PRODUCTION NOTE

University of Illinois at
Urbana-Champaign Library
Library Trends

European University Libraries: Current Status and Developments

ROBERT VOSPER
Issue Editor

April, 1964
Library Trends

A Publication of the University of Illinois Graduate School of Library Science

Managing Editor
HERBERT GOLDHOR

Assistant to Editor
JEAN SOMERS

Publications Board
ROBERT B. DOWNS
THELMA EATON
HERBERT GOLDHOR
FRANCES B. JENKINS
ALICE LOHRER
ARNOLD H. TROTIER
LUCIEN W. WHITE

LIBRARY TRENDS, a quarterly journal of librarianship, provides a medium for evaluative recapitulation of current thought and practice, searching for those ideas and procedures which hold the greatest potentials for the future.

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.

Published four times a year, in July, October, January, and April. Office of Publication: University of Illinois Graduate School of Library Science, Urbana, Illinois. Entered as second-class matter June 25, 1952, at the Post Office at Urbana, Illinois, under the act of August 24, 1912. Copyright 1964 by the University of Illinois Board of Trustees. All rights reserved.

Subscription price is $6.00 a year. Individual issues are priced at $2.00. Address orders to Subscription Department, University of Illinois Press, Urbana, Illinois. Editorial correspondence should be sent to LIBRARY TRENDS, University of Illinois Graduate School of Library Science, Urbana, Illinois. Indexed in Library Literature, Library Science Abstracts, and PAIS.
European University Libraries: Current Status and Developments

ROBERT VOSPER
Issue Editor

CONTRIBUTORS TO THIS ISSUE

ROBERT VOSPER
Introduction

HARALD L. TVESTERÅS
Scandinavian University and College Libraries

CARL WEHMER
The Organization and Origins of German University Libraries

JOSEF HOFINGER
Developments in Austrian University Libraries

PAUL POINDRON
French University Libraries

JAVIER LASO DE LA VEGA
University Libraries in Spain and Portugal

SILVANO GEREVINI
The Organization and Problems of University Libraries in Italy

L. I. VLADIMIROV
The Accomplishments of University Libraries in the Soviet Union

MATKO ROJNIĆ
University Libraries of Yugoslavia, Czechoslovakia, Hungary, Rumania and Bulgaria

R. O. MACKENNA
Recent Developments in University Librarianship in Great Britain
This Page Intentionally Left Blank
Introduction

ROBERT VOSPER

ON INTRODUCING THE APRIL 1955 ISSUE of this journal, concerned with “Current Acquisitions Trends in American Libraries,” I noted that: “Throughout the issue the authors are aware of being parochial, but . . . they did not have the temerity to look abroad.” On that and other occasions I have been disturbed by the fact that too much of our experience and our training has lacked both historical and comparative depth. In large measure American librarians have been monolingual and have had an inadequate understanding of library experiences other than in this country and in modern times. Thus we have practiced our profession with insufficient knowledge of how it is practiced elsewhere and of how it was practiced generations ago. This inadequacy is certainly a limiting factor in our professional practice, and furthermore it has made it difficult for us fully to bear our responsibilities abroad in the modern world.

This is not to say that American librarianship has altogether lacked an international outlook. So blunt a statement would be quite incorrect, because from its very beginnings the American Library Association has been concerned with things international. The year after the founding of the Association a group of American librarians traveled to England to participate in the initial meeting of the Library Association of Great Britain, and since 1885 Canadian librarians have regularly been members of the ALA. A Committee on International Cooperation was established in 1900, and since that date various committees and boards of the Association have given attention to international affairs.1

It is true, however, that our participation in international activities, individually and organizationally, has developed most remarkably since the 1940’s, and this development, of course, has related directly to the expanding involvement of the American people in the world at

Mr. Vosper is the University Librarian of the University of California, Los Angeles, and Professor in its School of Library Service.
large. The meeting on October 9, 1942, in Farmington, Connecticut, of the Executive Committee of the Librarian’s Council of the Library of Congress, the discussions of which led directly to the development of the Farmington Plan, was a significant event in this regard. So was the session at Princeton University on November 25 and 26, 1946, of the Conference on International Cultural, Educational, and Scientific Exchanges, sponsored by two groups within the American Library Association, the Board on Resources of American Libraries and the International Relations Board. That Conference was called in order to open up American relationships with libraries abroad following limitations imposed by the Second World War and to chart those relationships on a broader scale.

From that time forward our involvement has been greatly enriched on a number of fronts. Extensive procurement programs have pressed us into understanding the publishing, bookselling, and bibliothecal activities of countries throughout the world. The Army Library Service and the United States Information Service libraries abroad have given numbers of American librarians direct experience in other countries. Library training programs, in which the ALA has had one degree or another of official involvement, have been instituted in Colombia in 1942, in Lima in 1943, in Japan in 1950, in Turkey in 1954, and in the Philippines, Tehran, and India in 1961. Fulbright and other personnel exchange and training programs have taken American librarians on research and teaching assignments to a number of foreign countries, and on the other hand have brought large numbers of foreign librarians to this country for training and for professional visits. Somewhat more recently a few of the professional library schools have been offering seminars and courses entitled variously “Comparative Librarianship” or “International Library Relations,” the earliest of these having appeared about 1950 and most of them since 1960. Most recently there has been a movement toward greater American participation in the affairs of the International Federation of Library Associations.

This multifarious activity has certainly been to the credit of American librarianship and has been useful to the profession at large. Nonetheless, it is still true that, at least insofar as the written record is concerned, our detailed understanding of the history and practice of librarianship in other countries is meager. No American librarian has matched the wisdom and breadth of experience evident in Wilhelm Munthe’s synoptic look at American libraries from the vantage
point of his own cultural experience in Norway. We even lack in English, in general, more mundane and descriptive information about the practice of librarianship abroad. To be sure Professor Danton’s recent book is a welcome and impressive contribution, but the general lack has led to this issue of Library Trends.

The original thought had been to concern ourselves with the practice of university librarianship abroad, but it soon appeared that this was too broad a swath, so the concentration has centered on Europe and the British Isles. It should be noted at this point that the October 1959 issue did incidentally provide useful current information on university libraries in most other parts of the world. It was particularly hoped that the articles in the present issue could be written for an American audience, not by American librarians but by librarians who knew the local situation at first-hand; happily it has been possible to realize that hope. It is true that Europe has not been completely covered, and thus a particular apology must be made in regard to those countries not represented here. The lack does not by any means reflect a failure to understand the valuable contribution of countries not dealt with here, but rather a lack of time and space to accomplish the task completely.

In planning the issue one thought had been to develop it not along geographical lines, but along substantive lines, each author to be concerned with some broad aspect of librarianship, such as cataloging, from an entirely European point of view. It soon became evident, however, that it was difficult to find enough people with the requisite breadth of experience across country lines. Thus the geographical approach has been maintained.

Each author has been asked to give attention particularly to those aspects of university librarianship of a most pressing concern to his countrymen in recent years, on the assumption that local situations will variously effect the development of librarianship, and the articles would seem to bear this out. One notes with admiration the patiently devised multi-national cooperative collection development program among the Scandinavian libraries. A variety of cultural and geographic factors have made this pioneering experiment feasible. Yet it is perhaps not quixotic to hope that the Scandia Plan may provide useful suggestions for other regions where collectively library resources are inadequate. As another example of local influences at work, the American reader will likely be struck by the particular application in certain countries of highly specific library legislation, an experience quite
ROBERT VOSPER

foreign to American, or for that matter to British, librarianship. This legalism relates in part to a system of responsible central ministries, but more basically it stems from a fundamental cultural heritage, for this phenomenon touches many other aspects of life besides libraries. In this context, it is of interest to observe the widespread difference between European countries with tightly controlling national ministries and other countries with a dominant tradition of individually independent universities and libraries.

Yet with all the national differences of pattern and emphasis, several fundamental concerns and procedures in common are observable. The explosive demand for higher education is almost worldwide, putting before many governments the need rapidly to expand universities and their libraries or establish new ones. Open-access collections, of one size or another, are increasingly required, and this constitutes a considerable change in the European pattern. Of special interest is the widespread, and occasionally violent, concern with the disabilities posed by the heritage of autonomous, often quite unrelated, institute and “faculty” libraries in most European universities. In some countries the situation may be altered by administrative fiat. Significantly, it is a Scandinavian country (Norway) that is developing a most reasonable procedure for effective modification.

At the point of preparing this introduction, I wish I had had the wit to include an article on the activities of IFLA’s section for national and university libraries, because that body seems likely to be of increasing utility to European libraries, faced as they are in common today with so many compelling forces for growth and change.

I owe a special note of thanks to my colleagues at UCLA who produced translations that have been consistently praised by the original authors. Despite available glossaries there are still some difficulties with technical terminology. Two frequently used terms should be mentioned here. American readers should remember that a “faculty” in the European sense of a school or college within a university (as “Faculty of Sciences”) differs from the American usage whereby “faculty” means the institution’s total teaching staff. European readers should remember that “wissenschaftliche” and its equivalents differ from the English term “scientific.” The former is best translated as “scholarly” or “research” (as “research library”), whereas in English and American usage “scientific” refers usually to the physical and biological sciences and not to the other disciplines.

Final responsibility for reference citations has in several instances
Introduction

been left with the authors of the articles, because the reference ma-
terial was not readily available in this country.

My secretary, Mrs. Lillian Rader, has my thanks for keeping this
European project under control in Los Angeles during the fall of
1963 while I enjoyably spent much of my time visiting with my col-
leagues themselves in Europe.

References

paper presented to the International Relations Round Table, June 19, 1962.

Libraries, 1953, p. 3.

3. Williams, Edwin E. Conference on International Cultural, Educational, and

4. Munthe, Wilhelm. American Librarianship from a European Angle. Chicago,
American Library Association, 1939.

5. Danton, J. P. Book Selection and Collections: A Comparison of German

Library Trends, 8:125-341, October 1959.
Scandinavian University and College Libraries

HARALD L. TVETERÅS

The Danish, Finnish, Norwegian, and Swedish universities derive their traditions directly from the European universities of the Middle Ages, and two of them, Uppsala and Copenhagen, were even founded before 1500 A.D. In principle they are based upon the faculty system of the Middle Ages, even if one or two of the traditional faculties or departments may be left out in the younger universities.

The faculties have gone through a development which is rather common in European universities, and some changes have taken place. As a whole, however, they have been reluctant to accept new subjects, and only in the last decades has it been realized that the separation of pure and applied sciences in different institutions is somewhat artificial.

In all the Scandinavian countries, only institutions of this traditional character are officially called universities. Accordingly there are rather few of them: four in Sweden, three in Finland, two in Denmark, and two in Norway. Because of the tremendous scientific and educational development, however, there are plans for new universities of this kind in all the Scandinavian countries.

Applied science and new subject fields not belonging to the older academic tradition are cultivated in special institutions, the so-called "høyskoler" or colleges. These are in principle on a university level, and like the universities they offer essentially graduate work beginning at a stage corresponding to the junior or senior college year in the United States. There are state colleges of this kind for technology, for agriculture and forestry, for veterinary science, for odontology, for education, and for commerce. Like most specialized institutions, they have a tendency to include neighboring fields and thus to broaden

Dr. Harald L. Tvetereås is University and State Librarian, University of Oslo.
European University Libraries: Scandinavia

ten years there has been a tendency, especially in Norway, to incorporate some of the colleges into a larger unit, a university, and thus to break the old academic line of the universities. In the present situation, however, we have two different types of universities to deal with, and accordingly with two different kinds of university libraries. On the one hand we have the comprehensive university libraries, comprising both humanities and sciences; on the other, the more specialized college libraries.

Considering the first group, we have to take into account that all of these libraries are legal deposit libraries as well as university libraries. They have the privilege and responsibility of receiving regularly all kinds of printed material, books, pamphlets, periodicals, newspapers, reports, maps, music, etc., and to catalog, retain and make them available to readers. Some of the libraries receive legal deposit material directly from the printers, some from the publishers; some of them receive everything, some a selection only. The university libraries of Helsinki and Oslo have assumed the full responsibility of being the national library for their countries, and of producing the national bibliography, in addition to functioning as university libraries. The national libraries of Denmark and Sweden, that is the royal libraries of Copenhagen and Stockholm, are developing in the opposite manner, as they more and more take on university library functions for the University of Copenhagen and of Stockholm besides their national library functions. As a whole the functions of the Scandinavian national and university libraries are interwoven in a way which is not common in other countries.

As to inter-library loans, both the university and the college libraries have accepted responsibility for service to readers outside their respective institutions, for the purpose of serving research. Parcels of books go daily to other libraries and directly to scientists and scholars all over the country as a part of a comprehensive system of library cooperation. A few of the university libraries have taken over the specific function of serving as national central libraries in some subject field, such as medicine. The college libraries are definitely Janus-faced, with one face turned towards the institutions to which they are subordinate, the other towards the community or the country at large. The libraries of the colleges of technology are to a great extent the main documentation centers in their fields of interest for a particular region or for the whole country, and they have more patrons from industry than from the college which they serve.
It is rather important to be aware of this duality of the Scandinavian university and college libraries. It may be more or less pronounced in different libraries, but nevertheless this implies a general trend characteristic of the libraries concerned. This development began as a matter of necessity, as the relatively high level of education in the Scandinavian countries produced a demand for literature, for which a small population could not afford to pay. The available library resources, therefore, had to be made as effective as possible. From this situation there developed later an interest in all aspects of library cooperation, nationally, regionally, and internationally. In small nations there is a need for cooperation, and what starts as a necessity is soon turned into a virtue. Of course, it may cause some problems when a book needed by a professor in Oslo is actually in use at a hospital in so distant a place as Hammerfest, some 832 miles away. Fortunately problems of this kind are met with understanding by all concerned. A professor would seldom remind the librarian of the fact that the book was procured with university funds, but a question might arise as to whether it would be advisable to have a duplicate copy in one of the university institutes.

The Scandinavian university libraries play a leading part in the building-up of a national system of library services, the intention of which is to formulate a program and specify the tasks of every library, thus coordinating the variety of library resources of the country. This process, which never ends because the results always have to be reconsidered, has brought the university and college libraries into close cooperation with the special libraries, and even private industrial libraries participate in the system.

More complicated is the question of cooperation if we turn to the special libraries inside the universities, the institute libraries. The faculties of the Scandinavian universities are divided into several smaller and more specialized units, the university institutes. The main function of the institutes is not educational: they are first and foremost workshops for scholars, including graduate students working on their theses, etc. The ideal working condition for scholars is to sit in the midst of a good collection of library material relating to their specific subject fields, and no doubt the institute libraries are among the most intensively used of all libraries. They are in fact a daily working tool, and a great many scholars regard them as a *sine qua non* for their research.

To give an impression of their importance one should mention that
there are altogether about eighty-five of them in the seven faculties of Oslo University, varying in size from 2,000 to 50,000 volumes. The situation is similar at a great many European universities. Since a university is in principle a unity, the dispersal of the library resources creates many serious problems of coordination; and, as long as these remain unsolved, there will always be some lack of sympathy between the two parts, the university library with its librarians, and the institute library with its scholars. At many older universities the relation between the two types of libraries is characterized by antagonism and competition rather than by cooperation. This serious problem has been taken up by several of the Scandinavian university and college libraries, and different kinds of cooperation have been established. A few newer universities have adopted a system of centralization known in many American universities which gives the university librarian full authority for the departmental libraries. At the older and larger universities, it is not possible to run a system like this, because the institute libraries have their independence stemming from the older academic tradition. On a more or less voluntary basis, it has been possible for some of the university and college libraries to establish permanent contacts with a few of the faculties in library matters, in the hope of developing closer cooperation in the future.

At Oslo University a special system has been built up over the last six years, the so-called "faculty service" of the University Library, the ambition of which is to develop a solution acceptable from the point of view of both the scholars and the librarians.

Within the several faculties there has been established a library and documentation center (not a faculty library) supplied with the relevant catalogs and bibliographical tools and led by a faculty librarian responsible to the director of the University Library. The responsibilities of the faculty librarian and his staff are rather complicated, because the center serves as an outpost of the University Library, while at the same time being a service station for the institute libraries. The faculty librarian assists the institute libraries in book selection, supervises all purchases, exchanges, cataloging and binding, and deals with inter-library loans, the provision of the University Library's deposit and long-term loans in the libraries of the faculty, etc. Last but not least, he is to undertake bibliographical research on behalf of the staffs of the institutes, in collaboration, where necessary, with the reference department of the University Library.

The advantages of the faculty library system are numerous. It brings
the librarians to the scholars' own workshops, the institutes, and thus establishes a close daily contact between the two groups. This means that all of the university specialists will always be at hand to help the librarians if the University Library needs assistance in solving difficult reference problems.

The faculty service involves a strong expansion of the activities and the responsibilities of a university library, and far-reaching decentralization is actually being carried out. At the same time an administrative centralization of staff, services, and collections is created. The administrative line always goes from the director of the main library to the faculty librarian, not to the institutes. The faculty librarian seeks the promotion of all kinds of cooperation between the various institute libraries, and through a union catalog all of the library resources within a faculty become very much of a unit, even though the material is dispersed among many institutes. In this way the main library is surrounded by seven special libraries, one for each faculty, all of them constantly demanding up-to-date service, and thus stimulating a more dynamic attitude than is common in the old, comprehensive libraries.

The quality of library service today is probably more dependent on an efficient staff than on the best selection of books, and, therefore, the recruitment of library personnel will always be of great importance. As the Scandinavian university and college libraries usually are state libraries, recruitment is influenced by factors outside the university world, because the salaries and working conditions are decided by the Ministry concerned.

Roughly speaking, the library staff can be divided into three categories. Firstly the academic staff, as far as possible selected from different subject fields, have their university degree and at the same time some library education, very much in the form of internship training. The responsibilities of the academic staff are book selection, classification, and bibliographical service in their fields of interest, as well as responsibility for special collections and departments. Many of them continue their studies with the eventual hope of a scholarly career, and a problem may be posed by their frequent leaves of absence for research purposes.

Secondly there are the library assistants, who have passed the State Library School examination (in Norway this takes three years after the matriculation degree). They do most of the cataloging and are
**European University Libraries: Scandinavia**

very useful in the Circulation Department, and in Oslo also in the faculty library service.

Thirdly there are the office clerks and the technical staff (bookbinders, photographers, printers, etc.).

The director is always someone with a university degree and a library background. In the university libraries he is independent, being entitled to make decisions on his own. In the college libraries there is usually a committee, giving the director advice on all matters of policy, the annual budget estimate, etc. Decisions about appointments, the current working plan, applications for leave of absence, and the like are in most cases made in consultation with the heads of the main departments of the library. In all of the university libraries of any size, the staff is kept informed about internal news through house journals and meetings of different kinds.

**The Scandia Plan**

The main problem of the Scandinavian university and college libraries is a rather simple one, one that is familiar to almost all libraries in the world today. It is to keep abreast of the ever-increasing flow of material and to cope with the growing numbers of requests which have a tendency to become more and more urgent. During recent years libraries have improved their budgets as far as both staff and the purchase of books are concerned, but library budgets will always fall behind current needs. The tremendous growth of education and research in all fields makes even the most liberal budgetary improvements far too modest. Like librarians in all countries, the Scandinavian university librarians have been looking for remedies to meet this situation. Technical devices may be of some help, and libraries are usually equipped with the various kinds of photoreproduction, from simple office machines to Xerox. Technical equipment has made it possible to improve service to readers, but unfortunately it offers no real solution to the serious problems we are facing. The electronic storage and retrieval computer does not seem to be around the corner, and even if it were possible to adapt machines to the needs of the comprehensive university libraries and use them for a broad subject approach to information, they would be too expensive for a Scandinavian library to justify the investment. While waiting for a bargain sale of electronic computers, the Scandinavian libraries are trying another method more familiar to them, namely library cooperation. Not an easy method, it is
nevertheless a tempting one, as it promotes mutual understanding even in cases where the actual results may be small. It is quite a long step from a national scheme of cooperative acquisition of library materials to a regional scheme that crosses the borders of a group of countries, and the idea grew up gradually in the Scandinavian countries before it was put into practice. In the end the tremendous increase of printed material made it quite natural to try a system of dividing the responsibilities for specific subject interests between libraries in the four countries. This plan for cooperative acquisition is called the "Scandia plan."

The background for the Scandia plan is the broad library cooperation which has a long tradition in Scandinavia. Since 1926 Scandinavian library conferences of a general nature have been arranged, usually every three years. Since 1947 the directors of the Scandinavian university libraries, thirteen altogether, have held annual meetings, and later on the heads of the different types of college libraries established a regular contact. In 1947 the Scandinavian Federation of Research Librarians (Nordisk Vitenskapelig Bibliotekarforbund, hereafter called NVBF) was founded, based upon national associations of similar character. NVBF has taken the initiative on the Scandia plan and the board of NVBF is still the highest administrative authority for the plan, although the different committees are free to make certain decisions. The Scandia plan is the first cooperative scheme of this kind covering a group of countries and has therefore attracted some attention, being both appreciated and misunderstood. Since the university libraries play a leading part in the plan, it might be of interest to single out a few of the plan's characteristics to see how it is organized and how it works.

(1) The Scandia plan is based on voluntary cooperation between university, college, and special libraries in the Scandinavian countries, and no authority other than the librarians themselves has any decisive influence on the development of the project. The object is an allocation of fields of interest among libraries in the four countries with the object of enriching total library resources for the benefit of each country as well as for the cooperating group of countries as a whole.

(2) The practical development of the project is promoted through a number of committees set up by NVBF, one main committee and several subcommittees representing the different college libraries (technology, medicine, agriculture, etc.).
European University Libraries: Scandinavia

(3) The expenses entailed by the numerous planning conferences are defrayed by the Nordic Cultural Commission (Nordisk Kulturkommission), an inter-Scandinavian governmental organization for cultural affairs. This implies that the project enjoys the moral support of the Cultural Commission and accordingly of the governments.

(4) None of the libraries receives any extra financial support to fulfill special acquisition commitments. The advantages of being able to build the acquisition policy on special collections of other libraries more than counterbalance the expenses involved.

(5) Each library decides independently, as before, on its own purchase and exchange policy.

(6) As to the principles of allocation of responsibilities among the Scandinavian libraries, two different methods have been adopted: an allocation by subject fields, and a regional or linguistic basis of allocation. The allocation of obligations is made on the basis of a comparative evaluation of the existing collections and fields of interest in the several countries.

(7) The obligations taken on by the participating libraries also involve supplying bibliographical information in the fields allocated to them.

Following are examples to illustrate how the system works. Through comparative evaluation it has been ascertained that Denmark has collections of outstanding importance in hymnology, history of missions, history of the Jews, African aboriginal languages, as well as in Burmese, Japanese, Javanese, Hebrew, Chinese, and Mongolian linguistics. Finland, on the other hand, possesses large Slavic, Baltic, Georgian, and Hungarian collections. Norway is extremely well supplied in the fields of marine law, copyright law, Celtic languages and history, Arctic and Antarctic geography, and papyrology; while Sweden has a large number of specialties, such as systematic theology, Arabic, Armenian and Turkish linguistics, Indology, Iranology, history of Africa and Australia, and ethnography.

As to allocation according to a region or a language, it is applicable in all subject fields—medicine, technology, and commerce, as well as the humanities. As an example we can take a field like medicine. It is an international science, and a medical periodical of some standard is of interest to European libraries wherever it has been published, in Australia or in Japan. Of the Japanese medical journals only one-fourth are available in Scandinavian libraries, and the rest are missing.
The present plan is to let one of the Scandinavian countries take on a special responsibility for Japanese medical literature, another country a responsibility for Australian, etc., so as to achieve better coverage. In the same way we are going to work in the field of technology. It is also our intention to reach an agreement on the allocation of the official and semi-official publications which arrive in the Scandinavian countries from all over the world in ever-increasing quantities, such as reports and recommendations of different kinds, parliamentary debates, etc. UNESCO's new exchange convention will undoubtedly stimulate interchange among the signatory states, especially with regard to such official publications, and this makes it all the more important for the Scandinavian countries to agree on a distribution of obligations to receive and collect such material.

If a particular library has taken over a special subject or language field, it assumes the obligation of systematically acquiring material and at the same time of functioning as a bibliographical information center on the subject in question. This does not imply that other libraries are to discontinue their acquisition in that special field. They buy what they need for current use, but they are in a position to base their acquisition policy to a much larger extent than before on the main Scandinavian collection in the field. In this connection it is of importance that inter-library loan between the Scandinavian countries is quite efficient. Usually it takes only a few days to obtain a book or a photo-copy from another Scandinavian country, while it might take some months to procure it from a non-Scandinavian country.

So far the Scandia plan has been carried into effect for more than 100 subject fields, and special literature from a great many regions has been allocated. For many subject fields the plan is still in preparation, and other fields are awaiting discussion. It is necessary to proceed with caution and patience, as the building-up of cooperative enterprises involving four countries will always be of a more delicate nature than work with national schemes. It is a pleasure to state that all the problems thus far have been dealt with in a spirit of friendship and cooperation, which in itself has been very stimulating and valuable for the improvement of library services in the Scandinavian countries.

NVBF has carried through many other projects of great importance to the university and college libraries. There are annual round-table conferences concentrating on one specific theme such as bibliographical information, book selection, periodicals, newspapers, official pub-
European University Libraries: Scandinavia

lications, technical devices, and international loans. As only four specialists from each country participate, the conferences are kept on a rather high level. NVBF has also edited the three volumes of "Nordisk Handbok i Bibliotekskunnskap" ("Nordic Manual of Librarianship"), with Svend Dahl as editor in chief, and with contributions from specialists in university and college libraries all over Scandinavia.

A visitor to Denmark, Finland, Norway, and Sweden will undoubtedly find that there is a great variety among the university and college libraries in the four countries, each of them having its own background, facing its particular situation, solving its own problems in the best possible way. The intention of this article has been to indicate the main characteristics that these libraries have in common, in relation to similar libraries in other countries, their present problems, and—last but not least—the cooperative enterprises undertaken to strengthen their ability to meet the increasing needs of science and research.

References


THE SCANDIA PLAN


HARALD L. TVETERAS


THE FACULTY SERVICE


The Organization and Origins of German University Libraries

CARL WEHMER

The 1963 long-term program for the International Federation of Library Associations\(^1\) points out two problems which all university libraries in the world share, "if in different degrees," and which must be given preference for particular study: (1) The relationship of university libraries to those of institutes, and (2) The relationship of university libraries to other libraries of the country.

Both problems, rightfully placed in the foreground for future discussion by IFLA, are problems not of library technique but of library organization and library politics.

Library technique is universally becoming more perfect and more similar. It is possible to test what is most useful, and tested and proven technical facilities and methods may be applied anywhere in any university library. An international discussion of these topics presents no difficulties since the technical aspects of libraries are largely free of ideological and political elements. But as soon as we inquire if the entire catalog of a library is to be placed freely at the disposal of all users or whether all the books in a library are to be accessible to any reader, the consensus ceases to exist.

Further, the question of how to arrange the relationships between the main library and the other libraries of a university is properly a question of library politics, since it is closely intertwined with the inner organization of an important institution. It is a political problem for fiscal reasons in those countries which of necessity must be economical with funds and foreign exchange supplied by the State and which must ponder questions of how limited resources may be used most fruitfully.

---

Dr. Wehmer is Director of the University Library, Heidelberg. The paper has been translated from German by R. K. Engelbarts.

[491]
An even more political problem is the question as to whether and how all the scholarly libraries of a country can be welded into a meaningful whole and brought into purposeful cooperation. This problem will be solved differently in each country, depending on what the ruling principles of political and social order may be.

A university's book supply is organized differently in Germany than in the United States. In an analysis of the differences, one encounters immediately the two problems stressed by IFLA: the relationship of the main or central library to those of the faculties, divisions, and institutes, and the relationship of the university library to other libraries in the country. Library coordination and cooperation within the realm of the university are closer in the United States than in Germany, in fact very much closer. Contrarily, cooperation between university libraries and other libraries in the United States is less intimate and less commonplace than in Germany. True, there is coordination and joint action between American libraries in a regional pattern, but the giant university libraries stress their independence and have a low opinion of inter-library loan transactions. The American concept is that it should not be the rule but a sparsely adopted exception. In Germany, on the other hand, all scholarly libraries are closely knitted together by means of a practically unrestricted, generally functioning inter-library loan service which works almost automatically and by way of a system of central catalogs, which shows no gaps. The continental dimensions of the United States, the contiguity of private and public libraries, the existence of numerous competing libraries besides those of the universities, and the desire to preserve, if possible, the autonomy of the university and its library did not permit the prospering of a unified system of all scholarly libraries in the United States. For the United States it may, therefore, be admitted that the German example, a typical product of state administration, has little attractiveness.

Those who have held posts as librarians for any length of time know full well how infrequent are the situations in which the librarian can freely and expertly act, without being bound or restricted by external decisions and special interests, or by financial or political situations. It is not the librarian who has the power to change the world, but the librarian must see how he can best adjust to the world as it is. This is an experience strongly impressed upon us during the last fifty years. It is not within the personal judgment of the librarian as
to how far he wishes to centralize the libraries of a university, or as to how far he can go in the direction of coordination or of autonomy, or as to what degree the libraries of a country, including the university libraries, should function autonomously or be administered centrally in a coordinated system.

