26 Galloway,27 and Gaver.28

The great majority of librarians simply do not understand the objectives and specific functions of their libraries, and therefore no acquisition policy exists. Library materials are, in most cases, brought together without any consideration of the particular function of the library, resulting in much duplication and many important gaps. As many overseas experts, amongst them Aker,29 Gaver,30 and Thompson,31 rightly observed, books are still considered as government property, and the librarian is financially responsible for any volumes lost. There is no means of discarding out-of-date or obsolete material. Once a book has entered the library collection, it can never go out or be discarded; once placed in its permanent location on a shelf, it is condemned to stay there forever. Consequently, a lending service of books for home use is far from being a basic and accepted function of libraries. This, in turn, results in a closed access system in all libraries, with few exceptions. One has only to glance at the statements made by Bonny,32 Holloway,33 Galloway,34 Thompson,35 and Gaver,36 to obtain a clear picture of the situation.

University libraries are far from being the heart of their respective institutions. Separate and independent collections kept in various Faculties are little used. Teaching, as observed by most library experts,
among them Holloway, Akers, Gaver, and Galloway is carried on by means of inadequate textbooks and lecture notes, the same notes being dictated for many years by professors who hardly use the university library themselves; consequently, very little research of value is undertaken in these institutions. Students are required to memorize the professor’s lectures rather than apply themselves to books and libraries for further information and thus acquaint themselves with the various points of view recorded in literature. Prior to coming to the university, students have had little or no chance of using a library, as school libraries are inadequate where they are not entirely lacking. When students leave the university, they will not have developed the habit of reading or of turning to books for information, because public libraries, in the true meaning of the word, are practically non-existent, while the collections of the few existing general libraries are so inadequate and so poorly organized that they are incapable of satisfying the reader’s needs.

These examples should be taken only as a very general description of the situation, as most references in this paper are to articles written on Iran, and since there are several outstanding exceptions. Not all countries of the Middle East are in such a sad plight. A recent awareness of the need for modern library service has become manifest in some countries of this region. In the last quarter of a century, many new universities have been established on quite a different pattern, and older universities are revising their teaching methods. A few changes are taking place in this respect, but rather slowly. A few overseas-educated young men, and in rarer cases women, have been given higher teaching positions in universities, but not as yet in sufficient numbers to effect a drastic change in the university library scene. Some young, trained librarians have replaced the old-fashioned keepers of rare books and manuscripts in important library positions, but the latter are still the more powerful and remain the major stumbling block to library development.

A few sporadic steps have been taken toward the development of national, public, school, and special library services and the training of librarians. In the majority of cases this is thanks to overseas and international financial and technical aid, but, so far, with only modest results. To begin with, most of this haphazard development has not been carried out as an integral part of the general pattern of social, economic, and educational development in the respective countries; it is not surprising that the results have not always been lasting. Their
realization has been due to the sincere efforts of a few, interested individuals, generally with overseas and international aid, with little local participation either in planning or financing the projects. Consequently, in most cases, very little follow-up action has been taken, and often the projects have died out completely, together with the interest of the individuals who started them, creating frustration. In most cases, long-term and overall planning has been lacking.

One other important factor, unfavorably influencing the full success of projects carried out by foreign experts, is that the duration of missions has been extremely short in most instances. Stummvoll stayed for one year in Iran and, speaking from the point of view of his own experience, pointed out that "... one year of experience in such countries cannot be anything more than a modest beginning. This time is just sufficient to learn a little about the needs of the country and to achieve a strictly limited task as it has been, fortunately, put to me. I should like to add that in Iran a Frenchman, Professor Godard, has succeeded in creating an excellent archaeological museum run on modern principles, which also possesses a very good library. But Professor Godard has been there for 15 years! Within a period of this duration and with the support of the local authorities it is possible to give personal features to an institute or to a certain development." 41

The public library will assuredly find its place in the Middle East as more and more people become literate. The mass education programs of the respective governments are rapidly progressing. Mention should be made in this respect of the original and ambitious "Army of Knowledge" project recently initiated in Iran. 42 New university and school libraries will be created, and those already in existence will be developed, as major changes appear in teaching methods and university officials become aware of the vital role that research can and should play in university programs. Special attention needs to be paid to the preparation and production of supplementary reading materials for school libraries: the existing materials hardly fill a few shelves. During the last quarter of a century industrialization has advanced considerably, and it can be expected that special libraries and scientific documentation centers will develop further as soon as the need for technical information is sufficiently felt and as new industries are created in this region. The overall pattern of library service will consequently change with the changing times. The training of librarians, documentalists, and information officers will then become a necessity instead of being merely desirable, as at present, and once the effects

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of modern library services on economic development are realized by respective governments, everything will become easier.

Activities for the training of librarians and documentalists have been sporadic, like other library projects in the countries under discussion. Only one undergraduate school exists in Egypt. In the other countries covered in this article, occasional short courses have been conducted.

Before discussing separately and in detail the library courses given in each country, let us take a general and rapid look at certain factors which militate against the full success of such training. The lack of adequate teaching materials in Arabic and Persian has no doubt been a major and most important factor. Basic library tools such as codes of cataloging rules, classification schemes, and lists of subject headings are not yet available. In the last few years, however, serious attempts have been made to overcome these deficiencies. The proposed code of *Rules of Descriptive Cataloguing for Arab Libraries* (1962), by M. Sheniti and M. Mahdi; the list of *Entries of Arabic Authors: First List up to 1215 H/1800 A.D.*, compiled in 1961 by M. Sheniti and A. Fahmy; the adapted and modified Dewey Decimal Classification scheme: *Mougaz al-Tasnif al-Ashri*, by M. Sheniti and A. Kabesh (1960) were accepted by the participants at the Cairo Seminar as a basis for future work towards the cataloging and classification of Arabic material.\(^4^3\) With regard to the use of Dewey Decimal Classification in Arab countries, "versions of this classification have been appearing in Lebanon, Iraq and Egypt and maybe elsewhere. They are almost without exception adaptations of the third summary of Dewey, with attempts to allow room for Islam, Arabic literature and history. None of them has achieved wide recognition and the case for a classification system of Arabic books is still open." \(^4^4\) *Cataloging of Persian Works, Including Rules for Transliteration, Entry and Description*,\(^4^5\) by the present writer and sponsored by the Council on Library Resources, Inc., appeared in English in 1959. In 1960 parts of this work were made available in Persian in mimeographed form and utilized at the Graduate Summer Library Courses held at the National Teachers' College in Teheran.\(^4^6\)

National bibliographies, either current or retrospective, do not, in the true sense of the word, exist in any of the countries under review. The Delhi \(^4^7\) and Beirut \(^4^8\) Seminars, like many others, recommended that the governments of the participating countries take urgent action to create national bibliographies. Collison's *Bibliographical
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Services Throughout the World, 1950-59 includes bibliographical activities carried out in Egypt, Iran, Iraq, Lebanon, and Syria, and the paper presented by Harby and Fahmy to the Cairo Seminar covered such activities carried out in Egypt. A committee for bibliographical services was established in Egypt in 1955 and is still active. This committee has its headquarters at the National Library. In Iran a national commission for bibliography was formed as a sub-committee of the UNESCO National Commission in 1955. In Lebanon and Iraq such committees do not exist. Certain bibliographical activities are carried out in Syria by the Syrian University at Damascus, and in Lebanon by the National Library, the American University at Beirut, and the Société des Gens de Lettres. Activities of this sort are lacking in Iraq. Speaking generally, a glance through Collison's survey shows that Egypt and Iran are the most advanced in this field and are moving toward the desired establishment of national bibliographies.

Professional library journals are also lacking in the region. The only existing library journal, Alam al-Maktabat (Library World), published by the Egyptian Association of Archives and Librarianship, started publication in November 1958. Mention can also be made of the monthly trade journal, Ketâbhâ-ye Mâh (Book of the Month), published in Teheran (1955), which in addition to lists of currently-published books in Iran includes articles on librarianship. Several other journals occasionally publish articles on book and libraries.

Another important factor influencing the success of library training courses is the lack of well organized and well equipped libraries for demonstration purposes. Such libraries need to be established close to training courses if the teaching is to have successful results.

Securing a proper status for librarians in the Middle East can be furthered through successful and properly established library associations. Library associations were established in Egypt in 1949, in Iraq and Lebanon in 1960. The preparatory work for the establishment of a national Library association in Iran has already been carried out. A Committee of Founders was formed in 1962, and a draft for a suitable constitution approved by the Committee. This draft will be presented to the first General Assembly of Iranian Librarians, which is to be held this year, for final approval or further modification if necessary. In Syria no record has been found of the existence of any library association. The Egyptian Library Association, formerly known as the Cairo Library Association (1946) has been very influential and
active in library training in that country. Library associations in the other countries have as yet done little or nothing in this respect. The establishment of new professional associations and the improvement of existing ones has played an important part in the discussions and recommendations of the Beirut, Ankara, and Delhi Seminars as well as at other seminars. The establishment of a regional library association, including all Arabic-speaking states should further improve the status of librarians in this region and thus help in library training. However, as Iran is not an Arabic-speaking country, it would probably prefer to join in with its other Asian neighbors if they decide to establish another regional library association. The Asian Federation of Library Associations (AFLA), founded in 1957, seems to have had little success in promoting library development in that region, but the establishment of a regional secretariat of International Federation of Library Associations (IFLA), in one of the Asian countries, as proposed by the Delhi Seminar, may prove useful.

As mentioned previously, UNESCO has been most active in the training of librarians in the Middle East through short-term missions of library experts. Most of these experts, while promoting library services in the area and sowing the seeds of the future establishment of library schools, have in fact conducted general and specialized short courses. The United States Government, through its technical assistance programs, its Fulbright lecturers, and the U.S. Information Service, has been helping the countries of the Middle East bilaterally in their library training programs. The Ford Foundation and the Rockefeller Foundation have also played an important role in this respect. British Council libraries and U.S. Information Service libraries offering public library services have been used as demonstration libraries in the area. Libraries of the two systems have continuously given generous professional advice to librarians. In addition, universities of foreign origin have been most helpful in assisting the countries in which they are located in their library training activities.

Let us now consider each country separately and review its library training activities from the beginning to the present day, mentioning their future development plans, if any.

UNITED ARAB REPUBLIC (EGYPT)

The history of the development of library training in Egypt goes back to 1945. A group of Egyptian librarians proposed a plan for the
establishment of an Institute of Librarianship, admitting only graduate students, to be attached to the Faculty of Arts at Fouad 1st University, now Cairo University. This plan came to nothing.58

Prior to the establishment of the present undergraduate library school in 1951, short courses were already conducted. According to Mary Duncan Carter, "... during the winter of 1946-1947 the People's University gave a course for library assistants. This was divided into two parts; eighteen boys and thirteen girls with the Primary School Certificate were given practical training to act as library aids in governmental libraries; and twenty-seven young men with the Baccalaureate were given more advanced training, both theoretical and practical. These graduates were placed in the National Library and elsewhere as library assistants." 57

In 1949, from April 19 to May 5, the Cairo Library Association organized the first institute for the training of librarians under the direction of Mary Duncan Carter, U.S. Regional Librarian in the Near East. The course was especially designed for librarians already working in Egyptian libraries. It consisted of six lectures on major topics of a general nature: library administration and personnel problems; principles of book selection; cataloging and classification; reference and bibliography; library extension work and the development of branch libraries. The subjects of these lectures, which were intended only as an introduction to librarianship, were chosen on the basis of the felt and expressed needs of Egyptian librarians. Each lecture was followed by a discussion period. Lists of reading matter related to each lecture were prepared, and books and professional periodicals made available. Among the lecturers were four foreign experts and three Egyptian librarians. Thirty working librarians from different libraries attended the course, on the termination of which certificates of attendance were issued to 21 students who had attended four or more lectures. The United States Office of Information and Educational Exchange then published in mimeographed form the outline and text of the lectures.58 Evening classes were held in 1949 by the Egyptian Library Association and, in the same year, the Institute of Public Culture also organized one-year evening courses.59

In 1951, Law No. 9,60 which gave birth to the Institute of Librarianship and Archives at Cairo University, was passed by the Egyptian Parliament, and shortly afterwards the Institute started functioning. In 1955 it found a permanent place in the University, becoming an in-
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tegral part of the Faculty of Arts. It remains, at the present day, the only library school in the region. Students who have successfully finished their secondary education pass an entrance examination prior to being admitted to the Institute. This includes Arabic and two European languages (preferably English and French) and Egyptian history. The duration of the entire program is four school years, and graduates are awarded the same university degrees as graduates of other departments. At the end of their second year, students are required, during the summer months, to undertake 100 hours of practical work (40 hours in archives and 60 hours in various types of libraries), and after completion of their third year a further 100 hours (50 in archives and 50 in various libraries). As will be seen from the outline of the courses offered during these four years, many other background subjects are taught besides ordinary library courses. During the first year, only two library courses, history of books and libraries (6 hours per week in both terms) and what is called 'approach to library science' (4 hours per week in both terms), are given, together with two hours of practical library work by students. In the second year, three courses are given, viz. library and community (2 hours per week), descriptive cataloging (8 hours per week in both terms), and library regulations (4 hours per week). The number of library courses increases in the third and fourth years. Language courses are very rightly included in each school year. Methodology and research also figure in the first, second, and fourth years. The following outline of the courses offered is taken from the Harby and Fahmy joint working paper presented to the Cairo Seminar in 1962:

FIRST YEAR

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<td>Geography of Islamic world, 3</td>
<td>History of books and libraries, 3</td>
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<td>History of books and libraries, 3</td>
<td>Approach to library science, 2</td>
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<td>Practical library work, 2</td>
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<td>Total: 24</td>
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### SECOND YEAR

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<td>Descriptive cataloging, 4</td>
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<td>Diplomatic, 2</td>
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<td>Descriptive cataloging, 4</td>
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<td>Arabic paleography, 2</td>
<td>Research and practical work, 4</td>
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### THIRD YEAR

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<td>Arabic references, 3</td>
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<td>Subject cataloging and classification, 4</td>
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### FOURTH YEAR

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<td></td>
<td>Bibliography, 3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
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<td>Bibliography, 3</td>
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<td>Foreign references, 4</td>
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<td>Arabic manuscript, 2</td>
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<td>Numismatics, 2</td>
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<td>Greek or Latin, 2</td>
<td></td>
<td>Research and practical work, 3</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>History of Egypt in nineteenth</td>
<td></td>
<td>Total: 24</td>
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<tr>
<td>century, 4</td>
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<tr>
<td>Research and practical work, 2</td>
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<tr>
<td>Total: 24</td>
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It is difficult to express any valid judgment on the degree of usefulness of these courses, as given in the outline, for the training of the librarians of Egypt and other Middle Eastern countries, without having available a description of the subject coverage of each course. But at first sight, one gets the impression that certain important aspects of librarianship are receiving little attention while others are completely ignored. For instance, it would have been far more desirable to set aside such courses as paleography and numismatics as optional, to be taken by the few librarians working in national and special libraries which collect manuscripts and coins. And obviously, more attention should be paid to subjects such as library administration, work in children's and school libraries, and even certain areas in technical services such as acquisitions, circulation, and information retrieval, which seem to play a minor part in the present program and yet will be essential for most potential librarians.

With regard to M.A. and Ph.D. degrees in librarianship, Harby and Fahmy stated: "Graduates of the section of librarianship can attend post-graduate studies for one year. A student can specialize either in librarianship, including bibliography, or in diplomatic and archive work. If he satisfies the examiners at the end of the year he can start working on an M.A. thesis and then for Ph.D." According to Lohrer and Jackson, the number of students enrolled in the Institute in the 1958-59 academic year, was sixty. A special one-year graduate course on archives was, in fact, offered in 1961, and some graduates of the Institute were granted fellowships for further study in the U.S.A., France, and the U.S.S.R.

In 1952, with the cooperation of the Egyptian government, UNESCO established at Sirs-el-Layyan the Regional Fundamental Education Training and Production Centre, later known as the Arab States Fundamental Education Centre (ASFEC) and now called the Arab States Training Center for Education for Community Development. Through its library demonstration projects the Center soon took an active part in the development of public, rural, and school libraries. Since 1953, as part of its library program, the Center has conducted courses in librarianship and carried out in-service training programs. It has also prepared and produced certain library tools and manuals in Arabic.

In June 1956, a 10-day regional course for training scientific documentalists was organized jointly by the Technical and Scientific Documentation Centre of the Egyptian National Research Council in Cairo.
and the UNESCO Middle East Science Cooperation Office, directed by A. Pérez-Vitoria. Eighteen participants from Egypt, Syria, Iraq, and Lebanon attended the course. The lectures and practical work included classification of Arabic books, bibliographical work, abstracting and indexing, the use of microfilm apparatus, photographic services, scientific information services, and the preparation of a union catalog of scientific periodicals. In 1963, from March 31 to April 25, a regional orientation course in documentation was conducted at the Scientific and Technical Documentation Centre with UNESCO assistance. Melvin P. Voigt, who went to Cairo for UNESCO to investigate the possibility of expansion of the center, participated in its program. According to Voigt, the course was not wholly successful in terms of area participation and level of students, but made a good start. He pointed out that "courses of this type and others more specifically related to the Centre and its work should be given regularly. Short courses should be given for the librarians of Cairo on specific subjects—classification, book and periodical publishing in the world, reproduction methods and facilities, subject analysis, indexing and abstracting, and rudiments of information retrieval by traditional as well as mechanical methods." Voigt went on to say:

Probably the most difficult problem the Centre will have in its expansion program will be that of finding adequately trained staff. Today the Centre has only one possible means of having subject specialists with adequate training in librarianship and documentation. This is to send them abroad for training. A substitute, which is not satisfactory, is to employ persons with adequate subject knowledge and to train them on the job. This problem cannot be solved until there is a graduate library school in Cairo. Such a school must be connected with a University which grants graduate degrees. The present undergraduate program at Cairo University produces librarians who fill important positions in public and school libraries. However, the program is of little or no value where subject knowledge is needed. . . . It is not the intent of the expanded Centre to start a graduate library program. It could assist in such a program by providing instructors for certain specialized courses and for practical training in documentation techniques. It has never been the intent to set up an independent program and this should not be done. This must be done in a degree-granting institution which can provide the faculty required.

The Ministry of Education, which is greatly interested in the development of school libraries as part of its program, has been running special courses for school librarians.
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As reported by Harby and Fahmy70 the Egyptian Ministry of Education will continue its school library development and training programs. It is desirable that these training courses be extended to cover a longer period, using the greater part of the summer vacations, and that the teacher-training college include courses on introduction to librarianship in its program of instruction. It is also hoped that further specialized training courses will be organized for the graduates of the Institute of Librarianship and Archives.

IRAN

There is no library school at present in Iran similar to the Egyptian Institute of Librarianship and Archives. However, during the last ten years many short courses of various kinds have been conducted. Prior to 1952, a short course on librarianship and archives was conducted at the Faculty of Letters of Teheran University. The results were meager, and the writer has no information on the subject. From October 1952 to March 1953, courses on librarianship were conducted at the Faculty of Letters by UNESCO library expert Josef Stummvoll, Director General of the Austrian National Library, and U.S.I.S. Leader Specialist Mary Gaver, at present Professor of Library Science at Rutgers University. More than two hundred students, most of them graduates but with a sprinkling of undergraduates, enrolled for these courses. One third of these students were already working in various Iranian libraries. The final examination was taken by 81 students, of whom 56 passed and 25 failed. The successful students were awarded university certificates.71 Fifty lectures were given in German and in English, each two hours in length, with Iranian interpreters translating them sentence by sentence into Persian. Only five lectures were delivered in Persian by Iranian librarians. Four of these discussed Persian and Arabic manuscripts, and one was on the library of the National Bank.72 All important aspects of librarianship were covered in a general way including history, administration, and services of various types of libraries. Stress was laid on technical services carried out in libraries, particular attention being paid to subject and descriptive cataloging. Teaching materials were limited to the previously prepared lectures, translated into Persian and made available to students in mimeographed form.73 Basic library tools such as ALA and L.C. cataloging rules, Dewey, Sears' List of Subject Headings, and films and filmstrips were borrowed from the U.S. Information Service. This library and the Library of the Faculty of Medicine, which was in proc-

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cess of reorganization by Stummvoll, were used as model libraries for demonstration purposes.

Parallel to these courses, a special course on cataloging and classification for about 10 advanced students was conducted three times a week by Mary Gaver during December 1952 and January 1953. This course was devoted to practical work on cataloging, and many books were cataloged by each student. After the departure of Gaver in January 1953, the course was continued by Stummvoll in the Library of the Faculty of Medicine, where 2,500 books were in the process of being re-cataloged and classified according to the Dewey system. Thanks to the sincere and persistent efforts of these library experts and of some university officials, the courses were successful in spite of major handicaps. Stummvoll, in his final report, pointed out the difficulties with which he had had to contend in carrying out his two main tasks, the re-cataloging and re-classification of the collections of the Faculty of Medicine Library and the training of librarians. Concerning the lack of library tools, he stated: "I was compelled to verify every single classification number, every single subject heading at the library of the U.S. Information and Education Services, which is rather far away from the University. Although I had wired for the books I needed most urgently in May and June 1952, I got the subject heading list at the beginning of March 1953 only, and the unabridged DC list did not arrive whilst I was there." Speaking of the lack of full cooperation and understanding on the part of Iranian educators, he stated: "Even the people who have studied abroad and who, one might presume, should have a better understanding of the difficulties in the library sector, fail in this regard. It is very rare that one finds people who can appreciate fully the amount of work that is to be done in a library. How much it is misunderstood sometimes is shown by the attitude of... (a university official) who really thought that four entirely untrained part-time workers would suffice for the processing of 15,000 volumes in 10-11 months (i.e. in 5 to 5½ 'Persian' work months)."

In April 1953, after Stummvoll's departure from Teheran, his good work was carried on by another UNESCO library expert, Sigmund Frauendorfer, also from Austria. Thus, the reorganization of the collections of the Faculty of Medicine Library was continued, and another training course for librarians similar to that previously mentioned was conducted from September 1953 to March 1954, at the Library of the Faculty of Medicine. Frauendorfer's 27-page lectures were translated
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into Persian and made available to students. These lectures included subject cataloging, rules for author and title entries, and rules for description, each lecture being followed by practical work.

As reported by Mohsen Saba,78 Professor of the Faculty of Law and Director of its library, the Faculty of Letters of Teheran University and the National Teachers College started to give certain courses on librarianship and archives during the 1954-1955 academic year. These courses, consisting of nine hours per week plus two hours of practical work for two terms each year, were on library management, cataloging, history of books and libraries, appraisal of handwriting, history of calligraphy, archives, and bibliography. Saba reported that both graduate and undergraduate students participated. The courses were conducted by Iranian librarians and by Susan Akers of the University of North Carolina Library School and Herbert Angel of the U.S. National Archives. Akers taught library organization and administration, cataloging, and classification from October 1954 to April 1955, and Angel taught three sections on archives.79 As pointed out by Akers, one of the major handicaps was the lack of teaching materials. Teaching was thus inevitably carried out by means of lecture notes and with "only one to three copies of catalog rules, classification tables (D.C.) in English and similarly a few books in English that will do as collateral reading for the administration course for those students who can read English." 80 In consequence, students could do no more than attend classes and follow lectures, some of them participating in two hours of practical work. Lack of a glossary of technical terms in Farsi was a further handicap. It was reported 81 that in the 1957-58 academic year the above courses were continued, but there appears to be no evidence of their further existence.

In 1955, from May 9 to 31, a Library Workshop was organized in Shiraz, sponsored by the Shiraz Directorate of Education, the Medical Faculty of the Shiraz University, and the Namazi Medical Center with the cooperation of the U.S.I.S. Library under the direction of Susan Akers. The Workshop was designed to train the personnel of the National Library (the word "national" should not be taken here to mean "nation-wide"; "public" or "general" would be more suitable terms) at Shiraz, the Library of the Medical Faculty, libraries of the Namazi Medical Center, and school libraries in Shiraz and the surrounding districts. Twenty librarians (12 men and 8 women) were admitted to the Workshop which was carried on six hours a day. The workshop program, which included both class and practical work, con-

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sisted of library administration, definition and functions of libraries, book selection and buying, periodical selection and buying, essential furniture and its suggested location in the library, use of books and their preparation for circulation, vertical file materials, simple cataloging, and Dewey Decimal Classification. The students' formal educational background, as Akers pointed out "... ranged from graduation from the ninth grade to one who had a master's degree, but the majority had only a ninth grade education. We brought mimeographed materials, which had been translated into Farsi; library films and filmstrips which showed U.S. libraries in action and some American books on library science." As in many other courses, lectures were delivered with sentence-by-sentence interpretation in Persian.

Early in 1959, the Chancellor of the Teheran University decided to create a centralized library system at the University offering much-needed services to the entire university program, and at the same time to establish a permanent chair of librarianship and thus create a library school. The Education Section of the U.S. Operation Mission, known as Point Four, was asked for a financial contribution toward the cost of a several million dollar university library building. As a condition of such assistance in this project, U.S.O.M. formally requested the University to conduct and sponsor a preliminary study of the requirements for such a building, and to appoint a highly-trained and qualified project director who would later take the responsibility of running such a library and hold the chair of librarianship for the training of librarians. After discussions lasting for many months at various meetings at which both U.S.O.M. and the University were represented, and after much correspondence, the outline for a 3-month study was prepared at an estimated cost of approximately $5,000. The University declared itself unable to meet this cost; its High Council failed to approve the establishment of a permanent chair of librarianship on the grounds that as there were only a few libraries in Iran, the training of librarians seemed unnecessary. The main reason for this decision was the influence exercised by the old-fashioned scholar-librarians. In consequence, the U.S.O.M. ceased to interest itself in the project and nothing further was done to implement it.

As part of a project to establish 400 secondary school libraries in various parts of the country, the Iranian Ministry of Education and the National Teachers College, in cooperation with the Ford Foundation and Franklin Publications, Inc. (representing the Iranian book publishers), organized a graduate summer library course for school
librarians from July 9 to August 11, 1960, at the National Teachers College in Teheran. The present writer, then working for UNESCO in Paris, was asked to go to Teheran to direct the course. Sixty secondary school teachers interested in library work, some of them, in fact, already engaged in such activity, from the 13 provinces of Iran, attended the course to receive fundamental library training. On their return to their provinces, these teachers were expected to establish model libraries in their respective schools, promote library services, and teach others. The Ministry of Education and the Book Publishers of Teheran provided books for these libraries, the National Teachers College offered all the facilities for training librarians, and the Ford Foundation donated $18,000 to finance the project. Before the course started, a curriculum especially devised to meet the particular needs of school librarians was printed and made available both in Farsi and in English. This included a wide range of topics on the organization, administration and activities of school libraries, principles and methods of book selection and acquisition, encouragement of reading, principles and rules of cataloging, principles and practice of classification, lending services, reference collections for school libraries, preservation of materials, and cooperation with public libraries. Ninety hours were devoted to teaching the subjects in formal classwork, and fifty-six hours were spent in apprentice work. Four supplementary lectures were included in the program to provide the participants with some information about book publication and the history of library development in Iran. Visits to eleven important libraries were organized during the course. The lectures were given in Persian by the writer, and in English by Dean Farnsworth, of the Brigham Young University, Utah, at that time adviser to the National Teachers College, again with sentence-by-sentence interpretation. Teaching material was prepared in Farsi and made available in mimeographed form (400 copies). This included cataloging rules based on Cataloging of Persian Works, by the writer, and parts of the abridged edition of the Dewey Decimal Classification.

In addition to the above, and because close cooperation between public and school libraries is much needed, the paper entitled The Public Library of Today; Its Purpose and Activities, by the present writer, prepared for the Beirut Seminar on Library Development in the Arab States, held in December 1959, was translated by one of the students into Farsi, mimeographed in 600 copies and distributed to 400 school libraries and to 200 educators. While engaged in practical work,
students actually cataloged a set of 150 books. Four hundred of these sets were offered to a like number of school libraries. It was, therefore, economical to print the catalog cards prepared by the students and send them to each school receiving a set, together with the mimeographed manual on cataloging prepared for the course. In view of the needs of other libraries, it was decided to print 1,000 copies of each card, and in this manner a central cataloging service was created at the National Teachers College. Cards were printed for main entry and all added entries. The Dewey classification number was given on each card. Other practical work carried out by students included the reorganization of four high school libraries in Teheran. Students were divided into four groups, each with a library assigned to it, with the result that by the end of the course two library rooms had been completely remodeled; in all four libraries, unsuitable books were withdrawn and the remainder cataloged and classified; old, worn out shelves were in one case replaced by new steel shelving. Book displays were arranged in all of them.* As can be seen, great attention was paid to students' practical work which is of considerable importance in short courses given in centers where demonstration libraries are few and adequate teaching materials lacking.

During the following two years (1960-1962), several local school library training courses were conducted by the graduates of the above course in their provincial home towns. Among these, mention should be made of the courses given in Ahvaz, Rasht, and Shiraz. Thanks to the sincere efforts of Dean Farnsworth and the valuable cooperation of officials of the National Teachers College and the Ministry of Education, the results of these courses were quite satisfactory.

IRAQ

Although recommendations for the establishment of a library school have been made by various experts, no such school yet exists in Iraq. Short courses, however, have been conducted by UNESCO experts while on library missions in the country. In February 1953, for instance, a short course for college librarians was organized at the Higher Teachers Training College in Baghdad under the direction of C. M. Saunders, UNESCO library expert attached to the above institution. At the start, lectures were given twice a week, and later three times weekly. Twenty-five fourth-year students of the college attended the library classes and took the examination, the results of which were taken into consideration in the final leaving examination of the college. Upon
graduation, students were expected to establish libraries in their respective schools in the provinces. A similar course, again directed by Saunders, was conducted from February 6, 1954, to the end of the academic year and was attended by twenty students. In his report to UNESCO Headquarters in February 1954, Saunders made the following remarks regarding his working methods: "I have found that much the best results are obtained by practical demonstration and instruction. If the pupil is told at the same time why a certain procedure is adopted he is much more interested than if he is given the theory first. It will be realized that in this particular field he has nothing on which to build in general—hitherto there have only been collections of books, mainly of a religious nature, and read only by few. When the pupil has been shown how and why, I believe that he is much more ready to assimilate the theoretical side—at least he has a mental picture of what the talk or lecture is about and his interest is sustained for a much longer period."

During 1957 and 1958, three short courses for college, public, and school librarians were conducted by Harold Bonny, UNESCO library expert, on mission in Iraq. The 4-week training course for college librarians was held at the College of Commerce and Economics in September 1957, and was attended by fifteen students. The curriculum included such topics as the purposes and functions of college libraries, departments of a library and services provided, registration of readers, charging systems, receipt of periodicals, binding, furniture and equipment, reference books, assistance to readers, classification, and cataloging. Practical work on reference, cataloging, and classification was also carried out. In his report, Bonny stated: "I endeavored to relate the course to day-to-day practical work in a college library, and to give the students a good idea of the functions of a library. I also explained library methods from first principles, giving the reasons for the employment of certain techniques; emphasizing that library techniques are not an end in themselves, but are designed to facilitate the access to books and information." He also pointed out that "by the way of self-criticism, I would say that the course was perhaps too intensive, that we endeavoured to cover a year's work in one month."

Bonny later reported that a four-week training course for municipal librarians was held at the Higher Teachers Training College in November 1957. Eighteen students attended the classes, and the curriculum included such topics as the purposes and functions of public libraries, the departments of a library, book selection and order-
ing, book processing, registration of readers, charging systems, children's work, reference work, assistance to readers, furniture and equipment, library planning, receipt of periodicals, binding, classification and cataloging. The greatest possible emphasis was given to practical work and demonstration. Students were provided with copies of Corbett's *Introduction to Public Librarianship*, but this was of no great value to those lacking a good knowledge of English.

One short training course for school librarians was conducted in Basra from January 10-17, 1958, and another in Mosul from January 24-31 of the same year. Seventeen students attended the Basra course and fifteen the Mosul course. In both, lectures were given on the following topics: the purposes and functions of school libraries, the encouragement of reading, planning and design of school libraries, furniture and equipment, book selection, library routines, classification, cataloging, library lessons for school children (with one specimen lesson), and the duties of a school librarian. Bonny's general criticism of the above courses included a need for more intensive courses on cataloging and classification, the slowness of class discussion due to the varying levels of the students' experience in library work, lack of teaching materials in Arabic, and lack of a library "laboratory" for demonstration purposes, although this last was partly overcome by means of visits to USIS and British Council libraries. A number of British, American and Swedish films were shown. According to Bonny, however, in all these films the commentaries were "... spoken far too quickly to be completely understood by the students. ... There is a need for a film and/or filmstrip prepared for non-English-speaking students of librarianship, showing not only the great libraries and their services, but also details of their library methods." 13

On several occasions Bonny recommended to the Iraqi government the establishment of a library school, and he reported several times to UNESCO Headquarters in the same vein. On May 11, 1957, he went so far as to submit a three-page *Training Scheme for Librarians* to the Director General of the Ministry of Education, Baghdad. In his final report to the Iraqi Minister of Education, covering the period March 1957-1958, he stated: "Considerable progress has been made by foreign experts working at particular libraries and conducting short training courses. On a long term planning basis, however, Iraq needs its own training scheme for librarians." 98

D. R. Kalia, another UNESCO library expert on mission to Iraq in 1959 and 1960, also tried to promote the idea of the establishment of
a library school. Not only did he prepare a proposal in September 1960 for the establishment of an institute of library science to be attached to the University of Baghdad, but he also obtained the official support of the Library Committee of the Central Library of the University. On February 25, 1960, the Committee strongly recommended that "The University should conduct from the academic year 1960-1961 a one year full time Diploma Course in Library Science at the Central Library. The number of students should not exceed 25, out of whom 20 should be university graduate working librarians and five first year students from different colleges (Art, Science, Education, Law, Commerce and Tahrir) who will offer Library Science as one of the elective subjects. Those college students will complete their course by parts in four years."100

LEBANON

There is at present no library school in Lebanon. The College for Women, however, according to Kent and Abu Haidar, "... runs a regular course and grants a certificate. The American University of Beirut offers occasional courses in various aspects of librarianship for special groups of students, especially in school librarianship for teacher-training classes."101 Individual students from various parts of the Middle East have gone to this university library for study and training.

In the summer of 1960 a four-week, two-hour daily course on cataloging and classification was conducted by Alfredo Simari, the UNESCO library expert at the National Library in Beirut.102 Simari also drew up a proposal for the establishment of a library school which he submitted to UNESCO Headquarters on August 12, 1960, after his departure from Lebanon.103 In this proposal, he rightly insisted that such a school should be attached to a university and include both a graduate and an undergraduate program. Among the courses Simari prescribed for such a school was one on comparative librarianship, because in Lebanon there exist several intermingled civilizations and cultures and one finds marked differences in the concept of librarianship.

In 1962, from July 6 to August 17, the American University Library organized a library course which was attended by twenty students from Lebanon, Jordan, Kuwait, and Saudi Arabia. Lectures were given in English and a few in Arabic by the library staff. Reference work and cataloging and classification received special attention. Several visits
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to selected libraries and bookshops were arranged, and at the end of the course students were awarded a certificate of attendance. It was hoped to conduct a similar course in 1963, but no information regarding this was received by the writer in time for inclusion in the present article.

SYRIA

So far as it has been possible to ascertain, no library training activities have ever been carried out in Syria. However, Syrian librarians have been awarded fellowships for training abroad, and they have participated in regional courses such as the 10-day course for training scientific documentalists organized in Cairo in 1956 (discussed earlier), and the UNESCO regional seminars such as the Seminar on Library Development in Arabic-Speaking States held in December 1959 in Beirut. In 1951 and 1952, two UNESCO library experts, Pierre Bourgeois and Jean Baby, went to Syria to assist in the planning and construction of a university library, but no courses were conducted by either of these experts.

Summary and Conclusions

The foregoing is a short account of library training programs in the five countries under discussion. The writer does not claim that he has been able to refer to all the activities carried out therein; his information has been based solely on published materials and a few UNESCO documents and reports, in addition to his personal knowledge of the field acquired while working with UNESCO in Paris. Questionnaires were sent to a few librarians in the region, but not all of them replied in time.

Before each country establishes its regular national training program, whether an undergraduate and/or a graduate school, and until such time as these schools can produce enough professionally trained librarians, the question of study abroad should receive considerable attention. Ever since it came into being, UNESCO has granted fellowships in librarianship and documentation. In addition, both through their own governments and through foundations, librarians of these regions have received scholarships to attend library schools, usually in the U.S.A. and in Western Europe. UNESCO fellowships have, in general, been of short duration, ranging from six to nine months; in rare cases these have been renewed. The study programs for such a
limited period have often included visits to too many countries and to too many libraries. Often these various libraries are organized on totally different lines, with the result that the fellowship holders have obtained very limited formal training in library schools and gained only rather superficial knowledge of library practices. In some cases, having been confronted with a multiplicity of methods and techniques of running a library, they have become confused. Upon their return to their respective home countries, they have, therefore, often failed to contribute as expected to the introduction of modern library practice; in some cases their rather superficial knowledge has caused costly errors in the reorganization of existing libraries and thus created misunderstanding. UNESCO is not to blame for this, as many of the candidates were not carefully selected by their respective governments and have often lacked the necessary educational background and requisite knowledge of a foreign language to be able to benefit fully from the formal training offered in those library schools in which a university degree or its equivalent is required for admission.

American library schools have, for a number of years, admitted foreign students who received fellowships mainly from their governments or from the Ford, Rockefeller, and other Foundations. The lack of suitable educational background for advanced study in librarianship towards a Master's or a Doctoral degree in librarianship, insufficient knowledge of the English language, and the difficulty of coping with the tempo and rigorous program of an American school have remained major problems for the students. To take an example, according to Galloway, a carefully selected Iranian librarian who was expected, on his return, to become the head of the Library of the Institute for Administrative Affairs attached to Teheran University "... was sent to the University of Southern California School of Library Science in September, 1958. Unfortunately, he could not adapt himself to the rigors of study in the United States and was forced to drop out of the program." 105

Something must be said here about American library schools which undertake the training of foreign library students. There is no doubt that most of these schools have tried to give special attention to the training of students who come with varying educational, cultural, and social backgrounds, from various parts of the world and who are expected, upon their return to their home countries, to find solutions to all sorts of library problems and to introduce modern concepts. This they must do either alone, or with the help of a very few other over-
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seas-trained librarians, working within the old framework. Since the number of foreign students in American library schools is growing every year, the time has come for this problem to be studied carefully and seriously. First of all, in order to accomplish this task successfully, such schools should not accept indiscriminately the applications of all foreign students merely to obtain international prestige for the school. In making preparation for the training of foreign students, two important factors should be taken into consideration, namely, suitable faculty and the necessary resources. The faculty should be familiar with the particular needs of the students and, with the cultural, educational, social backgrounds, and particularly the library conditions prevailing in the various countries from which they come and to which they are expected to return. In such library schools, the libraries themselves should be well equipped with background material and library literature from the countries from which students have been admitted. This is especially necessary in the case of foreign students undertaking doctoral programs if they are to do research work of value to their home countries, rather than to carry out a study project of purely American interest.

It may be to the advantage of both foreign students and American schools, if those schools which are prepared to undertake the training of foreign students should specialize in a certain number of countries with similar cultural and educational patterns, language, social conditions, and library organization. For example, one school might specialize in the training of students from the Middle East and another in the training of those from the Far East. This might not be so easy to accomplish at first, but as soon as a certain school became known as being particularly well equipped with reference to a certain area, with a faculty familiar with that area, and with library resources concerning it, then countries from that part of the world would certainly be eager to send their students to that school. Foundations might then take this geographical specialization into account when granting fellowships. At any rate, this problem is a worthy one to figure as an item on the agenda when Deans of library schools get together.

Short library courses conducted in the region seem to have had considerable success. Similar courses will be needed until such time as the necessary number of library schools are established. Even then, specialized and refresher courses will be very useful in the over-all training program of each country. Within each country and/or region, one or more travelling library schools offering short courses, as also
suggested by Kalia, might prove very useful and practical: "UNESCO, independently, or in collaboration with the League of Arab States may organize a mobile library school with at least three whole-time persons headed by an international expert. This mobile school will spend at least six months in each country and conduct intensive training for the Heads and senior members of the libraries. At the same time, they could try to establish a laboratory or a workshop for practical training and help the librarians in reorganizing their libraries. In this connection the American Library Association—Japan Library School Project may be studied in detail." 108

The factors which have unfavorably influenced the success of these courses in the past have been the lack of sufficient time for their preparation, their short duration in relation to the wide range of subjects covered, lack of sufficient time for practical work, inadequate teaching materials in local languages, the fact that lectures are delivered in foreign languages with labored and often inaccurate interpretation in the local national language, and the lack of demonstration libraries near the training centers. Some of these difficulties may be overcome in the near future, but others will inevitably remain as major handicaps for a considerably longer time.

In-service training, occasional lectures, and national and regional seminars will continue to be of substantial value. Library associations can help a great deal in organizing such lectures and seminars, but they should not run regular courses. In the Middle East this should be left to degree-granting institutions, as such degrees not only attract students but also give additional prestige and promote the professional status of librarians.

Urgent attention should be paid to the problem of the preparation and production of teaching materials and library tools in national languages, as all professional training programs should be backed by adequate professional library literature. UNESCO may help in producing these tools. American library schools may also assist in this by encouraging certain foreign students to center their Master theses or doctoral dissertations around problems concerned with the creation or adaptation of such tools. An example of this is the previously mentioned Cataloging of Persian Works which was originally submitted to Columbia University by the present writer as his doctoral dissertation. Some professional library literature of value has been produced in the Middle East; but a few of the existing library tools, which were written by incompetent authors, should never have been published
in the first place, as they have only created confusion and misunderstanding.

The question of the establishment of a library school in each country should be examined carefully. In so doing, factors to be taken into consideration include the level of the program—graduate and/or undergraduate, the availability of full-time teachers, teaching facilities, and a library "laboratory." Ideally, a graduate school would be the solution. However, taking into consideration the existing university pattern in the countries of the region, an undergraduate program may be more feasible at present. If graduate schools are established, new library posts with higher salaries should be created; otherwise students will have no financial inducement to undertake graduate study. In either case, at the start, students should be admitted only on a very limited and selective basis. The curriculum should be devised to meet local needs. The school should be attached to a university and situated wherever the best libraries are located. Outstanding graduates of the library school should have opportunities for receiving advanced library education abroad.

Not only is library education a matter of national concern for each country, but in the last analysis, nations must accept responsibility for development of libraries and library service.

At the inaugural session of the Delhi Seminar in October 1960, the Indian Minister of Education said "... as we intend to introduce compulsory education, there should be a compulsory system of libraries,"107 echoing the idea behind the words spoken by Thomas Jefferson so long ago, when he asserted "If a nation expects to be ignorant and free, it expects what never was and never will be."

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South Africa

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This account has been compiled shortly after the publication of a comprehensive and fairly accessible study in which the history, development, and present state of training for librarianship is described. Supporting that article are reports of a recent survey. Also available are a number of summaries of various phases of library education. Therefore, it seemed more important in this review, rather than to repeat what has been so recently done, to enlarge upon those aspects which might be of particular interest to readers unfamiliar with the country. Administrative organization, number of units, accrediting and standards, recruiting, admissions, faculty, teaching methods, curricula, and continuing education are discussed chiefly on those points known to have a bearing overseas. Countries just developing new programs and those reconstructing existing programs have both been kept in mind.

South Africa has an area of half-a-million square miles, a population of over fifteen million of which three million are of European descent, half-a-million of Asiatic, ten million of African, and a million and a half of mixed ancestry by custom referred to as Coloureds. Regarding literacy, education is compulsory for European children, partially so for Coloured and Asiatic but not yet so for African, i.e. Bantu. In 1952 the Bantu literacy rate was 21.8 per cent and in 1958, 35 per cent. The nine universities and five university colleges have a student population of 43,000. Of this number over 10,000 are registered with the University of South Africa, the senior university responsible for university development and control. The University examines students of the affiliated colleges, but it has none in residence. Since 1947, however, the University has offered a variety of courses by correspondence which are open to anyone, here and abroad, and its degrees are regarded as highly as any other university. In South Africa the academic year runs from March through November, and

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of this time six weeks are devoted to vacations and usually four or more weeks to examinations. The bachelor’s degree takes three years to obtain. Since the average matriculant is usually seventeen years old, graduates tend to be younger than in some countries. The bachelor of arts (Hons) involving a fourth year of study is only now becoming more than an exception.

*Universities Offer Training*

Libraries and librarianship were almost embryonic before 1928 when the Carnegie Corporation \(^{10,11}\) became interested and provided advice and funds for development. A few librarians had overseas qualifications, but no training was available locally. In the early thirties, shortly after its formation, the South African Library Association began correspondence courses.\(^{12}\) These were followed \(^{13}\) in 1938 and 1939 by courses at the Universities of Pretoria and Cape Town.\(^ {14,15}\) After the war came extensive library growth followed by the introduction of courses in librarianship at the Universities of South Africa (1955), Potchefstroom (1956), Stellenbosch (1958), Witwatersrand (1958), and Western Cape (1960).\(^ {16}\) In 1962 the SALA transferred its teaching responsibilities to the University of South Africa, and its courses are in the process of dwindling off.