The general trend is apparently in the direction of increased differentiation and specialization of library types and at the same time towards a growing coordination of all kinds of libraries within large regions or even an entire country. Methods for attaining such coordination differ widely. They stretch from "... coordinate decentralization...," the term used by Metcalf to describe the actual situation of the Harvard University Library, to the rigid centralism of the university library in Moscow. Countries which are governed centrally and which manage their libraries according to a collective plan attempt to reach the necessary coordination through a system of country-wide regulations and by a meaningful allotment of financial support. Countries where these premises are lacking grant their libraries and their librarians a larger degree of freedom to make decisions. Modern scholarly research undoubtedly demands planning in all its institutions. Libraries being the auxiliaries of research, instruction, and information must try to conform to these needs. In those countries which are not run by a system of national planning, the development of commissions and corporations is the typical way of adapting the varying interests of all participants and of effecting a commonly agreed upon procedure.

In the Federal Republic of Germany there are the German Research Association (Deutsche Forschungsgemeinschaft) which is a self-administered organization of German scholarship with its own committee for research libraries; the Scientific Advisory Council (Wissenschaftsrat) founded in 1958, which makes recommendations to the federal and state governments concerning the financial support of research libraries; and the Association of German [Research] Librarians (Verein deutscher Bibliothekare) which has its own subject committees for the discussion of library problems and which submits recommendations for their solution. The ministries of education of the individual states (Länder) decide whether and to what extent the recommendations should be accepted. In East Germany, too, there are committees of library experts, but they are not associations of individuals, but rather part of the machinery of the government. Di-
rectives are issued by the secretary of state for universities and other schools of higher learning (Staatssekretariat für Hoch- und Fachschulwesen) to which all scholarly libraries of Eastern Germany are subject. University libraries in West Germany may, therefore, be said to be administered on a federative basis while those in East Germany are governed centrally.

Before turning to a more detailed examination of the German university library, we ought to inquire as to what means of organization exist for arranging relationships between the libraries of a university, a region, or a state. It seems that three different modes of procedure may be distinguished.

1. Coordinate decentralization. Here the university librarian has administrative authority over all branches of the university library, and the main library possesses a union catalog of all library holdings. Beyond that, the administration is characterized by far-reaching autonomy. The university administration decides how the financial resources are to be distributed among the individual libraries comprising the whole system. Faculties and individual faculty members are actively engaged in collection building. Cooperation with libraries outside the pale of the university is weak.

2. Divided administration of main and departmental libraries. In this case each library encompassed within the university manages its own funds, purchases independently of the others, and maintains its own catalog. The main library is administered without faculty participation and belongs to a network of state libraries operating through interlibrary loan service and regional union catalogs.

3. Centralization. Here the main library has the function of a central library and is entitled to make decisions on purchase and distribution of all books, while the institutes merely have the privilege of making recommendations. The central library accessions and catalogs all new acquisitions and is part of a system of centrally guided research libraries of the state.

Fitting the type of the German university library into this scale of possibilities, it appears that it belongs to the second group with divided administration of main and departmental libraries. In Germany only the main library is called the "university library." This shows unmistakably that the complex of the main library and the institute libraries of a German university is no administrative unity. There are other distinctive characteristics of the type of the German university library:
European University Libraries: Germany

a. The library is without exception established by a state or a municipality. Thus there are in Germany no large private university libraries such as at Harvard, Yale, and Princeton.

b. It is always staffed and administered by professional librarians, who are not appointed by the university. The chief librarian decides, independently of the faculties, how the financial resources, budgeted annually by the state, are to be distributed.

c. The main library has closed stacks and circulates books, in contrast to the institute libraries which have open access and are non-lending libraries. It chiefly answers the needs of teaching and research of the university, but it must at the same time function as a scholarly municipal or state library. Its interlibrary loan service is impressive since its holdings are listed in regional union catalogs and thus accessible to all other libraries.11

d. The main library does not form an administrative unit with the libraries of the university's institutes. These are headed by the institute directors who are university professors. Institute libraries have their own budgets, not dependent on that of the main library, and they maintain their own catalogs. Union catalogs of all the institute libraries within a university are found only occasionally.

In East German universities there has been a change in the relationship between main and institute libraries during the last ten years. But in West Germany the traditionally complete autonomy of the institute libraries from the main library is still typical. In East Germany the tendency, engendered by centralistic library policies, is to permit the director of the university library to assume growing influence over the administrative processes of institute libraries and to unify the administrative apparatus of the main library and the institute libraries by appropriate means.12 In this connection there are demands for union catalogs of all the holdings in the several libraries of the university. Earlier attempts of this kind soon lost impetus in the Prussian universities. Today it will be found difficult to adopt such measures for long established libraries with large holdings, but even in West Germany the conviction is growing that they are justified in the case of newly established universities.

To sum up, the German university library is a state institution, associated with the university, but not under the authority of the faculties. At the same time it is a part of a cooperative system made up of all German state and municipal research libraries. It is, therefore,
CARL WEHMER

placed in a position along the borders between the university and the public domain. Similar to the clinic of the university, it is an institution which is to serve not only professors and students, but all citizens equally.

This defines what is common to all German university libraries. But even before 1945 there was no absolute uniformity among these libraries. In fact they had less of it than one might imagine with state institutions. They differ not only, as a matter of course, with respect to age and size, but also, to a smaller or larger degree, in their way of doing their work, in the number and character of their catalogs, in the way in which books are shelved in the stacks, in the number and training of their employees—even in the case of libraries with similar objectives. These differences have posed some eminently practical problems, as for instance when, some years ago, the resources of several university libraries, which had not been cataloged according to uniform rules, were to be listed in a regional catalog.

The History of German University Libraries

The lack of conformity is based on the fact that there never was a single unified German state and that there is none today. Thus it was not possible for a uniform type of university library to develop. This was true for the Empire (1871-1918), for the Weimar Republic (1919-1933), and for Germany since 1945.

The Empire was a federal government which comprised princely states of great differences in size and power. The most important of these was Prussia. Education and schools, universities and their libraries (with the exception of Strassburg), and archives and museums were not within the responsibility of the central government, but rather of the individual states (Prussia, Bavaria, Saxony, Württemberg, Baden, etc.). The Federal principle in the field of education was a consequence of the political situation after 1871 and remained significant for the universities and their libraries. Not much was basically changed during the time of the Weimar Republic, except for a few simplifications and corrections.

The Third Reich attempted to place all scholarly libraries under the authority of a central ministry of education; this had its origin in the Prussian ministry of education. An all-German council for library affairs (Reichsbeirat für Bibliotheksangelegenheiten) served in an advisory capacity and as such was fashioned on the Prussian advisory council, dating back to 1907. The practical results of this state of
affairs, which lasted only from 1936 to 1945, were minimal. Preparation and conduct of the war devoured all available strength, and the interest of the state in research libraries was far from vital. The old rivalries and tensions in library affairs were sharpened rather than settled. The lack of foreign exchange made the purchase of foreign publications difficult, all new construction came to a standstill, and buildings as well as book collections were decimated by evacuations, destruction, and fire.14

The federal structure of German educational policy explains why there has never been a real German national library, such as the Bibliotheque Nationale in France. The tasks of a German national library were performed by two libraries, which substituted for this lack: The Prussian State Library in Berlin (the largest and most modern research library in Germany besides the Bavarian State Library in Munich), and the German Library in Leipzig (Deutsche Bücherei)15 founded in 1912 by German bookdealers as a repository and central bibliographic institute for all publications printed in the German language.

The Prussian State Library and the ten Prussian university libraries (Berlin, Bonn, Breslau, Göttingen, Greifswald, Halle, Kiel, Königsberg, Marburg, and Münster) formed a closed system. Their chief librarians were responsible not to their universities but directly to the ministry of education in Berlin. This type of political centralism can be either good or bad; in this case it was good. Especially through the activity of the ministerial director, Friedrich Althoff (1882-1907), the Prussian libraries became the object of energetic reforms and models for well-planned library cooperation.16 The effect on all German libraries was deep and is noticeable in part even today in the training of academic and certified librarians, in the Prussian Instructions for alphabetical cataloging, in the forms of inter-library loan service, and in assigning special fields of collection development (Sondersammelgebiete) to different libraries.

There were also some failures, as for instance in the ordering of the relationship between main and institute libraries of the universities, and in the cataloging of manuscripts. The Second World War was responsible for much destruction, such as of the printed union book catalog (originally the Prussian, later the German Gesamtkatalog). Other undertakings came to stagnation, such as the general catalog of incunabula (Gesamtkatalog der Wiegendrucke). No matter what one may think about political centralism, Prussia set a model
for all German libraries of what may be reached with limited means if there is conscientious, intelligent, and coordinated effort.

It is impressive to ponder in how short a period the type of the German state university library was developed. It is a creation of the late nineteenth century. It assumed its characteristic features after 1870. It reached its full flower between 1890 and 1914.

In that period the university libraries were supplied with their own buildings planned for their special purposes, with reading rooms, catalog rooms, and bookstacks. This development began in the 1870's in Halle, after 1880 there followed Kiel and Greifswald, about 1890 Leipzig, in 1895 Strassburg, about 1900 Marburg, Königsberg, Freiburg, Heidelberg, Giessen, and after 1910 and before the First World War Tübingen, Berlin, Erlangen, and Jena.

In this period it also became accepted practice that university libraries should be run and administered by librarians who were scholars but who became librarians by profession and who concentrated their professional work on the library.

Up to that time the university library was a collection of books, more or less imposing, and, apart from the truly famous and frequently cited example of Göttingen, the haphazard result of purchases and bequests by professors and of gifts. The library was administered by professors for professors. It had usually some assistants who were poorly paid and who frequently held only part-time positions. The library served scholarly studies, chiefly philological and historical investigations. It was open only a few hours a day. It was not a public service institution open without restriction to any reader from any calling or profession; it was not even open for any student, but was rather an internal and fairly exclusive institute of the academic corporation. It was, measured against modern examples, not very large. The five largest German university libraries in 1875 had collections of between 300,000 and 400,000 volumes; these were Göttingen, Heidelberg, Leipzig, Breslau, and Strassburg. Approximately one-half of the twenty-one German university libraries in 1875 held only between 100,000 and 200,000 volumes. Scholarly publication lacked the linguistic and subject diversity of the present day and its world-wide comprehensiveness. A professor possessed the most important publications in his subject field in his own private library.

It is recorded in the handwritten Acts of the University Library of Heidelberg that when Jakob Wille (director of the Heidelberg University Library, 1902-1922) for the first time, in the fall of 1873 as a
young student, visited the reading room of the old university library in Heidelberg, he described his impressions in these words: "On the following day I was sitting in a small reading room, together with a few visitors, who returned time after time like habitual guests in an inn. Along two walls was arranged the small catalog, whose volumes the very helpful librarian Dr. Bender pushed back and forth, sometimes provoked in bad humour because Gutenberg ever invented the art of printing. This he did while walking about in large, silent felt slippers, unless he was engaged in entering new titles in his firm handwriting. In the center of the so-called hall there were a few clumsy tables which reminded one strongly of the furniture of an old inn."

This then was the appearance of the university library at Heidelberg in October 1873: a small reading room, few readers, a catalog of small compass handwritten by an academic librarian. In the same year Karl Zangemeister took over the management of the university library as its first professional librarian. The university directory lists four persons as employees during the winter semester of 1873/74: the chief librarian (Zangemeister), the librarian (Dr. Bender), a curator (Dr. Hinck), and a servant by the name of Bischoff. During this semester the university was attended by 640 students who were instructed by 41 professors ordinarii, and 27 professors extraordinarii. There were also two honorary professors and 29 private dozents.19

These were small and easily manageable conditions. There were such outstanding scientists as Kirchhoff and Bunsen who lectured that semester on experimental physics and experimental chemistry in Heidelberg University. The hours of the library were Wednesday and Saturday from 2 to 4 p.m., and on other weekdays from 10 a.m. to noon. The problems of organization which nowadays occupy university libraries came into existence only after the tremendous expansion of modern universities, and through an ever-increasing degree of specialized investigation and teaching, and because of an ever-faster growing number of students. Even in 1873, although Heidelberg was one of the oldest and largest German university libraries, it was administered in a way which nowadays would not even be considered sufficient for the library of a small college.

From this incompletely cataloged, haphazardly collected bookstock, such as Zangemeister met in Heidelberg, there developed within the span of a few decades a huge library with new catalogs, in a new building, with holdings continuously increased on a planned basis.
This expansion is typical of the history of most of the German university libraries. It was cut short by the First World War. Between 1914 and 1954 there were approximately normal conditions in Germany only between the years 1925 (the end of inflation) and 1930. These near-normal conditions were ended all too quickly by the world economic crisis, political confusion, and in 1933 by the advent of the Third Reich. In 1925 Hugo Andres Krüss had been named general director of the Prussian State Library. It was mainly thanks to him that the German research libraries regained contact with the scholarly libraries of other countries after the end of the First World War. But this initiative and this new beginning of the late twenties remained without solid results and in the end perished in the catastrophe of National Socialism. This was no time for libraries to flourish. The consequences were incisive, and present day German libraries cannot be judged unless seen against the background of these political events.

A new beginning was possible only when political and economic conditions in Germany began to consolidate. The most important presupposition for this was the introduction of a new monetary system in 1948. The conceptions of the four occupying powers as to what to do with German universities were quite dissimilar. In the French zone a new university was founded as early as 1946 in Mainz with its own library. Together with the entire university, it was first quartered in a former barracks. Now a new building has been constructed to be opened in 1964. Also on French initiative a “European” university was established in Saarbrücken in 1948. After the Saar referendum in 1956 the library, built between 1952 and 1954, was given a German director. The building has the classic division of the three area groups (public rooms, administrative offices, and a bookstack which is housed in a towerlike part of the building).

Similarly, the peculiar political situation in Berlin led to the erection of a new university and a new university library. Generous funds granted by the American Ford Foundation made possible the construction of a modern library building for the Free University in Berlin-Dahlem (West Berlin); the main building was ready in 1954 and the bookstack in 1956. Almost simultaneous (1952-1954) was the construction of the American Memorial Library, also made possible through American grants. This was a new departure for Germany in its internal library organization and its architectural shape. Because the Technical University in Berlin-Charlottenburg had provided modern
European University Libraries: Germany

quarters for its library as early as 1951, German librarians had already been pressed into thinking about the problems involved in modern library building. It was evident how unacquainted they were with building trends and how greatly German university libraries lagged behind the modern building and equipment standards of the United States, Great Britain, and the Scandinavian countries. As a matter of fact not a single university library had been built in Germany from 1914 to 1950.

The founding of the three new metropolitan universities—Frankfurt (1914), Hamburg (1919), and Cologne (1919)—had not led to epoch-making new buildings. The library of the university of Cologne (1934) did not get its own building but was given space in the upper floors of the central university building. In Frankfurt, planning began in the late 'twenties for a large new library building, the drafts of which provided for a bookstack in a tower according to contemporary American models. There was discussion about it as late as 1938 at the library convention in Passau, but it remained unbuilt because large building plans during those years were not accepted unless they served military purposes. In 1939 Rostock built new bookstacks, but with this the building of university libraries ceased completely for a while. It is characteristic that Erich von Rath in his essay on the German university libraries, published in 1930, shows illustrations of the bookstacks of Bonn (1891) and Heidelberg (1905) and the reading rooms of Leipzig (1891) and Tübingen (1912). In 1914, one epoch in the building history of German university libraries was closed, but in 1930 a new one had not yet begun.

This happened only after 1950, not only in the case of the new establishments in Mainz, Saarbrücken, and West Berlin, which were mentioned above and which were engendered by political motives, but also in the case of the older universities. Münster began as early as 1947, but its rebuilding of the old library was not a very fortunate experience; Leipzig renovated its destroyed bookstack in 1950, and Hamburg moved in 1951 into a school building which had been remodeled as a library. Buildings which were out of date were energetically remodeled and enlarged (1954 Greifswald, 1955 Heidelberg, 1957 Würzburg, 1959 Freiburg, 1963 Tübingen), or new buildings were constructed (1960 bookstacks in Hamburg, 1961 Bonn). At the present time there is great activity by way of new construction or of reconstruction and enlargements. Some of this is already nearly com-
completed, some is still in the planning stages (Erlangen, Freiburg, Göttingen, Greifswald, Hamburg, Heidelberg, Jena, Köln, Marburg, Münster, Rostock).

A parallel development in the schools of technology (Technische Hochschulen) or other scientific institutions of advanced learning cannot be detailed here. They are in the process of seeking modern solutions for their particular purposes which are greatly different from the traditional style of other German libraries (Stuttgart, School of Technology, opened 1962; Karlsruhe, School of Technology, and Clausthal, Mining Academy, both under construction in 1963; Hannover, Library for Technical Information, 1963, under construction). In Stuttgart, as well as in the new building of the university library in Frankfurt, the open shelf system and flexibility are applied to a degree not heretofore customary in German research libraries. An early indication of this development was the American Memorial Library in Berlin (1954) which, however, is not a research library but a public library.

There have been new building solutions also for the institute libraries of universities. Examples of this are the institutes of the faculty of philosophy in the multi-story seminar buildings in Tübingen and Hamburg (1963) and the institute libraries of the faculty of economics and social sciences in Cologne. Here, too, the last few years finally ended the stagnation which was the result of two wars and their sequela. The buildings themselves provide the best indication as to whether the libraries of a nation are prospering and in step with new demands.

Of equivalent importance for the existence of a library are the financial means allotted to it for the purchase and binding of books. No research library can do without the continuous acquisition of essential internal and foreign literature. Not only the destruction caused by war but equally the lack of money and foreign exchange have dire consequences on the quality of a book collection. With difficulties of this kind, German libraries have had much experience. At the present time the libraries of Eastern Germany must operate within the strictly controlled framework of a fiscal system in purchasing the publications of West Germany and other countries outside the Eastern Communist bloc. Since 1953/54, the libraries of West Germany have been able to buy practically any foreign book with ease. They spend 40 per cent and more of their funds for foreign books and periodicals.

Especially significant was the initiative taken by the German Research Association (Deutsche Forschungsgemeinschaft). It provided
considerable funds to research libraries of West Germany for the purchase of additional foreign monographs and periodicals. It compiled a list of foreign periodicals, which on principle ought to be in every university library (Group A) or of which there should be at least one copy in some library of the Federal Republic (Group B). The periodicals of Group B, as well as foreign monographs, were distributed to libraries on the basis of a program of special fields of collection development (Sondersammelgebiete). The selected libraries had to agree to make these publications available for German interlibrary loan service.

East German libraries have, of course, no difficulty in the acquisition of Soviet Union publications or those emanating from the peoples' democracies. In fact these are acquired in increasing amounts. In 1961, the twenty-nine research libraries under the authority of the East German secretary of state for universities and other schools of higher learning received 27,625 volumes, compared with 15,980 volumes in 1959. This tendency is supported for political reasons. The secretary of state has recommended in a "plan of action" (Massnahmeplan) for all research libraries to spend 25-30 per cent of the total budget on the purchase of publications from Soviet Russia and the peoples' democracies.

The separate budgets of research libraries in East Germany are not known, but from a published article some facts can be derived. In 1961 the above mentioned twenty-nine libraries (the German State Library in Berlin, Deutsche Bücherei in Leipzig, seven university libraries, six state libraries, eleven libraries of technical and economic schools, and three libraries of medical academies) received a total of 4,256,253 Dm. for the purchase of books and periodicals. Against 1959 this was an increase of 639,337 Dm. The outlay in 1960 in West Germany for the fifty-six libraries mentioned in the recommendations of the Scientific Advisory Council (eighteen university libraries, fifteen libraries of technical and other schools of higher learning, twenty-three state libraries) was a total of 9,685,100 Dm. for purchase and book binding; in 1961 the sum total in the budget was 11,275,800 Dm. The budget increase over 1958 was more than 50 per cent. The average outlay of a West German university library for book purchase and binding in 1960 was 270,000 Dm. The actual amounts, however, varied from 96,000 to 393,000 Dm. For 1961 the average was 323,000 Dm.; the range was from 120,000 to 480,000 Dm. It must be stressed that expenses for the institute libraries
CARL WEHMER

are not included in these figures. They surpass considerably the budget of the university library. This fact must be kept in mind when comparisons are made with the figures for holdings and the budgets of American university libraries.

The plans of the German Research Association were models and induced several of the states to raise the budgets for their university libraries. The book budgets of the three university libraries of the State of Baden-Württemberg (Freiburg, Heidelberg, Tübingen) are 500,000 Dm. for 1964 (without the special funds of the German Research Association). West Germany is striving for equal support of all university libraries, in order that those which suffered the greatest destruction during the war (e.g. Bonn, Frankfurt, Hamburg, Munich, and Würzburg) and those which were founded after the war (Berlin, Giessen, Mainz, and Saarbrücken) should be enabled to build efficient collections, too. At the present time both the quantity and the quality of the collections are understandably rather unequal.

The eighteen university libraries in West Germany and West Berlin in 1960 had total collections of about 16,000,000 volumes; the six university libraries in East Germany and East Berlin owned approximately 8,000,000 volumes. When the libraries of the other schools of higher learning and the state libraries are added, then the totals for West Germany in 1960 were ca. 29,000,000 volumes and in East Germany about 16,000,000 volumes. These figures are not entirely precise, but they do offer an approximate impression of the holdings of German research libraries. The scholarly municipal libraries, the special libraries, and the libraries of the theological academies are omitted from these figures. Also omitted are the considerable totals of the libraries of the institutes. In Heidelberg, for instance, the institutes contain approximately 800,000 volumes. The average holdings of a university library (without the institutes) amounted in 1960 in West Germany to about 900,000 volumes. In 1960, the smallest university (Giessen) had 200,000 and the largest (Göttingen) 1,765,000 volumes. The annual increase varies between 10,000 and 30,000 units.

A larger West German university library employs as a rule about twelve librarians, all of whom have completed their university education and have a doctor's degree. A librarian may have studied in one of many different fields. Our university libraries employ philologists, historians, jurists, theologians, natural scientists, and physicians. East German university libraries have scholars on their staffs, too. In East Germany, however, it is possible for a librarian to rise to the higher
positions without a university degree, as it is no longer necessary for him to hold a doctor's degree. Library science courses and examinations are offered by East German universities. In the universities of West Germany such courses are not offered. Professional library training in West Germany requires two years; the first year, after finishing academic studies, is spent working in a library, the second in attending a training institute for librarians at Cologne or Munich. The program is completed by undergoing an examination in librarianship.

Besides this academic group, there are employed in a German university library about twenty to thirty certified librarians (Diplombibliothekare). They have successfully graduated from high school and received further training in librarianship, lasting two to three years; then they are admitted to the examination for the diploma in librarianship. This program is generally taken by women, and there is a general shortage of applicants even though the number of available positions is constantly increasing. It must be remembered that the social prestige of the library profession is not very high in Germany.

Besides the academic and certified librarians, there is generally a larger group of assistants without previous library training, so that a university library on an average gives employment to approximately sixty to seventy persons.

The constitution of the university does not confer much influence upon the director of the library of a university. He very infrequently has the rank of a full professor and is, therefore, as a rule not a member of the faculty or the senate. Things are different in East Germany because there the chief librarian in some cases may have membership in the senate. However, the responsibility which this constitutional position of the director emphasizes is not in reality very significant. He is bound by the directives of the party and the state. He is expected as a matter of course to subscribe to the tenets of Marxism-Leninism and to practice "socialistic partisanship" (sozialistische Parteiliehtkeit) in his professional activity.27

The West German librarian is exposed to the danger of giving all his time to the purely technical and administrative aspects of his position and of becoming a victim of his managerial duties. The number of research librarians who continue to pursue scholarly work is becoming regrettably smaller. However, this is due to the fact that the circle of his administrative work increases to a frightening degree. So he has to resign himself to seeking the sense of his profession not in research activities but in the service of scholarship.28 The title of
“honorary professor” now frequently conferred upon the director of West German university libraries cannot blind one to this situation.

The preceding account presents some summary information on building activity, budgets, size of collections, and personnel of German university libraries. I have omitted discussion of accessioning, cataloging, loan activity, and of reading rooms and bookstacks. Nor have I paid attention to the frequently very precious collections of papyri, medieval manuscripts, incunabula, old bindings, and autographs. Library procedure and technique in German university libraries does not differ greatly from that customary in other German libraries and abroad. Nor are historical special collections particularly characteristic of university libraries. It seemed, therefore, more important to describe the administrative organization of German university libraries and their historical and political origins.

The Administrative Organization of German University Libraries

I have not attempted an apologia for German library politics. It is doubtful whether there is a single and solely correct solution for the two problems focused upon by IFLA. The German solution may be stated as follows: separation of the main university library from the libraries of the institutes, cooperation among university libraries and with all other research libraries in the country; no unity in the area of the university, but definitely unity among the research libraries of the state. This does not really imply that complete independence of the institute libraries was intended; however, this very event took place in the face of the state’s plans and principles. The intention in Prussia aimed in the direction of certain common standards for the totality of state research libraries: uniform cataloging rules, an acquisition program with local differences in emphasis, interlibrary loan service organized by the state, a uniform training for all professional librarians, a printed union catalog of all holdings of state supported libraries, and printed periodical lists. The university libraries (e.g. Bonn, Breslau, and Königsberg) were ex officio given the tasks of provincial libraries. The attempt in 1891 to trespass on the responsibilities of the institute libraries by orders and directives (requiring central cataloging) met determined resistance by the professors and completely failed. The result within the university’s library organization was an apparatus in which there was a juxtaposition of coordinated effort by the state and autonomy on the part of the university.
In East Germany there are at present attempts to reduce or abolish the autonomy of institute libraries. This is not surprising. Such measures, as was previously the case in Prussia, are the natural consequences of the need for fiscal economy and the centralistic practice of an authoritarian philosophy of the state.

In West Germany, too, there is concern as to whether one should resign oneself to leaving large sections of the book collections of a university completely fragmented. The increasing size of the institute libraries makes ever more apparent the lack of organization of the "wild growth" of this type of library. The dilemma is that these faults, simply because of the present day magnitude of the collections, can scarcely now be remedied.

The imminent founding of new universities (Bochum, Constance, Bremen, and Regensburg) is reason to question the conventional form of the German university library. There is a feeling that something must be done to give greater weight to the library in the totality of the university and to assign new functions to it. The university campus of the United States is an impressive model. The complete fusion of the library with its university seems attractive, because it would make it possible to do away with the dual system of university library and institute libraries side by side. In a decentralized system, it would be possible to distribute the books in suitable ways throughout the university, with a union catalog maintained by the central library. Such a library, however, would no longer be a useful partner for German interlibrary loan service. The system of German interlibrary loan service rests on the principle of cooperation of all research libraries, made effective by means of union catalogs. It is not possible to extend loan privileges to entire groups of libraries which demand that their needs be satisfied by outside libraries but which, because of their organization, cannot participate in supplying the wants of other libraries. German librarians, therefore, will have to ask themselves if interlibrary loan service as a system of automatic cooperation is to be retained, before they can think about the reorganization of university libraries. A high degree of cooperation does not simultaneously allow a high degree of autonomy for the particular members of a library system.

For the university, the most important aspect of the problem is: who decides which books the university buys and who decides where they will be shelved, the librarian or the professor? Both face the same difficulty of reconciling in a rational manner certain common
purposes, as well as both long term and short term interests. To give
the ultimate decision only to the professor or only to the librarian
does not seem proper to me; both ought to participate. The German
system of divided responsibility and divided budgets for university
and institute libraries leads to this consequence: in the university li-
brary the professional librarian makes the decision, while in the in-
stitute libraries it is the professor who decides which books are to
be acquired and where they are to be shelved. My own personal con-
viction is that this system is not in principle a bad one. I admit that
it has faults, but these faults are inherent in the imperfection of men
and not because the method is unsuitable. Both parties, professors
and librarians, have an important and full share in the decision as to
what books are to be acquired. It does not require continuous dis-
cussion nor can conflicts arise, because both parties act independently.

The expertise of the professor, his individuality as a researcher, and
his intentions as an academic teacher determine the collection build-
ing of the institute libraries, which are to be manageable and to
contain books of current interest and of research value. In this con-
nection it is no disaster when the next professor follows a path dif-
ferent from that of his predecessor. The main library, on the con-
trary, requires a uniform and continuous development according to
objective criteria for selection insofar as that is possible. It collects
the basic literature, and with special care such forms as encyclopedias,
bibliographies, dictionaries, sources and texts, periodicals, and publi-
cations of academies. It also covers subjects which are not yet repre-
sented in the institute libraries. This division of tasks and interests
permits the main library to pursue a meaningful program of develop-
ing its resources under the guidance of professional librarians, and
gives to the professors full freedom of decision in the institutes.

The incidence of duplicate and multiple acquisitions is, as shown
by a statistical compilation of the Marburg university library (accord-
ing to the director of the library), not as high as is generally surmised.
Moreover, the presence of the same work in the main library and
available for circulation, and as a non-circulating copy in one or sev-
eral institutes is not only useful but absolutely essential. A particular
advantage of the art of printing is that it affords several readers simul-
taneously the opportunity to use the same text.