While all library training is now offered by universities, some differences do exist in the administrative patterns followed. Of the seven universities involved, the first two which began courses in librarianship twenty-five years ago did so within the library set up and under the direction of the university librarian.\(^ {17,18}\) As the courses expanded, in one instance, a full-time assistant director was appointed to take charge of day to day affairs,\(^ {19}\) in the other, a department of librarianship was formed independent of the library, but it continued under the librarian for the next half-dozen years or so when it was then placed within the Faculty of Arts.\(^ {20}\) All the post war teaching has been organized as Departments of Librarianship. In two,\(^ {21}\) where the number of students is relatively low, the librarian acts as head; in four, the head of the department, with rank of professor in two instances and of senior lecturer in two instances, is independent. These departments come within the Faculty of Arts. Also, in two or three instances, the university authorities, in establishing new librarianship courses, found that they could not attract suitable heads unless they gave them complete responsibility. In the one instance, where the instruction has always remained within the structure of the library
certain confusions have arisen. Are the teaching staff academic faculty or librarians? They are both and neither. Academic requirements must be met, but as they hold library posts they are not really of the academic body, even when they are given certain academic recognition. Administratively they must observe regulations designed for librarians, their hours, attendance, leave, and so forth. On the other hand, the link with the library is very close, to the marked advantage of staff and students. Furthermore, the guidance of the teaching program by the university librarian, a member of the Senate, brings to it a valuable breadth of view. To sum up, the tendency now is to establish a teaching department within a humanities faculty, technically independent of the library, even where the librarian may be also the head; and where he is head, once student members and courses expand, to transfer the duties and responsibilities to one who can give full time to the task.

The number and size of library schools is frequently a moot point. In South Africa over the last decade the number of library school students at each university has continued to rise even though five new librarianship departments were established during the period. In fact, the opinion has been expressed in conversation, more than once, that in addition to the strong factor of availability, there is that of acceptability. The more courses there are scattered about the country, the more students accept librarianship as something one studies. Language makes a difference, too, in the real availability of courses. Of the seven schools, one teaches by correspondence and either English or Afrikaans may be used by students as they wish, two present lectures in English, and four in Afrikaans. While the English-medium universities are within an hour's ride of an Afrikaans university, they are a thousand miles distant from each other. Three of the Afrikaans universities are equally scattered while the fourth offers courses only to Coloured students. Students do not necessarily elect to go to the university of their mother tongue, but most do.

The possibility of having fewer centers with larger faculties and a wider range of courses is seldom, if ever, discussed. The courses are too new, too individualized, and the demand for formal continuing education is too sporadic. The amalgamation of the SALA's correspondence courses with those of the University of South Africa was chiefly prompted by the difficulty of securing suitable tutors. On the other hand, the librarians of the northeastern section of the country are seriously discussing the possibility of establishing yet another school.
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at the University of Natal. At present their students must go either the 500 miles to Johannesburg or the thousand miles to Cape Town. At the moment neither the number of students nor of vacancies would seem to warrant the move, but experience elsewhere in the country suggests its wisdom.

How is the quality of a new course in librarianship determined? As in Britain, the control of standards of professional education in South Africa rests with the professional associations. Until now this has been the case with librarians, with these differences from the British Library Association practice: the SALA has always looked upon the award of its certificates as an indication of professional competence, once eligible always eligible, whereas the Library Association certificates are more in the nature of permission to practice so that failure to pay dues deprives a librarian of his qualifications. In addition, in Britain, since the certificates are based on the Library Association's examinations, there is no need to assess courses. The SALA on the other hand has always been as much concerned with the teaching as with the curriculum, and when courses were developed at the universities, after almost a decade of intellectual and emotional conflict, it adopted the practice of equating new courses against its own. Now that the SALA has given up its educational program, some new method has to be found. While no formal substitute has been established, there is a feature of general university practice which tends to create a certain unity of approach, that of the External Examiner. The function of the External Examiner is to review examinations set and scrutinize scripts written, to see that standards of quality and fairness are maintained. External Examiners usually are from sister universities. The system is particularly useful for maintaining traditions and standards, but it may also lead to too great an emphasis on what was acceptable in the past at the expense of what should be introduced in the present. While some formal type of accrediting is mooted from time to time, the general feeling among librarians is that in a country with so few library courses and small teaching staffs any negative evaluation would tend to take on personal overtones and lead to bitterness and rebellion.

While, theoretically, standards of library training are important; in practice, the market for the product, the newly qualified librarian, is what finally tells. In South Africa there are always vacancies for librarians at all levels. The general postwar expansion was augmented by the introduction of public library services for the whole country.
In addition, several studies have shown a persistent loss of 80 per cent within the first five years of service. This is among graduate librarians. There are no figures for undergraduates as many have proven impossible to trace. Marriage and overseas travel are the usual reasons given. Recruiting is, therefore, important, but there is no organized program. University librarians display material on librarianship as a career, talk to students individually, or give them summer employment. Some newspapers think librarianship is news and publish feature articles and news items; other do not. Three universities and the national government offer bursaries of varying sizes. These seem definitely to attract a number of students of good calibre who otherwise would not have considered librarianship. Persons involved in career guidance programs, e.g. the university’s public relations officer, the Rotarians, the Department of Labour, and vocational guidance personnel do much. The University of Cape Town’s public relations officer, an amateur photographer, has made ciné films of a number of careers offered by the university including librarianship. At the annual exhibitions of university activities librarianship is featured, for example, along with ballet and mathematics. In many of these activities, the librarianship faculty are the promoters and organizers behind the scenes. There are several large film libraries in the country with many films on librarianship available, and these are often shown on weekly film nights at public libraries. When students are questioned on reasons for choosing librarianship, they usually stress a love of books and people, but later admit that the salaries and career opportunities in the provincial library service attracted them too. The trend is toward a growing general awareness and acceptance of libraries and librarianship as part of community life.

South African universities are public, and admission to them is on academic merit. Therefore, screening out unsuitable applicants has to be done informally, e.g. by explaining the difficulties of the course or by suggesting alternatives. Preregistration interviews are not officially required although they are generally encouraged. Restriction of numbers so as to maintain quality is a practice accepted by South African universities, and the Department of Librarianship at Witwatersrand is now contemplating for 1964 a maximum of twenty-five students. The academic qualifications required are not too rigid. For the nongraduate courses most universities accept either a matriculation or a general school leaving certificate since the first year will weed out the weak, no matter what their qualifications. For graduate
courses, while a bachelor's degree is the general requirement, some universities stipulate that the major be in an academic as contrasted with a professional field, or if not, that it be subject to decision of Senate. Languages other than the two official are required in two instances. Candidates who fail in their librarianship examinations usually are allowed to repeat a course only once.

Part-time students are admitted by all but one department of librarianship. A few courses may be given late in the day, but more frequently libraries release staff to attend regular morning sessions. The amount of time actually "given" by the library ranges from nil to one day a week. There is no national library policy nor is there much discussion among librarians about this method of recruiting. In fact, increasing controls by the governing authorities' general personnel regulations make it more difficult for a librarian to take on, as he used to, an unqualified but promising graduate to study as he works. No age limits are enforced by the universities, but hiring bodies frequently have age barriers, usually at fifty. No figures are available of the number of students over thirty-five who are registered, but 15 per cent is possibly a safe estimate. Their success seems determined more by personal factors than age. Neither previous intellectual training nor occupation in a kindred activity seems as strong a factor. NonWhite students are accepted by the English-medium universities if the students apply for permission by the government. This appears to be granted readily.

The reported numbers25 of students registered for courses in 1961-62 were (undergraduate figures first): Cape Town 22, 25; Potchefstroom 24, 18; Pretoria 80, 12; Stellenbosch 13, 11; University of South Africa 177, 121; Witwatersrand 0, 12; Western Cape 16, 0, i.e. a total of 545 would-be librarians of whom 223 were actually attending a university.26 Of this latter group, 207 are drawn from a population of just over three million, i.e. those of European descent. They belong to a university student body of 34,000.

There are seven men and four women full-time and sixteen part-time instructors in librarianship. Of these, one full-time and six part-time instructors have been trained overseas, and five additional instructors have been recipients of overseas travel grants. By the system of part-time lecturing, as distinguished from spare-time, library staff carry one or two subjects and are released on official time for the actual teaching and usually for preparation and correction. Unless excessive demands within the library arise, teaching for them
is part of the job. The advantages for the students are the breadth of approach which a faculty of four to eight can give with their wide experience, superior training, and subject specializations. The staff participating are stimulated to look upon their field objectively, to become thoroughly familiar with its underlying principles, and to keep abreast of new developments. The difficulty is that library duties expand faster than a staff can so that even in a theoretically permissive situation the teaching may become a burden. Only occasionally is assistance for revising and marking available from the library school. Even where there are a variety of courses offered, the number of full-time staff remains low. The usual practice has been to start with one full-time "head" responsible for the program and much of the teaching, who is assisted by two or three members of the university library staff. Except in one instance, clerical assistance is available only from the university offices. Teaching loads reported for full-time staff have been as high as twenty-four hours per week although more of them approximate the university standard of twelve contact hours per week. The nature of the courses—electives do not occur until B.A. (Hons) or the M.A. Bibl. is reached—require a staff capable of teaching three or four different subjects, e.g. cataloging, book selection, administration, so that it is difficult to find time and energy for specialization in one subject except at the expense of another. The system does make for a breadth of approach to librarianship, and the teacher who knows practically nothing about a field of librarianship not his is much rarer than where specialization is practiced. On the other hand, it takes many years of teaching to bring a person in a particular subject to the level of competence of a specialist. The departments which have added higher degrees have done so without hiring special staff for the purpose. What does occur is the conversion of a number of part-time lecturing posts into a second, and very occasionally a third, full-time post. Librarianship faculty is usually recruited from the higher ranks of university library staffs, but several recently qualified men who prior to training were teachers have been appointed. Now, with the departments fairly well-established, the additional posts created are at salaries lower than similar qualifications command in the field so that younger, less experienced staff is necessarily engaged. There is no accepted method whereby such persons can readily obtain further practice without giving up their teaching posts. Two heads of librarianship departments have resigned for this reason within the last two years.

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All South African universities award six months' furlough after every six years, and this may be extended usually by another six months for serious study. It is possible, though not usual, for teaching staff to go abroad and work in a library for this period. Since no small country can produce its own ideal answers to all the problems which may arise and since the real significance of another's solution is seldom completely apprehended through reading and observation alone, it would appear that more instructors in librarianship should work abroad if inspiration and stimulus are to be continued.

Librarianship Curricula

Before considering curricula, it is helpful, with regard to South Africa, to understand something of how librarianship is taught and studied. The distinctive feature is the role of correspondence courses. Correspondence courses are accepted by the South African academic world and offered by the University of South Africa in many subjects. Where subjects require it, they are supplemented by vacation attendance at the university. During the year, lectures are duplicated and distributed, exercises set and marked, and practicals assigned. Students frequently remark on the satisfaction they derive from this much more personalized form of study; they also sigh over delays in receiving assignments and reports on practicals. The nature of the subject, of course, makes a difference. English, philosophy, and history are more satisfying than classification or cataloging. How effective such courses are is hard to assess. Certainly they attract large numbers. In 1961 there were 337 registered in librarianship with the University of South Africa. Even in its first year, 1955, sixty-five were registered. Yet in the six years, with registration constantly rising, only thirty-nine qualified. The cause may lie in the students and not the system, but not enough is known to say.

Correspondence courses were first offered by the SALA in 1933. "... the intention of the Committee was to make a syllabus for study rather than a syllabus for examinations." Examinations were not to be an end in themselves, but merely a test that students had profited sufficiently from a particular course to be considered trained librarians.

While the original courses were at first intended for all would-be librarians, as other facilities developed, the SALA courses became increasingly favoured by young nongraduates in libraries far removed from a university offering librarianship. Since the students were working as they studied and since the series of examinations took several
years, the student was maturing intellectually as well socially, and the undergraduate holder of the Intermediate Certificate was a very satisfactory product. Many small to medium sized libraries for which it has proven impossible to recruit librarians with more elaborate qualifications have been under their charge. Today, the proposal under discussion is the abolition by the University of South Africa of its undergraduate correspondence qualification. The change will be strongly opposed by isolated libraries, but it may win favor among the big centralized systems where staff and tasks can be more readily sorted into clerical and professional. There is no talk of abolishing correspondence courses. Many unqualified staff elect correspondence courses in cities where part-time attendance at a university course is possible, chiefly because they may study when and where they please and also at their own rate.

Two marked directions in types of curricula have emerged in the last decade: the two year post-matriculation Lower Diploma and the Bachelor of Librarianship degree. The content of the Lower Diploma is equal to one academic year and one professional year. The two areas may be studied simultaneously over the two years, or the academic year may be required as the admission to the professional. The Lower Diploma was first introduced by the University of Pretoria in 1950, followed by the University of South Africa in 1955, Potchefstroom in 1956, Stellenbosch in 1958, and Western Cape in 1960. The qualification is recognized by the Public Service Commission as equivalent to the SALA Intermediate Certificate. Several of the universities thought that they could combine the Lower Diploma classes with the post graduate, but experience has shown this to be very unsatisfactory. The teen-agers seldom are ready for the level of presentation possible with graduates, nor can they move at as great a speed and to such depth as the older students.

Also gaining in favor is the B.A. in Librarianship. It, too, was first introduced by Pretoria, in 1949, and was the usual South African three-year B.A. with a librarianship major. University of South Africa followed in 1955 with a four-year degree so that its academic and librarianship content is equal to the usual B.A. plus postgraduate library qualification, but both are spread over the four years. The four-year B.A. was adopted by Potchefstroom in 1961 and is to be introduced by Stellenbosch in 1964. The last and newest curriculum will offer librarianship subjects throughout the four years but will permit conversion to the usual B.A. at the end of the first or second years;
Lower Diploma students also can convert to B.A. or B.A. Lib. While some of the other universities admit regular arts students to librarianship courses, this will not be possible here. The advantages of the B.A. in Librarianship arise from the obvious pedagogical one of building on the known, working from the general to the special, and so on, possible only when a subject as complex as library science is taken over some years, but particularly from the sense of commitment made by the freshman who frequently comes to the university intending to be a librarian but is drawn off by his undergraduate major in other directions. Statistics kept by the University of Cape Town over a decade showed this to be invariably the case. All universities with the B.A. Lib. also offer a post graduate Higher Diploma. There are, therefore, three basic courses being taught. In the freshman year classes can be combined in some subjects, but the difference in final purpose of the courses makes this a not too acceptable, though at times an unavoidable, practice. Current figures for students at the residential universities are: Lower Diploma, 59; B.A. (Lib.) 3-years, 54; 4-years, 23.

The postgraduate Higher Certificate or Higher Diploma courses differ in particular on one point, the requirement by two of them of a lengthy bibliography to be prepared in addition to regular course work. At the University of Cape Town and Witwatersrand where it is compulsory, the bibliography is regarded as giving the student a project in which he is largely on his own, and for which he must cut across the courses taken, since bibliographic knowledge, skill and organization are involved. South African topics usually are required because they present a handable area and one in which original sources may be consulted.

Short courses have been a feature of library education in South Africa since the Carnegie Corporation made its first grant in the early thirties. Vacation courses supported in part by the grant and in part by annual contributions from each province are held in turn annually in each of the four provinces. They are for unqualified personnel in small town and village libraries. The larger part of each delegate’s costs is borne by the fund. This fund could also be used for institutes or seminars for qualified librarians, but neither a suitable program nor organizer has been found by the SALA’s Education Committee. A development in a parallel direction is occurring which may prove of much interest. The National Development and Management Foundation, a nonprofit organization for the promotion of better management
methods, features short-term seminars, workshops, and institutes and will offer shortly a "Conference" devoted to certain personnel aspects of administration, designed for senior officers of public bodies, such as, librarians, health officers, city engineers, and so forth. The NDMF has branches in all major cities. Should the institute prove profitable, a source of instruction and inspiration in many aspects of administration will become available to most senior librarians of the country. For the unqualified, the Provincial libraries now give frequent courses to small town and school libraries.

While the need for research was recognized officially by the SALA last November, the pressures compelling librarians to seek new approaches to most library activities are still sporadic, and the necessity for qualified librarians to continually re-educate themselves is not fully recognized. It is easy to understand that the most popular method of continuing education is the trip abroad, usually assisted by local or foreign grants. Although stimulating and enlightening, such trips cannot give a person the opportunities for growth in understandings and attitudes which a spell of working offers. While many young South Africans do go to England, job opportunities are usually available only at a clerical level. More and more young librarians are, therefore, attracted to Canada and the United States where numerous professional opportunities exist.

In looking at library training in South Africa, perhaps its strongest characteristic is its indigenous nature. Although inspiration and guidance came from Britain, America, and the Continent, it was not long before modifications and developments appeared stemming from local needs. The correspondence courses, the undergraduate curriculum, the ever developing B.A. Lib., all bear a South African stamp. The as yet unexplored needs of the field, particularly in the use of professional personnel, should evoke still further developments of individuality and character.

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3. Coetzee, P. C. "Voorraad En Personeel In Die Suid-Afrikaanse Biblioteek-
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9. Ibid.


21. Annual prospectuses of the universities concerned have been consulted for such details given here and elsewhere in this report which concern the departments of librarianship, i.e. *Prospectus*, University of Cape Town; *Jaarboek*, University of Pretoria; *Jaarboek*, Potchefstroom University for Christian Higher Education; *Jaarboek*, University of Stellenbosch; *Calendar*, University of South Africa; and *General Prospectus*, also Department of Librarianship, *Regulations and Curriculum*, University of Witwatersrand.


25. In 1962, two Bantu and one Coloured were admitted to the University of Cape Town; in 1963, one Chinese and one Coloured to Witwatersrand.


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Japan

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In the October 1959 issue of Library Trends, Alice Lohrer made clear much about the current scene in Japanese library education;¹ she tapped and drew, with appropriate citation, on most of what had been published on the topic in English up to the time of her writing. Dr. Takahisa Sawamoto, this writer's colleague during his directorship of the Japan Library School, 1951-1956, and now assistant professor and administrative assistant to the present director, Professor Takashi Hashimoto, writing in his “Education for Librarianship in Japan,”² provides an incisive treatment of the subject viewed retrospectively and currently. Moreover, he provides a succinct review as well as an evaluation of the current library education scene in his recently published article, “Recent Japanese Library Developments.”³

Historical Backgrounds and Overview

Pioneers, Early and Modern—In a recent study prepared for the East-West Center at the University of Hawaii, this writer points out that “For almost a decade the Asia, Carnegie, Ford and Rockefeller Foundations, as well as the International Cooperation Administration, actively have been concerned with the education of librarians and the improvement of libraries and librarianship in many Asian countries, and in assisting in the development of training programs of various kinds, both formal and informal. In many instances the American Library Association, through its advisory and Headquarters services, has been a medium for carrying forward certain of these professional education programs and has recruited personnel to implement them.”⁴

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Let no one conclude because of this that there was no interest or activity in Library education by the Japanese before American foundation largess made possible the launching of certain library education projects and experiments. Long before the post-World War II period, before the beginning of the Showa Era (1926-) for that matter, or the establishing of the Japan Library School at Keio University, there were currents and movements having to do with the education of librarians—or at least with the preparation of individuals to handle certain aspects of the library function.

As in other societies, ancient and modern, the Japanese have had to cope with the keeping of books, historical and religious records, and representations for well over 1,200 years. During the Kanpei years (889-897 A.D.), the Emperor Fujiwara (Sukeyo) ordered the Nihonkoku Genzai Sho Mokuroku (Catalog of Books Existing in Japan). This presumably is the oldest catalog of Chinese books in Japan and may be considered comparable to the Western world's Registrum Librorum Angliae.

Someone must have devised the system for its organization. It is reasonable to assume, in terms of the development of Japanese culture, that this landmark work was based on Chinese principles and practices, for a system of cataloging had long been developed in ancient China. The retired librarian of Kyoto Liberal Arts College, Miyogo Osa, writing in his careful and detailed Development of Library Science, quotes the Chinese scholar, Wo Mei Sei: "The art of cataloging is the most important thing of all learnings. Never fail to inquire the way with this. You will squarely find the gateway" (i.e., to the subject you want to study—RLG). Thus the preservation and custodian concepts found their way to Japan and quite possibly along with the Japanese' long focus on cataloging and classification constituted the sum total of librarianship.

It was not until the second half of the nineteenth century (the year of Man'en, 1860) that the Japanese had their first exposure to libraries of the West. As a member of the mission sent abroad, Fukuzawa Yukichi visited many Western countries; and in the third year of Keio (1867), he revisited America. To enlighten the Japanese people of customs and societies about which they were only then gaining the slightest inkling of awareness he wrote his Seiyo Jiyo (Things Western), which included a chapter on libraries he had observed, libraries which were in no way related or connected to temples or ruling dynasties, but were secular libraries.

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Other emissaries were sent abroad. In the fourth year of Meiji (1871), Fujimaro Tanaka of the Mombusho (Ministry of Education) accompanied Ambassador Iwakura as educational commissioner. They returned to Japan in Meiji 6 (1873) after library visits; these are recorded in *Tokumei Zenken Taishi Bei-ou Kanran Jikki* (Record of Envoy Extraordinary and Ambassador Plenipotentiary Visits to America and Europe). Three years later in Meiji 9 (1876), Tanaka returned to America on the occasion of the Philadelphia Centennial Exhibition (the year of the founding of the American Library Association). Reporting on his visits to libraries he said, "Until after people well know the benefit of free education, they cannot understand the advantage public libraries offer them." He also urged free access as early as eighty years ago.

Also going in the 1873 Tanaka mission was Seiichi Tejima, then the recently appointed chief librarian of the Tokyo (public) Library. Fifteen years later in 21 Meiji (1888), Tejima, still chief librarian, sent another Tanaka, Inagi Tanaka, abroad for two years expressly for the purpose of studying librarianship in Europe and America. On his return to Japan, Inagi Tanaka, having responded to the stimulus and support given him by Tejima, succeeded him as chief librarian. Osa refers to Tejima as the foster father of Japanese library science.

In the fifty years that followed, approximately twenty-five persons prominent in the library field of Japan were sent abroad to study librarianship—most of them going to the United States. In Taisho 4 (1915), Fujio Mamiya came to the United States to study the operation of American libraries, the publishing industry, and binding company and library supply house operations. Although not a practicing librarian, Mr. Mamiya was alert to the contribution the Western concept of library service could hold for Japan in its remarkable transition from a feudal society to that of the present day. He was especially impressed with the emerging systems of bibliographic tools that stemmed first from Poole and were later extended and developed by H. W. Wilson.

On his return to Japan, Mamiya invited the cooperation and support of Japanese librarians for the purpose of producing comparable works for bibliographic organization and control. But the state of librarianship had not yet sufficiently progressed to make possible such development. Moreover, the strong individualism of the few librarians who were sufficiently aware of and attuned to the merit of Mamiya's proposal further prevented his realizing his plan. Nevertheless, Ma-
miya continued his interest in and promotion of libraries and librarianship and was instrumental in the publication of early professional library journals. Although he failed in his endeavor to build a great complex of indexes, he did publish certain library tools. Moreover, he established the Japanese counterpart of the Library Bureau. Only within the last few years has this elder statesman retired from active direction of his firm, the Japan Library Bureau.

Sawamoto has recorded Dr. Mankichi Wada's contribution to library education. Wada left Japan about the end of the Meiji Era (1909, 1910); he returned from abroad to a professorship and headship of the library at Tokyo Imperial University and instituted the first course in librarianship in a Japanese university. This he continued from 1918-1922. This was not a systematic course, but a series of lectures on librarianship which varied in their focus from year to year. With Dr. Wada's retirement these ceased; there was no library education offered again at Tokyo until 1951, when the late Dr. Kawai, University Librarian and Professor of Law, resumed the lectures for two years. In 1953, Takeo Urata, presently of the University's Medical Library, offered a course in the University's Faculty of Education. Mr. Urata is a graduate of the University of Illinois Library School, and has traveled to the United States on at least two other occasions accompanying Japanese library specialists. This course notwithstanding, there is no curriculum as such in library science at Tokyo University.

Returning to early years of the present Showa Era, the name of Naomi Fukuda, presently the librarian of the International House of Japan, appears among the twenty-five or more librarians who traveled abroad. Miss Fukuda pursued her studies in library science at the University of Michigan and while in America also had experience working at the Library of Congress. Her contributions to library development in Japan have been manifold. At the time of the establishing of the Kokuritsu Kokkai Toshokan (National Diet Library) under the leadership of the late Dr. Tokujiro Kanamori, its first director, Miss Fukuda rendered inestimable assistance as liaison between Japanese librarian and foreign consultants such as Robert Downs, Verner Clapp and the late Charles H. Brown. Again, at the time of the establishing of the first full curriculum in library science at the college level in Japan—the Japan Library School at Keio University—its director found Miss Fukuda's discreet counsel hardly less valuable. To this day her energy and leadership are largely responsible for many seminars and study groups which are held.
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Her astute chairmanship of the U. S. Field Seminar on Library Reference Services for Japanese Librarians is evident in that group's 1960 report, American Libraries. . . . For more than a year before the nine Japanese librarians comprising that Seminar left Japan in 1959 for their carefully planned itinerary in the United States, they prepared themselves, under Miss Fukuda's guidance, through study and discussion of appropriate resource materials and the preparation of working papers. Finally, due both to her acumen as an entrepreneur and her excellence as a materials resource person, the recently published Guide to Japanese Reference Materials represents the cooperative work of more than one hundred contributors to Japanese bibliography, librarianship, and library education.

Although we cannot give space to naming all who have traveled abroad to study librarianship and who returned to Japan with impact on the field, the name of Masao Senda, a member of the Tenri religious sect, who studied abroad during Showa 13-16 (1938-1941), should not be omitted. Tenri is an enclave, a religious community, near the Nara region in Japan, almost entirely set apart from the rest of the region, with its own shrines, communal civic projects, and university. At Tenri, after his return, Senda proceeded to build an enormously rich rare book collection of both Oriental and Western materials, a collection in depth of Western bibliographic sources, and as much library science materials as he could procure. Under Senda's leadership, courses in library science were developed which were well attended. Of special value for library education was the application of Western concepts of library administration and building plans. There is evidence of this the moment one steps into the foyer of the Tenri University Library building.

Miyogo Osa, already mentioned, is the person to whom this author is indebted for much of his data relating to early Japanese library leaders. He matriculated at Columbia University's School of Library Service during the period Taisho 15 to Showa 2 (1926-1927), and was a classmate of Robert Downs who later came to Japan to consult on the establishing of the National Diet Library and who subsequently made the initial survey for the American Library Association regarding the prospects for developing a college level professional library education program in Japan.

In the early years of library education in the United States, library school faculty were acutely conscious of the relative paucity of professional literature available to library schools and their students. It
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is not surprising to find a parallel in Japan's library education history, although today there is a burgeoning of professional writing. The first periodical in library science, as far as this writer knows, began in the Kansai region (Kyoto, Kobe, Osaka) and not in Tokyo. Although Tokyo is the modern capital city of Japan, the seat of government and of Tokyo University, it has not always been the point from which new and progressive developments have started. The Kansai region traditionally has been progressive and quick to take forward steps in business, banking, and civic improvement. Although the headquarters of the Japan Library Association was established in Tokyo in Meiji 26 (1893), the first periodical in library science was Toheki, published in Meiji 33 (1900) in Kyoto by the Kansai Library Association. Although it lasted only through four issues, it was a forerunner of the Kansai area's long established and esteemed Toshokan Kai (Library World).

The Japan Library Association and Its Role.—Upon his return from America and the Philadelphia Centennial, Inagi Tanaka sought to organize his Japanese colleagues who were working for the development of librarianship. Thus it was that the predecessor of what today is known as the Japan Library Association (Nippon Toshokan Kyokai) was born as the Nihon Bunko Kyokai in Meiji 26 (1893).

The Association started out vigorously enough and has continued without interruption to this day. Yet, by 1910 and until World War II it was considered by its own membership as an unimpressive and rather lethargic organization, bringing little by way of forceful leadership to librarianship or library education. It bore little resemblance to the JLA of today with its vigorous Secretariat in the person of Takashi Ariyama. It is this writer's estimate that in its early days JLA made a contribution to the substance of librarianship as best it could considering the lack of recognition librarianship had, the Association's weak financial support, and the social and political milieu in which it existed for a quarter of a century preceding World War II. Although it may have made little progress in "professionalizing" librarianship in Japan during fifty of its first seventy years' existence, it moved in that direction through publications for which it was responsible or to which it gave its support, and the short courses, institutes or "koshukais" it sponsored.

Publication.—It was not until seven years after Toheki's short-lived appearance that Japan's leading professional library journal, Toshokan Zasshi, was issued—in Meiji 40 (1907). It continues today as the official
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voice of the Japan Library Association and the library profession in Japan. In the year of its founding, JLA sponsored the publication of Wa-Kanjō Mokuroku Hensan Kisoku (Cataloging Rules for Japanese and Chinese Materials). This was the basic guide and foundation for cataloging in Japan for many years. In Showa 15 (1940), JLA stimulated professional publication through its President’s Prize Award. This was established as an award for outstanding books and papers contributing to the development of library science. In the next year the following significant contributions to Japanese library literature appeared: Keitaro Amano’s Nihon ni Okeru Mokuroku Ho no Kenkyu (Study of Cataloging in Japan); Seiichi Hayashi’s Tosho no Seiri To Riyo Ho (Processing and the Use of the Book); Jikai Imazawa’s Toshokan Keiei no Riron Oyobi Jussai (Theory and Practice of Library Administration).

A landmark publication which appeared in Showa 16 (1941) was Kiyoshi Mori’s Nippon Jusshin Bunruiho (Nippon Decimal Classification). Based on Dewey, but with considerable revisions or departures for application to the classification of non-Western materials and learning, this is one of the basic tools in use today throughout Japan. Like Dewey it has gone through several editions. Mr. Mori has taught classification in institutes and workshops throughout the land. Others among the “modern” pioneer contributors to the monographic literature of library science in Japan and who are still writing today include Seiichi Kitera, Yuzo Minami, Noriaki Ono, Sakae Yamashita, to mention but a few.

The Short Courses, “Koshukais.”—In its sponsorship, either by itself or in concert with Mombusho (Ministry of Education), of various types of short courses, workshops, and institutes, JLA made an effort to upgrade the function and status of librarianship in Japan. It is this writer’s understanding that in the beginning the terms “library science” or “library education” never appeared in this connection; the sessions simply were known as “library business koshukai” or “library koshukai.” According to Osa, approximately thirty such koshukais were held between Meiji 36 and Showa 15(1903-1940) on a national scale. Of this number two-thirds were directly sponsored by Mombusho, one-half of the remaining third being held by JLA and half through local or prefectural government sponsorship.

The first such koshukai was held in Meiji 36(1903) under JLA sponsorship and had the participation of most of the library leaders of that period. Its content was concerned primarily with technical
matters. The first Mombusho sponsored sessions of this type, the "Library Study Koshukai," was held in Meiji 41 (1908) at the instigation of the first All-Japan National Library Convention.

A koshukai was held at Keio University in Taisho 5 (1916) under JLA's sponsorship; and one of the first koshukais to be resumed after World War II, entirely Japanese inspired, notwithstanding the Occupation's presence, was held in 1948 at Kyoto University, during that institution's brief effort to establish a library school, 1948-1949. The pre-war koshukais were not confined to the main islands of the former Japanese Empire but also had been held on occasion in Formosa (Taiwan) and Chosen (Korea).

**Significant Post-World War II Developments**

With the relatively long experience of the koshukais held during the first forty years of the Twentieth Century, the Japanese librarians were accustomed to the intensive, short course approach to library training. It had become a traditional pattern—for want of something more permanent and comprehensive. It is understandable, then, that the IFEL (Institutes for Educational Leadership) program instituted by the Civil Information and Education Section of SCAP (Supreme Command for the Allied Powers) found enthusiastic response among Japanese educators, school folk, and librarians.

The IFEL programs were concerned with making available throughout Japan institutes covering a considerable range of the learning spectrum. Between 1948-1951, IFEL provided refresher courses in twenty-five subject areas, as well as introducing curriculum aspects to the educational scene that were new to Japan. Four institutes were held on various aspects of library science. The first two were scheduled in 1949, under the direction of Jane Fairweather of the C.I. and E. staff. In 1950 and 1951, two more were held under the guidance of Dr. Susan Akers, Dean of the University of North Carolina Library School (now retired). Both JLA and Mombusho assisted in the recruitment of in-service library workers and library leaders who became participants in the institutes which were of several months' duration.

**Legislation.**—A second major post-World War II development was that of new legislation. Granted that the Japan Library Law of 30 April 1950 and the School Library Law of 8 August 1953 were a stimulus to certain aspects of education for librarianship, these laws were preceded by certain other legislative enactments. For example, there is the Mom-
busho Ordinance Number Eleven of 23 May 1947, known as the "School Education Enforcement Regulation," which prescribed that each primary, middle, and high school have a library to implement the school curriculum. It was this Ordinance which was responsible for the 1948 koshukai previously mentioned. The koshukai was focused on school librarianship and offered instruction on basic, elementary library techniques for teachers who might find themselves designated as teacher-librarians.

From the very beginning of this school library development in Japan, teachers have been drawn into the orbit on a nation-wide scale. This is one factor which accounts for the strength and vitality of the Japan School Library Association, founded in February 1950. Another is the dynamic leadership it has had from its vigorous executive director, Yataro Matsuo. An annual conference of the Association, for example, seldom finds less than 4,000 in attendance. Not only are school librarians present, but also teacher-librarians, teachers, principals, school superintendents, etc. Although Kyoto University's early koshukai quite probably offered little more than the most basic rudiments in library education, it was a start. What is more important is that it brought so large a number of non-librarians into the orbit of the emerging school library situation.

Important, too, was the Mombusho Ordinance Number Thirty-Eight of 1 November 1949. It established what was known as the "Teacher Approbation Koshukai." It stipulated that such koshukais were to be provided annually for teachers in each prefecture. They were to consist of thirty hours of lecture, plus fifteen hours of self-study, for which the teacher would receive credit for one unit of library science. This Ordinance was the first recognition by law of library science as a discipline in teacher education. Furthermore, as school libraries came into being, staffed by librarians with at least a minimal amount of formal library education, it helped make for a climate of understanding and cooperation between the librarian and the teacher within a school.

Lohrer, Sawamoto, and Chikao Ogura have called attention to the library education requirements set forth in the Japan Library Law of 1950 and the School Library Law of 1953. It will suffice to note here, therefore, that the former calls for completion of 15 units (semester hours) of library science in the basic core areas; the latter sets forth an 8 unit requirement for teacher-librarians.

For the first five years after the enactment of the Japan Library
Law, workshops for library leaders were held throughout the country. In 1951, the first summer following the legislation, three workshops started the series, and the Keio library school faculty participated in them. Within five years, 4,800 library personnel had achieved the “shisho” status and certificate. After the enactment of the School Library Law, yearly institutes and workshops began in 1954. More than 15,000 have received this training. Lohrer notes that the quality of the instruction in the workshops left much to be desired because of the dearth of qualified teaching personnel for the workshops. This is true, but at the same time, the figures are impressive and continue to grow. Japanese librarians are aware of the need for upgrading the caliber of instruction, and there is evidence of some improvement. Experience and the gradual growth of a teaching corps through professional education are slowly increasing the number of persons qualified to conduct courses of instruction.

It is appropriate at this point to direct attention to the standards established by the Japan University Accrediting Association. Hattori refers to the body as the University Standards Association of Japan (USAJ). The Association’s sub-committee on library education was charged with the responsibility to develop standards and criteria. Most of the Mombusho’s curricula specifications are entirely quantitative and detailed to the point of exactly naming the courses of instruction, but the library education standards set forth qualitatively a framework within which colleges and universities are given leeway to build programs best suited to their objectives, provided they met certain minimum requirements. Thirty-eight units of professional courses were to be required in a university degree program distributed as follows:

Basic, fundamental courses—A minimum of 6 units from such areas as introduction to librarianship, communications and the library, history of books and libraries, etc.

Materials courses—A minimum of 8 units from such areas as book selection, bibliographic research materials, reading and reading materials, audio-visual materials, etc.

Technical processes courses—A minimum of 8 units of courses in cataloging, classification, acquisitions, etc.

Administration courses—A minimum of 6 units from areas such as library organization, library buildings, library extension systems, etc.

Electives and specialization—10 Units.

Library Education and Library School Programs—Before the end
Education for Librarianship Abroad: Japan

of the second decade of the twentieth century, library leaders in Japan were aware that although the koshukais were a source of help to library workers, there was a need for more comprehensive education and formal instruction than the brief courses could provide. In response to this movement for an educational program, the Mombusho established the Training Institute for Librarians in 1921. As the school was located in what was then the Ueno Imperial Library, the school became known as the Ueno Library School. Until 1941 it required only eleventh grade completion for admission, and its course of study was confined largely to practical methods and their application. The one year course was reduced to nine months because of the war, and in 1941 the operation was suspended entirely.

Following the war the school was reopened with higher entrance requirements—two years or more of college, with the course of study at Ueno being lengthened to two years. There was some thought of the Institute, the library school, coming within the aegis of Tokyo University, but this did not materialize. When the Ueno Imperial Library became a branch of the National Diet Library as a result of the National Diet Library Law of 1948, the library school came directly within the cognizance of the Social Education Section of Mombusho. Entrance requirements were lowered to high school graduation, with a two year course of study being retained in the library school. Admission requirements again were raised to junior college standing in 1954, and Sawamoto reports that in 1958 the course of study was reduced to one year.14

University located courses in library science, with the exception of the early, short-lived Tokyo University course begun in 1918 by Dr. Wada, is a post-war development in Japan. As a result of the Library Science Study Group of Doshisha University at Kyoto, that University started a training program in 1945 for in-service librarians. Today, Doshisha offers a more formally organized curriculum of twenty semester hours, quite a step forward from its earlier one hour a week course, which was given over a six months' period and which was concerned primarily with cataloging practice.

Kyoto University's effort toward a library school program in 1948 already has been noted; it lasted but a year.

Masao Senda, mentioned earlier, was largely responsible for beginning an introductory program of library studies at Tenri University. In 1951 a one year program was started which featured class sessions on Wednesday and Saturday from 1-4 p.m. In 1952 the course became
part of a 62 credit hour junior college program, including General Education. At present 17 hours of library science studies are offered at Tenri.

The one university level library school program leading to degree and which is accredited by the Japan University Accrediting Association is that of the Japan Library School in the Faculty of Letters at Keio University, Tokyo. It is a temptation to discuss at length the history of the school, the factors which led in January 1951 to Keio University being chosen as the University invited to undertake the program, the selection of the faculty, and the basis for the curricular structure.

For an over-all view, quantitatively, of the current library education scene, attention is directed to the data in Tables 1-5, accompanying this article. The main source of this information is the Japan Library Association, supplied through the offices of the executive secretary of the Japan Library School at Keio University, Mr. Ikuo Anzai; some slight changes have been made by the present writer.

When the Japan Library School was first established at Keio University in 1951 under the auspices of the American Library Association's contract with the American Government, it was intended that the foreign faculty would be present in Japan for a year, or at most fifteen months, turning over to Keio administration after that time the complete responsibility for staffing and financing the school. The goals to be achieved were set forth at the time of the School's establishment:

1. To recruit promising young men and women to the Keio program of library studies.
2. To provide a comprehensive program of professional courses in library science as a part of the over-all four year program leading to a degree.
3. To provide, through workshops and institutes at Keio and elsewhere in Japan, training opportunities for in-service librarians.
4. To serve as a consultant center for library workers in the field.
5. To develop a corps of teaching personnel as potential library school faculty.
6. Through accomplishing the foregoing, to enrich the substance of librarianship and its functions in the land, and generally upgrade the profession and its status.

From the very beginning the director questioned the feasibility of accomplishing so comprehensive an inventory of objectives—particu-
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Institutions</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Hokkaido</th>
<th>North</th>
<th>Kanto</th>
<th>Middle</th>
<th>Kyoto-Osaka</th>
<th>Chugoku</th>
<th>Shikoku</th>
<th>Kyushu</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>National university</td>
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<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
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<td>6</td>
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<td>1</td>
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</tr>
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</tr>
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<td>2</td>
<td>8</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>2</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
larly the developing of a faculty corps—in the time allocated. By the end of June in the first semester, it was clear that were the foreign faculty to withdraw completely at the end of the first year of the school's operation, there would be no qualified replacements, although workshops for such personnel had been developed. Important, too, would be the need the graduates would have for faculty support and counsel if, after placement, they experienced difficult problems in "traditional" situations. As a result it was recommended to the American Library Association that a resident, foreign faculty be continued for four years, annually replacing one of its members with a resident Japanese teaching colleague who, it was anticipated, would have had the advantage of further special preparation to assume the responsibility. In July 1952, the Rockefeller Foundation granted approximately $142,800 for the support needed by Keio University for developing on a permanent basis the Japan Library School, as prescribed in the director's proposals.

The plan provided for an annual gradually decreasing flow of Foundation dollar funds, and an annual gradual increase in Keio yen funds, with Keio scheduled to assume full responsibility for finance and personnel as of July 1956—which it did. Moreover, Keio not only met its commitment but provided over and beyond the plan's specifications additional equipment and facilities as well. Full responsibility for the library school in every aspect has been Keio University's since July 1956. However, in its endeavor to keep its program dynamic and forward moving, Keio has sought and received stimulus from both the Rockefeller and Asia Foundations in support of special projects, workshops, seminars, and institutes, and in providing for one visiting foreign faculty member each year since 1956.

Under a second proposal encompassing another five year plan (1956-1961), funds were made available to Keio to (1) provide for a visiting foreign library specialist of Keio's choice to teach a semester at Keio in an area of its selection, and also to carry a summer workshop; (2) provide for a year's study abroad for one of its own faculty or another Japanese librarian nominated by Keio; (3) provide for the purchase of non-Japanese books and materials in library science; (4) provide a scholarship fund for Keio and transfer students; and (5) underwrite tuition-free summer workshops at Keio or as sponsored by Keio elsewhere for in-service library personnel, to be drawn from libraries throughout Japan.

Current Trends and Developments.—Since Lohrer's earlier reporting
Education for Librarianship Abroad: Japan

in this journal, there have been certain revisions in the Japan Library School's curriculum, as well as extensions in the scope of its program. Whereas course offerings totaled 46 semester hours in 1958, currently the program provides 65 semester hours, with most of the increase accounted for by five courses, totaling 11 semester hours, especially designed for science librarians.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Institutions</th>
<th>7 Units Or Less</th>
<th>8-14 Units</th>
<th>15 Units Or More</th>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training Institute</td>
<td>1 (1)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>43 (47)</td>
<td>17 (15)</td>
<td>15 (12)</td>
<td>75 (74)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Number in parentheses is the comparable figure for July 1958.

This branching out has stemmed from a proposal for preparing librarians in the life sciences (agriculture, biology, medicine, etc.). The Rockefeller Foundation provided a grant for the three year program now in progress and made possible Keio's first Life Sciences Workshops held in the Spring and Summer of 1962, with Dr. Estelle Brodman, medical librarian and professor at Washington University, St. Louis, as the first specialist. Columbia's Thomas Fleming was the second specialist on the Mita campus of Keio in 1963. The visiting professor feature of the grant will terminate in 1964, with the University of California's Richard Blanchard, librarian of its Davis campus, as specialist.

The program has been devised so as to make possible the recruitment of persons qualified for either short-term or long-term courses of study. The former provides for a three month program, with the student enrolled in the university in a special auditor status; the latter enrolls the student in a non-degree (non-matriculated status) for a one year program of 30 semester hours. Even though the grant terminates in 1964, the new curriculum and program will have been established. It will be carried on by resident Japanese faculty who presently are working with the visiting foreign library specialists.
<table>
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<tr>
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Note: No date of establishment was reported by 16 institutions.
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<th>Grand Total</th>
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<td>Instr.</td>
<td>Asst.</td>
<td>Other</td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>Prof.</td>
<td>Asst. Prof.</td>
<td>Lectr.</td>
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<td>Total</td>
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Note: The concept and definition of "Full-time" and "Part-time" are known to differ among the reporting institutions.
TABLE 5  
List of Institutions Offering More Than 15 Units

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<th>Number of Units In Library Science</th>
<th>In Related Areas</th>
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</tr>
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<tr>
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<tr>
<td>Tokyo University</td>
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<td>12 (12)</td>
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<td>Training Institute</td>
<td>*32 (49)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Prefectural</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<tr>
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</tr>
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<tr>
<td>Doshisha University</td>
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</tr>
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<td>Keio University</td>
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</tr>
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<td>16</td>
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<tr>
<td>Mukogawa Joshi (women) University</td>
<td>15</td>
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<td>Nihon University</td>
<td>16 (16)</td>
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<td>Sagami Joshi (women) University</td>
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<td>Tenri University</td>
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<td>Toyo University</td>
<td>40</td>
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<tr>
<td>Waseda University</td>
<td>22 (18)</td>
<td>12 (18)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Indicates number of units offered only by full-time faculty; additional units are taught by part-time instructors but were not reported.

** 61 units given as of 1962-63; 65 units listed in 1963-64 Catalogue. Number in parenthesis is the comparable figure for July 1958.

Although the library school at Keio is making a contribution to the new and advancing technology of documentation and information retrieval in developing its curriculum and in the placing of 22 percent of its graduates in special library positions, it is neither the only or foremost agency concerned with this area. There are other agencies carrying on short courses and training programs in this special area. A number of vigorous and well financed societies and organizations have developed in the last decade, mostly within the past few years, and are carrying on important work and service in documentation, retrieval, machine translation, coordinate indexing, etc., for which personnel are very much needed. An excellent treatment of this appears in the 1962 revision of the Kerr Report.¹⁷

The Ministry's Science Information Section provides financial and technical assistance in the publication of Japan Science Review and
presently is compiling a documentation manual. In addition to its publication program, the Japan Information Center of Science and Technology (JIXT) translates foreign papers into Japanese upon request, maintains photo-reproduction services, provides an abstracting and index service and, since 1961, has operated an electric computer known as JEIPAC. It also has its own publications. In 1959 the Council for Science and Technology set up an advisory board; among its recommendations in connection with a proposed ten year plan was that relating to the need for systematic training of documentalists.\(^{18}\)

In Tokyo, during August and September 1962, the Japan Library Association held an “Institute for Documentation Studies.” In two separate periods of five day sessions an average of 45 participants heard presentations by 15 different specialists from special libraries, Keio University, and the National Diet Library on such topics as mechanization of information retrieval, subject analysis, searches of information sources, structure of an information center, photo-reproduction of materials, etc. A similar program was presented for 42 additional participants in Nagoya.