Even though responsibility for the selection of books is guaranteed
under the German system, it is quite another question whether this
necessitates a strict division between the university library and the
institutes in the areas of accessioning, cataloging, and library administration. From small beginnings, this condition developed in Germany almost by itself. The disadvantages become more and more evident as the size and the budgets of the institute libraries keep growing. Professors and assistants can no longer find time enough to take care of all the administrative work to be done in a library. The assistants suffer from overwork. All institutes emphatically demand trained library personnel. But high-class, experienced personnel are scarce and expensive, and ought to be occupied reasonably. Therefore, it may very soon prove necessary to centralize the technical processes of all libraries in the entire university. Otherwise, one day the libraries of institutes and also the university library, because of lack of personnel, may find themselves face to face with serious difficulties. Although as early as 1891 the Prussian experiments in this direction remained without practical results and although later attempts were no more successful, it will be necessary again to look out for means better adapted to the present situation than the present hopeless attempt to assign to each of the sixty or eighty institutes in each university its own certified librarians. This exceeds the reasonable limits of decentralization. Centralized processing would be a legitimate assignment for the university library and would result simultaneously in a union catalog of all new acquisitions in the university. The most pronounced disadvantage of the German system is undoubtedly the lack of cohesion, the dissimilarities in procedures, and the nonexistence of a central record of all works held in libraries of institutes. These are capable of being corrected without disturbing the divided responsibility of the university and institute libraries in the selection of new acquisitions. Neither autonomy nor coordination are infallible principles of organization. Independence should be given free reign wherever it promises better and more fruitful results. But just as resolutely should efforts be concentrated, when independent and thoughtless action of the parts threatens the existence of the larger whole.

References


18. Danton, op. cit., p. 32.

19. In 1963 there were at the University of Heidelberg 11,525 students and 553 academic teachers (119 of them professors ordinarius). The University Library (without the institute libraries) had at the same time 51 employees (including 12 academic librarians and 20 certified librarians).


25. Brückmann, Kurt. “Einige Bemerkungen zu Entwicklungstendenzen des wissenschaftlichen Bibliothekswesens der DDR seit 1959,” *Börsenblatt für den deutschen Buchhandel* [Leipzig edition], 129:343-346, 1962. As section leader (Sektorleiter) of the Secretary of State for universities and other schools of higher learning, Brückmann has been responsible for the research libraries of East Germany since 1959.

[511]
26. These figures are based on inquiries made by the Scientific Advisory Council (Wissenschaftsrat). Since completion of the body of this article, the Scientific Advisory Council has published its *Empfehlungen des Wissenschaftsrates zum Ausbau der wissenschaftlichen Einrichtungen*. Bonn, Bundesdruckerei, 1964, Vol. 2, Wissenschaftliche Bibliotheken. The statistical data (pp. 249-290) cover eighty-two research libraries of the Federal Republic of Germany: Thirty-seven provincial and municipal libraries, thirty-two libraries of universities and other institutions of higher education, and thirteen special research libraries. At the end of 1962, they held 31,398,000 volumes and 5,847,000 dissertations. In 1961 they expended 17,925,000 Dm. for purchase of books and binding.

27. "In all the political and ideological activities of research libraries, in both research and practical terms, there has been noticeable a decisive process of change during the last few years. In the struggle against old and outgrown concepts, expressed in conservatism, neutralism and objectivism, the demands for socialist partisanship, for the principles of socialist solidarity, and for an orientation towards the political, economic and cultural strengthening of the German workers and peasant state, are gaining steadily in strength." Brückmann, *op. cit.*, p. 346. See also Kunze, *op. cit.*, pp. 19, 28. See also Bunke, Horst. "Die Entwicklung der wissenschaftlichen Bibliotheken seit 1959 und ihre Aufgaben in der Periode des umfassenden Aufbaus des Sozialismus in der DDR," *Zentralblatt für Bibliothekswesen*, 77:529-542, 1963.


Developments in Austrian University Libraries

JOSEF HOFINGER

A report on Austrian university libraries, their present situation, procedures, and plans for the near future requires a preliminary glance at the organization of Austrian universities and schools of higher learning.

There exist now in Austria three universities: Vienna (founded 1365), Graz (1585), and Innsbruck (1669). The re-establishment of Salzburg (1619), closed in 1810, was decided upon in 1962, but at present only a faculty of theology exists. Universities are divided into the traditional faculties: theology; jurisprudence, political science, and economics; medicine; and philosophy. The faculty of philosophy includes philosophy proper, as well as such variant fields as experimental physics and pharmacy and all branches of learning not comprehended in any other faculty.

Besides the three universities, supplementing them but completely independent, there are technical schools, articulated in three faculties each, in Vienna and Graz; the technical school for agronomy, the school of veterinary science, and a school of international commerce, all three in Vienna; and a mining school in Leoben. Equal to the schools of higher education are the academy for fine arts, the academy for applied art, that for music and the performing arts in Vienna, as well as the academy for music and the performing arts known as the "Mozarteum" in Salzburg; they do not confer doctor's degrees.

All universities and schools of higher learning are responsible to the Austrian ministry of education but enjoy traditionally a considerable degree of autonomy, which was newly regulated and confirmed in 1955 by a law dealing with the organization of institutions of higher learning.

Prerequisite for matriculation at the universities and higher technical schools is the final comprehensive examination of a general nine-year program.

Dr. Hofinger is Director, The University Library, Innsbruck. This paper was translated into English by R. K. Engelbarts.
These strict conditions of admission provide the universities with a student body of a relatively high general education, but they reduce the supply of persons to a lower number than is desirable for the needs of the country. In the fall semester of 1962/63, the total enrollment at all Austrian universities and schools of higher learning was 48,340; of these there were 28,219 enrolled in universities (Vienna 17,116; Graz 5,464; Innsbruck 5,404; Salzburg 235). The share of the technical schools was 11,304, and that of the rest of the higher schools and academies was 8,817. Since the fall semester of 1955/56, the attendance at all the schools of higher education has risen from 24,093 to 48,340, that is by 130 per cent, and it is still rising.

A notable characteristic of Austrian institutions of higher learning—a reason for pride but also a source of problems—is the large percentage of foreign students from countries all over the world. Approximately 25 per cent, 11,276 students, are foreigners, and 25 per cent of these are from non-European countries. In fact at times the foreign students outnumber the native ones, especially in the technical school at Graz, the veterinary school, the Mozarteum in Salzburg, and in the university of Innsbruck.

Within this historically conditioned framework, which is not unreservedly accepted but is essentially a sound form of organization, the university libraries are expected to fulfill their objective. In reality they ought to be called university and state libraries, for they exercise a double function: primarily they are expected to serve the requirements of the university, but besides that they are general public libraries open to any patron without regard to position or education. For this reason the copyright law requires that copies of certain books be deposited with them (depository copies from the entire Federal Republic are required for the Austrian National Library only) in order thus to support research in regional culture. This double function explains why the library of the University of Vienna could, until 1918, be justly characterized as the leading Austrian state library (the Austrian National Library being then a court library and therefore available to only a limited clientele).

The university libraries are responsible to the federal ministry of education and are administratively independent of the universities. In professional matters the ministry of education is served by a coun-
European University Libraries: Austria

cil for library affairs whose members are elected for three years from the circle of leading librarians.

The sad historical events in Austria since 1914 are generally known: the First World War, the dismemberment of Austria-Hungary, followed by the period of inflation, the economic crisis after 1929, the battle against National Socialism beginning in 1932, the Nazi occupation in 1938, the Second World War and its devastation, the division of the country into Russian, American, English, and French occupation zones, and finally in 1955 the treaty which returned freedom to Austria but which at the same time loaded heavy financial responsibilities on the country. The multiplicity and the priority of unavoidable federal expenditures made it impossible for the ministry of education to allot to the libraries and the universities that degree of support which would have been necessary for maximum development. The five-year plan (the cultural program) which started in 1962 justifies hope that the libraries will, in the near future, be able to make up for the delays of decades.

The most difficult problem will be to ameliorate the strangling lack of space, which in the library of the University of Vienna is really catastrophic. During the last decades of the monarchy, university libraries had been planned generously and, considering the times, with some thought to the future, but this very fact made it incumbent upon them at a later date to make do with what was at hand, and their desires lagged behind the immediate pressing requirements of the state. Because they were apparently able to fulfill their tasks, they were limited to the amount of reader space provided many years before. Storage additions were made at the libraries of Vienna and Graz and are imminent at Innsbruck. Much relief has been given by means of dividing and adding floors. In general, unfortunately, the situation is such that reader space is available for only three per cent of the students.

The main reading room of the university library at Vienna measures 823 square meters [8,859 sq. feet], those in Graz and Innsbruck each 320 square meters [3,444 sq. feet]. This provides at the maximum, with the addition of periodical rooms and professors' offices, space for 420 readers at Vienna and for 170 at Graz and Innsbruck.

In spite of this lack of space, the libraries enjoy a steadily rising use. "Enjoy" is employed euphemistically, as witness when in Vienna, at midday, a reader has to wait for an hour or longer to find a place
to sit. The emphasis in Austria is traditionally on study halls or reading rooms, partially because textbooks are acquired in many editions, but only in exceptional cases in multiple copies (this being the business of the institutes), and partially, and this is confirmed by many people, because a great many of our students do not consider studying in larger rooms a disadvantage, but rather an incentive and an advantage.

Use of reading areas has developed from 1955 to 1962 in this manner: at the university library of Vienna in 1955, 175,000 readers and in 1962, 287,000; at Graz in 1955, 67,000 and in 1962, 106,000; and at Innsbruck in 1955, 49,000 and in 1962, 107,000. This is an annual average of 1,110 readers per day in Vienna or 400 in Graz and Innsbruck, but during peak periods this figure may double. In final analysis, the number of readers actually using seats is dependent only on how frequently a place is vacated by one reader and taken by another. The University of Vienna library, therefore, introduced in 1960 a ticket by which a seat, after having been vacant for 30 minutes, is turned over to the next person waiting in line for his chance.

Reading rooms are open during semesters from 9 a.m. to 8 p.m. with some local deviations; during vacations the hours are fewer. An attempt to keep them open after 8 p.m. has surprisingly enough not been successful.

Books in the reading rooms are shelved systematically, and in every institution special catalogs serve as keys to them. In Graz and Innsbruck there are no restrictions whatsoever on using the collection, but in Vienna there are some limitations because of the very unfavorable space conditions.

Outside loan is much less frequently resorted to than use in the reading areas, although, with some exceptions, books with imprint dates after 1800 are eligible for home use. In 1962 the university library of Vienna circulated for home use 69,000 volumes, Graz 34,000, and Innsbruck 28,000 volumes; by mail the number was respectively, 3,200, 700, and 1,200 volumes.

The loan period is normally one month, for professors up to a year; this is also the case with the institute libraries. Fines are levied when a book is not returned on time. Libraries have not found it feasible to depart from the use of a four-part call slip (signature, borrower, loan period, call number). Because of the generally accepted method of signing for a book in person, it is not possible to determine precisely the number of books which were requested but not located. Inter-
European University Libraries: Austria

library loan, for which practically nothing is charged for loans inside the Austrian borders and for which only one-fourth the actual cost is charged in the case of foreign loans, is resorted to relatively infrequently. Graz obtained 2,300 in 1962, Innsbruck 1,900, and Vienna only 115 volumes by inter-library loan; this permits one, conditionally, to conclude that by and large locally available resources satisfy the most pressing needs and that collections are being developed expertly.

The university libraries are venerable institutions which reach back, in the case of Vienna, to 1384; Graz was founded in 1581. In their present organizational form they are rooted in the eighteenth century: Innsbruck 1745, Vienna 1775, Graz 1781. Their basic resources were derived essentially from the secularization edict issued by Emperor Josef II.

Although the early resources of the university libraries do not compare favorably with those of the Austrian National Library, nevertheless the former possess treasures, dating back to the days of their founding, which arouse the envy of much larger libraries abroad. As to manuscripts from before 1600, the university library of Vienna owns 1,076, Graz 1,241, and Innsbruck 1,660. The book resources of early vintage are characterized in Vienna by an immense wealth in literature of the sixteenth to the eighteenth centuries; those of Graz are inherited from the former Jesuit library and include possessions from monasteries in Styria; while the most precious portions of the collections at Innsbruck derive chiefly from the former ruling dynasty of the province whose property they were.

During the last 130 years, holdings of the university libraries have increased as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Vienna</th>
<th>Graz</th>
<th>Innsbruck</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1835</td>
<td>102,000</td>
<td>40,000</td>
<td>36,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1870</td>
<td>208,000</td>
<td>70,000</td>
<td>59,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1900</td>
<td>576,000</td>
<td>164,000</td>
<td>182,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1910</td>
<td>782,000</td>
<td>255,000</td>
<td>241,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1930</td>
<td>1,268,000</td>
<td>407,000</td>
<td>390,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1962</td>
<td>1,486,000</td>
<td>593,000</td>
<td>595,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The numbers of currently received periodicals are: 3,759 at Vienna, 2,420 at Graz, and 2,458 at Innsbruck.

As against the total resources of the university libraries of 2,900,000 volumes, there is a comparatively modest number of about 820,000
volumes in the possession of the libraries of the other schools of higher
learning. Of historical importance is the library of the Technische
Hochschule in Vienna (268,000 volumes in 1962) which already owned
97,000 volumes in 1900, perhaps Austria's most valuable collection
on the history of technology.

The ability of a university library to perform its function, however,
does not depend on its store of precious older treasures which it pre-
serves and makes available to a selected group, or which it exhibits
occasionally, but rather on its basic stock for everyday use. The two
world wars and their sequels have left gaps in resources which can
never quite be closed again. In this connection we gratefully remem-
ber the gift of books from Switzerland, which after the first as well
as after the Second World War presented us with important text-
books, and we especially express our thanks for the help which the
Germanistic Society of America (New York) gave to our university
libraries. During the years 1921-1938 and again between 1946-1953,
through that Society's understanding and well-conceived aid it was
possible to close the gap caused by the wars in the most important
foreign periodicals. This assistance obligates our Austrian universities
to eternal gratitude and it will always remain a shining example of
international scholarly cooperation.

But in the long run neither by gifts nor by international assistance
can the organic development of book stocks be attained; this can be
assured only by dependable allocation of funds. These did not start
again in Austria, in sufficient degree, until 1954.

The following table displays the beginning of the five-year plan and
lists the amounts available for book purchases pure and simple without
resort to other means of acquisition. In 1000 Schillings (one Schilling
equals four cents) the university libraries received:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Vienna</th>
<th>Graz</th>
<th>Innsbruck</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1959</td>
<td>1,395</td>
<td>855</td>
<td>773</td>
<td>3,023</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1960</td>
<td>1,512</td>
<td>783</td>
<td>914</td>
<td>3,209</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1961</td>
<td>1,753</td>
<td>960</td>
<td>1,115</td>
<td>3,828</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1962</td>
<td>2,141</td>
<td>1,464</td>
<td>1,333</td>
<td>4,938</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>6,801</td>
<td>4,062</td>
<td>4,135</td>
<td>14,998</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

That it was possible to achieve substantial additions of high qual-
ity, in spite of the relatively low book funds, when measured against
international yardsticks, was due to the selective acquisition methods
practiced in Austrian university libraries. Although the faculty is
granted the privilege of suggesting titles for purchases, it is nevertheless
European University Libraries: Austria

a fact that actual purchases are made almost exclusively by the library itself, which in practice means by the subject experts.

It is the duty of the subject expert to keep up with the new publications in his field—at Graz and Innsbruck in large groups of subject areas—listed in the most important bibliographies and journals and to suggest purchases, and, when expensive new publications and new subscriptions to journals are involved, to establish contact with the institute libraries. The subject experts do not have definite funds at their disposal, but their wishes are decisive and are limited only by the means at hand and by the general objectives of the institution.

It is the director's duty to judge these proposals and to divide the funds, not necessarily equally, but to pilot them, taking tradition into consideration, in the desired direction. This is a duty which reflects honor on the librarians but which also carries considerable responsibility.

This system of subject area experts is the result of the independent administration of the university libraries; it guarantees, with modest means at hand, an orderly development of resources in subject fields, because the subject specialist, who in general is in charge of his field for decades on end, is best able to gain perspective and to judge requirements. In the last analysis, it is he who is blamed for the absence of important works.

The subject expert can also influence acquisition through exchange and the selection of gifts, in different degrees in different institutions.

In total the university libraries have grown by 224,000 volumes during the last five years: the university library of Vienna increased by 108,000 volumes, Graz by 57,000, and Innsbruck by 59,000 volumes. The acquisitions figures of the immediate past year are shown in the following table:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Purchase</th>
<th>Exchange</th>
<th>Gift</th>
<th>Copyright</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Vienna</td>
<td>11,303</td>
<td>3,057</td>
<td>3,049</td>
<td>3,724</td>
<td>21,133</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Graz</td>
<td>7,557</td>
<td>3,964</td>
<td>1,621</td>
<td>409</td>
<td>13,551</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Innsbruck</td>
<td>7,012</td>
<td>4,783</td>
<td>1,680</td>
<td>386</td>
<td>13,861</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

25,872    11,804    6,350    4,519     48,545

The most important and most fruitful type of acquisitions method is, of course, by purchase. Besides this, the university libraries encourage a world-wide network of exchange patterns with academies, universities, and scientific societies, partly directly and partly through

[519]
the friendly support of associations. Copyright deposit acquisitions are of pronounced importance only for the university library of Vienna.

The holdings of university libraries, just like those in all the larger Austrian scholarly libraries, have been shelved, since the beginning of the century, according to the *numerus currens*, which means mechanically in the order of acquisition in arithmetical sequence. There are several variations of this method of arrangement: in the university libraries of Vienna and Graz, for instance, the numbered series proceeds uninterruptedly as a closed *numerus currens*; sizes are characterized by a prefixed Roman numeral. Or, under another variation, sizes and special collections, especially periodicals, have separate number series; such an open *numerus currens* system is used in the Innsbruck university library. The point is that each book, by means of a simple six digit running number based on the date of acquisition is given a fixed location. Each book not represented in the numerical arrangement, either because it is shelved in a reading room or administrative area, or because it is on loan, is represented by a dummy.

Shelving according to the *numerus currens* is not an Austrian invention, although Ferdinand Grassauer, one of the leading librarians of the nineteenth century and director of the university library of Vienna from 1894 to 1903, gave decisive form to the system and is responsible for its general adoption. *Numerus currens* owes its existence as much to fiscal as to theoretical considerations. It is the least expensive and the most suitable form of shelf arrangement in every situation which denies the reader access to the stacks. Its significance is that for each size group there is only one growth group (in Innsbruck several). This results in a great saving in space, and it makes possible the simplest and briefest inventory and revision. At Vienna a series of 65 volumes with 10,000 entries each, impressively records the entire collection of the institution. The *numerus currens* requires only minimal training of personnel and is an insurance against misplacement, if the spines of the books are properly labelled, or, even better, if the arrangement is strictly according to size. A special advantage inheres in the possibility to separate from the rest of the collection the older, less used literature, simply and mechanically by number, and, if required, to shelve it in other buildings. The utility of the *numerus currens* is, therefore, unquestioned in Austria, and some foreign libraries, where a new shelving system was needed, have accepted this method for their resources.

This type of arrangement has in principle only one, but yet a seri-
ous defect: it irrevocably separates the user, even the select user and the subject specialist from the collection. But it is also a fact that because there is little stack use of the collection, storage libraries can be constructed with great economy, with an aisle width of between 1.30 and 1.35 meters.

The corollary to this shelf arrangement, admittedly inconsiderate of the user but not hostile to him, is the urgent obligation to provide a key to the collection by intensive cataloging and by reference help.

Our Anglo-Saxon colleagues may be astonished by the strict division between author (name) catalogs and subject catalogs, which is general in Austria. This division is historically conditioned, but is justified by the consideration that by this means the stream of users is sensibly divided into those who are looking for a definite book and who know the author, and those who are looking for literature on a certain subject.

The collections from before 1930 (1932) of Vienna and Graz are listed in author book catalogs. The 72-volume book catalog of the University of Vienna library is an especially admired example of bibliothecal precision. The university library of Innsbruck changed its book catalog into a card catalog during the years 1955 to 1963, because it was unsatisfactory. In 1930 all large scholarly libraries in Austria discarded their quite satisfactory, and in the opinion of older colleagues superior, cataloging rules, closed their author catalogs, and, in order to collaborate in the production of the Deutsche Gesamtkatalog, (of which only 14 volumes were finally completed) and its continuation the Berliner Titeldrucke, accepted the Prussian instructions for alphabetical catalogs. Since then these instructions, together with the extensive commentaries of Dale Sass and Hermann Fuchs, have been the officially adopted rules for Austrian cataloging, but not without some objection, because there are many reasons for the introduction of mechanical word sequence. Yet there is no doubt that the university libraries find it impossible seriously to plan another change of catalogs for their main collections, and to carry through such a change.

Shelf arrangement according to the numerus currens is the reason for making catalog entries (apart from less important books) as complete as possible. They include, therefore, besides the name of the author, references to joint authors, editors, and collaborators, and they include not only the complete title and subtitle, but in addition they also indicate appendices, edition, imprint (place, publisher, date,
printer), paging, size, and in the case of foreign language books even the original title and the translation.

These new author catalogs are maintained both as official and as public catalogs in all university libraries.

The key to the collection by way of subject is provided generally in the form of catchword catalogs which arrange concepts in one single alphabet. The theory and form was promoted during the years between the wars by two Austrian librarians Franz Koch and Hans Schleimer. The result is essentially a subject catalog according to narrow concepts (the concrete subject content of the book in hand) with generous references. A uniform prescription for the structure of Austrian catchword catalogs was decided against after extensive discussion. The university library of Vienna, alone, possesses a catchword catalog covering its complete resources, the university library of Graz only since 1923, and Innsbruck since 1930.

Towards the end of the third decade of the present century the catchword catalog was considered the only correct and sufficient form of subject display. In recent years the conviction has again gained strength, that in the long run an additional systematic key to the collection cannot be dispensed with, such as was common to all university libraries until 1930. The library at Vienna will be able to carry forward its very detailed systematic catalog to the present day. The Innsbruck library is attempting to reach the same goal by means of a systematic index to the catchword catalog.

Catalogs are supplemented by comprehensive bibliographic tools, regular introductory bibliographic courses, an information service at the public catalog, and further by keeping the readers current with the acquisitions program by way of weekly exhibits of the most important new acquisitions (as at Graz and Innsbruck) or through card files or bulletins listing the new acquisitions of the preceding month. Complete documentation in its narrow meaning exceeds, in our opinion, the objectives as well as the possibilities of general libraries. This remains for the special libraries, the largest of which is the library of the Technische Hochschule in Vienna, which is at the same time the center for documentation and the seat of the Austrian society for documentation and bibliography.

Seen from this perspective, and considering the current improvements in the catalogs, it appears to us—at least to the majority of Austrian librarians—that there is no irreparable disadvantage in the separation of the user from the bulk of the collections. Admittedly even
European University Libraries: Austria

the best catalog is only a mirror, but it can also function as a catalyst, by means of which a relationship between the book and a serious, not just browsing, reader can be established better than by immediate and direct but imperfect access.

The university library at Graz, eager to effect reforms and subject to less confining space conditions than the other university libraries, established in 1962 a collection of 20,000 volumes in the field of chemistry as a free access group, an innovation which is looked upon with great interest by its sister institutions.

The relation of the university libraries to the universities and their institutes is governed by the law regulating the structure of institutions of higher learning; this is stated in paragraph 61, which reads:

(1) Each institution has a library, which will be termed university library in the universities. In the other institutions of higher learning it will be designated as the library of that institution.

(2) The person in charge of the library is an official or a civil servant of the library service, who will be appointed after a hearing with the supreme academic office. He is directly responsible to the federal ministry for education.

(3) The chief librarian is responsible for the availability of books necessary for the fulfillment of the needs of research and teaching; he is to be cognizant of the wishes of the academic officers and the members of the faculty. His duty is further to see to it that all scholarly works acquired by any department of the institution are subject to orderly cataloging, and jointly with the personnel in charge of individual colleges and research institutes he decides upon the acquisition of needed books. He will report annually to the chief academic officers on the condition and use of the library.

(4) The rules for use of the library will be promulgated, after consultation with the academic officers in charge, by the federal ministry for education.

The regulations concerning cataloging and acquisition are, however, merely advisory, because it is clearly impossible for the university libraries and the majority of the libraries of the schools of higher learning, to perform those services in the projected manner, unless a drastic increase in personnel occurs.

The size of the problems can be measured by giving a brief survey of the multiplicity of institutions and their aggregate holdings. According to the handbook of Austrian libraries, whose data are only
approximately complete, there exist in the University of Vienna 73 institutes, each with its own separate library, which together own 970,000 volumes and subscribe to 5,200 current periodicals. In the university of Graz there are 60 institutes with 336,000 volumes and 1,400 periodicals. At the university of Innsbruck there are 62, which together with the Library of the Jesuit College own 365,000 volumes and 1,900 periodicals. Among these are institutions such as the libraries of the law faculties in Vienna (104,000 volumes), Graz (85,000 volumes), and Innsbruck (55,000 volumes), which in themselves are composite institute libraries and which have highly trained personnel and can boast of comparatively large funds. In addition there are special institutes with long traditions which have fully organized libraries, such as the institute for research in Austrian history (35,000 volumes), the institute for the history of medicine (60,000 volumes), and the central library of the institute for physics (33,000 volumes, more than 1,000 current periodicals, 45,000 reports, 85,000 reprints and dissertations, etc.) which is decidedly better supported than that of the university library of Vienna serving the same field of study. All university institutes, even the most minute, are independent administrative entities under the sole responsibility of the top official of the institute. These do not easily consent to a curtailment of their independence, especially the largest and those with the richest tradition.

This does not mean that until the law laid down the rules there existed no cooperation whatever between the central university library, or the library of one of the other institutions of higher learning, and the institutes, or that their attitude to each other was unfriendly or even competing. A division of labor has always obtained, though quite differently in kind and intensity, depending on local conditions and the nature of the faculties. The university libraries depend just as much on the institutes, their special collections and space, as the institutes depend on the central library for the organizational structure, the bibliographic apparatus, and the collections which supplement those of the institutes with their narrower reach. The point of contact exists between the subject specialists and the personnel in charge of the institutes. This hitherto voluntary collaboration is now fixed in a binding way by the ministry of education; the speed and magnitude of the development is largely dependent on whether the university libraries will be granted a sizable increase in personnel.

Partial successes have been gained. The periodical collections of the
European University Libraries: Austria

university and of the more important scientific institutions in Innsbruck and Graz have been gathered together in the Tyrolian and the Styrian union catalogs of periodicals. In Vienna the ZAZ fulfills the same objective for holdings since 1945.

A complete union catalog of the institute libraries is neither possible nor desirable. The collections of a number of the most important institutes in Graz and Vienna have already been listed; the university library of Innsbruck includes in its catalog records of the holdings of the libraries of the faculties of law and theology and a number of groups of institutes.

Buildings, collections, and bibliographic apparatus certainly influence the outsider's verdict of the ability of a library to get its work done. In the long run, however, and in reality, library development depends before all on the skill, the hard work, and the number of available personnel. In line with this, the plans of the ministry of education call, therefore, for a 50 per cent increase in personnel of libraries of institutions of higher learning, to be consummated within the next five years.

The university libraries as well as the other scholarly libraries of Austria (the public libraries have been greatly retarded in their development, but it would carry us too far afield to explain the reasons for this fact) have an excellent team of outstanding, well-educated personnel at their disposal, devoted and willing to face the tasks of the future. The personnel of Austrian university libraries consists of the class of professional librarians and that of the library assistants. Professional librarians are either members of the "higher" service (prerequisite: doctor's degree) or of the advanced type (prerequisite: eligibility for university matriculation). The two-year librarianship course is the same for both groups, and only in the last semester does the "higher" service group split off, during which time the members of this group become interns in the Austrian National Library, ending with a rigorous comprehensive examination of four parts, three of them written and the other oral.

Librarians in their official capacity are members of the general federal administration; their possibilities for advancement are modest, and university libraries are faced with difficulties in obtaining suitable candidates for advanced positions who are willing to accept the severe demands made on them. But each library convention provides living proof of the unbroken professional devotion and the impatient élan, especially of our younger colleagues.
JOSEF HOFINGER

The professional organization—the association of Austrian librarians—comprises the academic as well as the non-academic groups, and both enjoy the same privileges. The association can point to the fact that it is the fourth oldest in the world. It was founded as early as 1896 and achieved an honorable position through its publications, but unfortunately it was not able to survive the First World War. In 1946 it was revived by Josef Bick, and the Austrian association has again reached the stature of a professional organization, through the publication of Biblos, its periodical organ, now in its twelfth year, as well as the associated Biblos publications of which so far 34 volumes have appeared, and through its biennial conventions.

Dr. Josef Stummvoll, since 1949 Director of the Austrian National Library, is the editor of Biblos and one of the co-founders of the library association. The Austrian National Library is the hub of all those communal undertakings of the scholarly libraries which go beyond the scope and abilities of the individual institutions; it is responsible for the Austrian national bibliography, the Austrian checklist of publications, the union catalog of periodicals, and the international exchange of publications. It is also the place where biennial courses for interns are given, and it is the seat of the examining commissions for the higher service and for those training for assistantships; the chairmanship is held by the director of the library.