In November and December of 1962, the Mombusho held “Institutes for Documentation” in Tokyo and Nagoya, in which the editorial, indexing, and reproduction aspects of documentation were featured. Visits to installations in the Toshiba Social Sciences Hall and the Toyota Automobile Company were features of these institutes.

An extended program, “Institute for Information Service” began in April 1963 and carried out a schedule through September of the same year. Under the joint auspices of the Information Service Association, the Society for Promotion of Industrial Technique, and the Daily Industry Press, a series of six courses of approximately five to six consecutive evenings each month was planned for the period between April and September. Participants were enrolled for any one of the months or for the entire series over the six months, with fees being charged accordingly. Each month’s topic was concerned with a different aspect of documentation.

In addition to its extensive abstracting, translation, and other documentation services, the Japan Information Center of Science and Technology annually holds two short-term (2 day) institutes on documentation in each of three cities—Tokyo, Osaka, and Nagoya, or Fukuoka. The average number of participants in the Tokyo sessions is approximately 180 persons.

It is clear that Japan is taking steps to develop and to promote a
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corps of information specialists. In 1958, the Japanese Government devised a new certification for “Gijutsushi,” which may be translated as “Engineer” or “Technician.” It is reported that “this title is given to those who meet the qualifications and pass government examinations in the fields such as electronics, machine engineering, applied physics, etc. And in 1961, the Government added ‘Science-technology information service’ as a field. In order to be qualified as Gijutsushi in the field of ‘Science-technology information service’ one must have experience over 7 years and pass the examination given by the Science and Technology Authority. Approximately 20 people have been qualified so far.” 19

Problems, Judgments.—Notwithstanding the considerable evidence that professional education for librarianship and the development of subject information specialists in Japan is far from static—in fact it is quite dynamic—the Japanese librarians, teachers in the field, and documentalists constantly reiterate their concern over the availability, numbers, and preparation of personnel to implement their programs. Historically there is little that Japanese librarianship can build on by way of attractive recruitment. Prior to the current period Japan had no concept of a librarian as a highly specialized professional person. And prior to 1951 there was no library school at the university level, despite the existence of more than several hundred public libraries, five hundred college and university libraries, and a thousand special research collections. The “chief librarian” of the larger libraries, public and academic, was usually a distinguished scholar or a senior professor appointed on a short-term basis. The rank and file library workers as such have enjoyed little more than a clerical status of a very low category.

Now, in view of the pressing new and increasing need for well educated and specially trained personnel by agencies with status—business and industry—who are making research-library-information jobs attractive by virtue of prerequisites and salary, there are prospects for overcoming what heretofore has handicapped recruitment of quality young people to the field.

Although the Keio library school curriculum has undergone considerable revision and expansion in scope since the doors were first opened in 1951, there are those who believe the time is approaching for recasting the program into the graduate level. Keio would be faced in such a departure in complying with the Mombusho requirement that all graduate degree curricula must be based on an under-
graduate degree in the same discipline. Unless some special dispensa-
tion could be worked out, possibly with the advice and counsel of the
Japan University Accrediting Association, whereby only a minimal
number of undergraduate professional subjects would be required at
the undergraduate level, Keio might find itself required to load its
students with an over-abundance of professional subjects in lieu of
their receiving a broad general education and subject specialization in
cognate areas of study. Already Keio and its cross-town counterpart, the
Library Training Institute at Ueno, have made curricular changes and
developments in their programs in relatively less time in their history
than have certain long established American schools.

It is clear that one of the critical needs of library education in Japan
is for an increasing corps of well qualified library educators. But this
is a factor which requires the element of time, among other things;
and there are indications that Japanese library education is beginning
to harvest a seasoned, maturing crop. This is evidenced, for example,
by the contributions which a number of its representatives are making
to professional study and conferences in the United States and Europe.

Significant, too, is the enrichment of Japanese library literature which
increasingly is becoming more sophisticated in its treatment of pro-
fessional subjects. Masanobu Fujikawa's philosophical paper presented
before a recent Library Education Seminar meeting in Hakone, in
which he inquires into the objectives, level, curricula, teaching methods
and research in library education is a case in point.20

The thoughtful, vigorous and sustained approaches which a number
of Japanese librarians and library educators are making in their efforts
to realize progress and find solutions to their problems, would seem to
augur well for the future of library education and librarianship in
Japan.

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Australia

JEAN P. WHYTE

In 1896 the first Australasian Library Conference was held in Melbourne, Australia, and at that Conference the Library Association of Australasia (intended to cover libraries and librarians from both Australia and New Zealand) was formed. At this first Conference the Librarian of the Public Library of New South Wales, Mr. H. C. L. Anderson, "... said that he had found it advisable to hold classes in library economy for his juniors, and that he hoped the conference would consider the advisability of instituting some system of examinations for the whole of Australia, with the object of conferring diplomas on successful students. Such a diploma, he said, awarded by an inter-colonial board of examiners, should be as valuable as those given in the useful library schools of the United States."¹

Mr. Anderson subsequently reported to the Second International Library Conference held in London in 1897 "I hold classes for the junior officers, which I have found invaluable for training these assistants to thoroughly understand our own system of cataloguing and indexing, and to deal intelligently with the public whom we serve."²

Anderson's hope as expressed to that first Conference was not fulfilled, and this first library association in Australia ceased to function after six years, during which it had held three more conferences and published six numbers of a journal, the Library Record of Australasia. His plea for the importance of educating librarians was characteristic of those that were to follow some forty years later, and his attitudes were much the attitudes that still characterize education for librarianship in Australia. Anderson was interested in a national examining system; today this exists in Australia. Anderson considered the American schools "useful"; Australians charged with the tasks of drawing up the syllabi for examinations in librarianship have constantly had to meet the criticism that parts of the courses were not really "useful".
to the librarian on the job. More than forty years later, in 1937 the Australian Institute of Librarians was formed. The qualifications required of foundation members of the Institute were: “A degree of an approved university, or a certificate of University matriculation, or a certificate of an equivalent general education, or a certificate of sufficient education from the principal librarian of his state or territory, together with five years experience in the case of non-graduates, and three years in the case of graduates in professional work in a library. . . .”

The first conference of the Institute, held in 1938, emphasized the importance of professional education for librarians. W. H. Ifould, speaking on “The Future of the Institute” said that the work required of the librarian “. . . necessarily entails intensive technical training and experience extending over a number of years, superimposed upon a sound university education or its equivalent.” He considered that “. . . one of the most urgent subjects for decision by this Institute is the setting of a general standard for library training in Australia, with special consideration for the needs of small municipal libraries.”

The problems of training librarians for reference libraries, university libraries, parliamentary libraries, lending libraries, and special libraries were discussed in five papers given at this first conference. Some of the speakers described the training and requirements for professional librarianship in Great Britain and the United States, and Mr. F. L. S. Bell, who was later to be elected to the Board of Examination, Certification and Registration of Librarians, gave his advice to the young association in no uncertain terms. He finished his paper on “The Professional Librarian in the United States: His Status, Qualifications and Conditions” with this sentence: “If we are looking for a model on which to base the future organisation of our profession we must look across the Pacific to our American cousins.”

In the year ending June 1939, the Council of the Institute elected a Standing Committee in Library Training and Standards. The Committee’s object was “. . . to establish a standard of librarianship in Australia which should not be inferior to any standard anywhere.” This committee recommended the appointment of a Board of Examination and Certification. The setting up of the Board was approved in June 1940, and the Board was appointed to serve in 1941. The Board worked at drawing up a syllabus for examinations, and in June 1944, the first professional examinations of the Australian Institute of Librarians were held throughout Australia.

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Since 1944 the actual syllabus for these national examinations has been revised several times, and the possibility of other patterns of organization for education for librarianship have been discussed frequently. Foremost among these suggestions were those of visiting librarians, in the paper presented to the Seventh Conference of the Library Association of Australia by Elizabeth S. Hall and Wilma Radford and articles in the *Australian Library Journal.*

Visiting librarians who came to survey or to observe librarianship in Australia proposed various plans for the improvement of education for librarianship in the country. In 1934 Ralph Munn, bearing in mind the backward state of Australian libraries, suggested an apprenticeship system and urged the case for recruiting university graduates rather than sixteen year olds who have just left school.21 Lionel McColvin in 1947 urged the importance of teaching. He wanted to see two full-time library schools teaching for the examinations of the Australian Institute of Librarians, one in Sydney and one in Melbourne. In addition he urged the establishment of a school of research and advanced studies to be attached to the National University in Canberra.22 Similar views to McColvin's were expressed by E. H. Behymer, but Behymer—an American—was anxious that recruitment be at graduate level.23

In 1949 the Australian Institute of Librarians became the Library Association of Australia, and in August 1963, the Association adopted a Royal Charter. Since 1941, however, the regulations governing the appointment of members of the Board of Examination, Certification and Registration of Librarians have remained essentially the same. The Board is appointed by the professional members of the General Council of the Association, for a period of from two to five years, "... provided that the Professional Members of the General Council may vary the membership of the Board and period of office of any of its members at any time."24 The objects of the Library Association of Australia are: (1) to promote, establish, and improve libraries and library services, (2) to improve the standard of librarianship and the status of the library profession, and (3) to promote the association for the foregoing objects of persons, societies, institutions and corporate bodies engaged or interested in libraries and library services.25

The Board of Examination, Certification and Registration of Librarians is especially concerned with the second of these objects.

In setting up a national system of examinations, the Library Association of Australia (then the Australian Institute of Librarians) organized the examination of libraries in Australia along the lines of the
Library Association in Great Britain. There is, however, in the published proceedings and reports of the Library Association of Australia, in the statements of Australian librarians, and in the actual content of the examination syllabus, little to suggest that Australian libraries deliberately set out to copy the British Association. In actual fact, given the conditions that existed in 1940, it is difficult to see what other system for educating librarians could have been devised. There were only two centers of training and both of them were still in the experimental stage. A national Association was obliged to serve all its members, and a decision to accredit one school would not have been considered service and would not in fact have done much for Australian librarianship. The Association could not itself set up a school, for its total income in 1940 did not exceed 300 dollars per annum. It is dangerous to assume that the Australian system was in any but an organizational way, a conscious copying of the English one. Australian education for librarianship grew out of the desire of a professional association to improve the standards of Australian libraries. This Association was the child of the Munn-Pitt report on Australian libraries, and the attending physician was John Metcalfe. As it is in general true to say that Melvil Dewey was the founder of American education for librarianship, so it is true to say that John Metcalfe was the founder of Australian education for librarianship. He was behind the New South Wales Library School; he was the convenor of the first Committee on Library Training and Standards and remained Chairman of the Board of Examination, Certification and Registration of Librarians until 1960.

A reading of the Proceedings of the Australian Institute of Librarians from its inception reveals the extent to which Australian librarians were looking to America. In 1934 Australian librarians had met an American colleague—"We were fortunate in the Carnegie Corporation's choice of Mr. Ralph Munn." They had listened to his criticisms and had acted on them. Several Australian librarians had studied in the United States under grants from the Carnegie Corporation of New York. The papers given at the conferences cover a wide field, but whether the speakers were concerned with library co-operation or country library service, with library training or with library work with children, the references to American practice and American literature outnumber those made to all other countries.

In 1944 the examinations of the Australian Institute of Librarians consisted of two groups: a Preliminary Examination and a Qualifying
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Examination. In 1963, after several changes, the Association has one Registration Examination. This examination consists of nine three-hour papers and is usually taken in three years, although the regulations allow students to sit for all the papers in two years. Those accepted for the examination must be qualified for matriculation at an Australian university and must be members of the Library Association of Australia.

The syllabus consists of seven compulsory subjects and two others to be chosen from nine. The compulsory subjects are: books and related materials; libraries; acquisition, organization and use of books and related materials; reference work and aids to research; library administration; cataloging; and classification. The optional papers include advanced cataloging and classification; book selection and collection building; history and comparative study of librarianship; production, publication, history and care of books; national, state and local collections, with special reference to Australia; school and children's libraries; and three papers on archives.

Candidates wishing to qualify for a Registration Certificate in Archives are required to pass the same number of papers, but the archives papers make up three of their compulsory seven.

In addition to the examination requirements, students must have three years of experience or training in librarianship and be twenty-one years of age before being eligible for the Registration Certificate.

Library Schools and University Schools

As was previously mentioned, the Public Library of New South Wales was holding some form of classes in librarianship before 1900, and in 1935 Dr. Ralph Munn reported that “The Public Library of New South Wales has a formal system of examinations and the Public Library of Victoria is planning one.” The examinations of the Public Library of New South Wales were Public Service Board examinations for library assistants and included papers on historical bibliography, library cataloging, classification, practical bibliography, and library administration.

In 1939 the Government of the State of New South Wales decided to adopt the recommendations of its Libraries Advisory Committee and to legislate for a system of free public libraries throughout the State. In order to achieve this aim, the Government authorized the establishment of a Library School at the Public Library of New South Wales and made provision for the Library Board to issue certificates.
to those persons who could satisfy the Board of their qualifications to act as librarians or library assistants. The Library School of the Public Library of New South Wales was the first school for librarians in the country, and students attended the school for lectures and practical work from 9:00 A.M. to 4:30 P.M., five days a week.

The Public Library of Victoria set up a library school under the Free Library Service Board Act of 1946. This school offered a certificate of its own which is recognized by the governing bodies of municipal libraries. The school is primarily concerned with the public library field because most of its graduates go into municipal public libraries, and indeed the school was established to meet the needs of these libraries. Students at this school also prepare for the Registration Examination of the Library Association of Australia.

Since 1938 various courses and lectures on librarianship have been offered by the National Library of Australia. Some of these courses have been full-time courses for librarians appointed either to the staff of the National Library itself or to special Commonwealth governmental libraries. The courses have been a mixture of in-service training and coaching for the examinations of the Library Association of Australia. At the present time the courses cover the syllabus of the Library Association and admit not only local students but also people from other countries, notably the Asian-Pacific areas.

Courses designed to help students pass the Registration Examinations of the Library Association of Australia and to make them more competent members of the staffs of special libraries are held in several of the larger libraries. Among these are the State Library of Tasmania, the Public Library of South Australia, and the Library of the University of New England at Armidale.

In addition, some classes for the Registration examinations are held in technical colleges, notably in Western Australia and Queensland. In 1962 full-time courses in librarianship were established at the Royal Melbourne Institute of Technology, Victoria. The School is under the direction of Miss Jean Hagger, B.A., M.S. (University of Illinois Graduate School of Library Science), and while initially the students are studying the syllabus for the Registration Examination, the School plans to develop and teach its own curriculum.

In 1960 the first university School of Librarianship was established at the University of New South Wales. This School offered a full-time course of one academic year leading to a Diploma of librarianship. Only graduates holding degrees from a recognized university can
qualify for this Diploma. The School is under the direction of John Metcalfe, M.A., F.L.A., who is also the University Librarian. Wilma Radford, B.A., B.S. (Columbia University, School of Library Service) is the Senior Lecturer at the School.

Beginning in 1964 the School will offer a course leading to a Master's degree in Librarianship. This M.Lib. course will have as prerequisites for registration or enrollment:

... a bachelor's or a higher degree in a subject other than librarianship and post graduate qualifications in librarianship. Requirements after registration are attendance at the university for not less than ninety hours of tutorials and seminars over three terms and completion of a thesis with attendance for supervision in not less than four terms from registration. ... The course will not be an advanced practical course for seniors or administrators. It will be one of academic study of librarianship and related subjects, with specialization and an expectation of original work and contribution, especially in the thesis. A master's degree may however become an expected qualification for administrative and other senior positions and for teachers of librarianship especially if it becomes evidence of ability for basic thinking.30

The University of Melbourne is about to introduce a course in librarianship. This will be a post-graduate course leading initially to a Diploma in librarianship and after two years to a degree in librarianship.

The Future

Australian librarians have always been interested in the education of librarians, and there is a growing interest in the definition of the "professional" aspects of librarianship and the differentiation of staff into "clerical," "technical," and "professional" grades. Ten years ago a questionnaire sent to the Australians most concerned with education for librarianship revealed that they placed great emphasis on practical experience and on the teaching of techniques, and many of them tended to distrust university education for librarianship because it might be too theoretical and too removed from the practical skills required in libraries. They were also loath to allow the existence of varying professional qualifications and inclined to think that their one national qualification should be retained.31 Today this attitude has changed.

In 1962 the General Council of the Library Association of Aus-
tralia approved a statement on Graduate Qualifications for Librarianship which had been drawn up by the Association’s Board of Examination. This statement announced that the Association had accepted the fact that librarians should be university graduates, and the statement gave notice that at some date to be determined it would require members to be university graduates:

There is a strong and growing tendency in Australia to regard as fully professional only those occupations which require university qualifications. It appears to the Board that the instinct or judgment thus displayed by society at large is soundly based for the following reasons:

a. University education is no longer restricted to a privileged minority, it is open to those who have the necessary ability and character.

b. A professional man or woman should display not merely expertise but wisdom; it is a function of education to develop wisdom and a profession should, therefore, require a high standard of education in those seeking admission to its membership.

c. New entrants to most of the professions whose standing is beyond question are today, in Australia, required to undertake university studies.

... Therefore, the Board considers that unless the Association, within the not distant future, requires all new entrants to full professional standing to be not only qualified in librarianship but also graduates, society at large will not accord them professional status.32

In August 1963 the Library Association of Australia adopted a Royal Charter. Under this Charter:

"The General Council may, with the consent of the Board of Examiners, confer on a member proficient in librarianship the distinction of 'Fellow of the Library Association of Australia', or of 'Associate of the Library Association of Australia.'" 33

All present professional members of the Association will become Associates of the Association and will be entitled to use the letters A.L.A.A. The Association has decided to implement the statement on Graduate Qualifications for Librarianship, and after June 1967, professional membership, and therefore, Associateship, will no longer be open to non-graduates. After this date members will have to have passed all the professional examinations, have had three years experience and hold a degree from a recognized university before becoming eligible for election to Associateship. Non-graduates who have
passed the examinations and had the requisite experience will be known as Licentiates of the Library Association of Australia.

The distinction of Fellow will be conferred, by the Council on the recommendation of the Board of Examiners, on professional members of at least eight years standing, who, being thirty years of age or older, "have made a distinguished contribution to the theory or practice of librarianship."

The Association has declared that it favors the establishment of library schools at universities and has appointed a Committee on University Schools of Librarianship to further its objectives. At present there is one university level school of librarianship in the country, and there will probably be another one by 1965. In addition, the Royal Melbourne Institute of Technology will probably begin to teach from its own syllabus rather than from the syllabus for the Registration Examination in the near future. Other technical colleges are considering establishing courses in librarianship.

At the same time entries for the Association's examinations continue to rise. The Registration Certificate is now held by some 550 librarians, although suffering as it must from all the disadvantages of an external examination system, it is a qualification which is respected and which is written into employment and salary agreements all over the country as a proof of the professional training of a librarian. In November 1963, about 1,000 students in about fifty different centers and as far away as Bangkok, London, and Fiji will sit for this examination.

The Board of Examination, Certification and Registration will become the "Board of Examiners" under the Royal Charter, but its essential function will remain the same, viz., to maintain the standards of librarianship in Australia. Up to the present time the Board has been primarily concerned with the drawing up of syllabi, the setting and conduct of examinations, and the certification of individual candidates, but as more and more schools of librarianship are established the Board expects to be more concerned with standards of accreditation. At present, a student who has passed all the examinations of the University of New South Wales School of Librarianship will be accepted (after fulfilling the requirement of three years' experience or training) as a candidate for election to professional membership in the Association.

The strength of Australian education for librarianship has been the establishment of a national examining body issuing certificates that
are recognized throughout the country as proof of professional knowledge. The Board has managed to insist that its examinations are designed to turn out librarians or archivists rather than special librarians, children's librarians, or public librarians. The examinations insist on a common core of subjects as being basic to the study of librarianship.

Paradoxically this strength can also be seen as a weakness. Australian librarians have in the past tended to know the same things; the compulsory core of subjects has limited the chance to specialize; the external examination system, divorced from the teacher and the library, has led to a neglect of actual "book knowledge."

The future of advanced education for librarianship lies with graduate schools of librarianship offering degrees in librarianship. It will, however, be many years before there are enough of these schools to allow the Library Association of Australia to cease examining. Until that day comes the examinations of the Association will continue to play an important part in the education of Australia's librarians.

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New Zealand

W. J. McELDOWNEY

NEW ZEALAND IS A SMALL COUNTRY with a population of 2½ million people who enjoy a high standard of living. Its economy depends on the export of the produce from its efficient farms to countries not absolutely protected by import barriers. The New Zealand farming community, which is prosperous, well educated, and conscious of the importance of science and technology for its well being, is something of an elite. There is no very large city, the biggest being Auckland, with a population (urban area) of 466,000. There are four universities, with two more in the process of formation. The total student population of the universities is about 16,000, but this figure is expected to climb sharply over the next two decades and reach 45,000 by 1982.

It is against this background that the development of libraries in New Zealand and of education for librarianship must be seen. Over the last quarter-century a good public library system has been built up, although there are still some serious gaps in coverage. The standard of book stock is high, and registered membership is commonly between 30 and 50 per cent of the population.¹ There is a well organized rural library service which is able to draw freely on other collections for special requests. The public library system does not have the large reference collections that one finds in Sydney and Melbourne, to go no farther afield. Special libraries have grown up since the last war, and are virtually all in government departments such as the Department of Scientific and Industrial Research. There are three state libraries which together could make a national library of 500,000 volumes, apart from collections such as that of the Country Library Service; their possible combination has been a thorny political problem for some time.² The university libraries have developed slowly since the early 1930's, but now seem likely to be given much greater support; the largest of them has about 235,000 volumes and is plan-

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ning to reach an annual accession rate of 25,000 within the next few years. There has been no comparable advance in school libraries.

The fundamental achievement in librarianship of the last quarter-century has been the establishment of the principle of graduate entry to the profession and the capture of key positions by graduates of the New Zealand Library School established in 1945. These graduates, together with the group of far-sighted librarians who made it possible for them to enter the profession, have now set the conditions in which great advances in library service could be made. The difficulties which face the Library School at present arise from the need to supply enough graduates, with a sufficient variety of interests and abilities, to meet the demand which has thus been created.

Developments to Date

In 1931 the Carnegie Corporation of New York, which had been examining university education in New Zealand, offered grants to the four university libraries, on condition that the university librarians would be given improved status and remuneration and that they would be sent overseas for study. The grants were accepted. Four librarians, two of whom had just been appointed, were sent to study in the United States or Great Britain.

The Carnegie Corporation was then persuaded to undertake a survey of New Zealand libraries generally, and this was carried out by Ralph Munn and John Barr in 1934. The report of this survey touched off a revolution in library services in New Zealand which in ten years led to the strengthening of the New Zealand Library Association, the organization of rural library service, interlibrary co-operation, and two indigenous courses of training. The Corporation supported this revolution by making substantial grants of money to the Association and by providing overseas study for further groups of librarians from public, state, and children's libraries. These librarians, together with one or two others who were drawn in from such fields as adult education, were the architects of the system of libraries which was established by 1945, including courses of training. They were given vital support by the Labour Government which took office in 1935 and remained until 1949. This Government included a remarkable Minister of Education, Peter Fraser, who later became an outstanding Prime Minister. It was his personal interest that made possible many of the advances of those years in librarianship.

At the time of the Munn-Barr report there was only a handful of
people in New Zealand with any sort of library training, and most of these had risen from the ranks under apprenticeship conditions in British libraries. Munn and Barr saw the extreme importance of devising means to raise the general and professional standards of librarians and assistant librarians, and they recommended that every encouragement should be given to young library assistants to acquire a university degree and obtain overseas library qualifications. They looked forward to the time when the level of salaries would be raised, so that only university graduates would be appointed to professional staffs. For staffs of country libraries they recommended two methods of training: (a) elementary training, possibly through classroom methods, in the public libraries of the four main centers, and (b) instructional visits by the chief librarians of the main centers to country libraries.

In the next few years, a number of assistants took the examinations of the Library Association (London), and local instructional courses were given, with varying effectiveness. More was needed, however, and in 1937 the New Zealand Library Association set up a committee on library training, which recommended that a course of training should be established as soon as possible by the Association. Syllabuses were drawn up and notes written, and two courses were started: one for children's librarians in 1941, and a general training course in 1942.

Both courses were designed as courses of training, rather than systems of examination. They were based on the regular submission of assignments by students, who were working as library assistants, to tutors who commented on them at length. Examinations were also set at various stages of each course. The courses represented a brave attempt by a small group of dedicated librarians, who were more than fully occupied by their normal duties, to get to the heart of the staffing problem in New Zealand libraries.

The course for children's librarians was a tough one—both for the students, only two of whom ever completed it, and for the tutor, Dorothy N. White. It was remarkable for the quality of the notes on children's books written by White which later formed the basis for her About Books for Children. The course was abandoned when the Library School was established in 1945.

The General Training Course was planned in two sections, leading to a certificate and a diploma. In all, five parts, each consisting of monthly assignments followed by an examination, had to be passed. Students were also required to keep a reading record and submit com-
Education for Librarianship Abroad: New Zealand

ments on their reading to a supervisor of reading records. The full plan of the course was this:

**A. Certificate**

Part 1 (12 months). Administration.
Part 2 (18 months). Elementary cataloging, elementary classification.
Reading record for 50 months.

**B. Diploma**

The Certificate course, and
Part 3 (12 months). Book stock.

Two of the following three parts:

Part 4 (12 months). Organization.
Part 5 (12 months). Advanced cataloging and classification.
Part 6 (12 months). The social background of library work in New Zealand.
Reading record for 50 weeks.

The reading record was a deliberate departure from the practice of overseas library training schemes. It has been developed, with experience, into a successful way of ensuring that no student can complete the course without demonstrating an ability to appreciate and understand books.

Forty-two students were admitted to the first annual General Training Course in August 1942. The course began with enthusiasm, but within a short time a number of difficulties became obvious. The main difficulties were the shortage of tutors and the lack of incentive for university graduates to enter the profession. The number of people able to act as tutors was small, and they had to make a very special effort to do the work that was required. As later courses began, it became increasingly difficult to find people to conduct them. Further, there was need for a sharp increase in the number of well qualified people in the profession, and this was not provided by the course which catered to library assistants already working in libraries.

The entry qualification for the course was the School Certificate, gained after three or four years at secondary school. A number of people in the first classes were university graduates, but they were people who happened to have taken library positions. The course was
not geared for them. As a senior qualification, the Diploma could not have been satisfactory without a raising of the entry qualification.

Before anyone started on the Diploma course, there came an opportunity to make a new start. The New Zealand Library Association had already set on record its desire to see the eventual establishment of a university library school. This was not possible at the time for a variety of reasons, including the backwardness of university libraries and the lack of any real appreciation by the universities of librarianship as a profession. In 1944, however, a happy combination of circumstances provided an opportunity to establish an advanced training course at graduate level. The United States Government opened an Information Library in Wellington early in that year under the directorship of Mary P. Parsons, who had been Resident Director of a Library School in Paris from 1924 to 1929 and had taught in library schools in Canada and the United States. The New Zealand Library Association persuaded the government to obtain the services of Parsons and to establish a library school attached to the Country Library Service.

The Country Library Service was at this time the main growing point of library service in New Zealand. Besides its service to rural areas, it had begun the development of a national bibliographical center, a central reference collection, and a school library service. In 1945, with the addition of the Library School, it was reorganized as the National Library Service, each of these functions being carried out by a separate division of the new Service.

The government agreed that students of the Library School should be paid a living allowance, and it was therefore possible to organize a concentrated course and to require the students to work a full week. The first course opened in February 1946 with twenty-nine students, a number of whom were ex-servicemen, and ended the following November.

Parsons organized the programs of the School in three main parts: books, cataloging and classification, and administration. Each student's work culminated in an administration report on a selected topic and an individual bibliographical project. Greatest emphasis was placed on the book course, in which considerable use was made of practicing librarians and university staff as visiting lecturers. Over the years there have been many changes in the content of the course, but the foundations laid by Parsons have not been basically altered. The course was planned from the beginning as one that would
serve the needs of a graduate profession. This was done with the approval of the Association which has always participated in the selection of students and regarded the Library School with proprietary interest.

The Library School offered a Diploma to students who came to it with a university degree, but it also admitted some people with lower qualifications but valuable experience; such students were awarded a Certificate. The qualifications Dip.NZLS and Cert.NZLS therefore represent success in the same course, but the Diploma has been preserved as a postgraduate qualification.

The first effect of the establishment of the Library School was that many people who would not otherwise have entered library work were added to the profession in New Zealand. The second was that entry to the senior ranks of the profession inevitably came to depend on university qualifications followed by Library School training. This was a great break with tradition, and it took some time for the stresses that were set up to be absorbed. There were the usual arguments about the relative advantages of theoretical and practical training, and some librarians of long standing were heard to declare that they would never employ a graduate of the Library School. In many libraries, even quite large ones, the standard of service was such that there was no suitable work for graduates to do, and they were judged on their proficiency in stamping books.

Those who had started the Training Course of the New Zealand Library Association, thinking to proceed to the Association's Diploma, had a legitimate grievance when the Association abandoned its Diploma course as a consequence of the establishment of the Library School, and could not have been expected to see that this course could never have been carried out. All that the students could see was that the senior qualification which they had had within their reach had been taken away from them and given to others.

Gradually, the differences between the two courses were sorted out. For a few years, holders of the Certificate of the Association were admitted freely to the Library School as candidates for its Diploma or Certificate, according to whether or not they had university degrees; and the Association's course was later reorganized so that students attended a final course given by the Library School in its long vacation before being awarded the Association's Certificate. The courses settled down side by side as means of training for senior and intermediate levels of work. The Association's course benefited from the
fact that graduates of the Library School were very soon able to take over the work of tutoring. At present, of the 35 people on the current panel of tutors for the Training Course, 29 are graduates of the Library School.

More important than undignified squabbles between holders of different qualifications was the difficulty of placing the graduates of the Library School. Its planners, who included librarians from various types of libraries, knew that there was a desperate need for well qualified people and that only a Library School could provide them. However, when the graduates first started to come on to the market most libraries were not organized to take them. It is hard to imagine how the School could have survived if it had not been that the National Library Service was able for a few years to take on to its staff practically anyone who was not able to obtain a position elsewhere. D. M. Wylie pointed out in 1950 that few good public library positions had been advertised until the previous two years, “... since when many of them have been filled by Library School graduates; those which have not almost certainly had School graduates among the applicants.” At one stage, in the early fifties, the possibility of closing the Library School for a year, in order to let the accumulation of surplus graduates drain away, was considered. This, again, is a difficulty that has vanished, and there is now a serious shortage of graduates, but it illustrates the problems that arise when the standard of entry to a profession is raised and safeguards are not planned ahead.

Since the two courses were begun, the Certificate of the New Zealand Library Association has been awarded to 392 students, and the Diploma or Certificate of the New Zealand Library School to 292 students. In the 1962 issue of Who's Who in New Zealand Libraries, 137 of the former group and 152 of the latter group were listed as still being in library work in New Zealand. The smaller proportion of holders of the Association’s Certificate who remain in library work is a reflection of the tendency for this course to be taken nowadays by young women who have no idea of a career and hope, in the words of a member of the Association’s Education Committee, to be married and childed at 25.

Of the 152 graduates of the Library School who were working in 1962, 39 were in the National Library Service (compared with 42 in 1952), 50 in public libraries (33 in 1952), 30 in university libraries (8 in 1952), and 33 in other libraries (19 in 1952). If figures for un-
satisfied demand could also be shown, it would be even clearer that the way has opened for graduates of the Library School to be employed in every kind of library. The strength of the School's position is further demonstrated by the fact that the Who's Who lists only 28 people whose library qualifications are not New Zealand ones—23 English, 3 American, 1 Canadian, and 1 Australian.

In addition to its work of preparing graduates for library work, the Library School has also arranged short courses for special groups such as librarians of small public libraries and librarians of government departments. In 1961 it convened a study group on the subject of the free-and-rental system in public libraries, which was successful enough to lead to a desire for more subjects to be dealt with in the same way. The administration reports and bibliographies done by its students have been available for consultation through inter-library loan, and some of the best have in recent years been published. The School has also trained a number of students from Asian countries, including Indonesia, Singapore, Sarawak, Thailand, and Korea.

In 1955, after much discussion, the New Zealand Library Association established a Register of Qualified Librarians, by adopting rules for the granting of Associateships and Fellowships of the Association (ANZLA and FNZLA). The Associateship was designed as a vocational charter indicating that professional qualifications had been reinforced by satisfactory experience. The Fellowship is awarded as a high honor ("the highest title of merit in the gift of the Association"), and its importance for the registration scheme derives from the fact that a credentials committee, which must be composed of Fellows of the Association, advises the Council of the Association on the award of charters.

Since the establishment of the Register, 165 Associateships and 15 Fellowships have been awarded. About ten per cent of applications from people with satisfactory formal qualifications have been declined because their experience did not satisfy the credentials committee.

The standard prerequisite library qualification for the Associateship is the Diploma of the New Zealand Library School, but under the 1955 rules it was possible for people with lower qualifications to satisfy the credentials committee on other grounds, and 36 Associateships were awarded to holders of the Association's Certificate. This was a necessary transitional provision, but the Association has recently adopted amendments which follow the world-wide trend towards a purely graduate qualification. In re-examining the rules, the Associa-
tion was impressed by the statement of the ALA Board of Education for Librarianship on equating professional library qualifications and by a statement on graduate qualifications for librarianship issued by the Library Association of Australia. It also considered the system for the award of Associateships and Fellowships of the South African Library Association, but it rejected the automatic element contained in them. The convener of the committee which redrafted the rules summed up the committee's views in this way: "[There is] an increasing tendency, in librarianship as well as in other professions, to demand a university degree as a normal prerequisite of professional status. The Library School was established on this basis and has maintained its policy, sometimes in the face of criticism, of awarding its Diploma only to university graduates, and to the extent that the Diploma of the Library School has been taken to be the standard qualification for the Associateship this policy has carried over. But it is not in the rules, and it should be. The graduate standard is recognized in North America and South Africa. The Library Association of Australia is looking to the day, not too far off, when a university degree is necessary for professional status in Australia. Who knows, the United Kingdom might some day follow suit."  

In the amended rules, a "university degree which is not a degree in librarianship" is now required, in addition to a library qualification, of applicants for the Associateship. As long as other conditions are complied with, foreign (including English) library qualifications are accepted as prerequisites for the award of charters.

**Current Problems**

New Zealand now has a system of library training which has established quite firmly the principle of graduate entry to the profession, but which also provides for the training of the technician, a system of registration which is more than a mere rubber-stamping, and a strong and confident library profession which has been built up under these systems of training and registration. This is a considerable achievement, and Dr. Andrew Osborn was able in his recent report on New Zealand library resources to say, "The notable contribution [the graduates of the Library School] have made to library progress in New Zealand is a remarkably fine tribute to those who have planned and operated the school. The New Zealand Library Association owes much of its strength to the graduates."  

Dr. Osborn also found many weak spots in New Zealand librarian-
ship, and all of them have implications for library training and especially for the Library School. The situation in which it was hard to find suitable positions for graduates of the Library School has now given way to one in which progress is held up because there are not enough qualified people to do everything that needs doing. At the same time, as libraries become better organized and more diversified, the problems of training become more complex, so that it is not sufficient simply to try to persuade more people to take the same old course of training.

The shortage of Library School graduates is probably the greatest problem facing New Zealand libraries at present. The Annual Report of the National Library Service for 1962 says that the inadequate supply of graduates who aim to become professional librarians "... has reached the point where it is possible to demonstrate a scarcity of suitable people for existing senior library positions, with a serious risk of decline in the quality of professional leadership." The Annual Report of the New Zealand Library Association for 1961, discussing the same point, said, "The rate of recruitment of university graduates to the library profession through the Library School continues to give cause for great concern. The development of libraries in New Zealand in the last decade, stimulated by the work of the graduates of the School, has increased the demand for fully qualified librarians, but this development has occurred at a time when other opportunities available to university graduates have been made more attractive. In the 10 years 1951-60 the Library School, which could train 25 students a year, granted diplomas and certificates to only 143 people (apart from Colombo Plan and other overseas students), of whom only 32 were men. ... The seriousness of this situation will be felt increasingly, as senior positions fall vacant and are filled by people without sufficient experience, and as the operations of libraries are hampered by the difficulty of filling professional positions at all levels." 20

One recent incident has demonstrated the nature of the present problem. In 1961, salaries offered by university libraries were improved, and there was a noticeable movement of qualified librarians from other libraries to the universities. This was the kind of movement that could have been absorbed by a fully staffed profession, but because of the present thinness of the ranks it left very serious gaps, and the libraries which lost qualified people have found it hard to find replacements. Yet this is only a foretaste of what is to come: the universities have recently made plans which could require the
addition of seventy-five graduates of the Library School, or the entire output for three or four years, to their staffs by 1969. At the same time, the number of professional positions available in public, state, and special libraries is increasing steadily, and replacements must be provided for those who leave library work. No real attempt has yet been made to assess the number of people who will be required in school libraries when they begin to be staffed at a proper level.

It is only seventeen years since the Library School took in its first class of students, and only twelve since there was concern over the difficulty of placing its graduates. The accelerating demand for professionally qualified librarians began in the middle fifties, after the reorganization that followed the Munn-Barr report, and which included the establishment of the Library School, had begun to take effect. It is by now obvious that it is no flash in the pan, and that the state of education for librarianship should be considered again and new plans made for the future.

The need for the Library School to produce more graduates is clear, but it is also clear that to find the twenty-five students a year, which the School can handle at present will not be enough. A thorough program of planning is needed which will deal with at least the following four points: (1) The number of university graduates who are induced to proceed to the Library School must be increased beyond the present target of twenty-five a year. (2) The Library School must be strengthened so that it can handle greater numbers, and at the same time it must reorganize its courses so that they keep step with the developing needs of New Zealand libraries. (3) Further consideration must be given to the possibility of developing intermediate levels of training. (4) The importation of foreign librarians should be encouraged.

There has been a very serious shortage of university graduates in New Zealand for some time, and librarianship is only one of the professions which have been affected by it. At first, the living allowance which the Library School was able to offer to its students gave it a useful advantage, but so many inducements are now offered by other professions that the Library School no longer seems to offer an unusual opportunity. The reason is, of course, that the depression generation has been coming to maturity at a time when an expanding community has wanted more and more highly-trained workers. The Government decided to give the highest priority to recruiting for the post-primary teaching service, and the government instituted a system of bursaries
which took students through their university course and then obliged them to enter the teaching profession. No parent could deny the real need for the number of post-primary teachers to be rapidly increased, although there are many who dislike the whole idea of bonded bursaries. Nevertheless, the effect of the teaching bursaries on recruitment for librarianship must have been devastating. The New Zealand Library Association tried to persuade the Government to offer similar bursaries to university students intending to take up library work, but without success, and the Library School has had to compete on a market in which its initial advantage has been steadily whittled away.

Propaganda, therefore, is the next best thing, and, after that, actual demonstration that libraries are good places in which to work. The New Zealand Library Association has issued a pamphlet entitled *A Career in Library Work*, which, together with the prospectus of the Library School, is widely distributed to vocational guidance officers and career advisers. Branches of the Association have arranged recruiting meetings, and some libraries have offered bursaries to university students, without much response. All of this work will probably have more effect as the generation which has known better libraries grows up, and as the post-war bulge of population begins to look for work.

The apparent attractiveness of library work will be enhanced, in the eyes of university students, as the university libraries themselves show the effects of improved financial support. They are now entering a period of expansion, and each of them will have a new building before the end of the present decade.

There seems, therefore, to be every possibility that the numbers of students wishing to enter the Library School will increase, but the conditions under which the School works will also have to be improved.

The teaching staff of the Library School consists at present of a Director and two senior lecturers. They are supplemented by a large number of visiting lecturers, but they are nevertheless too hard-pressed to teach as well as they should. Their salaries and other conditions of employment are fixed by Public Service standards, which set very little value on librarianship, and are quite inadequate to attract enough of the best people in the profession to the staff.

Since the Library School was established, the question of transferring it to a university has been discussed from time to time, but although the desirability of having a university school has been generally accepted, it has been hard to see where or how the change
could be effected. In particular, the fact that the Library School was established as a part of a dynamic library organization was valuable at the beginning; the relative backwardness of all the university libraries and the consequent ignorance, on the part of university staffs, of the significance of librarianship has made some caution necessary in the approach to this problem. Historically it is a fact that the Library School would not have come into being if the job had been left to the universities, and the National Library Service is naturally concerned that its creation should not be thrown to the wolves.

In the next few years, the situation in the university libraries will improve rapidly. There is also a growing interest in librarianship among academic staffs, and the important report of the Committee on New Zealand Universities urged that the University Grants Committee establish a standing committee on library resources keeping under review, among other things, "The need to train, recruit, and retain library staffs of the quality and in the quantity required." 22

The difficulties under which the Library School is now working and the likelihood that its transfer to a university would facilitate improvements, together with the certainty that the Library School must be able to operate even more effectively in the future than in the past, combine to make it imperative that the possibility of a transfer to university control should be very carefully examined. The Education Committee of the New Zealand Library Association has recently decided to draw up a statement of its interest in the matter.

If it is not possible to establish a university school, it will still be necessary for improvements to be made in the conditions under which the Library School works at present, both to enable it to take more students and to enable it to give more variety to its course. From the beginning, the Library School's course was very heavily oriented towards public library work. Too much can be made of this, and graduates of the early courses have in fact found themselves at home in other types of libraries. However, as the special and university libraries have developed they have begun to demand that the School should provide a more varied diet. This the School has tried to do, by reorganizing the general part of its course and by offering an increasing range of options on topics such as New Zealand reference material, children's library work, university libraries, and historical bibliography. This development is still in the experimental stage, however; one of the advantages of the establishment of a university school would be that the change would provide an opportunity for a com-
complete overhaul of the program and the development of a more complete range of alternative courses. Another, of course, is that the superficial prestige of a university school would be a stimulus to recruiting.

The Training Course of the New Zealand Library Association, in contrast to the Library School, has had no difficulty in attracting students, and the problem that is currently concerning the Association is how to cope with the increased numbers. In 1962, 118 people sat for the Preliminary Examination, a pass in which is now required before a student embarks on the correspondence course. The number qualifying for the Certificate has been about forty a year for some years, and is likely to rise to sixty in 1965. The Association has recently raised the entry qualifications to demand at least one year's sixth-form schooling, and it is considering whether it is still possible to continue the kind of tutoring which was possible when there were fewer students. The value of having some kind of course at this level is not in question, however.

Between the two courses there is an area in which a new kind of training, for semi-professional work in limited fields, might emerge. As a result of many years of agitation by the New Zealand Library Association, it seems likely that the staffing of school libraries, which has been very badly neglected, might be improved in the future. The Association has stated its view that "... a school librarian should be a university graduate with professional training in teaching and librarianship, ..." but it would certainly be impossible, if the Department of Education suddenly announced a policy of professional staffing of school libraries, to find enough qualified people for even the biggest secondary schools without denuding other libraries of their professional staff. In such circumstances, it would seem sensible to organize a limited-objective course which would cater to people who take positions in school libraries. Possible ways of doing this were discussed by Milne in 1957 and have been considered more recently since the Commission on New Zealand Education reported. There has also been some discussion of ways of arranging a similar course for people working in special libraries. Even if such courses became redundant after ten years or so, they would help to ease the problems caused by the present shortage of fully qualified professional librarians.

The possibility of inducing foreign librarians to emigrate to New Zealand will also have to be considered. There has never been a great influx of librarians into New Zealand, and indeed until recently there
were very few suitable positions. Most immigrants would have to come from the United Kingdom, and some difficulties can be foreseen, arising from the different ways in which the two countries have approached the question of professional qualifications. Nevertheless, there will be opportunities for English librarians who have university degrees to make their way in New Zealand libraries on their own merits. At the present stage of library development in this country, a fairly heavy addition of suitable people would have a stimulating effect on the profession in New Zealand. It is less likely that immigrants could be attracted from the United States, where salaries are much higher, or from Australia, where salaries are higher and there is also the same kind of shortage of librarians as exists in New Zealand.

Those who are responsible for education for librarianship in New Zealand undoubtedly face a challenge at present. Because of their past activities, the profession is now well organized, but the opportunities which have been opened up are more than its numbers can cope with. It will be interesting to look back in another ten years' time to see what solutions have been found to the array of rather interesting problems that face New Zealand librarians at present.

References

Education for Librarianship Abroad: New Zealand


9. The following articles arose from the discussion of the relationship between the two courses:


18. Osborn, op. cit., p. 11.


Latin America

WILLIAM VERNON JACKSON

The term "Latin America," as used in the title of this article, is a geographical expression, meant to embrace all western hemisphere territory south of the Rio Grande. It thus includes the eighteen Spanish-speaking republics in the Caribbean, Central and South America; Brazil; Haiti; Puerto Rico; the newly independent, English-speaking nations of Jamaica and Trinidad; and the dependencies of France, the Netherlands, and the United Kingdom in the Caribbean area.

Although this survey could not attempt to present a historical discussion of how education for librarianship came to its present state in each of these countries, it does sketch briefly the main lines of development in the largest republics (e.g., Argentina, Brazil, Colombia, and Mexico). Its chief objective, however, is to present the current picture of education for librarianship in this area; since such training is now centered in library schools, they receive the chief emphasis. No attempt is made here to describe the extensive number of short courses, workshops, and lecture series which have taken place in Latin America, although in many cases they have laid the foundation for the permanent library training program that was to follow.