Although all individual libraries enjoy equal standing in their field and are responsible only to the ministry of education, still the Austrian National Library is the central point of the structure of Austrian libraries, as it were the seat of the general staff, while the day to day battles are carried on in the libraries of the universities and other institutions of higher learning.

References


[ 526 ]
European University Libraries: Austria


French University Libraries

PAUL POINDRON

Under the ancien régime the collections intended for university education were found principally in monasteries and convents and in the schools run by the regular and the secular clergy. At the outbreak of the French Revolution, the wealth of the collections surpassed anything which foreign universities could offer except for the Bodleian.

Unfortunately, revolutionary confiscations spared few libraries. The great body of nationalized books had already been allotted when a system of higher education was re-established in 1808. The collections were at first deposited in warehouses, then placed at the disposition of regional schools, and finally in great part entrusted to the municipalities and placed in municipal libraries. The university libraries except in a very few cases (the Medical Faculty of Paris, the Medical Faculty of Montpellier, and of course Sainte-Geneviève) have no old collections. In 1865 there were only 348,782 volumes held by the French faculties while the twelve German universities at this same date had two million.

In 1855, the decree of March 18 had determined that the special libraries of all the faculties in each academic center should be united into a single library to be called the Library of the Académie. However, even in 1893 when the academic faculties were organized as corporate bodies, becoming universities by the law of July 10, 1896, this principle had been applied only from the administrative point of view.

French university libraries today, with three exceptions of which the Library of the Sorbonne is one (it has borne this name since 1846), have been created thanks to a persistent effort which has continued since 1872 and in the development of which the example of

The author is Head Librarian, Board of French Libraries (Conservateur en chef à la Direction des Bibliothèques de France). Richard O'Brien translated the article from French to English.

[528]
the libraries of the German universities was certainly determining. (The National and University Library of Strasbourg which has had since 1926 a unique status—it is not part of the University, is not under the control of the Rector, and has corporate status and financial independence—was founded in 1872 under German occupation.)

The libraries of the French universities are now in a period of great change, and this change is due primarily to the increase in the number of students registered in the universities. The total number of students was approximately 4,200 at the outbreak of the First World War, and some 80,000 in 1939. In 1948/49 the figure was 116,000, and in 1959/60 it was 194,405. For 1964/65 the estimated figure is 327,152, for 1967/68 it is 440,940, and for 1969/70 it is 505,936. In other words the 1969/70 totals will be approximately 4.3 times those of 1948/49 and approximately 2.6 times those of 1959/60.

It will be readily understood that neither the university buildings nor the libraries in particular (three library buildings only were put up between the two wars: two at Nancy and that of the Medical Faculty at Lyon) were in any position to cope with such an increase and that a program of enlargement and of new construction was essential.

But the policy adopted for the university libraries is not limited to a policy of construction, important as this aspect is; the program constitutes in fact, a basic reform of the university libraries.

Before sketching the general lines of this reform, which is actually under way and of which all of the methods have not yet been worked out, a few general remarks are necessary. To begin with it must be understood that by university library we mean here the general library of the students and the faculty, even if it is composed of several establishments and several divisions, and that we exclude the libraries of institutes, of laboratories, and of student groups, concerning whose role in regard to the university library we shall have something to say later.

France is divided into a certain number of regions, administrative, military, economic, etc., which do not generally coincide. Among these regions we must distinguish particularly the regions called "academic" which are the regions of the Ministry of National Education. Each académie, which includes several départements, is endowed with a university, an establishment which has corporate status, financial independence, and at its head a rector. (The Ministry of National Education subsidizes the university libraries of Dakar and Tananarive, and the centers of higher education of Abidjan, of Brazzaville, and of
PAUL POINDRON

Until 1945 the universities as well as their libraries were, within the Ministry of National Education, responsible to the Board of Higher Education (Direction de l’Enseignement supérieur). This situation was modified at this period by the creation of the Board of French Libraries (Direction des bibliothèques de France) within the Ministry of National Education, and by placing under the jurisdiction of this Board the university libraries, which continue to form part of the universities. This change has been beneficial for the university libraries, since it permits consideration of their particular problems, notably in the case of technical problems, funds, and staff. The libraries have ceased to be the poor relations of higher education. And since the Board of French Libraries administers or supervises along with the university libraries, the Bibliothèque Nationale, the libraries of the great scholarly establishments (Institut, Mazarine, Museum national d’histoire naturelle, Musée de l’homme, Ecole nationale des langues orientales vivantes, Académie de médecine) the municipal libraries, and the central lending libraries of départements (rural bookmobiles), coordination among libraries has been assured. Recently, in 1961, the boundaries of the académies were modified and their number, which was sixteen, has been raised to nineteen by the creation of the académies of Nantes, Orleans, and Reims, the latter two at the expense of the former Académie of Paris.

The number of faculties has been increased in certain universities, for example at Clermont-Ferrand by the transformation in 1956 of a national school of medicine into a mixed faculty of medicine and pharmacy, but also by the creation of a faculty in cities which up to that time had had no university, for example the creation of a faculty of sciences and a faculty of law at Nice in the Académie of Aix-Marseille, of a faculty of sciences at Rouen in the Académie of Caen; or by the creation of several faculties in a single discipline in the same city, e.g., faculty of sciences in Orsay to the south of Paris (Seine-et-Oise), a second and even a third faculty of science at Marseilles in two different parts of the city. And along with the faculties, new establishments of higher education called university colleges have been opened in non-university cities. Newly opened are fourteen in the sciences (from 1958 on), eight in letters (from 1960), the latest, legal (from 1963), while the reform of medical studies has brought about the creation of university hospital centers.

If we leave to one side these latest centers whose establishment is too recent to permit us to say that the status of their libraries can
definitely be fixed, all of the libraries serving the faculties and university colleges constitute for a given university "the university library" even if these establishments are dispersed among several cities.

The divisions are as follows: "Letters," "Law," "Sciences," "Medicine," and "University Colleges." Certain divisions are combined, and the "Letters" division continues generally to be considered as the central library, thus assuring the administration of the whole. The creation of a new division is not necessarily due to the creation of a new faculty but often to the transfer of the faculty into a new building, in a part of town distant from the library, sometimes even into the suburbs. The library has to follow the students and the professors; this is the case at Bordeaux where the Faculty of Sciences having been installed outside the city, at Talence, a "Sciences" division has had to be planned for Talence also, and at Lyon where the Faculty of Sciences has begun to emigrate to La Doua in the township of Villeurbanne.

Let us take an example, that of the Académie of Rennes. This Académie in 1961 was reduced in size, the two départements of Maine-et-Loire and Loire-Atlantique being attached to the new Académie of Nantes. Rennes today corresponds to the five départements of Finistère, Côtes-du-Nord, Morbihan, Ille-et-Vilaine, and Mayenne. The buildings near the Faculty of Letters, which the library has occupied since 1911, were enlarged between 1956 and 1961. At present the library still serves four faculties: Letters, Sciences, Law, and Medicine. But this situation is undergoing a change; now under construction at Rennes-Beaulieu is a library ("Sciences" division) near the new Faculty of Sciences, in proximity to the Ecole Nationale supérieure de chimie, the Institut de physique nucléaire, and the Institut national des sciences appliquées. (The "Sciences" division will be utilized as at Lyon and at Lille by the students of the Institut national des sciences appliquées.) Also under study is the construction of a division of "Letters" and a division of "Medicine" near the two new faculties which are to be built at Rennes-Pontchaillou. On the other hand, a university scientific college and a university college of letters were created at Brest in 1959 and in 1960 under the jurisdiction of the Académie and constitute the "University colleges" division of the University Library of Rennes. One wing of the newly constructed scientific college has been reserved for the library, and a building is planned for the library of the college of letters.
In the *Académie* of Paris, reduced as we have said by the creation of two new *académies* at Reims and at Orleans, the Library of the University, administered by a head librarian (*conservateur en chef*), includes: the Library of the Sorbonne (letters and sciences), the Library of the Faculty of Law, rebuilt across the street from the Faculty in 1958, the Library of the Faculty of Pharmacy, the Library of the Faculty of Medicine, the illustrious and ancient Bibliothèque Sainte-Geneviève (open freely to the learned world as early as the eighteenth century and still a public library today), the Nordic Library or the Finno-Scandinavian Collection set up in 1868, the Library of Contemporary International Documentation, the Library of Art and Archaeology, and the Central University Library for Students. All of these libraries have been extended and modernized. The most critical case remaining is that of the Library of the Sorbonne which, constricted as in a corset by amphitheatres, laboratories and the administrative services of the Sorbonne, has succeeded in obtaining only a very small amount of additional space in an annex in the Rue de la Sorbonne. However, the establishment of the new faculty of sciences at Orsay has been followed by that of a “Sciences” division put into operation in 1962. At the edge of the Latin Quarter, on the site of the old wine market, the buildings of the new faculty called Saint-Bernard are already going up and to it will be transferred little by little the Faculty of Sciences of the Sorbonne for which a library is already planned. To the north of Paris, in the district of Villetaneuse, a new faculty of sciences is to be erected which is to include an important library. To the west in the district of Nanterre, a university complex is planned, to include a faculty of letters and social sciences, faculty of law and economic sciences, and a scientific college, all of this already necessitating the study of library facilities. The Library of Contemporary International Documentation will most likely find its place there.

In all, 114 million francs' worth of construction has been completed since 1945 for the benefit of the university libraries, but it was especially after 1960/61 that relatively important grants were obtained by the Board of French Libraries, the costs being borne entirely by the State. Construction has been undertaken in practically all libraries. To emphasize the important work accomplished, let us cite Caen which had been entirely destroyed in 1944 along with its 300,000 volumes and which today, thanks to grants from the State and gifts
European University Libraries: France

from within France and from abroad, has more than 260,000 volumes, and Aix-en-Provence (Letters-Law), Marseilles (Sciences), Besançon, Dijon, Grenoble, Rennes, and for Paris the new building for Sainte-Geneviève, the new Library of Law, and the Library at Orsay (Sciences).

Up to the last two or three years, the construction by the Board of French Libraries was according to the classic plan for French university libraries: reading rooms with reference collections, offices, stacks in which the books were classed by format and by accession number according to a regulation going back to 1878. This plan denied free access to the shelves, except in the case of professors.

This system was closely adhered to for a long time, in the first place because lack of both funds and staff forbade a complete structural reform. But when it became necessary not just to reconstruct existing libraries, but to create new ones (including book collections) from the ground up, it was decided that reforms could no longer be deferred and that it was time to adapt to modern demands in documentation.

The new policy of the Library Board was defined on the occasion of the IVème Plan d'équipement 1962-1965. The traditional type of library has been retained for the great mass of students, while at the same time contemplating an increase both in the number of seats and in the reference collections at their disposal. But for the students who have reached the last stage of their studies, for the professors and for research workers, it was deemed necessary to facilitate direct access to all current books and journals, the closed stacks being reserved for older, less used material. The new university library is then established on two different levels.

This decision involved the delicate choice of a classification system for the books. Two possibilities were open: (1) to adopt the Universal Decimal Classification which has not always had a good press in France and which besides is judged to be far from satisfactory in many countries, but which had the advantage of existing, or (2) to create a new classification system which would have required several years of work. The Universal Decimal Classification system was chosen by the Board of French Libraries (the medicine sections being provisionally excluded) even though it was clearly realized that this system might have to be abandoned in fifteen or twenty years if a new international classification should be agreed upon.
The classed catalogs under the old Brunet classification, conforming to the 1878 rules and which had been abandoned almost everywhere, will then be redone according to the U.D.C. rules.

It is hoped that these reforms which were set forth in the directives of June 20, 1962, will offer better working conditions particularly for professors, who have a tendency to develop their own libraries in institutes and laboratories. The university libraries find it difficult to keep track of these latter collections except perhaps in the case of periodicals. It is well known that liaison between university libraries on the one hand and the libraries of institutes and laboratories on the other raises difficulties which are not confined to France. The necessary measures could not be taken by the Board of French Libraries unless the libraries of institutes and laboratories, whose usefulness is not questioned, could be placed under its authority along with the necessary staff and funds.

It can be understood that considerable work is required to accomplish this reform, both in the central administration and in each library. It is estimated that fifty-six establishments must be constructed between now and 1971. It is not a question of building construction alone, but of the book stocks which must be brought up-to-date and in many cases built up from scratch. The difficulties here are not financial alone; many works and runs of periodicals which must be acquired are out of print and are becoming rare in the secondhand market. Other countries than our own are experiencing these difficulties, notably those countries which are in the course of development. A program of reprinting should be undertaken without delay and the possibilities of micropublication utilized.

The transfer of collections demands the sorting of thousands of books and periodicals, demands cataloging and classification, and unhappily the staffs of university libraries, although they have been increased in the course of the last years and even given priority, still remain inadequate. As an example here is the staff for 1962 of the University Library of Lille, with a registration of 11,290 students, a central letters-sciences-law library and a medical division, in other words two establishments: five librarians, six assistant librarians, twelve attendants, six clerical staff, twenty-nine people in all. The total number of librarians in all French university libraries at the end of 1963 was only 202.

The librarians of the university libraries form part of the total "corps scientifique" of all French libraries. They are accordingly re-
European University Libraries: France

cruited in the same way as other librarians. They can be transferred to a municipal library, to a central lending library (rural bookmobiles), or to the Bibliothèque National in Paris, and vice versa. These possibilities can remedy unfortunate career assignments, especially at the beginning. Like other librarians, university librarians have parity with teaching professors of the second grade in the lycées and collèges; the head librarians (conservateurs en chef), of which there are seven in Paris and seven in the provinces, are on a level with professeurs agrégés. But university librarians have not been able to re-establish the parity they formerly had with certain members of the schools of higher education, the latter have been re-classified upward. It is to be hoped that reform of library education (a school which will recruit its students by competitive examination from among those already possessing a Licence, and which will pay them a stipend) will help recruitment, but it is to be feared that the number of candidates, especially in the scientific disciplines, will be less than required, given the more remunerative careers open to young people in scientific fields.

The administrative budgets which the university libraries have at their disposal come from: (1) library fees instituted in 1874, paid by students (but from which many are exempt) and fixed since 1949 at six francs a year for each student, and (2) the grants from the Ministry of National Education which have not stopped increasing and which constitute the more important part. In 1963 the grants to university libraries amounted to 9,287,500 francs.

The university libraries benefit from a certain number of services in common. First of all there are the union catalogs, in which they are obliged to participate:

—Catalog collectif des ouvrages étrangers. Card index begun in 1952 for works received after that date.

—Catalog collectif des périodiques conservés dans les bibliothèques de Paris et les bibliothèques universitaires des départements. Multigraphed publication in 43 volumes of which printing has just begun and which gives the holdings of the collections.

—Inventaire des périodiques étrangers en cours. 3d edition, 1963; 30,000 periodicals titles, 2,000 participants.

Loans between university libraries are of long standing, going back to 1886, and these libraries have enjoyed the postage frank since March
University libraries do not limit their loans to other university libraries; they participate, in addition, in general inter-library loans in France (in conformity with the decree of December 12, 1935) and abroad.

Most members of the schools of higher education use the photographic services of the Center of Documentation of the National Center for Scientific Research (CNRS) to obtain microcopies of periodical articles which are of interest to them and particularly those cited in the *Bulletin signalétique*. The CNRS has photographic equipment in the libraries of the University of Paris, and the Library of the Faculty of Medicine of Paris has its own well equipped laboratory for producing microcopies, but in the provinces only the University of Nancy has its own laboratory. The Board of French Libraries intends to develop facilities for photographic reproduction in the university libraries during the next few years.

In France there is no national or even regional plan of acquisitions like those found in several foreign countries. This question is only in the study stage. The university librarians themselves establish their own acquisitions programs, but they are advised by a faculty committee.

Nevertheless in 1962, in order to assist the university libraries in the selection of part of their acquisitions, there was established the Bibliographical Information Service (SIB). Each month, this Service distributes a selected list of some thirty foreign works, newly published, including new periodicals, and intended for the "Sciences" divisions. The Service furnishes with a minimum of delay the required number of standard catalog cards with the Universal Decimal Classification number and subject headings. It does the same for the divisions of the university scientific colleges, but in this case it is concerned with both French and foreign works. The Service is expected to extend its activities shortly to the social sciences. It has issued a selected list of periodicals. A selected list of basic works for the university scientific colleges has already been prepared for mathematics, physics, and chemistry and is expected to be completed for biology and the earth sciences.

The lists and the catalog cards prepared by the SIB are multigraphed by the Multigraphic Service, which provides a centralized service for all the university libraries and which like the SIB is under the jurisdiction of the Board of French Libraries. Established some years ago, in 1953, the Service has multigraphed for libraries as a whole (including municipal libraries) the catalog cards for continu-
European University Libraries: France

ations, and it has also prepared since 1957 catalog cards for foreign theses, basing its work on catalog cards prepared by libraries in Paris and thus making them available for use by libraries in the provinces. The distribution of foreign theses among university libraries is taken care of by the University Exchange Service of the Sorbonne. Exchanges of theses were regulated anew by the decree of September 11, 1951.

As far as French theses are concerned, each university library has since 1952 prepared and multigraphed catalog cards for theses submitted to the university (printed and typewritten). Each library does this work for all of the university libraries and for a few large organizations which have deposit rights for printed theses. It is on the basis of these catalog cards that the Bibliothèque Nationale of Paris has since 1947 published supplement D of the Bibliographie de la France which in its turn is the foundation for the Catalogue des thèses de doctorat soutenues devant les universités françaises, an annual publication begun in 1884. Of concern at this time is a method for more rapid listing, and by subject, of French theses. The problem of providing wider distribution for typewritten theses (continuance of an exception made on a provisional basis during the war, in 1943) remains unsolved. Typewritten theses are kept in a single copy in the library of the university to which they have been submitted. A study has been made recently of reproduction in microcopy form of typed theses; the transparent microfiche would seem the preferred solution.

Since 1952, the university libraries have agreed on the use of a catalog card measuring 125 x 75 mm., and the alphabetic subject catalog has been made obligatory by the Library Board. Cataloging standards are prepared by the Commission on the Cataloging Code (la Commission du Code de catalogage) which has its headquarters at the Library Board. These standards distributed by the French Standards Association (Association française de normalisation, AFNOR) are to be applied by the university libraries.

In a little less than a century the collections of the university libraries have been multiplied twenty-seven times, since we can estimate today's holdings at about 9,500,000 whereas they did not total 350,000 volumes in 1865. The rapid growth, already begun, in the number of establishments will in the course of the next few years raise the difficult problems not only of funds and staffing but also of organization. The university libraries will need to be provided with the means to receive an ever larger student population and to
provide them with books, and the libraries also must be able to meet the needs of professors and research workers and to play their part in the organization of documentation, which latter problem is under study by the General Delegation of Scientific and Technical Research (la Délegation générale à la recherche scientifique et technique).

The great needs for which we must provide demand the closest cooperation between all groups concerned with the gathering, the organization, and the dissemination of knowledge.

References


University Libraries in Spain and Portugal

JAVIER LASSO DE LA VEGA

Spain

Like the universities themselves, the university libraries of Spain are administratively responsible to the State; their supreme authority is the Minister of National Education. This executive administers the libraries of the State through the Director General of Libraries, Archives and Copyright, to whom the university libraries are responsible for their technical and administrative functions. In turn, the libraries receive from this source their funds for salaries, for the acquisition of books and periodicals, and for other expenses.

The university libraries are responsible to the rectors only for those aspects of their operations which have to do with public services, the hours of opening, vacations, etc. Such differences as may arise between the librarian and the rector are discussed and settled between the university and state authorities. The rector has the right to name the chief librarian from among those qualified professional librarians who present themselves for the open examination when a vacancy occurs. The rector can likewise remove the chief librarian for cause.

Each university library has its own particular code of regulations approved by the Director General of Archives and Libraries. These regulations customarily include the basic principles which govern all libraries of the State. To these are added others which normally regulate certain university services and in particular govern the relations between the general library of each faculty and those of the laboratories, seminars, cátedras and other academic entities.

The Spanish university libraries are not adequately regulated by the existing law governing university organization ("La Ley Vigente de Ordenación Universitaria," 4, Agosto, 1944), inasmuch as it in-

Dr. Lasso de la Vega is Professor of Librarianship and Documentation and Director-emeritus, the University Library, Madrid. Paul Miles translated the paper from Spanish into English.
cludes only basic principles. Among these, however, is a most important one which states that all books of the university, wherever located or however purchased, constitute and form part of the university library, and that their service and preservation are the responsibility of the chief officer of the library.

Prior to that law of 1944, the head of the university library properly was a member of the governing junta of the university; but the new law, drafted without consultation or participation of librarians, changed that situation. Moreover it fails to provide for its own amendment.

The majority of the libraries provide in their internal regulations for a committee of the heads of libraries of the several faculties to advise the director, and for monthly meetings of all professional administrative staff members to review work accomplished, resolve problems which have arisen, study the distribution of funds, and the like. The minutes of these meetings are in most cases the best source of information on the history of a library because of the statistical tables, projects, plans, and reports.

The professional personnel in university libraries must by requirement belong to the association of archivists, librarians, and archeologists (Los Cuerpos Facultativos y Auxiliar de Archiveros, Bibliotecarios, y Arqueólogos) which serves all the libraries of the State. Vacancies are filled by competition among those who have fulfilled certain requirements and examinations. In order to take these examinations it is necessary to have a university bachelor’s degree, a law degree, or the doctorate in philosophy and letters, together with certain complementary courses, and finally to be proficient in two modern languages: French and English, or English and German, or French and German.

The professional and the non-professional or “auxiliary” librarians each form a closed guild in which promotion is rigorously governed by seniority, and each group is divided into various categories within which salaries are determined according to seniority. Practice of the profession is not necessarily tied to a specific library or institution. Thus, librarians, although fixed in their status, may serve in any State institution or in any city, with certain limited exceptions. At age seventy, retirement is compulsory.

Affiliated with the professional association is the association of non-professional archivists, librarians, and archeologists (El Cuerpo Auxiliar de Archiveros, Bibliotecarios y Arqueólogos). The require-
ment for membership in this group is a secondary education, an elementary knowledge of library service, cataloging and classification, and detailed specific knowledge of library routines or administration. It is an excellent organization which completes and rounds out the personnel pattern.

The professional association has developed a set of quite adequate manuals which are distinguished by their high level of erudition and technical perfection. The evolution of these technical manuals in recent times has tended to move somewhat away from the more philosophical and humanistic orientation of the past toward the more practical and realistic norms of the Anglo-Saxon pattern and toward the acceptance as far as possible of various international standards formulated in recent years.

For the classification of book collections and documents, the government decreed application of the Universal Decimal Classification by ministerial order of July 29, 1939. Because of the great effort involved, the heavy personnel requirement, and the multifarious details involved in the reorganization and recategorization of so many large and complex library collections, not all institutions have yet been able to apply the decimal classification system to the arrangement of books. However, many, such as the University of Madrid, the Conséjo Superior de Investigaciones Cientificas, and the Instituto Nacional de Previsión, have applied it with great success. Others, such as the National Library, apply the decimal classification only to cards in the catalog, but not to the arrangement of books, which are kept according to the old system of accession numbers and shelved by size, without concern for the inconsistency of locating a cook book next to Las Moradas of Saint Theresa or the Divine Comedy of Dante.

At the present time there is no building in Spain constructed specifically and functionally for the purposes of a university library. Nevertheless, there are formal projects for the construction of such buildings in the majority of the universities. The building for the University of Madrid Library is in the planning stage, and a scale model has been completed.

Because of the lack of a building designed for central library purposes, the libraries of the several faculties have been established in their own locations with more or less adequate quarters. This is true, for example, at the University of Madrid where the libraries of the faculties of philosophy and letters, law, pharmacy, sciences, medicine and veterinary science, and economics and political science are housed
in the separate buildings of the faculties. Most of these are located in the new University City in buildings which are modern, well-lighted, clean and comfortable, though not elegant. Here, in contrast to elsewhere in the country, library equipment is up-to-date and buildings are air-conditioned.

In the other universities, the libraries are housed in ancient buildings of historical design and appearance. At the University of Salamanca, one of the four oldest centers of general studies in the world, the library is notable for the beauty of its main reading room as well as its other public rooms, all finished in the fine Renaissance leitmotiv so typical of the architecture of Salamanca. The counters and furniture have been adapted to the architectural style and combine with it to make an atmosphere so fully appropriate that it invites the reader to meditation and to the enjoyment of the accumulated wisdom there available.

A few libraries are operated on the highly desirable “open access” principle when the building layout permits it: examples are the Medical Sciences, the Political Science and Economics, Veterinary Medicine, Pharmacy, and Law Libraries of the University of Madrid. Unfortunately most reading rooms are too small for the number of readers; in many cases users must stand because of the lack of seats.

Normal library hours extend from 9:00 a.m. to 2:00 p.m. and from 4:00 p.m. to 8:00 p.m. At examination periods the hours are extended until midnight. In certain libraries, service is available without interruption from 9:00 a.m. to 8:00 p.m. On Saturdays, libraries are not open in the afternoon. This is also true every day during the months of July and August, and in the latter month some libraries reduce the service day to a bare minimum and others close entirely.

The university libraries loan books for home use with the normal exceptions common in most countries such as incunabula, rare and valuable books, manuscripts, unique copies, and so on. The loan period normally is for two weeks, renewable for another two weeks and thus successively, always provided that no other reader requests the book. Among the circulation systems which prevail, the one most utilized is the “triple entry” system because of the ease with which information can be obtained from the files. Up to the present time, no mechanical or electronic circulation system has been established in any of the libraries. Inter-library loan, including international loan, is also available.

Some libraries, such as that of Madrid for example, have available
European University Libraries: Spain and Portugal

block collections of approximately 100 books representative of the classics as well as of contemporary literature. These blocks circulate among the student residence halls for periods of from one to two months so that the resident students may broaden their cultural background by voluntary reading and, with guidance and assistance from the directors of the residence halls, organize colloquia and discussions based on their readings.

There also circulate to the residence halls, upon the recommendation of the director, collections of books for the preparation of doctoral theses and term papers. The nature of thesis topics permits these residence hall loans to be made without detriment to the general teaching function which the regular library collection serves.

In addition to serving students, the university libraries will also loan books to the general public, without fee, and special loans are made to hospital patients.

As is the case in all university libraries, the most difficult problem is that of the regulation and practice of relations among the divisional libraries. Although the majority of the statutes which regulate Spanish university libraries commonly subject all divisional units to the same general law of 1944 that was previously mentioned, the particulars vary from university to university because of local option in matters of detail and administration of the statute.

However, there is one important legal doctrine common to all the university statutes: that is the principle which declares that all books in the university, regardless of location or of funds with which purchased, form part of the university library. In accordance with this declaration, all libraries of the institutes, laboratories, cátedras, seminars, etc., fall under the direction of the university librarian.

Moreover, books in the several agencies of the university are recorded in a central accessions register and are cataloged by professional librarians. There also exists a statutory provision by virtue of which the accounting authorities of the university will not approve the payment of invoices that do not bear the library registry number and the signature of the director of the library authorizing payment. Once the books have been stamped and accessioned, the directors of institutes, seminars, and laboratories may withdraw them by signing a duplicate of the invoice to certify receipt.

However, faculty members, inasmuch as they are always highly individualistic, and this to the maximum extent when they are Spaniards, are strongly disposed to demand and locate books according
to their own whims. Thus the frictions and struggles between the librarians and the professors become at times extremely serious.

A case in point is the faculty library of philosophy and letters of the University of Madrid which at the present time is located in the new Law building in the University City. It occupies two floors in the building and contains some 200,000 volumes distributed between the central collection, which occupies two large rooms, and 80 seminar libraries. Some of these collections are restricted exclusively to closed stacks. For public service there is available a universal decimal catalog and a dictionary catalog, each divided into one part corresponding to the general collection and another which lists the holdings of the seminars. Public service in the seminar libraries and relationships with the general library of the university are a paragon of imperfection and serve as an irrefutable argument for the final and complete excision of the festering sore that erupts when university library service is operated exclusively on the basis of the nineteenth-century individualism which particularly characterizes the Spanish academician.

As a result of this situation, it is not possible to pursue a serious research project utilizing the existing book resources without turning oneself into a kind of a tireless wanderer, particularly since the hours of service of these seminars are not always known, are not uniform, and since many of them, moreover, do not even have any stipulated hours. The same situation occurs in the other faculties of Madrid and also in the other Spanish universities, unfortunately.

The university libraries are supported through the budget of the State, and the salaries of the professional and auxiliary personnel are paid by the State. Funds for the acquisition of books are granted by the Dirección General de Archivos y Bibliotecas which in the 1961 budget year assigned over 500,000 pesetas distributed in the following manner: Madrid, 100,000 pesetas; Sevilla, 40,000 pesetas; Santiago, 40,000 pesetas; Murcia, 25,000 pesetas; Salamanca, 46,000 pesetas; Valencia, 40,000 pesetas; Cádiz, 20,000 pesetas; Valladolid, 35,000 pesetas; Saragossa, 35,000 pesetas; Barcelona, 75,000 pesetas; Granada, 40,000 pesetas; Oviedo, 40,000 pesetas; and La Laguna, 20,000 pesetas.

The Dirección General de Universidades also makes available directly an annual sum of money (100,000 pesetas to the University of Madrid), and the University, in turn, also assigns certain small additional sums. The University supports from its budget the acquisition
of books intended for the seminars with sums of money much larger than those which the State assigns for this purpose. While cash donations by private individuals for the support and enrichment of the university libraries are extremely rare in Spain, the private library of each faculty member is customarily sent to the general library of his faculty upon his decease.

Since the university libraries in Spain in the majority of cases were the residuary legatees of the libraries of the disentailed convents, churches, and monasteries, they are extremely rich in older works, as a general rule. Moreover, Salamanca, Sevilla, and Saragossa were primary centers for printing in the fifteenth century. It goes without saying, however, that these resources are of relatively slight value for teaching purposes, since we are speaking of ancient and superseded books from which no scholar of modern science has much to learn.

Modern works are acquired chiefly by the professors for their research and teaching with funds which the university puts at their disposal in accordance with recommendations of faculty committees. There is lacking any rule or regulation for the withdrawal of those books which because of age and lack of use are not consulted by anyone. Owing to this statutory deficiency, in some university libraries 60 per cent or more of the collections have not been consulted for many years and it is doubtful if they will ever again be used. For some years a reform to correct this situation has been under study.

The holdings of scientific periodicals are numerous, exceeding 2,000 current titles in each of the universities. Because of the large sums of money required for periodical subscriptions, increasing preference is being given currently to the abstracting journals; funds are usually sufficient to permit subscription to only the basic journals in each field of study.

There are some faculty libraries and institutes which possess bibliographic resources sufficient both to support advanced research by faculty members as well as for the development of term papers and doctoral theses. In this matter, the governing factor has been and continues to be the interest and initiative of the individual professor.

Portugal

The universities of Portugal are those of Coimbra, Pôrto, and Lisbon. The Inspección General de Archives y Bibliotecas, upon which to a certain extent the Portuguese libraries are dependent, has no real
administrative authority. The libraries are in effect autonomous from
the point of view of the State and are responsible instead to their
respective university authorities.

The professional personnel have recognized academic status and
must complete, in order to enter the profession, a two-year curriculum
in library science and archives management at the University of
Coimbra as well as six months of apprenticeship afterward in one
of the State libraries.

The salary scale of librarians is so deficient that it provides no
stimulus for entry into the profession. In order to recruit the staff
required for the basic day-to-day operation of the libraries, it is
necessary to resort to hiring personnel with no technical preparation.
The result is that the efficiency of the libraries is reduced sharply and
this may even result in activity detrimental to cultural advancement.
The salary pattern recruits and determines the quality of the profes-
sional person. As Lasky says: "if janitors' salaries are offered, then one
will obtain professionals with the talents of janitors," a statement
which should be brought repeatedly to the attention of the many
academicians still extant in some universities who, never having set
foot in a library and speaking from their own limited experience with
a handful of books and a few journals which they have mailed to them
at home, solemnly proclaim that efficient library service can be pro-
vided by a typist or alert secretary.

The Portuguese librarians are competent, dedicated professional
people who have not wavered in their loyalty to library service despite
the fact that librarianship in Portugal, by reason of its low salary
level, must be classified, together with the entire State system of
public education, as being in the realm of charitable work, demand-
ing for its exercise a monastic vow of poverty for life.

The organization of the library is different in each university be-
cause there are no laws or decrees issued by any central authority
regulating their administration. Each university has established its
own rules of service in accordance with the wishes of the faculty
and the academic authorities.

Use is made of the rules for cataloging edited by Paul Proença,
rules extremely detailed and erudite in character and reflecting the
broad philosophic and humanistic background of that model librarian
of international repute. These rules are utilized with some variations
and modifications. At the present time there are under study certain
agreements and recommendations approved in the Conference on
European University Libraries: Spain and Portugal

Cataloging Principles organized by UNESCO whose application has been generally accepted and agreed upon. In general the libraries have alphabetic catalogs and a shelf list.

No systems of classification generally recognized and commonly used in other libraries is employed in the Portuguese universities. Instead, they use locally developed classification systems based upon broad subject groups.

It is probable that the failure to adapt the Universal Decimal Classification in the university libraries in Portugal can be attributed to the fact that the Inspeccion General de Bibliotecas, which controls the public libraries of Portugal and its overseas possessions, does not consider this classification useful or effective.

The collections are shelved by order of accession and size. This is an old system common to a great many European libraries; its reorganization and reclassification are made difficult because of a lack of experience. The application of the Universal Decimal System, for example, to the reorganization of a collection demands, in addition to the tables and the other auxiliary tools, experienced professional librarians. Analogously, in order to remove the human appendix it is not sufficient to read the best book on surgery, but one must have the services of a practiced surgeon to demonstrate exactly how the operation must be performed.

To the lack of proper classification can be attributed the slow pace of public services and the impossibility of establishing an open-access system so necessary in the modern university.

Only the library of the University of Coimbra possesses a general library in addition to those of the faculties and institutes. The Universities of Porto and Lisbon, up to this time, have only faculty libraries.

The University of Coimbra Library is one of the most beautiful in the world, artistically constructed in the baroque style which achieved such widespread and brilliant development in Portugal. As with the National Library of Vienna, it is one of the important national monuments which every tourist and lover of books should visit. At the present time it serves also as the National Library of Portugal, and holds collections totalling approximately one million volumes. It possesses extremely rare books from the fifteenth, sixteenth, and seventeenth centuries, and more than 2,000 manuscripts. Needless to say, there are to be found here the majority of works printed in Portugal, many of them unique copies. It is also one of the important
centers for the study of Portuguese miniature codices, fine bindings, and the several arts which have flourished in the manuscript and the printed book.

The University of Pôrto, as has been mentioned, does not have a general library; there are libraries of the faculties of letters, pharmacy, medicine, sciences, engineering, economic sciences, and law. Among these the science library is outstanding because of the importance of its collection of books and journals. The medical library, founded in 1825 and heir to the collections of the former Escuela Médico Quirúrgica y da Real Escuela de Cirugía, is notable for its collection of medical works written by Portuguese authors, a fact which makes it preeminent among the libraries of Portugal.

The University of Lisbon is planning construction of a library building which has been carefully studied as to its structural and functional aspects as well as its architectural design. At present, its collections are scattered among the faculties, institutes, catédras, etc. In general, it is well provided with modern books and journals.

References


Lasso de la Vega, Javier. Las bibliotecas de seminarios, laboratorios, etc., en sus relaciones con la Biblioteca Central Universitaria. Sevilla, Impr. de la Gavidia, 1938. (Extract from Anales de la Universidad Hispalense, Vol. I.)


The Organization and Problems of University Libraries in Italy

SILVANO GEREVINI

For the foreigner, who has no direct knowledge of or experience with Italian libraries, it is necessary, first of all, to describe them as they are.

On the one hand there are the public governmental libraries, that is, those which are administered as national institutions directly by the state [national government]. On the other hand there are the libraries of the local governmental authorities, whether they be the municipalities or the provinces, over which the national government also exercises a certain measure of control, for the most part on a regional basis, by means of the bibliographical superintendents who report to the Directorate-General of Libraries. The public governmental libraries are divided into two large categories: (a) independent libraries, and (b) libraries which "serve as an aid to other institutions," as established by the still effective Royal decree of October 24, 1907."

It is important to explain the term independent as attributed to the libraries of the first category. This term is not meant in the sense of their enjoying an independence of operation (they are, actually, dependent on the national government through the Ministry of Public Instruction, Directorate-General of Libraries), but in the sense, as differentiated from the university libraries, of their not having any ties to or complementary relationships with other institutions. The principal of these biblioteche autonome are the "national" libraries of Rome, Florence, Milan, Venice, Naples, Bari, Palermo, the libraries of such smaller communities as Cremona, Parma, Gorizia and Lucca, and the historical libraries of Rome and Florence such as the Angelica, the Casanatense, the Medicea-Laurenziana, and the Marucelliana.

The university libraries include, or rather they themselves make

The author of this paper is Director, The University Library, Pavia. J. M. Edelstein translated the article from Italian.
European University Libraries: Italy

up, the category of those which "serve as an aid to other institutions," that is, the universities; they are, in other words, also state, or public libraries, but they differ from the others according to the law of 1907, in that they (a) offer to students the necessary assistance for those studies which are being completed at the university to which the library is related, and (b) they provide for the professors research facilities appropriate to the subjects being taught.2

The cities having this type of university library are, in alphabetical order: Bologna, Cagliari, Catania, Genoa, Messina, Modena, Naples, Padua, Pavia, Pisa, Rome, and Sassari. In addition, the state library of Turin is called a “national” university library. All the staff for these libraries (librarians, assistant-librarians, and minor employees) as well as for the biblioteche autonome is recruited through competitions on a national scale, which take place in Rome. The directors of libraries are appointed by the Ministry.

Naturally, both in those places where a public university library exists and in such cities as Milan, Florence, and Trieste where one does not exist, the universities have their own faculty and institute libraries administered by the university itself. Their function is regulated by the Royal decree of April 1, 1909, which distinguishes these “special” libraries as independent from the local public, or state, university libraries. They must observe certain fundamental rules just as the state public libraries must, especially with regard to their holdings and cataloging.

The law of 1907, already referred to, regulates in detail the relationships between the universities themselves and the state, or public, university libraries. It provides for a permanent Commission, composed of the Rector of the university, the director of the library, and a professor delegated from year to year from each faculty. The Commission is required to deliberate about the acquisition of books, the selection of periodicals, publications to be sponsored by the library, requests for special funds from the Ministry, hours of opening, and other important matters. With respect to the funds appropriated to the library by the Ministry, the Commission is responsible for six-tenths of the appropriation marked for the acquisition of books, while the other four-tenths must be put to use by the director of the library.

These conditions are, for all practical purposes, no longer in effect today. Their lapse was accented after the Second World War when the strictures on the funds assigned by the Ministry to the public university libraries did not permit their sharing them with the special

[ 551 ]
libraries; in fact, the reverse phenomenon took place, wherein the universities in many cases gave financial assistance to the general libraries for the acquisition of books and periodicals.

Two fundamentally important developments occurred after the Second World War: (1) the enormous expansion in book production and (2) the rising specialization in university studies which, to some, seems to lessen the present need for a general university library, which cannot avoid lagging behind book production in every field of knowledge; a situation which, to some, indicates the importance of strengthening the faculty and institute libraries which are better prepared to keep up with the work in specific subject areas.

It is no wonder, therefore, that Italian librarians in recent years, in the Italian Library Association (Associazione Italiana per le Biblioteche, A.I.B.), have attentively discussed these problems, and in particular the problem of the responsibilities to be assigned to the university libraries and the relations between them and the special libraries.

The subject figured in the agenda of the Congress of Asti, in 1949, which can be said to have been the first after the war. In that Congress two distinct and opposing tendencies were marked. One, the minority, proposed the pure and simple separation of the university libraries from the universities and their transfer to the status of independent state libraries. (In support of this point of view, the fact was noted that in the great majority of the cities which are the seats of a university library that library represents the only existing governmental public library.) Their functions in serving the universities would be assumed by the faculty and institute libraries, and these would be directed by a chief librarian who would be nominated by the University Rector and be dependent on his instructions.

Opposed to this was the more prevalent movement, by far, which recognized the chance to save for the university libraries their traditional character by intensifying and stating more precisely their relations with the universities. The agenda approved by the large majority favored the centralization in the general library of copies of all the catalogs existing in the university, coordination of acquisitions, and the overseeing of the technical functions of the specialized libraries.\(^8\)

The same subject, with a more rigorous scrutiny of various aspects of the problem, was treated at the Congress of Cesena in 1954. Special
notice was made, in particular, of the fact that “the University Library, far from being an arbitrary and casual creation, responded to a profound and real need of the significant cultural life of the University: a need still felt today for the continuity of cultural unity which can hardly be derogated from the needs of modern specialization.” This was confirmed by the fact that “also . . . in areas where there was no University Library initially, the academic authorities wanted to have a central library system established, having the function . . . of assuring coordination among the special libraries of the Faculties, Institutes and Seminaries.”

It was also hoped that the personnel employed by these special libraries would be recruited in a manner to insure their possession of an adequate professional preparation, and also that the director of the university library would be in charge of overseeing the libraries with respect to cataloging, the arranging of the collections, and the maintenance and modernization of the holdings and the catalogs. Furthermore, it was hoped that the establishment of specific conventions between the universities and the university libraries would provide means for collaboration on financial aid as well.

So, a decade has elapsed since the last discussion in Italian library conventions on such fundamental problems, which are common to every other civilized nation (in Germany, for example, there has been, since 1955, a regulation about the relations between general and special libraries). In Italy, nevertheless, the necessity for resolving these problems is more vital and pressing than elsewhere because of the particular character of the Italian universities which are at one and the same time, although this may seem to be contradictory, more centralized and more autonomous than those of most other countries.

They are, in fact, less free as regards their dependence on subsidies and the matter of state intervention; on the other hand, professors in Italy tend to act individually, each within his own sphere of influence, whence the marked individualistic character which distinguishes the universities. From this situation there arise grave difficulties for the libraries, so intimately tied are they to the life of university studies, with particularly negative consequences for cooperation and coordination.

And it is precisely this lack and insufficiency of cooperation and coordination among libraries in the university world which is most apparent to the foreign observer and visitor, such as Robert Vosper, who was a visiting librarian in 1960, and Arthur T. Hamlin (1962),
directors of the university libraries of California (Los Angeles) and of Cincinnati, respectively. Their writings reflect, by way of contrast, the very different situation which exists in the United States, where the general university libraries depend on the universities and not on the state, where the funds allocated to these libraries are infinitely greater and, above all, where the spirit of cooperation among libraries is different and the relationship between libraries and readers is more open and direct.

To the foreign observer, the Italian situation appears, in the words of Vosper, as "a great variety of jealously autonomous, uncoordinated, and selfishly parochial faculty and institute libraries." In their observations, even the state university libraries, with their limitations and their obstacles (administration separated from the university, scarcity of money and of personnel, restricted hours of opening, malfunctioning of old buildings) present positive characteristics such as the advantages of a uniform and controlled organization which allows them to be neatly separated from the "jungle" of the small faculty and institute libraries.

The libraries of these faculties and institutes are, in fact, reserved for the use of the professors and their immediate colleagues; the books and periodicals are often kept in locked cases; borrowing, hours of opening, and in general, access to and the use of the collections are limited. Book selection is made by one of the professors according to personal criteria. The selector often ignores the situation of the neighboring libraries, even of the same faculty, which results in the duplication of numerous acquisitions. Usually, the employees of these special libraries do not have the time or the bibliographical competence necessary for the correct cataloging of the books; often, the holdings of these individual institute libraries do not appear in any general catalog.

For Hamlin, the principal stumbling blocks consist in the excessive splitting up of these libraries, in the lack of adequately instructed personnel, and in the slight spirit of cooperation. To remedy these defects, Hamlin, looking at the type of library prevalent in the universities of his own country, recommends that in each university there be a central library with precise functions and responsibilities, principally the organizing and keeping up to date of a general catalog of all the book material existing in the university, the function of carrying out book acquisitions on behalf of all the faculty and institute libraries with the funds provided, the authority to reject duplicate ac-
European University Libraries: Italy

quisitions and to report such duplications to the Rector or to the administrative authority, and the responsibility for creating in the central library adequate bibliographical tools, collections of official publications, and all such general works which could not be acquired by the individual institute libraries.

Against these criticisms and recommendations, which have found widespread agreement among both Italian and foreign librarians as well as some Italian university professors, a majority of our professors have set forth the fundamental objection that the state, or public, libraries, defined as “university,” do not fulfill the aims set for themselves by the universities, which are educational and scientific. In fact, according to one eminent professor of the University of Rome in his recent argument against Vosper, they can be defined as “a hybrid between the modern library and the antiquarian library.”

According to this point of view, the state university libraries can best furnish the most important reference books, good collections of texts, and large collections of periodicals; but they cannot provide the specialized means necessary for research. It is from this that the need for special libraries has developed, even though there have been some inevitable difficulties—those of an insufficient preparation of personnel and a certain wastefulness of resources due to duplication of acquisitions; yet this point of view also maintains that such libraries have a fundamental relationship to the needs of teaching and research which the general libraries cannot provide.

The same professor, furthermore, has declared himself quite skeptical about the chief remedy suggested by Vosper, and now again by Hamlin, the concentration and the centralization of the libraries, arguing that the university teacher needs the library itself as an immediate instrument of work, and cannot depend on a much larger organization which would fatally impede or limit the use of this instrument.

Also, cooperation among libraries to eliminate the acquisition of duplicates would be, from this point of view, little welcome in that certain works are indispensable to the aims of research and cannot be fought over by those engaged in research. These arguments are, in sum, the vindication of the “special library” and of the “institute library” as a unit of specialized knowledge and are proposed in opposition to the other argument which is directed to overcoming fragmentation and the particularism of small library collections.

A recent law (November 3, 1961) has examined the question of the
personnel employed by the faculty and institute libraries. These institutes are not staffed, to begin with, by employees who have a competence in specific subject matter; the bibliographical and library functions are performed by university employees who have no systematic preparation and who are often shifted from one office to another.

The law now institutes a national staff roster of 45 librarians, that is, personnel who have a degree, and a roster of 250 assistant librarians, who have a high school diploma. However, a serious limitation to the utility of this provision is, according to some, constituted by the fact that the direction of such personnel is given to a faculty professor and not a librarian. The professor, in fact, is already burdened with his own research and teaching, and cannot give to the library the continual attention and competence that a professional librarian could.

These recent objections to such a useful and needed legislative measure also demonstrate and confirm the extreme complexity of the problems treated in the present paper. In it, rather than express personal opinions and proposals, the aim has been to delineate the principal aspects of the problems themselves and to show how these problems are considered and discussed by Italian librarians at their conventions and in their journals. In conclusion, it is not difficult to foresee that the eventual solution of these questions must take into account the following fundamental points: (1) Will the public university libraries continue to depend on the state or will they become dependent on the universities? (2) In case they remain dependent on the state, will they continue to develop their function as "libraries of assistance" to the universities, or is it advisable that they be transformed into autonomous state libraries, without ties to the universities? (3) If they remain dependent on the state, can they continue to develop their actual functions in a way that will permit a better and more organic collaboration with the universities? (4) If, instead, the libraries in question are separated from the universities, becoming totally autonomous, must the university institute a proper central library or must the faculty and institute libraries be made better and more functional? (5) If the state university libraries pass over to the universities with the functions of central libraries, how must the regulation of cooperation between the central and the special libraries be implemented?

As said above, these problems are common to the principal countries endowed with a complex university and library structure. In Italy
European University Libraries: Italy

the necessity for resolving these problems is felt more acutely than elsewhere because of the burdens which have come about as a result of a too fragmented and specialized structure.

Above all, we must not conceal the difficulties of arriving at a solution; the recent counter-criticisms by the university professors are a proof of this. But substantial progress can be achieved if it is recognized by everyone that, as things now stand, the one step to be taken before all others must be a strengthening of the spirit of collaboration and of cooperation.8

References

2. Costa, op. cit., p. 133.
3. The acts of this Congress (Il Congresso Di Asti) have been published in the official journal published by the Ministry of Public Instruction: Accademie e Biblioteche d'Italia, 19:49-54, 1951.

The article by Hamlin will be published shortly in an important Italian Library review. It is entitled, in the original manuscript, “The Libraries of the Universities of Italy: a Study of their Services and Collections.” Mention should also be made of Hamlin's article in Italian: “Impressioni sulle biblioteche universitarie italiane,” published in the illustrated review Pavia, May-August 1962.
8. A relevant group of recent articles, by Robert Vosper and others dealing with matters discussed in this paper was published as Convegno di Studi sulle Biblioteche Universitarie (Pubblicazioni della Soprintendenza Bibliografica per la Campania e la Calabria, No. 8.) Napoli, 1962. Another group appeared in Studi Economici (Università di Napoli), 15, no. 2-3, March-June 1960.
The Accomplishments of University Libraries in the Soviet Union

L. I. VLADIMIROV

The rapid rate of development of higher education during the years of Soviet rule, the significant increase in the network of institutions of higher learning, and the expansion of their activity created very favorable conditions for the development of the libraries of these institutions. During the forty-five years of the history of Soviet higher education, the number of institutions of higher learning has grown from 105 in the 1914/15 academic year to 731 in the 1961/62 academic year, and the number of students from 127,000 to 2,640,000. In Tsarist Russia there were thirteen universities, with only 43,000 students; by comparison, at the present time we have forty-one universities with a student body of more than 200,000. In regions which were formerly considered areas of complete illiteracy, as, for instance, the Central Asian republics, strong scientific centers, universities, and libraries with millions of books have grown up.

In 1918, the difficult year in which the Soviet power fought for its very existence, V. I. Lenin signed a decree for the establishment of six new universities. The policy of founding universities took on a new dimension in the years just after World War II; for during the past ten years, eight more universities have been established, among which were five in the autonomous republics to increase training facilities for the indigenous peoples. The development of the university library network, of course, kept pace with the founding of universities.

Obviously it need not be explained here how important a prerequisite the presence of a well-organized and well-stocked university...
library is for the scholarly activity of a university as well as for the training of the cadres of young specialists and scholars in many different fields.

"Schools must have satisfactory libraries, for without a library the Academy is as though without a soul . . . .," wrote Feofan Prokopovich, one of the first Russian educators, in 1721 during the "Spiritual Rule" of Peter the Great. Such outstanding Russian scientists as M. V. Lomonosov, N. I. Lobachevskii, D. I. Mendeleev, and others, turned their attention more than once toward the decisive importance of the library in the research and teaching function of the university.

However, in pre-revolutionary Russia the university libraries were one of the most backward sectors. This was confirmed by the First All-Russian Congress on librarianship (June 1911), which arrived at the sad conclusion that "the majority of academic libraries are far from being equal to their task" and that the bad state of their collections and their inaccessibility to readers turned these libraries into veritable "cemeteries of books." ³ V. I. Lenin also resented "the academic exclusiveness and the inaccessibility of our largest libraries to the broad classes of the people." ⁴

The thorough reorganization of the scholarly libraries from "cemeteries of books" into efficient tools of research and education became the basic task of the Soviet government in this area. At the first conference of the scholarly libraries of the RSFSR in Moscow, in December 1924, it was emphasized that "these libraries must become more active and organize the use of their rich book collections in the interests of socialist construction, the development of scientific research, and the education of the masses." ⁵ The law "On the strengthening of the ties between the school and life and on the further development of the system of public education in the USSR" (1958) confronted the institution of higher learning and its library with new tasks. The intensification of the active role of the institution of higher learning in every line of endeavor of the Soviet people, the forging of a link between the school and industrial practice, the further development and carrying-out of research, the broadening of correspondence courses, the trend toward independent work by students with books—all this brought to the libraries of the institutions of higher learning tens and hundreds of thousands of new readers demanding a more intensive approach to their problems and, on the whole, significantly raised the importance of the library in the life of the institutions of higher learning.
L. I. VLADIMIROV

The decree of the Central Committee of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union "On the State and Measures to Improve the Libraries in the Country" (1959) and the corresponding directive of the Ministry of Higher and Intermediate Special Education of the USSR confronted the libraries of institutions of higher learning with new concrete tasks: to perfect their work, to ensure the broadening of their collections and create better conditions for their use, to set up systematic acquisitions policies in accordance with the functions of particular institutions of higher learning, to thoroughly improve the supply of textbooks for correspondence and evening students, to initiate bibliographical activities and to coordinate them better with the tasks of research, to coordinate their activities more closely with libraries of other systems, to use all forms of book propaganda, to develop student habits of independent study, to apply methods of mechanization and automation, and, most importantly, to provide users immediate access to the book collections, etc., etc. All this is but an abbreviated list of those tasks and problems which our libraries in institutions of higher learning must solve in the immediate future.

The leading place among the libraries of institutions of higher learning belongs unquestionably to the university libraries. This can be seen in the fact that, although they number only 5.25 per cent of all the libraries of this kind, they have almost 30 per cent of the book collections. And it is perfectly natural that such large academic centers as universities, which unite the sum total of the scholarly disciplines and which train specialists in the several economic, scientific, and cultural fields, as well as supporting a wide range of research, should pay special attention to their libraries. The successful fulfillment of the educational and scholarly functions of the university depends to a large degree upon the libraries.

Today, in all forty-one university libraries there are approximately fifty million volumes serving a total of 292,600 people who check out approximately 33,700,000 books per year. (Since no statistical data on university libraries has been collected into one book of recent years, the author had to obtain this data from the libraries. The data collected describes the situation for 1961-62.) It is true that not all university libraries participate in these impressive figures to an equal degree. Beside such gigantic libraries as the A. M. Gorky Library of the M. V. Lomonosov Moscow State University (founded in 1756) with six million volumes, a yearly circulation of 5,368,000 volumes, and service for 32,000 readers, there are university libraries with book
European University Libraries: Soviet Union

collections of less than 200,000 volumes which serve but 2,000 readers. That is completely natural, since today's entire existing network of university libraries was not created with a stroke of the pen, but developed historically during the course of many years.

It must also be said that the process of development did not always flow smoothly. The last war did a great amount of damage to libraries. The libraries of Kiev, Belorussia, and several other universities were destroyed or looted by the fascists.

In analyzing the composition, collections, and significance of university libraries, one may isolate as a separate group the libraries of the old universities. In the majority of cases, the libraries of this group—in regard to the cultural, historical, and scholarly significance of their book collections and the extent of their activity—noticeably exceed the limits of the library of an ordinary institution of higher learning. Thus it is possible to call the library of Kazan University (founded in 1804), with a collection of 3,500,000 volumes, as far as the composition and significance of its book collection is concerned, the national library of the Soviet Tatar Republic. Vilnius University Library (the oldest university library of the Soviet Union, founded in 1570) with a collection of 1,900,000 volumes has the same significance for Soviet Lithuania; for the Estonian SSR there is the Library of Tartu (Dorpat) University (founded in 1802) with a collection of 2,300,000 volumes; and for Siberia, the Tomsk University Library (founded in 1888) with a collection of 2,500,000 volumes. Among university libraries, the Saratov University Library (founded in 1909) with a collection of 1,750,000 volumes is distinguished for its superb organization and the scope of its work. The greatest treasure of scholarly literature is concentrated in the universities of Leningrad (founded in 1819) with a collection of 3,600,000 volumes, Kharkov (founded in 1805) with a collection of 2,100,000 volumes, Lvov (founded in 1681) with a collection of 1,400,000 volumes, Kiev (founded in 1835) with a collection of 1,300,000 volumes, Odessa (founded in 1865) with a collection of 1,600,000 volumes, and Chernovtsy (founded in 1875) with a collection of 1,400,000 volumes.

Today a group of new university libraries, the offspring of the October Revolution, have grown up alongside these veteran libraries. Thus, for example, the main library of Tashkent University was founded in 1918, and with its collection of 1,100,000 volumes it has become one of the largest and most important libraries of Central Asia. The Tiflis University Library (also founded in 1918) has the
same importance for the Transcaucasus with 1,550,000 volumes. Irkutsk University Library has become the second largest library of Siberia. To the group of “million volume” libraries, one may also add the Latvia University Library in Riga (founded in 1919) with 1,200,000 volumes. Well-equipped libraries with collections of over 500,000 volumes are located in the universities of Azerbaidzhan, Belorussia, Voronezh, Gorky, Dnepropetrovsk, Erevan, Kazakhstan, Kishinev, Perm, Rostov, Uzbekistan, and Ural.

Another group of fourteen university libraries was founded just before the last war (Petrozavodsk University in 1940 for example) or during the recent postwar years. Several of these youngest university libraries were able to develop completely within a short time and form large book collections; for example, the Kishinev University Library has more than 700,000 volumes and 6,000 readers. The libraries of the young Uzhgorod, Tadzhik, Turkmen, and Kirghiz universities are also adequately fulfilling the requirements of a university. The university libraries founded in the last decade (for example, the Daghestan, Dalnevostok, Iakutsk, Bashkir, and Mordvin universities) are also quickly outgrowing the “infantile” period of their development.

The entire network of university libraries, as is the case with the universities themselves, is under the control of the Ministry of Higher and Secondary Special Education of the USSR and the corresponding ministries and committees of the several republics. In the same ministry, the libraries of institutions of higher education are under the jurisdiction of the Educational-Methodological Administration for institutions of higher learning under which, in 1959, was established the Central Methodological Library Commission with the rights of a consultative organ. The Commission’s primary function is to assist the Ministry with the implementation of teaching-method guidance and with the coordination of the work of the libraries of higher and secondary special institutions of education. The Commission is composed of the heads of the leading libraries of institutions of higher education in the country, prominent specialists in the field of library science and bibliography, and faculty members of institutions of higher education. The Central Methodological Office of Moscow University Library became the “operations headquarters” of the Central Methodological Commission, and at the same time, an experimental center in work-methods for libraries of higher educational institutions. In the several republics, commissions on libraries and biblio-
European University Libraries: Soviet Union

graphical science, the activities of which are coordinated with the Central Commission, are organized under the local ministries and committees of higher and secondary special education in order to assure methodological guidance and coordination of the entire system.