This paper consists of two parts. The first is a survey, area by area, of the present state of education for librarianship in Latin America, while the second comprises an assessment of the overall situation, as seen by this observer, with some glances in the direction of possible future developments.

Anyone consulting the most readily available list of library science programs in Latin America, the Guía de Escuelas y Cursos de Bibliotecología en América Latina (published in 1959; a new edition is in preparation) might come away with the impression that forty-five

The author is Associate Professor of Spanish and Portuguese, University of Wisconsin (Madison); he was formerly Associate Professor, Graduate School of Library Science, University of Illinois.
permanent schools and courses is a goodly number. Yet we need to remember that many of the programs listed consist in reality of a single course of basic training (usually with heavy emphasis on cataloging and classification) rather than the body of courses which compose the curriculum of a library school in the United States, that there is a total population greater and growing more rapidly than that of the United States, that distances are great (for example, 4,633 miles from Mexico City to Buenos Aires), and that this is an area in which five languages are utilized (English, French, Spanish, Portuguese, and Dutch).

Anyone interested in education for librarianship in Latin America soon confronts a serious problem: the lack of accurate and up-to-date detailed information. A Rockefeller Foundation grant to the Inter-American Library School at the University of Antioquia in Medellin to conduct a detailed study of the teaching of library science in Latin America will, it is hoped, alter this. The first phase of the project calls for the preparation of national reports on library schools and courses, present number of librarians and their training, estimated number and kinds of librarians needed in the next ten years, etc. Later phases provide for the analysis and evaluation of the methods and materials used in various courses and for the development of plans to achieve what is required. Although the entire project has moved more slowly than anticipated, the first phase has resulted in the accumulation of considerable data on the historical development and present state of library training in Latin America. When the report on this part of the project appears, it should make available for the first time a considerable body of detailed information.

**Brazil**

A review of education for librarianship in Latin America might well start with Brazil, unique not only because it is the largest and most populous country in the area, but also because it is the only nation whose cultural and linguistic heritage comes from Portugal. Although a 1910 law provided for the first library science course in Brazil, it was not until 1915 that instruction actually began in the National Library. There were, however, few students from 1915 to 1922, when the program was discontinued, not to be re-established until 1931. The course of study was reorganized into two-year program in 1944 and lengthened to three years in 1962. In this period the School has had over 1,000 students.
Brazil's second library school, in São Paulo, had its origin in a course created in 1936 by the city's Department of Culture. In 1940 it began to operate in association with the Escola de Sociologia e Política de São Paulo, and in 1943 became a school within the larger enterprise. The American Library Association administered a Rockefeller Foundation grant of $27,500 for staff salaries, scholarship aid, and the preparation of materials; this five-year subsidy furthered the School's development from 1943 to 1948. A 1960 reorganization raised the work to university level. Approximately 600 persons have completed its programs.

Graduates of these two schools provided the early leadership in Brazilian library education and have been instrumental in founding additional courses and schools. At present these amount to nine, located in the following cities: Bahia (founded in 1942), São Paulo (at the Catholic University, founded in 1944), Campinas (1945), Porto Alegre (1947), Recife (1950), Belo Horizonte (1950), Curitiba (1952), Rio de Janeiro (at the Santa Ursula Institute, founded 1957) and São Carlos (1959).

Although most of these schools began with a loose administrative connection with the local university (often being attached to a faculty, which likely as not accepted the library course as a favor on the part of the dean), others (e.g., Belo Horizonte) lacked even this affiliation and existed as more or less independent organizations with some type of sponsorship (e.g., National Book Institute). As time passed, more of them achieved recognition as a regular school within the university (all except those at São Carlos and the National Library are now parts of universities or other institutions of higher learning). This assures them of independent status, equal to that of other schools (which are generally bodies that report directly to the Rector or to the University Council). It is interesting to note that the proposal to establish library training at the University of Brasilia as a faculty rather than school, if it becomes a reality, may set in motion a new trend in the administrative structure of Brazilian library schools. On the other hand, the present status has not as yet brought with it adequate quarters and financial support. Nearly all schools operate on limited budgets and have very small quarters (sometimes only a single office, classrooms being those available in the same or another building).

The executive officer, who may be designated Director or Coordi-
nator, is generally elected for a stated term, following the custom of Latin American universities. Although many of the faculty members have had advanced training (usually in the United States), their contribution to library education is more limited than it should be, for they are nearly always part-time instructors, giving one or two courses in addition to other positions they hold in libraries (or sometimes in business).

Another very important trend in Brazilian library education concerns curriculum; it has gradually come to include more general cultural courses (especially in the first year) and, since about 1959, has moved from a two- to a three-year program. Tables I to III summarize the current offerings of nine schools. At first glance one feels that there is wide variation in these curricula, but closer examination reveals that differences in organization and nomenclature account for much of the apparent lack of uniformity. In the first year’s offerings, for example, cataloging and classification, reference and bibliography appear in every program; introduction to culture (literary, artistic, philosophic and/or historical) appear in all but that of the National Library. All nine programs contain cataloging and classification (as two subjects) in the second year, and all but the National Library include a course in administration; most schools have one or more cultural courses, but these decrease considerably in the third year. At this point the course common to most curricula is documentation. However, as one might expect of the most advanced level, the variation is greater than that of the two previous years. Finally, it should be pointed out that a course which appears in one school’s first year program may occur in another’s second or third year (and vice versa).

The growing interest in documentation in Brazil has led some schools to change their names to School of Librarianship and Documentation. All Brazilian schools presently operate on the undergraduate level, but there is a growing interest in graduate work, and it is only a question of time before one of the existing schools or a newly established one will offer more advanced work. In this connection, one should mention that the Brazilian Institute of Bibliography and Documentation (IBBD), founded in 1955, has offered special courses in bibliographical research in the sciences (diplomas awarded to 101 persons up to 1961) and in special library administration. Whether such courses should continue, if a graduate library school comes into being, remains a question for the future.
### TABLE I

Courses Taught in Nine Brazilian Library Schools

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<th>School</th>
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<th>Santa Urua</th>
<th>Curitiba</th>
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**SOURCE:** Unpublished data collected for the Inter-American Library School's study of library science teaching.
### TABLE II

**Courses Taught in Nine Brazilian Library Schools**

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[327]
In spite of the problems that exist, there can be no doubt that education for librarianship in Brazil has made great progress in recent years—perhaps more than in any other country in Latin America. Good leadership from directors of libraries and library schools, discussion of library training at the four Brazilian Library and Documentation Congresses, and the work of the Federation of Brazilian Library Associations (FEBAB) have all contributed to this development.

Argentina

The Museo Social Argentino in Buenos Aires began library training in 1936, but for six years a single course constituted the program. However, when Carlos Victor Penna became director of the course in 1942, he instituted a number of changes, including the addition of a separate course in cataloging and classification. The number of hours of class were increased, and enrollment grew. Penna recruited an outstanding faculty which offered four courses (library administration, introduction to librarianship and history of the book, cataloging and classification, and reference and bibliography) constituting a two-year program. From 1937 to 1944 there were 230 graduates of the Museo’s course. Unfortunately, in later years the impact of the Museo on library education declined.
Education for Librarianship Abroad: Latin America

**TABLE III**

*Courses Taught in Nine Brazilian Library Schools*

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WILLIAM VERNON JACKSON

TABLE III—Continued

Courses Taught in Nine Brazilian Library Schools

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SOURCE: Same as Table I.

One of the oldest programs of library training in Latin America (established in 1922) exists at the University of Buenos Aires. For many years it prepared few people, because the curriculum emphasized training in Greek and Latin. The introduction of modern technical subjects dates from changes instituted in 1949, when a three-year program was established. The first year consisted of four general courses: introduction to literature, introduction to philosophy, introduction to history, and introduction to library science. The second year offered bibliography (first course) and cataloging and classification, while the third year consisted of bibliography (second course), and bibliography and library administration. Latin and Greek continued to be required. Revisions of this program, undertaken in 1952 and 1955, substituted a modern language for the classics, introduced two more general cultural courses in the first year's studies, and left all professional work for the second and third years. Further modifications in later years have resulted in a program of eighteen courses—five cultural and thirteen professional. Introduction to history, history of literature, of philosophy, of science and of art compose the first group, while the latter consists of introduction to librar-
Education for Librarianship Abroad: Latin America

ianship, three courses in cataloging and three courses in classification, library administration, reference, documentation, history of the book, and two courses in bibliography. In addition, the student must pass three courses in English before enrolling in his ninth course and three courses in French before graduation. Although the total program now lasts three years and leads to the title of "University Librarian," courses for each year are not specified. Plans for the future call for the addition of a degree (licenciatura en bibliotecología) to be awarded after four years of study, consisting of the three-year program described, four additional specialized courses, a thesis, and a period of internship.

The library program is not organized as a separate school, but operates within the Bibliographic Department of the Faculty of Philosophy and Letters, with the head librarian as director. There is a faculty of seven (including the director)—certainly one of the best qualified groups of library science teachers to be found in Latin America; in addition, three others direct the laboratory sessions (trabajos prácticos). Most of the faculty graduated from the Museo course under Penna, but they have continued to improve their academic backgrounds through additional study. With the cooperation of the American Embassy, all but one have spent time observing libraries and library schools in the United States. Moreover, this group has probably made more contributions to professional literature than any other library school faculty in Latin America.

Unfortunately the program has supplied only forty-six librarians to the country since 1932, and present enrollment amounts to twenty-seven. This low figure may be partially explained by the fact that the program operates completely on the university level; the admission requirement is the same as that of the Faculty itself. It would seem wiser to utilize this course more intensively than to multiply the number of library schools in the country; if scholarships were available it should be possible to attract students from the provinces (and from neighboring countries which do not have library schools).

The main library of the Faculty has greatly strengthened its library science holdings in recent years, and students also have access to the best collection in the country—that of the University's Library Institute, located not far from the Faculty—and to the American materials in the USIS library.

The National Library School, created in 1956 and housed in the National Library, is designed primarily to provide in-service training
for the staff of that institution. It offers a two-year program on the sub-collegiate level. Courses offered are: first year—introduction to library science, library administration I, cataloging and classification I, reference I; and second year—history of the book, cataloging and classification II, reference II, and panorama of culture.¹¹

The situation outside of Buenos Aires is not nearly so good as that in the capital, and the lack of opportunity for training has unquestionably hindered library development in such provincial centers as Rosario, Córdoba, Mendoza, and Tucumán. In recent years short courses (e.g., those given at Tucumán, Mendoza, and Rosario), in some instances taught by faculty from the program at the University of Buenos Aires or by a visiting American librarian, have provided in-service training of one or two months’ duration. Only in Córdoba is there a permanent school. An elementary training class given from 1957 to 1959 at the Instituto de Intercambio Cultural Argentino-Norteamericano, the American-Argentine binational center, and a more advanced course given by the writer demonstrated the potential for a school in the interior of the republic. At the same time a small collection of books in the field was gathered ¹² in the hope that it could form the nucleus of a professional library for the library school which by this time the University of Córdoba was planning to establish. Following discussions in July and August of 1958 and further planning within the University, the school opened in January 1960. Secondary school graduation is required for admission, and the title of “Librarian” is awarded upon successful completion of the course of study, submission of a paper, knowledge of a foreign language, and internship in a library. The first year of study consists of the following courses: introduction to knowledge (a general cultural survey), introduction to librarianship, cataloging and classification I, organization and administration I, and bibliography and reference I; the second year—history of the book, cataloging and classification II, bibliography and reference II, organization and administration II, and relations with readers.¹³ The initial enrollment amounted to twenty-nine, of whom eleven graduated two years later; the present student body numbers twenty-three in the first year and five in the second year.

Colombia

Many Colombian librarians received their training in Bogotá in 1942, when seventy-nine students (of whom twenty-five came from the National Library) completed a six-week course.¹⁴ The program,
aided by a grant of $9,250 from the Rockefeller Foundation, provided instruction in cataloging and classification, book selection, and administration.

Over the years other short courses have taken place (several in the National Library) and a library school operated for some time at the Colegio Mayor de Antioquia in Medellín, but the Inter-American Library School at the University of Antioquia in Medellín constitutes the most important effort in education for librarianship in this country. Opened in 1957, the school aims at preparing "... professional librarians with sufficient academic background and technical knowledge to direct and administer libraries of all kinds..." An International Advisory Council planned a three-year curriculum combining both general cultural and technical courses. Despite a promising beginning the newness of the intensive course and of the library profession itself in Colombia, together with a series of internal difficulties at the University of Antioquia, led the Council to recommend suspension of classes during the year 1959. However, with the assistance of the Council and the full support of the University administration, the School was able to reopen in February 1960 and thus completed a total of five academic years in December 1962. It is obvious that, under these circumstances, the year 1960 represented a second beginning, or at least a period of transition (it has been the subject of a detailed report); the present discussion therefore centers on the current picture.

The School now operates under an International Executive Council consisting of seven members who represent the following organizations: University of Antioquia, National University Fund, Colombian Library Association, UNESCO, Organization of American States, American Library Association, and the School's alumni. The Council names the School's director, who is, ex-officio, its secretary, and who has major responsibility for all operations. Aiding him is the Head of Instruction (Jefe de Estudios) as the person in charge of the overall academic program.

From its inception the School has drawn financial support from three sources: the University of Antioquia, the National University Fund, and the Rockefeller Foundation, which made an initial three-year grant of $58,000. Subsequent grants (making a total of $355,450) continue the Foundation's support through 1965. These funds provide for the salaries of the Director, Head of Instruction, and teaching personnel from outside Colombia as well as for the development of
the professional library and for the purchase of needed equipment; the School receives the funds from the Foundation after the International Executive Council approves the budget prepared by the Director. The University of Antioquia has provided for items not covered by grants (chiefly salaries of local teachers); in addition, the university supplied capital funds for leasing and equipping the present quarters of the School (1960) and later for purchasing them (1962). The National University Fund supplies scholarships for Colombian students.

The original curriculum developed for the School envisaged a three-year program operating at the undergraduate level and built around one year of general cultural studies to provide a foundation for later professional work, a second year with basic courses in library science, and a third year consisting of more advanced professional studies. This concept has remained unchanged, although substantial modifications did take place in 1960 and slight changes since then. The present program consists of the following: first year—survey courses in the history of civilization, philosophy, universal literature, social science, natural and physical sciences, fine arts, and intensive training in English, with two general courses in librarianship (history of books and libraries, and library organization and service); second year—two courses each in cataloging and reference, general bibliography, a composite course in librarianship, and continuation of English; third year—problems in cataloging and classification, methods of research, specialized bibliography, university and special libraries, school and public libraries, documentation, teaching methods, planning library services, and German, to which should be added the preparation of a thesis.19

The thesis is required for the professional title of licenciado en bibliotecologia. As a guide for the preparation of the first group of theses, a provisional list of topics which might prove suitable and a manual of style were prepared to aid students.20 Topics frequently chosen have been indexes of various Colombian scientific journals, translations and adaptations of library science works published in English, and compilations of lists, guides or directories of Colombian librarians or publications. An annotated list of the theses prepared for the first two years has appeared.21 On the whole, these studies correspond more to bibliographical essays or to term papers prepared in North American colleges and universities than to original investigations. The place of the thesis in the school's curriculum might be de-
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fined as an opportunity for the student to prepare a detailed study of some aspect of librarianship and to demonstrate his ability to assemble, organize, and present information and ideas in acceptable written form.

The School's greatest problem was and continues to be to secure a competent faculty for library science courses; from the outset it was apparent that for some years teachers would have to come from outside Colombia, but securing such persons has not proven easy. Visiting professors have remained in Medellín for periods of two months to more than an academic year. While recognizing their contribution, the International Executive Council and others associated with the School have long realized that it must ultimately have its own permanent faculty of qualified Latin Americans, drawn largely from its own graduates. This of course can become a reality only as graduates have both several years' experience and advanced training in the United States; consequently, only recently has sufficient time elapsed for some steps to be taken in this direction, and the 1963-64 academic year will find five graduates studying at various library schools in the United States. The School's faculty now consists of twenty-two persons for both cultural and professional courses (nearly all of the former are part-time instructors from other faculties of the University).

The School began operations in 1957 with an enrollment of thirty-five; there were fifty-one when it reopened in 1960; the current figure is sixty-five. More important than the growth in quantity is the fact that the School now attracts more qualified students than ever before. A considerable amount of effort has gone into recruiting, both through programs of visits to the secondary schools (colegios) and through publication of various pamphlets and brochures on librarianship as a career. An increased number of applications each year would seem to indicate that the campaign has been at least partially successful. Additional scholarship funds are needed, because those supplied by the National University Fund are limited to Colombian students. If the School is to be inter-American in fact as well as name, it must be able to offer financial assistance to students from the other Latin American republics.

In the past three years the professional library has grown from 1,900 volumes to 4,400 and the number of serials currently received from 300 to 1,100. In its early years, the library did not receive the professional guidance required, but now one of the School's own
graduates holds the position of librarian. From its beginning the School has engaged in a program of extension activities for the in-service training of librarians. In 1960 it sponsored two workshops—one for the librarians of the U.S.-Colombian binational centers and one for the librarians of the Colombian universities' medical faculties. In 1962 a full-time person to plan and arrange extension programs joined the staff, and under her direction a meeting of Colombian agricultural librarians took place from July 30 to August 17 of that year. The most ambitious program of this nature to be undertaken has been announced for 1963: a special course for medical and agricultural librarians, scheduled to run from July 22 through November 30. One might question to what extent such extension activities divert the School's limited personnel from their regular teaching duties.

The publications program includes a library accession list (Boletín de Adquisiciones de la Biblioteca) which also contains brief news items, an annual catalog (Prospecto para el año de . . .), course outlines and syllabi, recruitment brochures, and miscellaneous items. The School has as yet been unable to issue any monographs or studies which embody the results of research done either at the School or elsewhere in Latin America. However, the three-year research and study program on the teaching of library science (described at the opening of this article) will probably result in a series of publications, in addition to an overall report.

An account of the training of librarians in Colombia is being prepared for submission as a doctoral dissertation at the School of Library Science, Western Reserve University. The author, Richard Krzyzys, gathered material during the course of a Fulbright grant to Colombia and anticipates completion of his study, entitled "Education for Librarianship in Colombia," in 1963.23

Other Countries in South America

The remaining seven countries in South America fall into two groups: those with a permanent library course or school and those without. The former group embraces Chile, Peru, Uruguay, and Venezuela; the latter, Bolivia, Ecuador, and Paraguay.

The present library school in the University of Chile had its origin in 1946 when courses were initiated with the assistance of a Rockefeller Foundation grant.24 Originally operated by the Central Library, the school has become a part of the Faculty of Philosophy and Education. The curriculum adopted in 1961 provides for a three-year pro-
gram, of which the first two are common to the Central Department of Philosophy and Letters. In addition, in the second year the student also takes the first four professional courses (history of books and printing, administration, methods of investigation, and introduction to librarianship). Seven professional courses (three or six hours each, for a total of thirty hours) compose the third year: administration, bibliography, selection and acquisition, reference services, cataloging and classification, documentation, and an elective chosen from university libraries, service to children, and service to young people. The title awarded upon successful completion of this program and a six-month internship is “Librarian.” The total enrollment for the three years now exceeds 100.

In 1962 plans were under discussion to add a fourth year to this program, which would provide an opportunity to obtain a degree in librarianship (licenciado en biblioteconomía). The plan submitted to the University Council for approval called for an additional year of course work, a thesis, and final examination; it provides that the course work be divided with approximately one-third in library science, one-third in a subject specialization, and the remaining third in library science applied to the specialty chosen. Candidates for the degree must have had a minimum of two years of professional experience.

Peru’s National School of Librarians came into being after the fire which almost completely destroyed the National Library in 1943. Its initial purpose was to train a professional staff for the National Library, and the first program consisted of a six-month course, from January to July 1944. All but six of the initial group of thirty-three students received certificates. The school has continued, and it operates as a special section of the National Library, under the general supervision of its director, but with a full-time inspector in charge of daily operations. The School’s quarters on the fourth floor of the National Library are quite satisfactory; the School has an office, two class rooms, and a library.

The course of study, extended first to two years and then to three, is as follows: first year—introduction to universal history, introduction to universal literature, introduction to the history of art, history of Peru, bibliography of Peru, introduction to social sciences, history of books and libraries, history of Peruvian and American literature, introduction to library organization and administration, and English; second year—history of Peru, bibliography of Peru, reference, types of libraries and their services, cataloging, classification, English,
Latin, introduction to paleography and archives; third year—critical readings, cataloging, classification, selection and acquisition of books, history of Peru, bibliography of Peru, introduction to the history of science, bibliographical technique, conservation and restoration of books and manuscripts, and basic documentation. The Peruvian history and bibliography courses cover the pre-history and Inca periods in the first year, the colonial period in the second, and the national period in the third. Classes meet from one to four hours weekly (cataloging, classification and reference fall in the latter group). To obtain the title of "Librarian" requires the successful completion of this course of study, practice work, and approval of a thesis. One hundred ninety-seven persons have finished the course work, but thirty-nine have not yet received their titles because of failure to complete the thesis or other requirements. In 1962 the School's enrollment amounted to thirty-nine.

In Uruguay library training began in 1943, when Arthur E. Gropp, then librarian of the Biblioteca Artigas-Washington, established a school which operated under the auspices of the Association of Engineers of Uruguay until 1945. A Library School was then begun at the University, affiliated with the Faculty of Economic Sciences and Administration; the School is now directly under the University Council.27 The curriculum, revised in 1950 and again in 1961, now includes the following courses: first year—introduction to librarianship, history of books and libraries, cataloging and classification I, bibliography and reference, organization and administration of libraries I, Uruguayan culture, advanced Spanish, English I, a second foreign language (French, Italian, or German); second year—cataloging and classification II, bibliographic methods and national and Latin American bibliography, organization and administration of libraries II, selection of bibliographic materials, technique of social investigation, cultural extension services, English II, and the second foreign language.

Plans approved in 1961 will lengthen the course to three years beginning in 1964, when the following will constitute the final year's work: cataloging and classification III, special bibliography (one course chosen from humanities and fine arts, science and technology, or social sciences), organization and administration of libraries III, statistics, documentation, planning library services, English III, and the second foreign language. In addition to regular class work, two types of practice work are required: regular laboratory periods as a complement to classes; and work in libraries—three months in a gen-
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eral library in the second year, and throughout the third year in a
library whose type and specialty conform to the student's interest. Also in 1961 the admission requirement was increased to the title
tained upon completion of the secondary school (bachiller).28

There are five professors for the professional courses, and current
enrollment amounts to 153. The School has its own quarters which are
quite adequate and which house a professional library of about 2,000
volumes. There is a union catalog of library science materials em-
buffering the holdings of ten libraries in Montevideo (including the
National Library, USIS, and various faculties of the University);
originally compiled as a project of the students of cataloging, it is
maintained on a current basis and is a unique tool among Latin Amer-
ican library schools.