In the comparatively short period of its activity, the Central Methodological Office of Moscow University Library and the Central Methodological Library Commission have made a large contribution toward perfecting the work of the libraries of the higher educational institutions. Such basic documents as "Regulations for the Libraries of Higher Educational Institutions," "A Model Structure for Various Types of Libraries of Higher Educational Institutions," and "The Standard Rules for Users of a Library of a Higher Educational Institution" are discussed at the plenary sessions of the Commission and approved by the Ministry. A manual of library techniques for libraries of higher educational institutions and rules for bibliographical work, a program of library-bibliographical studies for students, and a number of other important materials were prepared and published. Several methodological library commissions in the republics also displayed great activity.

As a rule, university libraries are the bases for these commissions and sections and the initiators of all their diverse activity.

The university library itself is under the immediate jurisdiction of the university chancellor who approves the production plans and fiscal accounts of the library and appoints and dismisses librarians upon the recommendation of the library director. The library director is appointed, on recommendation of the chancellor, by the ministry or committee of higher and secondary special education of the republic.

Libraries of institutions of higher learning organize their work in close cooperation with the various departments and faculties of the institution, coordinating it with the general scholarly, educational, and training activity of the university. It is this goal which is pursued by the academic library council, acting in each university library as a consultative body. The membership of such a council is chosen by the chancellor from among the faculty of the various departments. These councils discuss basic library problems with the exception of technical ones.

Problems of library technique are discussed in the methodological councils of the library, which are made up of leading librarians and other highly qualified specialists.
Such a system of library commissions, sections, and councils brings the skills of a large group of scholars and library specialists to bear on library management, in the service of administrative bodies. This system, together with organized readers' conferences on questions of library activities and service to the mass of readers, ensures an unbroken and close connection between the library and the educational institution as well as between the library and the living world.

In the new “Regulations for Libraries of Institutions of Higher Learning,” approved in 1962, basic functions and goals are defined in the following manner: “The library is the scholarly, educational and cultural heart of the higher educational institution. Its tasks are the acquisition of literature and the provision of scholarly-bibliographical service for the teaching faculty, research staff, degree-candidates, teaching assistants, students, and employees of the particular higher educational institution, as well as those of other similar higher and secondary special educational institutions, together with assistance in the communist training of student youth. In short, the tasks cover the entire spectrum of the propagandizing of scholarly literature and bibliographical materials, within the profile of the higher educational institution itself.”

*Internal Organization*

The successful fulfillment of these basic tasks depends to a large degree upon an efficient library structure. Small libraries of higher educational institutions and libraries of newly-founded universities (for example, Kabardino-Balkarsk or Daghestan) have, as a rule, a very simple, functional structure: an acquisitions department, and a service department with a reading room and loan desk. However, in the older and larger universities, faced with the increasing complication of their scholarly and educational functions and with the growth of their book collections, there is developing alongside a more complicated main library structure, a far-flung network of branch reading rooms and loan desks, as well as departmental and other special libraries. Moreover, in order best to provide students with textbooks, these are sometimes organized in the main library and sometimes provided through autonomous textbook libraries.

This rapid growth of the library network within the university brought to the fore the question of the management and coordination of the entire network. In some universities the entire network of libraries is one functional complex headed by one administrative
center in the main library. In others a tendency toward decentralization prevails and the network of libraries is broken up into separate independent libraries, where one is not subordinated to the other and where they are very loosely linked with each other.

Moscow University Library worked out a harmonious system of library organization on a theoretical foundation and put it into practice. The basic principle of this system is the combination of a centralized acquisitions, processing, and cataloging function with a flexible system of service to readers. Reader service differentiates among categories of readers and fields of knowledge, and is brought as closely as possible to the various departments. The entire library network of the university is subordinated to the central library which does the planning, acquisitioning, and budgeting for the system.

Side by side with the central library, with its reading rooms for general science and the humanities (for upper-division students, graduate students, and research assistants), and also its general loan desk, the library has thirteen branch libraries which are located in the various departments (physics, biology, chemistry, mathematics, etc.) and supplied with the literature of the respective subject fields. The majority of these branch libraries have a complete system of reading rooms and loan desks, where special literature can be checked out. Thus, for example, in the physics department there are three reading rooms for students and two for teachers and graduate students. They seat a total of 300 people and have a collection of 200,000 volumes, serving 4,000 readers. Formerly the library collections of the numerous seminars and laboratories were often built up in depth, with tens of thousands of volumes that duplicated the collection of the central library and its departmental subsidiaries. Today these have been broken up and are furnished only with the most necessary reference books for the internal work of the seminar or laboratory. In order to provide better service for students, special textbook libraries are organized as departments of the central library.

The united, tightly centralized organization of the university's entire library network under the management of the central library is characteristic of a number of other large universities. Thus, for example, the main library of Vilnius University not only supervises the entire network of departmental libraries, but even handles budgeting, acquisitioning, equipment and supplies, etc., for them. All books received by the departments are listed on the inventory and in the public catalog of the main library. The seven departmental libraries
are actually subsidiaries (subject departments) of the main library, and the employees of these libraries are part of its staff. The departmental libraries are serviced by permanent laboratory assistants of these departments. However, all of the library-bibliographical work of the departments is coordinated and is provided for materially by the main library.

Centralized administration of the library network has been carried out to a greater or lesser extent also in Leningrad, Kazan, Tartu and other large universities.

It is natural that these libraries fulfill their administrative function in close contact with the chancellor, the deans, and the departments, coordinating all basic problems of the library network with them in order to assure that the university's plans for research and teaching are supported.

However, side by side with the universities which are striving toward a uniform, interdependent, centrally administered and equipped network of libraries, there are also those where the library network is not reduced to one common denominator, but is split up into separate autonomous units.

In this respect, Odessa University can be called the antipode of Moscow or Vilnius, for it is clear that there is not one but two completely separate libraries, a research library and a student library with independent budgets subordinated to different vice-chancellors. In both there is an acquisitions department, a processing department, and a bibliographical department. Each of the two libraries has its departmental branches. As a result of such disassociation, there is no unified plan of service to readers, money is spent irrationally, and work proceeds along parallel lines, despite the fact that the two libraries are located on different floors in one building.

Odessa University is not the only example of this type. Besides the main research libraries, independent textbook libraries with their own staffs and budgets exist in Irkutsk and Lvov universities. In a great number of universities the departmental libraries are also independent of the main library, partly duplicating its book collection. In some universities the departmental libraries are left without any sort of guidance on the part of the main library.

Proponents of such a system argue that it supposedly fulfills the specific departmental demands better, and also that the various classes of readers can be given better service. However, the example of Odessa and the other universities shows the contrary to be true. The
European University Libraries: Soviet Union
decentralized system of library service employed in these universities leads to a dissipation of resources and duplication of collections, it creates difficulties in the organization of a union catalog, and it hinders the coordination of reader service, bibliographical work, and the like. In professional literature, voices are heard more and more frequently speaking out against a decentralized system and for the unification of the entire network of libraries within a university into a single functional complex.16

It is quite obvious that the future structural development of university libraries will be “along the line of the centralization of acquisitions and processing, the creation of union catalogs for university book collections, the development of a unified system of service that is brought as closely as possible to the readers, and the strengthening of the lending role of the main library, which becomes responsible to the university for all library work.”17

A standard system for the internal functional structure of the main library’s departments has also so far been non-existent. This is especially characteristic of the older university libraries with long-established traditions and peculiarities. Thus, for example, memorial museums are part of the structure of Vilnius University library. Moreover, this library participates in the compilation of the Lithuanian national bibliography, and for this a special section is organized. Several university libraries (for example, the Kiev, Belorussian, and others) consider it efficient to unite the acquisitions departments and processing departments into one department, which supposedly reduces costs and hastens the processing of books.18 A number of university libraries (Moscow, Kharkov, and others) have a combined stacks and reader service department. In some libraries composite sections are set up according to the form of the literature. Thus in Saratov University Library there is a periodicals section which covers all processes dealing with continuations, beginning with acquisitions and ending with service to the reader.19

To eliminate such a lack of comparability in internal structure, the “Model Structure for Various Types of Libraries,” which supplements “Regulations for the Libraries of Higher Educational Institutions,” has great importance. In compliance with the Regulations, the library structure, as well as the composition of the library staff, depend on the volume and content of the library’s work with reference to the number of students and the size of the book collection.20 In the “Model structure,” five types of libraries for an educational institution of higher
learning are set up, and for each of these types there is a definite number of functional sections.

To the first group belong libraries of institutions in which the number of students exceeds 10,000. Such a library has the following departments:

I. Acquisitions.
   A. Acquisitions of national literature.
   B. Foreign literature.
   C. Exchange (the library's reserve collection of excess duplicates available for exchange purposes is in this section).

II. Processing.
   A. Descriptive cataloging.
   B. Classification and subject cataloging.
   C. Periodicals.

III. Book Stacks.
   A. Stack supervision.
   B. Book repair.

IV. Rare Books and Manuscripts.

V. Reader Service.
   A. Individual loan desks by reader category, field of knowledge, and form of literature.
   B. Reading rooms, also according to the field of knowledge, form of literature, and reader category.
   C. Interlibrary loan.

VI. Subject Branches.

VII. Textbook Libraries.

VIII. Scholarly-Bibliographical Department.
   A. Bibliographical reference.
   B. Systematic bibliography.
   C. Information.

IX. Public Affairs Department.
   A. Exhibits.
   B. Special events.
European University Libraries: Soviet Union

X. Methodological Section. (The functions of such a section, undertaken in only the largest libraries, involve working out the more complicated theoretical and practical problems of libraries and of individual librarians, and offering service in this regard not only to the departments and libraries of the parent institution but the libraries of other institutions of higher learning as well.)

XI. Administrative Department which supervises the bindery, the photo and microfilm laboratory, and subsidiary workshops.

Libraries of the second group are practically indistinguishable from those of the first group, as far as their structure is concerned. That is to say these are libraries for 5,000 to 10,000 students, and with a book collection of over one million volumes. The only difference between libraries of the second group and those of the first is that in the second group there is no Public Affairs Department, and the Scholarly-Bibliographical Department has the following sections: (1) bibliographical reference and information, (2) systematic bibliography, and (3) public affairs.

To the third group belong libraries of institutions of higher learning with 3,000 to 5,000 students and with a book collection of more than 250,000 volumes. Libraries of this group, in comparison with the first two groups, have a somewhat less complicated structure.

Libraries of the fourth group are even more simplified. This includes libraries of institutions of higher learning with 1,000 to 3,000 students and with a book collection of approximately 200,000 volumes. These libraries have only three departments:

A. Acquisitions and Processing.
   1. Acquisitions.
   2. Cataloging and Classification.

B. Reader Service and Stacks.

C. Bibliographical Reference.

Libraries of newly founded universities have such a structure in the beginning stages of their development.

The structure of libraries in the fifth group, i.e., libraries of institutions of higher learning with up to 1,000 students, is not characteristic of university libraries.

The reorganization of the structure of university libraries in accordance with the "Model structure," which was developed from the experience which our best libraries gathered in coping with the compli-

[ 569 ]
L. I. VLADIMIROV

cated tasks of our times, will unquestionably have a very beneficial influence in raising the general level of the work of university libraries and in the expansion of their activity.

Resources

In the beginning of this article, in a short survey of university libraries, data were cited concerning the magnitude of their collections. Fifty million volumes is the total of the collections of all the university libraries of the Soviet Union; out of forty-one libraries in this category, sixteen have collections surpassing one million volumes. The annual increase of all forty-one libraries amounts to approximately 1,500,000 volumes. These figures testify to the great attention given to the business of acquisitions in university libraries and the rapid growth of collections during post-revolutionary times. The collection of Moscow University Library during this time has increased thirty times, Kharkov twenty-one times, Tomsk thirty-one times, and so forth. During the last year of Polish occupation (1939), Vilnius University had 597,000 volumes, and in the beginning of 1963, 1,899,000 volumes, and this in spite of the library's loss of 200,000 volumes during the fascist occupation. During the same period (1939-63), Lvov University Library increased its collection by one million volumes.

The size of the present article does not permit a detailed description of the book resources of university libraries. It should be pointed out, however, that along with educational and scholarly literature, added as normal current acquisitions, many en bloc collections from other scholarly establishments and private collections have been added over a period of years. These have great scholarly importance and give these libraries an unusual complexion. Many collections in university libraries are of a unique nature. Valuable collections of manuscripts, hectographs, incunabula, products of the Aldine and Elzevier presses, books published in Russia before the 18th century and in the languages of the peoples of the USSR are preserved in the Moscow, Leningrad, Tartu, Lvov, Vilnius, Kazan and several other libraries.

All these unique collections unquestionably have considerably scholarly importance for the study of the cultural heritage of the past. However, a working and complete acquisitions policy for the latest scholarly and educational literature is the decisive and significant factor in successfully solving the university's tasks.

The university, as a peculiar "universitas litterarum," (The most typical departments in a Soviet university are the historico-philologi-
European University Libraries: Soviet Union

cal, economics, law, physics-mathematics, chemistry, and natural sciences departments. In some universities there are also departments of medicine in the old tradition.) needs a book collection of a universal nature, and it is this which determines the acquisitions policy for a university library, set up in strict conformity with the goals and plans of the research and teaching program of the university. University libraries consider the determination of their particular acquisitions policy a very serious matter. Faculty members of the various departments are called upon for advice, and the scope of acquisitions is firmly established, as a rule, by the academic council of the library and sometimes of the university.

The main acquisitions source for university libraries is the compulsory copy of any Russian book, which comes from the Central Collection Agency of Research Libraries in Moscow and comprises perhaps 25 per cent of all new additions. In the universities of the union republics, the library also receives an obligatory copy of publications in the language of the respective republic. Another acquisitions source is by purchase of literature from the republic or regional library collection agencies and similar book-selling organizations. This literature is necessary for the replenishment of the scholarly collections in the departmental libraries and for the creation of collections of textbooks. In connection with the desire of the university library to satisfy to the greatest degree possible the demands of students for textbooks and other study aids, the specific proportion of this literature in the collections is comparatively great and amounts generally to 30 per cent to 40 per cent of the new additions. The basic source for periodical literature is by means of subscription through the local offices of the 'Soiuzpechut' and to foreign literature through Mezhdunarodnaia kniga. In view of the great importance of scholarly periodical literature for research work, large amounts are allocated for its subscription, and generally the quantity of new additions comprises 15 per cent to 20 per cent of the total. Moscow University Library receives 2,200 titles of periodical publications, and Vilnius University Library receives 1,120 titles, including 448 titles from foreign countries. Exchanges occupy a definite place in the acquisitions of a university library; in recent times exchanges with foreign countries have increased substantially. Special activity in this respect is displayed by the Moscow, Leningrad, Lvov, Vilnius, Tashkent and several other libraries. Lvov University Library has exchanges with 320 foreign scholarly institutions. Moscow University Library receives

[571]
15–20,000 pieces of literature a year through international exchanges, and sends out approximately as many to foreign countries. It also sends out many books free to the libraries of under-developed countries.²⁵

All university libraries work painstakingly to build up collections. In this work, the exchange and duplicate collections of other libraries, regardless of their administrative jurisdiction, are the most important source for the removal of gaps. Thus, in the restoration of the collection of Soviet books of Vilnius University Library which were destroyed during the fascist occupation, not only Moscow University Library participated but also the Lenin State Library (Moscow), the M. E. Saltykov-Shchedrin Public Library (Leningrad) and a number of other libraries, transferring free of charge more than 150,000 volumes of valuable scholarly literature to Vilnius University. Such comradely aid was also rendered to other libraries which had suffered from the fascist occupation, and today the libraries of newly founded universities are similarly served.

To make the rapidly growing collections of the university libraries available and to give better service to readers, proper cataloging and the creation of a rational system of catalogs, embracing the entire library collection, is of the greatest importance. As is well known, classified and alphabetical catalogs are recommended as the minimum for universal libraries in the Soviet Union, a group to which university libraries belong.²⁶ For a short period of time, the subject catalog was also used. Today it finds acceptance in highly specialized libraries, but only a few university libraries (Moscow, Tiflis, Erevan) use it along with the classified catalog. The dictionary catalog, accepted in the libraries of the USA and several other countries, did not take root in Russian libraries.

In contrast to other libraries, the university library’s system of catalogs includes, besides the basic catalogs named above, a number of special catalogs—for example, a catalog of dissertations, of dissertation abstracts, of industrial standards, of atlases and maps, etc.²⁷

Besides the main library’s so-called union or general catalogs (the function of which is not only to reflect the main library’s collection but also the collections of the entire system of the university libraries), branches of the main library, departmental libraries, and the like, also have their own catalogs (alphabetical, classified, subject).

It is obvious that the creation of a harmonious system of catalogs
is especially difficult in older libraries with their huge collections and with catalogs which have grown up in the course of centuries. Through the catalogs of several of these universities (Vilnius, Leningrad, Moscow, Tartu and other universities), it is possible to study the development of catalogs for the last 100-150 years.

The finding of a book in libraries with such “museum-piece” catalog systems is becoming a very difficult job not only for the reader, but even for the librarian. This is why, in order to solve the problem of creating an efficient system of catalogs, all the older university libraries are working very hard to re-catalog their collections and to fuse all these varied catalogs into a single union catalog.

One of the problems, which is being solved today by the Soviet Union’s university libraries along with the intensive effort to perfect their catalogs, is the problem of developing a unified scientific scheme of bibliographical classification. Today the classified catalogs and library cards of these libraries are produced according to various rules. Most of them use the Soviet version, by L. N. Tropovskii and N. V. Rusinov, of the International Decimal Classification (as at Vilnius, Dnepropetrovsk, Kazakh, Kirghiz, and other universities). The universities of Moscow, Leningrad, Rostov and several others use different variations of the new system, worked out by the Lenin State Library; and a large group of libraries use systems worked out by themselves. Work on the creation of a scientific scheme of library classification is coming to an end. In this task, the university libraries participate with the libraries of all systems.

Reader Services

The majority of university libraries begin their reports with a section on service to readers, and this has its own special meaning. In the work of the Soviet university library, the reader stands first and foremost. It is this philosophy which distinguishes it from the pre-revolutionary “academic” library, which was accessible essentially only to limited professorial circles and to students in but a limited way. For a library to show its best side to the reader, so that he can “see its pride and glory . . . it should not boast of how many rare books it has, how many editions of the sixteenth century or manuscripts of the tenth century there are, but how widely books are circulated among the people, how many new readers are attracted . . . ,” such were the tasks which V. I. Lenin gave the Russian library. The 1959 decree of the Central Committee of the KPSS set this task: “To ensure bring-
L. I. VLADIMIROV

ing the largest possible number of books to all readers and to make possible the free use of any library by all workers, regardless of its administrative jurisdiction. 30

Some university libraries emphatically call themselves public libraries,31 and they have the right to do so. The rich book collections of university libraries cannot be confined to the limits of the university. They are national property and must be accessible to the widest possible group of readers. This is especially important in those cities where there is no other large research library of a general nature. Therefore, in Moscow or in Leningrad, where there are so many large scholarly and public libraries, the proportion of outside readers in the university libraries is less than in the university libraries of Saratov or Vilnius (see Table 1).

TABLE I

*The Composition of Readers of Three University Libraries*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>U. of Moscow (Percent)</th>
<th>U. of Vilnius (Percent)</th>
<th>U. of Saratov (Percent)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Research and Teaching</td>
<td>11.9</td>
<td>5.2</td>
<td>6.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other University Assistants:</td>
<td>17.8</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>4.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students:</td>
<td>66.4</td>
<td>77.9</td>
<td>65.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outside Readers:</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td>14.6</td>
<td>22.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Foreign writers, even though personally acquainted with the work of Soviet university libraries, often come to false conclusions about certain privileges for groups of readers and limitations for others.32 It is true that, according to the regulations for the use of the library of an institution of higher learning,33 scholarly literature is checked out for a period of up to one month to professors, instructors, assistants, graduate students, and to members and student-members of scholarly societies, in quantities of up to fifteen volumes; to students of the upper classes, up to ten volumes; and up to five volumes to the remaining readers. However, such a gradation is completely natural and expedient. It stems from the real demand for scholarly literature by these groups. In the case of social-political literature and belles-lettres, and also periodicals, no difference is made between the separate groups of readers. In differentiating service to readers according to such classifications, the Soviet library is by no means striving
to limit the position of this or that group of readers by some sort of privilege. The main purpose of differentiating service is to create for each separate category of readers the most favorable conditions for working with the literature which it primarily needs. Thus in a student reading room the collection will consist mainly of books needed for required reading, and in a faculty reading room of research-reference literature. However, this does not mean that the student is not able to use scholarly literature. Any student, working on a course or thesis or preparing a paper for a student research conference, is able to become familiar with all the literature needed for his purposes, in whatever branch or department of the library it may be kept. The same can be said also for the outside reader, under the condition, of course, that the literature will be used for solving some sort of scholarly or technical problem, or for the purpose of raising his professional skills.

Not to limit the reader, but to entice him into reading as widely as possible—this is the task of any university library. As has already been pointed out, the number of readers in university libraries in 1961 was 292,600 people, to whom 33,700,000 books and journals were checked out.

In the libraries of Moscow University, there were more than 30,000 readers, and 5,300,000 books were checked out. The corresponding figures in other university libraries were: Leningrad, 16,800 readers and 2,300,000 books checked out; Saratov, 11,600 readers and 1,500,000 books; Vilnius, 10,000 readers and 1,300,000 books, and so forth. In visiting foreign libraries, we are always surprised at the insignificant number of readers in the university library reading rooms, especially in Western European libraries, and at the low degree of use of the collections.

The average book circulation, the main indicator of the intensity of use of the collection and, in general, of all work of the library, is significantly higher in the Soviet university library, even in comparison with our other types of libraries. Thus the average yearly issue of books or journals to one reader in the republic and regional libraries was 24 units, while in the university libraries it reached 115 units (171 in Moscow University, 136 in Leningrad, 133 in Ural, 127 in Tashkent, 125 in Vilnius, and so forth). It has been established that the rate of book turnover in university libraries is significantly higher than in the special scientific libraries and the libraries of the Academy of Sciences of the USSR.
All this testifies to the great and intensive work undertaken in the university libraries to satisfy the demands of the reader. The majority of university library reading rooms are open fourteen hours a day and even on Sundays. An increasingly wide use of open stack access to book collections is made by the university libraries, as well as other methods of getting the book to the reader. An inter-library loan system is being organized; large collections of textbooks and educational aids are being created for students (in some universities they reach 700-800,000 volumes). A great amount of attention is being given to the distribution of textbooks to night and correspondence students, and especially to students who live in other cities and are not able to use textbooks in the reading rooms during the academic year, and who thus deserve priority. To supply students of this category, a so-called correspondence lending system is widely used, i.e., sending literature by mail.37

One of the most important tasks of university libraries is bibliographical work. This work, to a greater or lesser degree, is performed by all university libraries and encompasses all areas of bibliographical activity, both bibliographical reference and informational service, both recommended reading lists and so-called systematic or scientific bibliography. Bibliographical work in all university libraries is closely tied to the teaching and research work of the university. An example of the rational organization of bibliographical service for readers can be found at Moscow University. Here a harmonious and well thought-out system of bibliographical reference service to the reader has been developed. The characteristic feature of this system is its “many-layered” structure. This service is performed by the reference sector of the research library, by the reference desks of the branch (i.e., departmental) and textbook libraries, and also by the assistants of the departmental and seminar libraries,38 since the solution of bibliographical problems is impossible without the active participation of the various departments. The bibliographical section of the research library organizes, coordinates, and methodically supervises the bibliographical activity of all the links of the far-flung network of the university’s libraries.39

It is obvious that coordination in bibliographical work is necessary not only within the university, but also even outside its confines. University libraries, as a rule, coordinate all this work with other research, public, and special libraries of the city. Leningrad can serve as an example of such coordination, where all research libraries of the
European University Libraries: Soviet Union

city are divided into subject clusters; the university library being the head library of the humanities cluster. The libraries of Vilnius, Irkutsk, Saratov, Tashkent, Tomsk and other universities also coordinate their work in the field of bibliography with other research libraries of the area. University libraries devote much attention to the creation of a bibliographical apparatus, on which the availability and quality of bibliographical service to the reader greatly depends. All libraries have a collection of reference books: encyclopedias, handbooks, national and special bibliographies, abstracts, etc. In the older universities (Leningrad, Vilnius, Tartu and others) the reference collection of the bibliographical departments exceeds 25-30,000 volumes. Card files, as a source of current information, play an important role in the bibliographical apparatus, and most important is the general card file for magazine and newspaper articles, formed mainly from printed cards published by the All-Union Book Chamber. Besides this file, all libraries maintain card files of reviews, biographical information, and the like. The rapid growth of card files puts before libraries the urgent task of using mechanical means and automation in the accumulation and selection of bibliographical information.

The university libraries not only serve university professors and students with bibliographical information, but also all who turn to the library for assistance.

Information about newly acquired literature in the library is made available by all university libraries. The most widespread form of such information is the bulletin of new additions of national and foreign literature, which is mimeographed by the libraries or reproduced by other means. (The large university libraries—Moscow, Saratov, Vilnius and others—have well-equipped photo-copy and microfilm laboratories, provided with rotoprinters, electrographic machinery, and other equipment.) Besides these regularly published bulletins of new publications, university libraries also give individual information to the separate scientific departments and laboratories about specialized new publications which interest them.

Besides the basic form of current bibliographical information shown above, university libraries also use other means to inform readers about new literature. In the inter-library loan departments, in the reading rooms, and in other parts of the library frequented by readers, displays of newly added books are organized. The libraries also use the university newspaper, radio corners in the student dormitories, and other technical means of information to disseminate news about
L. I. VLADIMIROV

new additions to the library. As another means of propagandizing books, libraries also use oral reviews, literary evenings, meetings of readers with the authors of new scholarly and literary works, and other measures for reaching large groups of people.

However, the central place in the bibliographical activity of a university library is occupied by its work in the field of subject bibliography. This work, as a rule, is closely tied with the research plans of the university, in which the library gives special attention to those scholarly themes which are supposedly the special research goals of the given university. Thus, for example, Moscow University library is compiling a bibliography of Russian and foreign literature on photosynthesis and photoperiodism, Lvov University library on the mineralogy of the Ukraine, Kazan University library on the history of the Tatar and ASSR and Tatar literature, and so forth.

University libraries often publish such bibliographical works in collaboration with other research libraries. As examples of such collaboration one can point to the bibliography “Chemistry and Chemical Processes in the Economy of Soviet Lithuania,” which was prepared by Vilnius University library and the Central Scientific-Technological library of the Lithuanian SSR, or to such a fundamental bibliographical work as “The Geology of Uzbekistan,” which was published jointly by Tashkent University library and the Academy of Sciences of the Uzbek SSR. In the large university libraries, thematic bibliographies are compiled even by the departmental subject branches of the library. Several university libraries (Irkutsk, Saratov, Tomsk) are very active in the field of regional bibliography. It is completely natural that work in the field of scientific thematic bibliography is successful only when the bibliographers work in close cooperation with the scholars.

An important contribution of university libraries to research in cultural history is in compiling bibliographies in the history of science, higher education, and of their own universities. Here the Moscow University library must be especially mentioned. Besides bibliographies of the history of the university, Moscow is pursuing such major bibliographical themes as “The Works of Russian Scientists in Physical Chemistry,” “A Bibliography of the Works of Russian Scientists in Astronomy,” etc. Such bibliographical work is also carried on by the university libraries of Vilnius, Kazan, Leningrad, Rostov, and others.

One of the objectives of university libraries in the field of scientific bibliography is the publication of guides or catalogs of the most
European University Libraries: Soviet Union

valuable individual books or manuscript collections of the library. An example of such a publication is the bibliographical index on "The Old Lithuanian Book" at Vilnius University, published by the university, which opens the richest collection of its kind in the world to the reader, or the "Description of Tadzhik, Persian, Arabian, and Turkish Manuscripts," published by the main library of Tashkent University.

It is obvious that the effectiveness of bibliographical service depends not only upon the qualifications of the bibliographers and their ability to do this work, but also to a great extent on the bibliographical training of the reader himself. Much has been done to raise the level of bibliographical knowledge among readers and to inculcate good habits. If libraries in the past limited their activity in this field to acquainting readers in a general way with the bibliographical "economy" of libraries and with the use of books, by means of lectures, discussions, and the organization of displays, today the problem of raising the bibliographical competence of readers has acquired a more organized and systematic character. The Minister of Higher and Secondary Special Education of the USSR in 1959 issued a directive "On Measures for Improving the Work of the Library" in order to organize in all educational institutions of higher learning required courses for students in library-bibliographical work. Several universities (Moscow, Saratov, Vilnius) prepared teaching aids to help the specialists who are conducting these courses. The first study guides for students have already been published.

In most universities these studies are conducted in an organized manner, and have an obvious effect. Students are systematically led to read scholarly literature, they learn to organize bibliographical sources and to use them in their studies. The purpose is not to provide the undergraduate or graduate student with a prepared list of literature on a subject, but to teach him to work independently with bibliographical sources and independently to compile such a list for himself.

The rich experience of university libraries in their many-sided activity calls for theoretical analysis and a general conclusion. In the Soviet periodical literature of librarianship, articles appear more and more often, which attempt to illuminate this or that complicated problem in the work of the library of a particular institution of higher learning. Some university libraries, such as Vilnius and Saratov, publish, albeit sporadically, their own scholarly transactions and annuals,
organize conferences, and the like. It is important to point out the traditional “Lomonosov readings” organized by Moscow University library, at which representatives of academic libraries from the entire Soviet Union appear with their reports. The series of “Accounts of the Work at the Library of Moscow University” also are a kind of scholarly series in library science.

University education in the Soviet Union is on the increase, and it is obvious that in connection with this, favorable perspectives are opening up for the greatest expansion, extension, and perfection of the many-sided work of our university libraries.

References

3. Trudy pervogo vserossiiskogo s”ezda po bibliotechnomu delu. Peterburg, 1912, p. 73.
13. Ibid., p. 43.
European University Libraries: Soviet Union


17. Pyshnova, T. P., op. cit., p. 47.


University Libraries in Yugoslavia, Czechoslovakia, Hungary, Rumania, and Bulgaria

MATKO ROJNIĆ

This study attempts to present in brief some aspects and trends in the development of university libraries in several European countries: Yugoslavia, Czechoslovakia, Hungary, Rumania, and Bulgaria. It is no easy task to cover several countries differing considerably in their geographic position and their past. These five countries stretch over a long area, from Central Europe to the southeast as far as the Balkan Peninsula, and from Czechoslovakia to Bulgaria.

A specific past is reflected in the culture of these countries, as well as in the development of their universities and their libraries. Bohemia, in the Middle Ages a country of great culture, has had a university in its capital city of Prague since 1348. In Brno, on the other hand, the university has been in existence only since 1919, and in Olomouc since 1946. The Slovak university in Bratislava, capital of Slovakia, was founded in 1919 in place of the earlier Hungarian university.

In Hungary, universities emerged in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries but were of short duration. The first of the present Hungarian universities was established in Budapest as a direct extension of the Jesuit Academy founded in Trnava in 1635, a town situated in Slovak territory but at that time under Hungarian rule. Later there were founded the universities of Szeged in 1872, of Debrecen in 1912, and of Pécs in 1922.

In the territory of present Yugoslavia, universities came into existence in a late period. In Zagreb, the capital of Croatia, the Academia

Mr. Rojnić is Director of the National University Library, Zagreb. The article was translated by Dr. Ljerka Markić-Cučuković.

[583]
MATKO ROJNIĆ

Scientiarum, a college of law and philosophy, had been in existence since 1776; out of this the university developed as recently as 1874. The beginnings of collegiate education in Serbia were marked by the establishment of a "Velika škola" (college) in Beograd in 1863, whereas the university itself was formed in 1905. The origins of the second university in Serbia, set up in Novi Sad in 1960, go back only to 1954. The Slovenes founded their university in Ljubljana in 1919 after liberation from Austria and the creation of Yugoslavia as the state of the Serbs, Croats, and Slovenes. The Macedonians, unrecognized as a nation in pre-war Yugoslavia, obtained their university in Skopje as late as 1946, in new Yugoslavia. In Sarajevo, the main city of Bosnia and Hersegovina, the first faculty was created immediately before World War II, and the university in 1946.

The origins of the university of Iași, the oldest university of Romania, go back to 1860, and the university of Bucharest was founded in 1864. At Cluj, a town which prior to 1918 belonged to Hungary, a Rumanian university came into existence in 1919, taking the place of an earlier Hungarian university.

In Sofia, the capital of Bulgaria, a college has been in existence since 1888. In 1909 it was transformed into a university. The universities and libraries of these five countries, ranging from Czechoslovakia in the north to Bulgaria and Yugoslavia in the south, developed more or less parallel with the universities and libraries of other European countries. The reform of universities which developed gradually in Europe during the first half of the last century forwarded the renovation of university libraries. As instruments of scholarship, university libraries had outgrown the university framework, thereby contributing to research work in a wider sphere.

Social changes which fostered the development of socialism in Yugoslavia, Czechoslovakia, Hungary, Rumania, and Bulgaria following the Second World War were accompanied by changes in cultural patterns and the expansion of the cultural effort onto a broader basis. New faculties were set up within the universities, and new specialized colleges were created, either as constituents of the universities or as independent institutions. The university of Zagreb, second largest in Yugoslavia after the university of Beograd, has grown into seventeen faculties, not taking into account faculties and other educational institutions of that university existing in other cities of Croatia, such as Zadar, Rijeka, Split, and Osijek. In Hungary special universities for medicine, economic sciences, agriculture, industry, and technical sci-

ences were founded. Identical or similar institutions are in existence in Rumania and Bulgaria.

Under these circumstances university libraries have become more versatile and have expanded their activities in the interests of research and cultural growth. New libraries have sprung up in support of old and new faculties. In parallel with these developments, the university libraries have established closer relationships with other libraries outside the universities. All of this in a very general sense has lent certain common features to the university libraries of these countries. Certain differences, however, are reflected, particularly in the position of university libraries toward the universities themselves, as well as in their relationship to other libraries within the university.²

YUGOSLAVIA

Until the end of World War II, university libraries were in existence only in Beograd, Zagreb, and Ljubljana.⁴ Of these three libraries, the university library of Zagreb has been subject to the greatest changes while assuming its present role of "National University Library."

Since its inception the university library of Zagreb has been affiliated with teaching. It was founded about 1607 as the library of the Jesuit Collegium and Gymnasium in Zagreb. In 1776 the library was joined to the “Academia Scientiarum,” and in 1874, following the establishment of the university of Zagreb, it became the university library. Although the library was an academic institution, it was also performing the role of a national library for Croatia as early as the first half of the nineteenth century. In 1837 it was granted the right to receive deposit copies from northern Croatia, or more exactly from that part of Croatia which, as an autonomous region, was a constituent part of Hungary. Since 1919 the library has been entitled to receive deposit copies from all of Yugoslavia, in the same manner as the national library in Beograd and the “Studijaska Biblioteka” in Ljubljana.⁵ During World War II, the university library in Zagreb separated from the university.

The national and university library of Ljubljana, founded in 1774 as the library of the Lyceuem, also developed in two directions: as an academic library and as a general public library. After the Slovenes had obtained their university in Ljubljana, the library, then called “Studijaska Biblioteka,” played the double role of a Slovene national and university library. In 1938 the library was incorporated within the university, thus becoming in name also a university library.⁶
The third in sequence, the University Library "Svetozar Marković" in Beograd, since its creation in 1921 has consistently performed the functions of a university library, in contrast to the university libraries of Zagreb and Ljubljana. This has been possible because of the existence of the national library of Serbia, also located in Beograd, since 1832.

The changes in the social pattern and legal organization of Yugoslavia which took place following the Second World War had major consequences for the development of libraries. Yugoslavia, until that time a centralist state, became a socialist federative community consisting of six republics: Serbia, Croatia, Slovenia, Bosnia and Herzegovica, Macedonia, and Montenegro.

As an immediate result of these changes there arose the problem of central libraries, in fact of national libraries, in the individual republics. The national library which was already in existence in Beograd assumed the role of a central library for Serbia; although destroyed during a German air raid in 1941, it was subsequently renovated. The university library of Zagreb, which over a long period had been performing the role of a Croat national library, was proclaimed the central library of the Republic of Croatia. The university library in Ljubljana was in the same way designated as the national and university library. In Macedonia the functions of a central library were assigned to the national library in Skopje, which had been created in 1944 following Macedonia's liberation from occupation. In Bosnia and Herzegovina, the national library of Sarajevo, set up in 1945, became the central library, whereas a central library of Montenegro was created in 1946, in Cetinje. The national libraries of all six republics receive deposit copies from all of Yugoslavia.

In this manner the problem of national libraries in Yugoslavia found its solution. Due to these circumstances the intention to establish a central national library for the whole country in addition to the national libraries of the several republics was abandoned. The only federal library institution to come into existence was the Yugoslav Bibliographic Institute in Beograd, formed in 1949 out of the Bibliographic Institute of Serbia, with the main objective of publishing the national bibliography of Yugoslavia.

Even after all these changes, the university libraries in Zagreb and Ljubljana have maintained their role as the main university libraries of their universities.

After the solution of the problem of national libraries on the level
of the republics, there emerged a second problem, that of libraries for the new universities in Skopje, Sarajevo, and Novi Sad. At all these universities there were libraries within the faculties. This condition, however, proved inadequate, and it was recognized that teaching and academic research would gain wider support from a general library. Therefore, the national library in Skopje was entrusted with the role of the main university library under the name of "National and University Library." As to the university of Sarajevo, the Library Law of Bosnia and Hercegovina of 1957 provided that the national library in Sarajevo render services to the university until the establishment of a university library. The library of "Matica Srpska," an old literary society in Novi Sad, has taken on responsibilities for the university in that city, although, as a matter of fact, it is the central library of Vojvodina, an autonomous region within the Republic of Serbia.

As a result, the roles of the national and university libraries have become interwoven in Croatia, Slovenia, Bosnia, and Hercegovina, and Macedonia, and the same thing has happened in Vojvodina with the library of "Matica Srpska." On the whole, this orientation has not affected the administrative relationships of the libraries toward the universities. The university library of Zagreb has maintained its position as an entirely autonomous institution; so have the national libraries of Sarajevo and Skopje and the regional library at Novi Sad. On the contrary, the national and university library in Ljubljana has remained incorporated within its university, thereby strengthening its position toward the university. To a certain degree this is true also of the university library in Beograd; it has intensified its functions as a public institution, although on the basis of its main tasks, rank, and objectives it has remained a university library.

In recent times new relationships have developed between the national and university libraries on the one hand and the universities on the other. These changes parallel changes in the system of management, the decentralization of administration, and the introduction of social management in the domain of economics, health services, education, culture, and science. In public service institutions, councils have been formed as organs of management. The councils of the university libraries and of the national libraries that have relationships with universities are composed of public servants, representatives of the university, and representatives of the library personnel. The responsibilities of the library councils include approval of library work plans.
and the report of the library, of the disposition and use of funds, and other important questions. Governmental bodies at the levels of the republic or the community have responsibility only for general supervision over the work of the library.

In large libraries, such as the national and university libraries, technical councils composed of representatives of the library staff have been formed in recent years. These councils function as consultative organs to the director of the library.

Simultaneously with the development of social management, there has developed the concept of the social role of libraries. On these principles is based the entire library legislation adopted in all the republics of Yugoslavia: in Bosnia and Hertsegovina in 1957, in Serbia and Croatia in 1960, Slovenia and Macedonia in 1961, and Montenegro in 1962. According to this library legislation, the national libraries, i.e. mainly the national and university libraries, in addition to their general functions as national libraries, have been entrusted also with special tasks involving inter-library cooperation within the republics, the promotion of librarianship, and the provision of support to libraries.

According to the library law of Croatia, the responsibilities of the national university library in Zagreb include the coordination of acquisition policy for foreign literature in the libraries of Croatia, the coordination of library exchanges and inter-library loans, the development of a national bibliography and union catalogs, book preservation, promotion of librarianship, and technical assistance to libraries. In compliance with its tasks on a national level, the library has been given a new name, “National University Library.”

By the very nature of things, the library legislation which was passed by the republics includes only general provisions. Therefore, it is understandable that the relationship of the main university library to the university is not defined even on the broadest lines, except in the case of the library law of Croatia which expressly states that the national university library in Zagreb is the main library for both faculty and institute libraries within the university and makes it mandatory for these libraries to cooperate with the national university library in the procurement of foreign books and periodicals.

It was anticipated that relationships between the main university libraries and the universities themselves would be settled by special regulations, primarily by the rules of individual libraries. Yet not even in that respect have adequate achievements been made. In the
1959 Rules of the national and university library in Ljubljana, it is mentioned only that the library is an independent institution of the university. Somewhat more precise are the 1961 Rules of the university library in Beograd. In addition to its other functions, the library coordinates the acquisition of foreign periodicals and more expensive works within the university and maintains a union catalog of books and periodicals for the university. The responsibilities of the national university library in Zagreb are similar, except for the provision in its Rules of 1962 that it links all the libraries within the university framework into a uniform system of cooperation.

In all national libraries having combined functions, the tasks at the national level are given priority. This was the reason for the creation of the Association of National Libraries, with temporary headquarters in Beograd. The Association includes the following members: the national library in Beograd, the national university library in Zagreb, the national and university library in Ljubljana, the national library in Sarajevo, the national and university library in Skopje, and the central national library in Cetinje. The Yugoslav Bibliographic Institute, the only institution of that type in the country, has also joined the Association.

CZECHOSLOVAKIA

Over a long period of time, the library of the ancient university in Prague held an importance quite beyond the academic framework. After World War I, in the newly created state of Czechs and Slovaks, it was named the "Public and University Library," and in 1935 it assumed the name of "National and University Library." The libraries of the universities of Brno and Bratislava were also of a broad character. The library of the university of Brno acted as the regional library of Moravia, and the university library of Bratislava was the most remarkable library in Slovakia.

During the war, while Czechoslovakia was under German occupation, the universities in Bohemia were closed. As a result, the libraries of the Czech universities found themselves administratively outside their universities. After the war the university libraries in all of Czechoslovakia detached themselves from the universities and became independent institutions, although most of them retained their traditional name of university library. In 1947, university libraries were granted legal deposit rights.

The organization of libraries has been subject to other major
changes, the greatest affecting the university library of Prague. In 1948 its Slavic department was detached to form an independent Slavic library. A year later the national department followed the same pattern and thus contributed to the creation of the national library. As a result of these changes, the national and university library in Prague adopted again the title of "University Library," although no competent decision was passed on that issue.

The changes which took place in the university libraries of Czechoslovakia were but the side-effects of a basic trend in a period of socialist development whereby libraries were expected as broadly as possible to support research, technical education, and the political education of working people. At meetings of Czechoslovak librarians, library problems were discussed in the spirit of the general trends of Communist Party development and culture. Of particular importance in this regard was the 1958 meeting of Czechoslovak librarians emphasizing the necessity of establishing a uniform system of libraries, passing a fundamental library law, and of establishing a state library for Czechoslovakia.

Prior to this the creation of a large library on the model of the Lenin Library in Moscow had been under consideration. Such a library could, however, originate within a short time only through a combination of existing libraries. Thus, in 1958, there was formed the state library of Czechoslovakia, consisting of the national library, the university library, the Slavic library, and the central economic library. Each of these libraries continues as a distinct institution within the new state library, with its own management but under the general administration of the state library.

In Brno in 1958, steps were taken toward the creation of a large state research library, into which as distinct constituents were brought the regional and university library, the state technical library, and the state pedagogic library.

The new postwar situation in Czechoslovak librarianship has its legal basis in the library law of 1959. This contains general provisions regarding libraries and makes it mandatory for libraries to form a network along two lines: according to their affiliation with central authorities and by type of library. Thus there were established networks of popular, school, and other libraries.

Faculty libraries and libraries attached to colleges are only mentioned in the law. For this reason a special Organization Act was issued, whereby each faculty must maintain a research library pri-

primarily for the use of its own teaching staff and students. The several book collections of the faculties, seminars, and institutes, in clinics and student dormitories are considered as constituents of a joint faculty library. Each faculty library is in charge of acquisitions for the constituent group, and is entrusted with the maintenance of a union catalog, the development of a bibliographic-information center, the propagation of progressive literature, in particular Soviet literature and that from other socialist countries, and the organization of the book collections of the seminars and institutes. College libraries have been charged with the same obligation. For both faculty and college libraries, there are councils which function as a link between the library and the dean of the faculty or rector, respectively. The members of the council are both teachers and students, nominated by the respective dean or rector.17

HUNGARY

The situation in the university libraries of Hungary prior to World War II was similar to that in many European countries. Libraries within the same university, even those within individual faculties, seemed to exist apart from each other, lacking relationships and cooperation. This state of affairs began to change after 1948, concurrently with instructions from the Communist Party on the development and dissemination of socialist culture. Adaptations of the objectives and procedures of libraries were instituted in order to meet new needs of scholarship and culture, and there was a gradual reorganization of the relationships between libraries within a given university. The library reforms accomplished in certain universities were of major importance because these libraries were the most remarkable research libraries of the country and therefore of importance not only for universities but also for scientific work on a wider scale. The reforms involved libraries ranging from the older universities in Budapest, Szeged, Debrecen, and Pécs, to the libraries of more recent specialized universities for medical, technical, and economic sciences, often located in older university centers.18

The reforms were channeled in two directions: toward the university as a community of faculties and institutes, and toward the needs of scholarship and culture on wider national level. On the one hand the aim was to form a uniform library network for each university, with one central university library and several faculty libraries headed by the central library. On the other hand, university libraries, which
had long functioned as public institutions, were instructed to expand their activities to meet the educational needs of wider strata of the population. In the opinion of Hungarian librarians, this orientation resulted in contradictions and proved detrimental to university libraries. Before long the prevailing opinion favored university libraries serving primarily the universities but supporting also the work of other research institutions as well as individual scientific workers and specialists. Moreover, libraries related to one university must be interconnected, but without limiting their assistance to other libraries of the country.

These fundamental concepts underlie the solution to the entire problem of university libraries. The traditional role of university libraries has been preserved, although adjustments have been made to meet the demands of learning and culture in a new era. This position was eventually expressed in the library law of 1956 and the concurrent Instructions of the Ministry of Public Education regarding the statutes of university and college libraries.

The Hungarian library law expresses only general provisions for libraries. Of particular importance, however, is the provision by which it is mandatory for administrative bodies, institutes, and accordingly also for universities, to organize library networks within their respective fields of activity.

In the Instructions of the Ministry of Public Education, the point of departure is that university libraries are fundamental to teaching and research at the university. Yet, depending on the character of their resources, they are entrusted also with other tasks on a research level, as general research libraries of a national character, as public research libraries, as deposit copy libraries, as documentation centers, etc. The university libraries administer all of the libraries of the university, coordinate acquisitions policy, accession and catalog all books, maintain a union catalog of all the libraries of the university, and conduct bibliographic and information services for the benefit of the teaching staff. In addition, university libraries are responsible for special research tasks in the fields of librarianship and bibliography, and the professional staff members of the library have an opportunity to pursue research problems within the scope of the particular library. In accordance with this widened scope, the university libraries in Debrecen, Szeged, and Pécs act as regional research libraries.

The university library holds the position of an autonomous institution within the university framework. It is assisted by the scientific

council which acts in an advisory capacity to the director of the library. The scientific council follows the development of the university library and other libraries within the university and reviews the working plans and the annual report of the library. The director of the library is chairman of the scientific council; the other members are the deputy director of the library, a representative of the chancellor's office, one professor from each faculty, and one representative each from the Party and the Youth organizations at the university. The director of the library is a member of the university board with no voting privileges.

RUMANIA

In Rumania the development of a single system of university libraries was introduced on the occasion of the reform of public education in 1948. The existing libraries of individual faculties became branches of a single faculty library which, together with the central university library, formed a unified university library. While faculty libraries are primarily meant for the teaching staff and students, the central university libraries are of a public character and, as in the case of the Hungarian university libraries, they assist other libraries in their work, particularly in the training of personnel. University libraries are entitled to deposit copies of printed materials.

The position of university libraries within the university can be judged from the situation of the central library of the university of Bucharest and the central library of the university of Cluj. University libraries are autonomous university institutions, linked to the universities through special councils. The responsibilities of the councils include examination of the report and working plans of the library, recommendations for the acquisition of periodicals and books, and decisions relating to the proper functioning of libraries in behalf of teaching and research at the university. The council consists of representatives of the university, the faculty, and the students, all nominated by the chancellor of the university.

BULGARIA

The libraries of the university of Sofia, the only complete university in the country, function as a single network. The central position in the network is occupied by the university library, the faculty libraries being considered its branches. The library board, which is an arm of the university board, consists of representatives of the six faculties of
the university, nominated by the chancellor, and responsible for co-
ordinating library activities with the teaching and research work of
the university. Special attention is given to assure that books are ac-
quired in accordance with the character of particular branch libraries.
The university library is entrusted with the acquisition of books for
all of the university's libraries; it receives deposit copies of printed
materials; and since 1956 it has organized a union catalog of books in
the libraries of the university.\footnote{Development of University Libraries}

This survey of the condition of university libraries in Yugoslavia,
Czechoslovakia, Hungary, Rumania, and Bulgaria is necessarily brief.
However, it suggests possibilities for outlining some main trends in
the development of the university libraries in these countries and for
stating some problems.

In the first place, it should be emphasized that since World War II
the university libraries of Yugoslavia and the other socialist countries
of central and southeastern Europe have strengthened their position
vis-à-vis the universities or have even discontinued administrative
links with the universities.

In the formation of new relationships between university libraries
and the universities, decisive value was placed on the service of uni-
versity libraries in behalf of the total national cultural effort, insofar
as possible, with the aim of securing broad support for scholarly work.
The universities themselves have abandoned the traditional frames
within which they had developed their research and pedagogical ac-
tivities; adjustments have been made to new demands in support of
national education and the national economic development. This trend
has contributed to the loosening of relationships between the univer-
sities and their libraries.

A consequent tendency toward closer library cooperation on a na-
tional level is evident. University libraries have not been able to
stand aside from other libraries. In view of their size and their gen-
erally good organization, they have been assigned a prominent posi-
tion in the national library network.

It is easily noticed that in Hungary, Rumania, and Bulgaria univer-
sity libraries have kept their position as constituent parts of the
universities. Both Hungary and Bulgaria already had their national
libraries; in Rumania the library of the Rumanian Academy in Bucha-
rest acted as national library until 1955, when the central state library

\[594\]
was founded in Bucharest. This was also the case in Serbia, one of the Yugoslav republics which has two large libraries in Belgrade—the national library and the university library.

Among university libraries with national and regional goals there has been, so to speak, a tendency toward greater or even complete autonomy. In the case of Czechoslovak libraries this seems to have been one reason for the complete interruption of relationships with the universities. It is true that the national university library in Prague has again become, at least in name, a university library, following the separation of the national library from it, but this has not affected the position of the largest Czechoslovak library toward its former university.

None of the national and university libraries in Yugoslavia is as independent from its university as is the case with the former university libraries in Czechoslovakia. It is incontestable that the national university library in Zagreb has become an independent institution precisely because of its national tasks, although it has retained its functions as a main university library. The national and university library in Ljubljana, on the other hand, in spite of its tasks on the national level, has continued to exist as a university institution.

Therefore, if it is certain that the relationship of the library to the university is defined by the character of the library—whether national, university or both—it is evident that other factors also may have been relevant, e.g., views on the traditional position of the library as a university institution, various concepts of the responsibilities of the university library in the fields of research and education, and the role of the university library in the national library network.

The university libraries in Hungary, Rumania, and Bulgaria hold positions within the organic system of the university and are linked with their universities through library councils. These councils are reminiscent of committees and commissions which were common in university libraries in many countries and which still exist, although perhaps in smaller number. Experiences with library committees have not always been favorable. Librarians have often pointed out that committees may hamper rather than promote the work of libraries. In Hungary, however, it is mentioned that the work of the scientific councils, the name given to library committees, has proved useful both in linking the university libraries with the universities and in linking the university libraries with other libraries of the universities. In contrast, there are statements that the existence of library boards
is not justified. It is admitted that boards were of some use in the past when book acquisition was conducted on a limited scale and the librarian was not a specialist. Today, however, it is pointed out that conferences of library councils are often a sheer formality.

Both universities and university libraries in Yugoslavia have adjusted their relationships to the new system of government in the country. Since university libraries have councils as their own organs of management, relationships between the universities and their main libraries are maintained through the medium of the library councils. The degree of dependence of the library on the university is reflected mainly in the number of university representatives on the library council. The majority of the council of the university library in Belgrade are university professors. In the councils of the national university library in Zagreb and the national and university library in Ljubljana, the representatives of the respective universities are in the minority.

Since university libraries in Czechoslovakia are under direct control of the Ministry of Education and Culture, no administrative links exist between the university libraries and the respective universities. All threads by which the university library of Prague was attached to the university have been reduced to the fact that representatives of the university, among others, sit on the advisory committee of the library.

On observing the situation from the outside, it might appear that the loosening of links between university libraries and universities resulted from the opinion that university libraries no longer provide the same broad support to teaching and research work at the university as they formerly did. This may be correct, but only to a certain point.

The university libraries of Yugoslavia, regardless of whether or not they are entirely independent institutions, have maintained their sense of responsibility to the universities. Both the national library in Sarajevo and the national library in Skopje have taken on additional responsibilities in behalf of the universities. Consequently, the changes affecting university libraries in Yugoslavia are a proof of the broadened role of university libraries beyond the university structure rather than of a diminution in the importance of the university library for the university.

Not even the radical changes which took place in the university libraries of Czechoslovakia can be interpreted as a denial of the im-
importance of university libraries in the field of teaching and research work at the university. Instead, it was felt that by serving research in general, university libraries will also serve the purposes of the universities; by serving all research workers, they serve also the professors and students of the university.

Yet, the loosening or discontinuing of links between university libraries and universities has had noticeable consequences. It is certain that the separation of the university library in Zagreb from the university administration has favored a stronger development of existing faculty libraries. At the same time, it fostered the establishment of central libraries for the faculties, old and new. Only three faculties in Zagreb, the faculty of philosophy, the faculty of sciences, and the faculty of forestry, have no separate central libraries.25

In spite of all the major or minor changes which have taken place in the university libraries of the socialist countries of central and southeastern Europe, the significance of university libraries for the universities is still remarkable. Of course, university libraries with no other responsibilities, as in Hungary, Rumana, and Bulgaria, predominantly serve the university. This is true also of the university library in Beograd. It is a matter of fact too that those national libraries in Yugoslavia which function also as university libraries have among their patrons a very large number of students. On the basis of the available data, it appears that the university library of Prague is particularly used by students, although it is a university library only in name.

It is certainly true that a library which is simultaneously a national and a university institution encounters certain difficulties in aiding the teaching and research work of a particular university as well as in performing its role as a central university library. Generally speaking, the problems of the combined national and university libraries in Yugoslavia originate from the fact that by statute these libraries are primarily national and secondarily university libraries. Consequently, the interests of university teaching and research are compelled to find their own place and solution within this wider national framework. The combined national and university libraries in Yugoslavia, like Janus, look in two directions: one face is turned to the university and its library network and the obverse toward other institutions and libraries in the particular republic.

It may be assumed that these libraries could extend more immediate support to the universities if this were their sole responsibility.
MATKO ROJNIĆ

There are, however, no apparent reasons or possibilities for a change from the present condition because of the great financial burden such a change would place on certain Yugoslav republics. In Sarajevo, according to the available data, there are no prospects for the establishment of a specifically university library, although the library law of Bosnia and Hercegovina provides that the national library in Sarajevo shall serve the university only as long as there is no university library.

The separation of the university libraries from the universities, as carried into effect in Czechoslovakia, had a particular affect on the libraries which remained within the universities. Efforts were made to overcome the gap by centralizing the library resources of the faculties and the creation of consolidated faculty libraries. A consequence of this was that certain faculty libraries created large units which paralleled existing state research libraries. This development gave rise to a new and major problem—the future coexistence of faculty and state research libraries. The consequent duplication of resources between the faculty and the state research libraries on the one hand, and the dispersed resources among the faculties on the other, still cannot so effectively serve the university as could a single, organic university library.

Recently discussions have centered on whether the university library can develop without difficulty as a universal library, or whether its resources must necessarily be directed toward a more limited scope.

In their acquisitions policy, the university libraries of Yugoslavia put emphasis on the humanities. This policy is the more understandable because the university libraries in Yugoslavia are in most instances also national libraries. The university library in Prague is oriented in its procurement of books mainly toward the social and natural sciences. The university libraries in Hungary, Rumania, and Bulgaria are guided by the university demands. Consequently, the coverage and content of acquisitions depend in general on the number and type of faculties in the university system. The older universities in Hungary, Rumania, and Bulgaria have a relatively small number of faculties. The university of Budapest consists of three faculties: political science and law, natural sciences, and philosophy. The university in Szeged also consists of three faculties, the university of Debrecen of two, and the university of Pécs of only one, law and political science.

At the end of 1959, a conference was held in Szeged on the prob-

lems of university libraries. The director of the university library in Budapest, Dr. László Mátrai, submitted a conference report on "The University and its Library" in which he stated that the library literature of the western countries frequently mentions a crisis in the university library, resulting from the ever-increasing specialization in knowledge which prevents the university library from maintaining any longer its position as a universal library. Mátrai added that the real question is not so much that of a crisis in the university library as of a deeper problem: in bourgeois philosophy the social and political sciences are not given an equal position with natural and technical sciences, and the partiality of such a concept is reflected in the university library. Nevertheless, Mátrai's discussion limited itself to a recommendation that university libraries specialize in particular branches of knowledge.27

In contrast, it was stated at the conference in Szeged that even in socialist countries there is a problem for both general and specialized research libraries. With regard to the specialization of university libraries in a limited field of knowledge, it was mentioned that specialization is in contradiction with the general character of the university library. If based on specialization, the university library would become only one of many libraries in a long chain of special libraries.28

In fact few dispute the value of the universal character of a university library, regardless of the fact that there is little possibility of paying equal attention to all branches of knowledge. There are some librarians, however, who feel that university libraries even within their general character could specialize in certain disciplines. Evidently such considerations are based on the system of coordinated acquisitions organized in German libraries.