Library instruction in Venezuela originated in the course given in
the National Library by Ann Gard of the Library of Congress and
Blanca Alvarez. In 1948 the School of Librarianship and Archives was
created in the Faculty of Humanities and Education, Central Univer-
sity of Venezuela. During its early years the School operated as a
two-year course and did not require secondary school graduation for
admission; when the entrance required was raised to this level, at-
tendance dropped greatly.

The first year of studies includes English as well as the following
general cultural courses: history of culture, introduction to philo-
sophic thought, psychology, history of Venezuela (the first three are
courses in the Schools of Letters, Philosophy and Journalism respec-
tively); there are three professional courses: descriptive cataloging,
Spanish literature and bibliography, and bibliography of historial
sources. The second year contains two cultural (history of Venezuela;
history of America) and four professional courses (classification; his-
tory of books, printing, and libraries; Hispanic American literature and
bibliography; general reference and bibliography—also practice
work). Present plans call for the third and fourth years (the former
to be given for the first time beginning in October 1963, and the
latter beginning in October 1964) and separate programs for librar-
ianship on the one hand and archives on the other. The following
are scheduled for the program in librarianship: third year—serial and
official publications, bibliography of social sciences, problems in ref-
erence service, audio-visual aids, and Venezuelan literature and bibli-
ography; fourth year—library administration, children's and school
libraries (optional), scientific bibliography, role of the library in adult
education (optional), book selection, methods of investigation, auxiliary technical services, and history of art. English and practice work continue through both years. Upon completion of the four year program the student will receive a degree (*licenciado en biblioteconomía*). The place of the practice work in the curriculum is still under discussion; there is considerable dissatisfaction with it.

Since the founding of the Library School four persons have served as director: Blanca Álvarez, Pedro Grases, Rafael di Prisco, and Santos Rodulfo Cortés. The faculty numbers sixteen at present—five for professional and eleven for cultural courses. Since the inception of the course, one hundred eighty-three students have finished; the present enrollment is thirty (including seven taking third-year courses under the previous program).

Like so many of the units of the Central University of Venezuela, the Library School suffers greatly from inadequate quarters; the University, planned for approximately 5,000 students, now has an enrollment of 20,000. The School lacks a well-developed professional library; a collection is in process of formation, but the shortage of space will hinder this. The Central Library does, however, contain many basic bibliographic tools, in addition to a good stock in library science. Thus the students have adequate resources available, if not as convenient as a collection within the school would be.

In both Ecuador and Paraguay there have been short courses; in Bolivia, however, it seemed as if a permanent program had begun when in 1957 the School of Public Administration at the University of San Andrés in La Paz commenced a series of short courses, each lasting three months. The School received support from AID through a contract with the University of Tennessee; under this program the American librarian then in residence taught the first two courses and was succeeded by three Bolivians who had received grants for study in the United States. Twelve courses (four basic cataloging and classification, four advanced cataloging and classification, and four general library science) were offered between 1957 and 1960, but unfortunately the program came to a halt with the closing of the School of Public Administration. Enrollment ranged from twelve to forty in each group, and a total of 115 persons received certificates at the conclusion of the various courses. A considerable quantity of teaching materials (some texts in as many as twenty to thirty copies) remains on deposit at the General Library of the University.
Moving north from South America, one comes to the area stretching from Panama to the United States. Library education in Panama began in 1941, when the rector of the University, Jeptha B. Duncan, established a school. Due to budget limitations from 1945 to 1949 it operated only in the summers and remained closed during the next three years. However, during this period a course for Central American librarians took place; of 105 enrolled, twenty received a diploma and nineteen a certificate of attendance.

Reopened in 1952, the Library School operates at the University of Panama as a summer school; the complete course requires attendance at three eight-week summer sessions. The chief problem stems from the fact that the School runs on a very limited budget; it has not received any outside assistance, except limited donations of professional materials for the small professional library and other collaboration from the USIS library in Panama, and the encouragement of the Panama Library Association. At least one of the professors has a master's degree in library science from an American university, and others have had extensive experience.

No permanent library training program exists as yet in the five Central American nations (Costa Rica, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras, and Nicaragua). Over the years short courses have taken place in three places (Costa Rica, El Salvador, and Guatemala)—most recently at the University of Costa Rica in the spring of 1962. The Faculty of Humanities of the University of San Carlos (Guatemala) has a library school, but it has not operated with regularity. One interesting development in this area is the Ford Foundation grant of $120,000 to the Higher Council of Central American Universities (CSUCA) to advise on the development of programs in the basic sciences at the five national universities and also to "permit the Council to plan graduate professional training in selected divisions of the universities, thus avoiding duplication of facilities and programs." The Council has already made recommendations along the latter lines in such fields as veterinary medicine and microbiology; one of the papers presented at the First Meeting of Central American University Librarians in San José in March 1962, discussed the possibility of a regional library school. The author adduced five reasons in support of such a program: (1) the common characteristics of the countries and the social, educational, and cultural ties linking them, (2) the existence...
of CSUCA whose program might be utilized to support the creation and development of such a school, (3) the possibility of reducing to a minimum the time spent at the school, since CSUCA is in a position to determine equivalencies which could be approved in advance, (4) reduction in time and expense because of the proximity of the school, and (5) the role of bibliographic center which the school could play for the five countries, especially since persons from them would eventually form its faculty.

The paper proposes a three-year program, the first and third of which would contain cultural as well as professional courses. The most serious obstacle to be overcome in establishing a school is obviously to secure a qualified faculty. The author is more optimistic than many observers of the library scene would be; a school would have to depend more heavily on visiting professors than she suggests. As a matter of fact, the experience of the Inter-American Library School supports a very cautious judgment of the ability to secure faculty—a problem which adequate financial support alone does not solve.

Several years ago an article traced chronologically the antecedents of the National School of Librarians and Archivists in Mexico City. It notes that the country's first school (i.e., course) organized by the National Library opened in 1916 (two courses given for employees of the Secretariat of Communications and Public Works and of the Secretariat of Industry, Commerce, and Labor in 1912 and 1915 respectively had preceded it), but for the next thirty years a series of courses, lectures, and workshops took place at intervals—apparently not on any planned basis. In 1945, however, the present School was permanently established under the Secretariat of Public Education. The program for technical librarians lasts two years and embraces the following subjects: first year—book selection and trade bibliography, history of books and libraries, organization and administration of libraries, Spanish, cataloging and classification I; and second year—bibliographic technique and national bibliographies, reference service and general bibliography, serials and government publications, cataloging and classification II. The master's in librarianship (maestro in biblioteconomia) requires an additional year of study (consisting of the following courses: history and bibliography of art, special libraries, audio-visual materials and services, books and library services for children and young people, scientific and technical bibliography and documentation, and special cataloging) and the preparation of a thesis. In its first sixteen years the School had a total enrollment (in
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both library programs, but excluding those studying archives) of 516, with individual years ranging from twenty-five to forty-five; recently this has increased considerably and the current figure is 129. Of the grand total 131 have completely finished their studies.

The faculty comes to eight, many of whom have taken advanced studies, traveled to the United States and elsewhere, and written a number of professional articles. Indeed, some regularly attend the meetings of the Southwestern Library Association and the American Library Association, and participate in the Seminars on the Acquisition of Latin American Library Materials. Classes meet daily from five to nine in the evening in the School's own quarters in Mexico City. There is a professional library of about 2,500 volumes, which does not have a regular budget for acquisitions but does receive a number of gifts from faculty, former students, and USIS.

Another library school, founded in 1956, operates within the Faculty of Philosophy and Letters of the National University of Mexico. Like the National School it offers training in both librarianship and archives. A three-year program leads to the title of licenciado en biblioteconomía; a fourth year, to the maestro.

The Caribbean

The Caribbean comprises the most varied area in Latin America. One finds several independent nations, one commonwealth, and some dependencies of European nations; there are Spanish, French, English, and Dutch speaking populations.

It has not been possible to ascertain the present state of education for librarianship in Cuba, but in 1958 there were three library courses in operation—two in Havana and one in Santiago. Instruction at Havana University was provided in summers only from 1946 to 1952, but by December 1950 the University Council approved the curriculum for a permanent library school (a four-year program of general cultural and professional courses leading to the degree of "Librarian" and a two-year program leading to the degree of "Library Assistant"). A 1955 decree granted recognition to the graduates of the School of Librarianship.

In the Dominican Republic a single course in library science formerly existed. It was planned to start a library school in the Faculty of Philosophy and Education of the University of Santo Domingo during the 1962-63 academic year, but this was not possible.

Training in Puerto Rico has consisted of courses for the prepara-
tion of teacher-librarians, given at the University of Puerto Rico and occasionally elsewhere. Four such courses (organization and administration of school libraries, selection and evaluation of library materials, cataloging and classification, bibliography and reference) were offered during the summer of 1963 in the University's Department of Education. In the past several years the possibility of a library school at the University has been considered, and it has been suggested that such a school might have an affiliation with the closest American institution, that at Florida State University.  

In the British Caribbean, library training has been associated with the Eastern Caribbean Regional Library, established in Trinidad by the British Council and the Carnegie Corporation. As early as 1941 there was a six-months' course which issued certificates of competence. In 1948 the Library set up courses to prepare for the Library Association examinations and provided a tutor for running them. He also conducted correspondence courses for students in the area. In 1957 the Eastern Caribbean Regional Library was combined with the Central Library with a single director in charge of both. Although classes continued, there was no full-time tutor again until 1959, when the governments of Trinidad and Tobago appointed one. The position was continued until December 1962, when the library course terminated. Students in these courses came not only from Trinidad but also from the other islands, especially Jamaica; the enrollment varied from twenty-three in the first year to fifty-seven in the last year. As a result of this program thirty-one persons became Associates of the Library Association. Concurrently the government of Jamaica was providing annual scholarships to enable senior staff of the Jamaica Library Service to attend library school in Great Britain, to take examinations of the Library Association, and to obtain practical experience.

By the late 1950's leaders in the profession urged consideration of more permanent training, either in the form of a West Indian certificate or in the form of a library school at the University of the West Indies. A school, it was felt, might serve the to-be-created West Indies Federation, but when that nation failed to materialize the question of the library school was one of many that necessarily required review and reassessment. Discussion has continued, however, stimulated also by the announcement of the revised Library Association syllabus to be effective in 1964. This will require taking and passing the Part I
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(Intermediate) Examination at one time (four papers of three hours each) and will, in effect, rule out part-time preparation.

There are at present two schools of thought. One favors the continuation, with adequate staff and quarters, of the library school in Trinidad. The school would award its own diploma based on a two-year program limited to work in library science. The other view suggests the creation of a B.A. (General) degree with librarianship as the principal subject at the University of the West Indies. The course of study would include both library science and a certain amount of liberal arts. The Jamaica Library Association and the Jamaica Library Service strongly back the creation of the degree program; the University appears not unwilling, but efforts to secure outside subsidy to finance it have not, as yet, met with any success. The urgent needs of the rapidly developing library services—public, academic, and special—for an island population of about 3,250,000 make it probable that some permanent program will eventually come into existence. Perhaps one of the most interesting aspects of this possibility is that the program evolved may be a combination of the British and American systems adapted to meet the needs of the newly developing area.

The Dutch Caribbean (Leeward Islands, Aruba, Bonaire, Curacao, Windward Islands, Saba, St. Maarten, St. Eustatius, and Surinam) is an integral part of the Netherlands; the French Caribbean (Guadeloupe and dependencies, Martinique and French Guiana) contains départements of metropolitan France. Therefore, it is not surprising that library training follows that of the respective European countries. No type of library education is presently available in the dependencies themselves. However, some subsidies are available to aid the student to study in France or the Netherlands.

Curriculum, Faculty and Professional Libraries

The preceding pages have summarized the present state of education for librarianship in Latin America. What does the picture reveal about such elements of library training as curriculum, faculty, and professional libraries?

No two programs of study in Latin America are identical, any more than they are in the United States. Even within a single country like Brazil nine schools offer a total of twenty-three courses in the first year, twenty-eight in the second, and thirty-one in the third year. (Tables I-III). Nevertheless, there are many subjects common to the
curricula of nearly all schools—e.g., cataloging and classification, bibliography and reference, history of the book and administration. Moreover, recent curriculum changes seem to be leading toward more, rather than less, uniformity. New courses, like documentation and planning library services, are finding their way into not one but a number of programs. In 1963 a “typical” course of study (if it existed) would last three years, of which the first year would consist of survey courses in the arts and sciences, the second of basic professional courses (cataloging and classification, reference and bibliography, basic administration), and the third of advanced courses (i.e., continuation of those begun the previous year) and specialized subjects (e.g., special libraries, research methods, documentation).

No one would deny the importance of the faculty in any program of professional education, and librarianship is no exception. Yet, in one country after another, library science teachers are under a series of handicaps. Salaries are so low that teaching is of necessity a part-time job. In many cases frequent turnover of personnel results, and even long-time teachers often arrive just in time for the scheduled meetings of their classes and depart immediately thereafter (coming from or going to their other job or jobs). These part-time teachers are usually unable to have anything other than minimal professional contacts among themselves. One of the advantages of the Inter-American Library School in Medellín is that the teachers of professional courses are full-time. If other schools could secure budgets sufficient to permit the beginning of a program of full-time staff, it would constitute an important improvement. Fortunately schools with university connections will benefit from the fact that just such a movement is taking place in many important Latin American institutions of higher learning; it will, of course, take considerable time before the proportion of full-time faculty matches that of the university or college in the United States.

Another drawback is that some persons are now teaching almost exclusively on the basis of their own experience in a single library without the benefit of any advanced study or training, without a clear concept of the theoretical and philosophical bases underlying the subjects they teach, and without any research experience. Obviously there is a need in many Latin American library schools to improve the quality of the faculty. The fellowship programs of the Organization of American States, UNESCO, Fulbright commissions, and the philanthropic foundations afford an opportunity for study in countries with
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advanced library training facilities and systems (e.g., United States, United Kingdom, and France). Such organizations sometimes fail to realize that the recent graduate with little or no experience is not a competent teacher just because he has had a grant to study abroad; in fact, he may lack the professional maturity to adapt, say, an American program to his own country's needs and make the serious mistake of attempting to transplant it.

The Department of Cultural Affairs of the Pan American Union has proposed to attack this problem by providing for advanced training of Latin American teachers. It has suggested bringing five different groups—a total of approximately 125 persons—to an American library school for three separate special programs within a three-year period. The first of three programs would be an advanced course for teachers and directors of permanent university-level library schools. Its objective would be to provide these persons with an opportunity to observe the rapid changes in library procedures and teaching methods that have taken place outside their own countries in recent years and to engage in supervised research. The second course would be for teachers of basic training courses in library science, in an attempt to satisfy the urgent need for providing some elementary or basic type of instruction for persons now working in libraries, most of whom have sub-collegiate educational background. The third course would provide an opportunity for training teachers for specialized library and documentation organizations and services. In order to provide an ample number of well trained teachers of library science it is planned to repeat the first and second courses, once the initial cycle has been completed. Unfortunately the project exists only on paper, for no funds have yet become available.

Leader grants made by the Department of State through American embassies have brought a number of Latin American librarians (not all teachers) to the United States in recent years. There is a theoretically great potential in the program, but practically there are many obstacles. In the first place, librarians are of course only one of many professional groups which must, in a sense, compete for a limited number of such grants. Since the country programs of American embassies do not all stress the importance of libraries, it may be that in a given country no librarian receives a nomination for a grant in some years. Moreover, the shifting emphases of such programs (both deliberate and accidental through changes in American cultural attachés) make it difficult to count on completing a plan to send a number of
librarians to this country. The schedule to be followed by such persons while in the United States constitutes still another problem. It is questionable whether the grantee should visit as many library schools and libraries as can be crowded into sixty days. It might be far wiser to restrict the visiting teacher to several schools of different types (one offering the doctorate, one only the master's, and one giving library science at the undergraduate level, for example), so as to leave him ample time to discuss with his counterparts course content, teaching methods, materials needed, work to be done by students, etc. The only school which, to the writer's knowledge, has been substantially aided by these grants is that at the University of Buenos Aires.

Under the circumstances outlined above, it comes as no surprise to learn that the amount of research and writing done by library science faculty in Latin America is quite limited (but, then, the same is true of the majority of American library schools). Lacking time, training, and even the bare minimum of financial support, and the encouragement of the school's administration, these teachers have made a small contribution to research in the field.

Turning from faculty to students, one notes that in 1958 the forty-five permanent library schools and courses had an enrollment of 1,616, or an average of thirty-six students.46 Five years later ten of the most important schools reported enrollment of 691, or an average of sixty-nine (Table IV). It is impossible to project these figures so as to include other schools, but it does appear that some increase is taking place. Whether this will actually alleviate the shortage of librarians is difficult to say, because larger numbers are needed to meet Latin America's rapid growth in population.

Another important element in a program of education for librarianship is an adequate professional library. The lack of such resources is one of the greatest weaknesses of library training programs in Latin America. A recent study47 of the libraries of twenty library schools in the United States found the median number of volumes held to be 13,212 and the median number of current periodical subscriptions 207. No single collection in Latin America even begins to approach this.

Holdings range from a shelf or two of books to as many as the 4,000 found at the Inter-American Library School. Although they generally include basic titles of American librarianship, the lack of funds has often prevented them from being current. Library Litera-
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ture, for instance, may not include the recent cumulations (one rarely finds *Library Science Abstracts*). Apparently only one school counts the published catalog of Columbia's School of Library Service Library among its resources.48 English-language materials are, in general, most plentiful, followed by Spanish and Portuguese. Very few titles are available in French, German, Russian, and other languages. Journal files are scattered, incomplete, and frequently not bound. Many schools have various numbers of the *Annual Report of the Librarian of Congress*, but few other annual reports. Audio-visual items are all but non-existent.

**TABLE IV**

Current Enrollment in Ten Library Schools

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Institution</th>
<th>Enrollment</th>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>First Year</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Argentina</td>
<td>Univ. of Buenos Aires</td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Argentina</td>
<td>Univ. of Cordoba</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brazil</td>
<td>Univ. of Minas Gerais</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brazil</td>
<td>Univ. of Rio Grande do Sul</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brazil</td>
<td>National Library</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colombia</td>
<td>Inter-American Lib. Sch.</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mexico</td>
<td>National University</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mexico</td>
<td>Nat. Sch. of Librarians and Arch.</td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uruguay</td>
<td>University</td>
<td>103</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Venezuela</td>
<td>Central University</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
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</table>

| TOTAL     | 289                                      | 177         | 64          | 691        |

* Not available.
** Includes five students in fourth year.

SOURCE: Information supplied by directors of the schools, May and June 1963.

Nevertheless, there are elements of strength, in terms of resources in library science available to students. In Buenos Aires, the Library Institute at the University, located near the Faculty of Philosophy and Letters, possesses an excellent collection, strong in long runs of journals.49 Also close at hand is the USIS library with good holdings of recent American publications. These three collections supply Buenos Aires with excellent resources. Similarly in Mexico City the USIS library supplements the holdings of the National School of Librarians and Archivists. In cases where a central university library exists (e.g., Caracas), its resources prove helpful. In larger cities the
binational centers provide up-to-date American publications, sometimes given to the library school when the center weeds its book stock. The Rockefeller Foundation grant to the Inter-American Library School includes generous provision for the development of the library, with the result that this collection is probably the best maintained on a current basis. Other assistance in recent years has been limited. As noted, a small collection was formed at Córdoba in anticipation of the establishment of the library school. Limited presentation funds available under Department of State grants to American specialists have enabled the present writer to supply schools in Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Mexico, Peru, Uruguay, and Venezuela with a few recent American titles (usually not more than 10 or 12 per school). The Alberto Lleras Library Fund, sustained by the Pan American Union Staff Association, plans to devote its funds to the purchase of materials for libraries of Latin American library schools.

Defective in resources, library school libraries also lack trained librarians, except in the case of the Inter-American School. Hence much free and inexpensive material cannot be acquired, because no one is available to request it. Quarters are limited, and the small collection is often rather inaccessible, since the school’s office or that of a faculty member must house it. On the balance, it is quite clear that the professional collections of Latin American library schools are far weaker than they should be. This makes teaching less effective, hinders student preparation (especially of individual projects), and renders faculty research virtually impossible. The situation demands a concerted effort if improvement is to take place.

Related to the library is the question of professional tools needed for teaching as well as for reference purposes. Since the vast majority of such literature is in English, the question of translation and adaptation arises. Recent years have seen considerable progress in this direction. The Pan American Union publishes the “Manuales del Bibliotecario” series, in which the two most recent titles are translations of Grenfell’s *Periodicals and Serials* and Alexander and Burke’s *How to Locate Educational Information and Data.* The Regional Technical Aids Center of AID in Mexico City has sponsored Spanish versions of Gardiner’s *Administering Library Service in the Elementary School* and Akers’ *Simple Library Cataloging.* The fact that many millions of persons speak Spanish or Portuguese makes economically feasible the publication of library science works, provided of course that barriers to their distribution throughout the area can be overcome. Unfortu-
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nately in terms of student use, cost of imported books remains high. For this reason the limited funds for the professional library are often diverted into the purchase of multiple copies of textbooks. Perhaps a rental system could be devised to amortize the cost of such volumes over a period of years without drawing on the money needed for supplementary works and research materials.

Summary

The preceding pages have described education for librarianship in Latin America. In spite of the variation shown from one country to another, it is surprising that in almost every case library training has passed through similar phases. It began with a short course, given to meet the immediate need for organizing libraries and with no thought of continuity. The course became a permanent offering, and the addition of other subjects led to the formation of a library school, which in time came to be affiliated with the local university. The course of study was lengthened first to two years and later to three. This, then, is the present state of most library schools: a three-year program given in the university at the undergraduate level. It now appears that full four-year undergraduate courses culminating in a regular university degree (licenciatura) will become rather general within the next few years, but one would be very cautious in predicting the establishment of graduate work.

Since this rapid development has taken place within a relatively short period of time, it is natural that improvement in all phases of library education was not uniform. Many schools, as indicated, suffer from such serious shortcomings as lack of adequate faculty, poor professional libraries, insufficient budgets, and unsatisfactory quarters. It would be impossible to meet the demand for librarians without changes in library education. The answer, to this observer, lies not in the creation of more schools, but rather in the improvement and expansion of those already in existence. A program to raise all library schools to minimum standards and embracing the cooperative effort of the schools themselves, universities, national governments, UNESCO, the Pan American Union, philanthropic foundations, and library schools in the United States could bring about very rapid betterment. As a second step in improving education for librarianship, selected institutions should move into higher-level or more advanced programs. Only a limited number of such schools would be needed, at least in the foreseeable future; this might best be accomplished
on a regional basis, with, for example, the Inter-American Library
School serving northern South America, another for Brazil, a third in
the Río de la Plata region, and a fourth for Middle America, Mexico,
and the Caribbean. Such programs will need to draw on the coopera-
tion of the countries to be served and to respond effectively to their
needs, if they are to be truly regional training organizations.

Education for librarianship in Latin America has come a long way
in the past fifty years. It enters a new era confronted by the challenge
of the great economic, political, and social changes that are sweeping
over the lands south of the Río Grande.

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Forthcoming numbers are as follows:


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