At this point some general remarks might prove appropriate. If it is believed that the university library might specialize in one or more branches of knowledge, it is still necessary, first of all, that the library be of a good general standard. Otherwise it will be just a good special library. The specialization of university libraries is comparable to specialization in medicine; first a sound knowledge of general medicine is required, and then specialization follows. Furthermore, the distribution of special branches of knowledge among several libraries presupposes a fair number of libraries. In countries with only a limited number of general libraries, each would be assigned too many special fields, and this would not guarantee specialization. In Yugoslavia and some other small countries, the number of general libraries
MATKO ROJNIĆ

is insufficient to allow an adequate distribution of special fields of interest.

Consequently, there is still the traditional alternative between the general and the special libraries, unless small countries associate, like the Scandinavian ones, and create a coordinated program such as the "Scandia Plan." But the factors essential to such a plan do not exist equally in all geographic areas.

It is impossible to draw clear-cut limits between the general and the special libraries and to delineate their fields of interests. Dr. István Csúry, director of the university library in Debrecen, was aware of this when at the conference in Szeged, and later in a separate paper, he attempted to delineate the trends in library acquisition which might be equally acceptable to both general university libraries and to special libraries. According to Csúry, the university libraries should concentrate in their acquisitions policy on general works, publications covering interdisciplinary sciences, books for undergraduates, reference works, collected works, basic texts and standard monographs, and general periodicals; special libraries should cover modern, specialized bibliographies, basic collections of source materials, voluminous historical works, authoritative handbooks, works from the fields of auxiliary sciences, materials on the theory and methodology of science, a limited number of monographs, reference works and serials, maps, dictionaries, and eventually, and most importantly, journals.29

Csúry's attempt at a delimitation of acquisitions between general research libraries and special libraries is worth attention. However, in his statement the field of coverage for university libraries is too scanty. On the other hand, some types of publications assigned to special libraries would be equally fitting for university libraries. All that seems practicable in the coordination of acquisitions boils down to considerations relevant to the profile of the individual library and the definite establishment of some general principles for a coordinated acquisitions program.

In the universities of Hungary, Rumania, and Bulgaria, where all libraries within a university are considered to be components or branches of a single university library, all conditions for coordinated book acquisitions are met. At the conference in Szeged it was indicated, however, that provisions for the cooperation of university libraries in Hungary included in the law of 1956 are only halfway put into effect and that centralization leaves a great deal to be desired.27 In
1961 a commission in Bulgaria stated that among the libraries of the university of Sofia there was no genuine cooperation in acquisitions policy, with the exception of some libraries. There is evidence that during these last years progress has been made in inter-library cooperation. According to a report on Hungarian university libraries, the central library of each university orders all foreign and also some local books for an ever greater number of institute libraries, accessions and catalogs them, and records them in a union catalog. As pointed out earlier, the university library in Sofia orders all books for all the libraries of the university. It seems that the more liberal the acquisitions policy of coordination, the less the problems. In the opinion of Hungarian librarians, the libraries of the institutes should be responsible for selection, while central university libraries should offer general supervision and implement procurement.

Coordination of acquisitions policy among Yugoslav libraries is still only an object of aspiration. Library legislation which has been passed in certain republics includes but general provisions regarding cooperation in acquisitions policy. The library law of Croatia brings somewhat more specific provisions to bear on library coordination, particularly the procurement of foreign literature, although no mandatory measures are included. This situation is in accordance with the self-management of libraries, as enabling libraries themselves to establish patterns for mutual cooperation in the acquisition of foreign literature.

In some faculties of the university of Zagreb, the acquisition of books is channeled through the central library. Steps have been taken toward a coordinated acquisitions policy for foreign literature in Croatia. In December 1963, a committee was formed for that purpose at the national university library in Zagreb, with representatives of the council for scientific work of the Republic of Croatia, the Yugoslav academy of sciences and arts in Zagreb, the university, the national university library, and the research libraries in Rijeka and Split. First attention will be given to foreign periodicals for a variety of reasons.

In Czechoslovakia there are considerable difficulties in the way of organizing inter-library cooperation in book acquisitions. A coordinated acquisitions policy is provided for the faculties by the very fact that all libraries of a particular faculty form a single library network. The chief problem, however, is how to achieve coordination among faculty libraries and state scientific libraries, in fact among libraries
MATKO ROJNIĆ

of two different networks. For the time being, a coordinated acquisitions policy is practiced between the state library in Prague and some special libraries. Judging from the writings of Czech librarians, the outlines of such a cooperation on a wider scale cannot yet be perceived.32

It is understood that libraries, insofar as they can, tend to organize their services for the benefit both of scholarship in general and of their particular patronage. It appears, however, that university libraries in Hungary, Rumania, and Bulgaria have been more successful in that respect than those in Yugoslavia. University libraries in Czechoslovakia need not be mentioned in this regard since only faculty libraries exist within the university framework.

As to such major enterprises as union catalogs, some results have been achieved at a few universities. In general, however, these catalogs are of a limited coverage. The university library in Budapest, for instance, maintains a union catalog of periodicals, and the university library in Szeged maintains a union catalog of books and periodicals acquired from Western countries.

In Yugoslavia, the university library in Beograd is working on the compilation of a union catalog of books in all the libraries of its university, although with considerable difficulty. The national university library in Zagreb and the national and university library in Ljubljana began compiling catalogs of foreign books published after 1918 and available in Yugoslav libraries. This was made possible because the Yugoslav Bibliographic Institute in Beograd was providing both libraries with copies of catalog cards. Recently it was recognized that the whole operation was too costly and that it was sufficient if a union catalog of foreign books and periodicals was maintained at the Institute in Beograd. The association of Yugoslav national libraries has recommended that the national libraries organize union catalogs of books in the libraries of their own republics.

Almost all university libraries are faced with space problems, whether they occupy quarters constructed for them or are accommodated in buildings which once served a different purpose. The libraries in Zagreb, Ljubljana, Beograd, Budapest, Debrecen, Bucharest, Cluj, and Sofia occupy their own buildings, which for the major part they have outgrown. The greatest problem lies in providing seating accommodations for students. Almost all the libraries express a need for more seats. It is true that the library in Cluj with a total seating capacity of 2,700 does not feel the need for new reading

accommodations. The university library in Bucharest, on the other hand, finds that it needs 500 more seats, although it offers accommodations for 2,100 readers, including the faculty libraries.

If the university libraries of these several European countries are considered in general, it is clear that their development and alteration during these last twenty years were due mainly to the importance attached to these libraries for learning in general and for national culture. Moreover, in that part of Europe the university libraries have generally been the most prominent libraries in their countries. The university library in Prague is the oldest, and with more than 2,000,000 volumes it is also the largest university library of Central Europe. The university library in Budapest, also a large institution with more than 1,000,000 volumes, possesses the richest collection of foreign scholarly literature in Hungary. The national and university libraries in Yugoslavia, together with the university library in Beograd, are by far the most important in the country. The largest of them, the national university library in Zagreb, has about 700,000 volumes.

In spite of all the changes, the university libraries continue to provide an invaluable support to university teaching and research. At the same time the university libraries in Yugoslavia are faced with an open problem: how to establish a system of cooperation among the libraries of a single university, an inherent problem so long as the university exists in the form of a community of separate faculties and institutes, each with a definite pedagogical and scholarly objective. As far as Yugoslavia is concerned, library cooperation within the framework of each university can be achieved only by recognizing the necessity for cooperation and good will, in accordance with a system of social management and respect for the autonomy of institutions. This creates problems, but not insurmountable ones.

References


3. Thanks are due the directors of these university libraries for the data supplied in answer to a questionnaire, for this survey.

4. Data on the university libraries in Yugoslavia can be found in: Actes du Comité International des Bibliothèques, and Actes du Conseil de la FIAB (IFLA Publications, 13 and following). La Haye, Martinus Nijhoff, 1949 and following;
MATKO ROJNIĆ


8. Pravila Narodne in univerzitetne knjižnice v Ljubljani. Ljubljana, s.a. (Mimeographed.)


10. Pravila Nacionalne sveučilišne biblioteke u Zagrebu. (Unpublished manuscript.)


17. Knihovník, 1961, No. 6, Prague, pp. 187-188.


20. The Instructions have been published in French translation in the supplement to Hencz, A., Ibid., pp. 19-22.


22. This short review of the university library in Sofia is based on data provided by the Library. Some idea of the activity and problems of libraries in Bulgaria is offered in the report “Pregled’ na bibliotekite pri visshtite uchebnli zavedeniya,” Bibliotekar (Sofia), No. 6, pp. 31-36, 1962.


28. Ibid.

29. Ibid.; for more details see Csüry, I. op. cit. reference 24, pp. 48-50.


Recent Developments in University Librarianship in Great Britain

R. O. MACKENNA

One of the most notable facets of the social revolution that has taken place in Great Britain in the last fifty years has been a great extension of educational opportunity, especially since the end of the Second World War. The Education Act of 1944 and the Education (Scotland) Act of 1946 made secondary education effectively available to all children, and as a result there has been an enormous increase in the number entering the senior classes of the schools.

This has inevitably had its effect on applications for admission to the universities. In 1945/46 the total number of full-time students attending universities in the United Kingdom was about 50,000—no more and no less than it had been in the last pre-war session, and very little more than in 1920/21. The pressure of ex-service demand brought a rapid expansion that reached its peak in 1949/50, when the total was over 85,000. On the analogy of experience after 1918, a significant decline could have been expected to follow. But by this time the effects of the Education Acts were beginning to percolate to university level, and the fall was both slight and short-lived: the lowest point was 50,000 in 1953/54, and the succeeding ten years have been a period of steady growth, to nearly 120,000 in the current session. It is now clear that this is merely a beginning. Next year the tidal wave of post-war births is due to break upon the universities; and only a few months ago there was published the eagerly awaited report of the Committee on Higher Education (the Robbins Report) recommending, from a formidable background of statistical analysis, a target of 350,000 university places by 1980/81. By American standards the figure is no doubt a mere trifle; nevertheless for the uni-

Mr. MacKenna is University Librarian and Keeper of the Hunterian Books and Manuscripts, University of Glasgow.

[606]
versities of Britain it represents a sevenfold expansion within the period of a single generation.

Even at this early stage in the development of British universities, their world has changed completely. Their financial dependence upon the state has grown to the point at which more than 70 per cent of their recurrent income comes from the Treasury, and some recent events have shaken confidence in the continued ability of the University Grants Committee to act effectively as a buffer against state control. Then, too, the economic and social background of the average student has greatly changed; many more come from families with no previous tradition of higher education, and much that could once be taken for granted has now to be given detailed consideration. Even the balance of studies has changed; political and economic necessities have led to a growing emphasis on science and technology, and the dominance of the liberal arts is now less marked than it was. But the biggest change of all has been the creation of many new universities. In 1945/46 there were (counting the independent university colleges) only twenty-one in the whole of Great Britain. Now there are eight more (six of them founded within the last three years), and the addition of a further six is under urgent consideration. As yet, these new institutions have been able to do little or nothing to relieve the growing pressure on their older fellows—most of them, in fact, have not yet opened their doors to their first students. But already their influence is felt in the stimulus which they have given to fresh thinking about the fundamental purposes of university education and the best methods of achieving these purposes.

So far as libraries are concerned, it is not yet possible to say much about the new universities. Problems by the thousand their librarians will have, and an account of them, and of how they are faced, should make fascinating and rewarding reading; but it will be for those who have taken part in the struggle to draft that account. The present study is concerned with the new foundations only incidentally, as they may affect the work of the existing libraries or professional thinking in general. But it should be noted at once, in passing, that they have already been the cause of one development which may have the most profound effects for all: namely, the setting-up by the University Grants Committee of a sub-committee on libraries. Although clearly inspired by motives of economy-seeking, this move has been not unwelcome to librarians, since it does at least give them the opportunity to present directly, as a body, their views on some of the
administrative problems with which they are beset, and their common need for more generous financial support.

Except on the last point, however, it may well be difficult to find a united voice with which to speak, for the university libraries of Great Britain form almost as varied a company as those of the United States. At one end of the scale are the Bodleian and University Library of Cambridge, great copyright libraries with nearly three million volumes apiece—each, moreover, supplemented by an extensive system of college and institute libraries in the same university, which absorb much of the undergraduate and teaching demand. Then there are the libraries of the four ancient Scottish universities, each with from half to three-quarters of a million volumes, rich in older books in comparison with the equally quick-growing libraries of the larger civic universities of England, with which they have much in common, and with which they can be grouped. Even within this group, however, the problems of different libraries may be very dissimilar; Edinburgh, for instance, must serve teaching departments which are widely dispersed about the city, while Birmingham finds itself the center of a relatively compact cluster, with only the Medical School at any distance. Liverpool, again, with a system of Faculty libraries, creates dispersal problems of its own.

Then there are the smaller English universities and the four colleges of the federal University of Wales, with libraries of perhaps 150,000 to 250,000 volumes, and in many cases a much more restricted range of teaching departments for which to cater—no Faculty of Medicine, perhaps, or no Law, or no Technology. Many of this group of universities have a high proportion of their students in residence; not, as at Oxford and Cambridge, in colleges, but in halls. By contrast, most students at the civic universities and the Scottish universities (other than St. Andrews) live either at home or independently in lodgings. One other major group still remains; London is quite sui generis—a complex of university colleges (each of which is in a sense a self-contained university on its own) and of specialist institutes, chiefly for post-graduate work but sometimes, as in the case of the London School of Economics, for first degree work too within their special field. Each has its own considerable library. The University of London proper, as a separate entity, comprises simply an administrative headquarters—and a University Library which was originally established chiefly for use by graduates of the University but now serves all its members, including the many thousands of students
European University Libraries: Great Britain

studying for "external" degrees, and (in the words of its present li-
brarian) "acts as a central agency to libraries of the University in
many ways." 9

Departmentalism

If, then, only one or two problems of administration are here se-
lected for discussion, it is partly because in such diversity only a
few are of common importance to all. Among such, at the present
moment, one of the most insistent is the question of departmentalism.
This has always been latent at least; expansion has brought it very
much to life, for two quite distinct reasons. There comes a point in
the growth of an academic department when its staff, because of
their number and their combined range of specialized knowledge,
begin to feel themselves a self-sufficient unit. From then onwards,
their contacts with the rest of the university, and the university's cen-
tral services, tend to weaken; and among other manifestations of the
change comes a demand for an adequate library within the depart-
ment. At the same time the central library, constrained within a build-
ing designed for the lighter and simpler pressures of earlier years,
finds it increasingly difficult both to maintain its standard of service
and to accommodate the greater demands now being made upon it.
So discontent grows in the department; and the library itself may
come to see attractive prospects of relief through decentralization.
Up till now this is a problem which has affected chiefly the older and
larger universities; but others will soon feel it too.

In all this trend the example of London is a potent influence. Lon-
don-trained scholars, used to the excellent Institute libraries, many
of which are the strongest in their own subject areas that can be
found anywhere in the country, miss them badly when they move to
other universities, and, missing them not only for their strength but
also for their convenience, tend to press for the establishment of
departmental libraries as the nearest equivalent, forgetting that the
great difference in scale may rob such a policy of all its real value.
So tense situations may develop, which are resolved perhaps more
often on the basis of personality and emotion than on that of reason;
and even where reason prevails it may lead to diverse answers be-
cause of diverse local circumstances.

One general trend is, however, becoming noticeable (although
there continue to be many exceptions to it). This is towards the sepa-
rate establishment, in some of the larger universities, of sectional
libraries in certain fields. This is commonest of all in Education, partly for special administrative reasons. Institutes of Education, combining with research functions and teaching at university level a responsibility for oversight of teachers' training colleges, have been established at many of the English universities—the Scottish system is quite different—and it has been customary for these Institutes to have their own libraries. Most usually they are administered as loosely dependent branches of the main university library; some are quite independent of it. Law, too, is a field in which it is becoming more usual to find the library detached from the central library. Cambridge has the Squire Law Library, Oxford is building a separate Law Faculty Library, Edinburgh and Aberdeen also follow this practice. Separate libraries in Medicine are almost the rule, for obvious reasons of location; separate Science Faculty libraries are not uncommon, with Oxford (the Radcliffe Science library), Manchester, and Durham among the best-known examples.

Another group of decentralized collections arises from a post-war development in methods of financing the universities—the allocation of "tied" grants to certain universities for the promotion of research and teaching departments in certain fields of study too specialized to be sought after by universities in these days without such specific encouragement, but considered for reasons of national policy to be necessary. Such grants have been made for Slavonic, Oriental, and Latin-American studies, among others, at particular universities; and while it does not invariably follow that the library will be detached, that is at least commoner than not. A somewhat similar practice is the establishment of departments purely for research, with no teaching commitments; these again are apt to set up their own libraries.

A further variant in this pattern is the establishment of departmental libraries of moderate size which duplicate, rather than substitute for, holdings of the main library. This is, understandably, to be found mainly in the larger universities; Glasgow, with ninety-two such collections, probably heads the list. There is much to be said for the system, if kept under control from the center; it provides for very necessary duplication of heavily-used material without making heavy demands on the shelf space of the main library, and it does not narrow the main library's scope.

The older and larger universities are also having to give serious thought to the possible desirability of establishing separate undergraduate libraries. Oxford, in the Radcliffe Camera, has made pro-
vision of this kind for many years; so also, in a limited way, has Glasgow, where a Reading Room for junior undergraduates was opened in 1939, with a collection of 13,000 volumes on closed reserve, and seats for 530 readers. But the new plans for the development of Leeds University include a separate undergraduate library on more generous lines, which it is hoped to complete in the later 'sixties. Others may follow suit, particularly under the pressures of the still more rapid expansion that is being asked for in the next few years; for the pattern of service suitable for a student population of 5,000 is not necessarily the best for 10,000 (the target now being aimed at by the larger civic universities for 1970). Interest in American experience, especially in such well-established buildings as those at Harvard and Michigan, is consequently widespread.

Buildings

But whatever decisions may be reached on this question, nearly every university, old or new, large or small, faces in the next few years the need for a new building, or substantial extension, for its main library. Hardly any pre-war building is in any sense adequate for the demands now being made on it; and even post-war buildings are already proving quite insufficient in size, if in no other respects, because they were nearly all designed during the lull of the mid-fifties, when it seemed that numbers had stabilized after the passing of the tide of ex-servicemen. Fortunate those, such as Birmingham, which allowed in their plans for subsequent additions to the original building! Others, which envisaged future expansion only in terms of book-stock, find themselves already in serious difficulties about accommodating readers.

For the first time in the history of university libraries in Britain, the problems of building design have presented themselves as an urgent preoccupation to a large number of librarians simultaneously—and, what is more, have done so against a background of uncertainty about future aims and requirements such as has rarely been experienced before. At the same time the financial framework within which planning must be done has become year by year more rigidly constraining as the University Grants Committee, faced with Parliamentary concern about rising costs in a sector of public expenditure exempt from the full rigors of detailed public accountability, have elaborated increasingly precise standards of permitted costs and rules of procedure for all building projects. (They do things differently...
in Eire, where Trinity College Dublin recently held an international competition for plans for the extension of its library, to which Keyes Metcalf acted as expert adviser.)

In these difficult circumstances, librarians have been at pains to pool their experience and thoughts on planning and design. The Standing Conference of National and University Libraries (SCONUL) has set up a sub-committee to work out standards which it will offer for the information of the University Grants Committee as the minimum acceptable to professional opinion; and the librarians of the seven newest universities have held a conference, to which architects also were invited, to debate the particular problems facing them in the design of buildings for their nascent libraries. It remains to be seen whether this beginning can be developed into a British equivalent of the series of Building Plans Institutes held in the United States.

Interest in developments abroad (particularly in America and in Scandinavia, where the same kind of problems have already been faced) is widespread. When SCONUL last summer held a joint meeting in Copenhagen with the Nordisk Bibliotekchefsmøde, a group of those attending took the opportunity to make a ten-day tour of libraries in Norway, Sweden, and Denmark. Many have made more prolonged individual tours of American libraries in recent years, and all have gained greatly from the experience. The American ideas which have attracted perhaps most attention are modular planning, storage libraries, and the separate undergraduate library. The last of these has already been discussed in this paper. The first storage library in this country has been set up by the University of London, on the New England model rather than that of the Midwest Inter-Library Center. The attraction of the modular idea is that it seems to offer, through adaptability of interior space, at least a partial solution to the complex of uncertainties about future developments, whether in numbers of students, methods of teaching, or the relative importance of different subject fields, under which we in Britain appear likely to have to labor for long to come. The first important British modular library has yet to be built, but more than one is in the planning stage.

**Resources**

Another important series of questions relates to provision of books. As the proportion of “first generation” students among the undergraduates increases, so does their dependence on libraries for curricular
as well as background reading. Here again British librarians are being faced for the first time with a situation that has long been familiar to their American colleagues; but because of differences in tradition, practice, and perhaps in some of the details of the general background, they have to think the answers out afresh, instead of taking the American solutions on trust, ready-made. Most British undergraduates now receive regular maintenance grants, of which a certain proportion is supposed to be used for the purchase of textbooks. But there is no machinery for ensuring that this sum is so used, and in any case it is insufficient to cover anything beyond their basic curricular requirements. Librarians are, therefore, conscious of a need to provide for undergraduate reading on a far larger scale than hitherto, but troubled on the one hand by the feeling that some books (but which?) should be left for the student to buy, and on the other by inherited inhibitions against multiplication of copies which, although unrealistic in the current situation, are still nourished by the relative stringency of their financial resources.

This dilemma has led to a number of surveys of library use, some designed specifically with this one question in mind, others of wider range, such as the very thorough investigation carried out at Leeds University in 1957, under the auspices of the Nuffield Foundation. The picture that emerged in this case was highly informative about such points as the wide subject range of reading by research workers (especially in Arts), the extent to which periodicals are used by undergraduates, and the proportion of undergraduates who make little or no use of the library. But perhaps its most interesting facet was the production of a list of all books actually used by undergraduates during the year, and the frequency of demand for each. Similar studies in other libraries might produce fruitful comparisons; but those carried out so far have been too general for this purpose, although each has helped to strengthen the case for the improvement of undergraduate reading facilities in general.

But the needs of undergraduates are not by any means the only, or even the chief, problem. Expansion of student numbers brings in its train a corresponding increase in the numbers of staff, and in the changed economic and social climate of the day, teachers too are much more dependent on the library than were those of an earlier generation, who could often rely on their own private collections for most of their needs. As each newly appointed member of staff brings with him his own special research interest, which must be catered
for retrospectively as well as currently, the cumulative burden on existing library resources is everywhere becoming almost impossibly severe.

In consequence, university librarians have become much more interested in every aspect of library cooperation. The inter-library loan system among learned libraries began nearly forty years ago as an enterprise of the Association of University Teachers; and although the National Central Library now acts as the organizing executive body, the Association still retains an interest, through a Joint Standing Committee on Library Cooperation, on which the other members come from the University and Research Section of the Library Association. The most important practical achievement of this Committee in recent years has been the establishment of a rather specialized scheme for cooperation in purchasing "background materials"—those unconsidered trifles which are overlooked when current, and become important only when the passage of centuries has converted them into primary evidence for the social and cultural history of their period. The scheme is limited to books published in Great Britain, and to the two-and-a-half centuries from 1550 to 1800. Participating libraries (which include a number of important public libraries) undertake to cover, not a particular subject area, but a particular period of years—usually a decade. Compared with the Farmington Plan, this scheme is, of course, very limited; yet it has achieved some genuine enrichment of the nation's available resources within the field which it covers, and has given useful experience in the techniques of cooperative acquisition.

There exists as yet no British equivalent of the Farmington Plan, although in the view of many librarians such a development is long overdue, and the possibilities of bringing it about are continually under discussion. The main stumbling-block (equally effective whether it be real or imaginary) is apprehension about costs, for few British librarians have any funds at all to spare after catering for the bare day-to-day necessities of their own libraries, and the possibility of persuading committees in these circumstances to authorize the setting aside of any reasonable sum for participation in a cooperative scheme for supplementary purchasing is usually thought to be very slight indeed. The general feeling is that the scheme would need to be financed by special grants from some central source, but no such source has yet been found.

There are those, too, who would altogether prefer a quite different
plan—namely, the establishment of a National Lending Library for the Humanities, like that which already exists for Science. They argue that central purchasing would cost no more than a Farmington-type plan, and that the prospect of securing the necessary funds from official sources would be much better. Moreover, they point out, such a library might perhaps be accorded the rights of copyright deposit, whereby all libraries would stand to benefit through their powers of borrowing from it—even if some restriction were to be imposed on the lending of books until several years after their publication.

This is not the place to argue the respective merits and demerits of either type of plan. The important thing is that it has come to be generally realized how woefully inadequate are our combined resources in many fields, especially where foreign publications are concerned, and that there is a widespread consciousness that something will need to be done about it—and that very soon, for the new universities will undoubtedly have to lean heavily for many years upon resources other than their own.

At the same time there is serious concern about the actual machinery for inter-library lending. Originally this business was mostly transacted through the clearing-house of the National Central Library, or through one of the Regional Bureaux which serve as its local subsidiaries. But with finding-tools such as the World List of Scientific Periodicals and the British Union Catalogue of Periodicals now available, universities generally have come to prefer dealing direct with each other (or with the National Lending Library for Science) over loans of periodicals, because of the saving of time that often results, and only the more difficult requests are now routed in the traditional way. How quickly these are satisfied depends very much on whether the work concerned appears in the still very imperfect Union Catalogue maintained by the National Central Library. If it does not, a cumbrous procedure has to be followed, involving the circulation to cooperating libraries of lists of desiderata which they are asked to check against their holdings. As the lists may well comprise two hundred or more items per week, replies are often delayed, and it is hardly surprising that the average time taken in meeting requests routed through the National Central Library is more than twice as long as for direct loans.

This fact has been used as an additional argument by those who favor the creation of a National Lending Library for the Humani-
ties, which would, like its scientific counterpart, be capable of satisfying requests directly from its own resources. But it is argued with equal force and validity that the completion of a truly comprehensive national union catalog (the nucleus for which already exists) would not only make it possible to secure comparably quick service by the traditional method, but also make available a far more comprehensive range of works, in a far greater number of copies, than any newly-established library could ever hope to acquire, however lavishly it were supported. A possible alternative method of achieving the same end has recently been suggested. This is to print, by the same kind of unconventional method as was used on the Library of Congress catalog, the catalogs of some of the larger university libraries; the necessary subsidies would be made conditional upon an undertaking to lend books on direct request from other academic institutions.

**Technical Processes**

In the field of the so-called "technical processes," there is less to comment upon. Certainly in one area of that field it is possible to discern a marked trend. More and more British university libraries have since the war decided to set up their own bookbinding departments, instead of sending out all their work to commercial binderies. The motive is not so much to affect economies as to increase convenience, and it becomes steadily more pressing as the size of research departments, and hence the demand for as nearly as possible uninterrupted access to periodicals, continues to grow. This development has sometimes been on a considerable scale; the bindery at Birmingham University Library, for instance, has been said to be among the best-equipped in the whole country.

But in cataloging and classification no great developments can be claimed, although individual librarians have undoubtedly done a lot of original thinking upon such topics, and tried some far-reaching experiments. One or two specific examples of this kind of isolated development may be indicated.

Some of the older and larger libraries, which inherited fixed-location systems of shelf-arrangement (often married to broad subject grouping), have tended, in changing to the principle of relative classification, to experiment with home-made schedules in the hope of achieving a closer correlation with the pattern of teaching in the university than is possible with any of the better-known general schemes. One such is the scheme elaborated at University College
European University Libraries: Great Britain

London from a model earlier devised at the University of Leeds. Another is in process of application at the new University of York. To what extent these experiments will prove to be of lasting value outside the particular libraries in which they were carried out is something that only time can reveal. But in a period when most of the creative theoretical study of classification is focussed upon the problems of subject indexing and information retrieval it may be salutary to have such down-to-earth reminders that the business of arranging a collection of books upon the shelves of a library, in the order that will prove most helpful for the readers who use that library, is something very different—an art rather than an exact science. Mention should also be made of the adoption of the Bliss classification in certain British academic libraries—including the University of London library and those of several of the Institutes of Education. Their experiences, in thus putting to the test of actual practice a major scheme which has been largely ignored in its country of origin, may eventually prove to be of some general importance.

In cataloging, the university libraries have even less to show. The continued faith of the more ancient among them in the book form of catalog, as opposed to cards, may be a point of some interest to American librarians at the present time, but cannot in Britain be claimed as a new trend. The extensive revision of the Bodleian catalog, reflected in successive editions of that library's cataloging rules, has been going on for too long, and is in any case too esoteric an operation, to qualify. One contribution of genuine value to the theory of the subject has indeed emerged from preliminary studies for a similar revision at Glasgow, but it stands well-nigh alone—for it is not yet possible to assess what part is being played in discussions about the revision of the Joint Anglo-American Code by the few university representatives on the British sub-committee.

Why is it that university libraries have exercised such scant influence in this field? Possibly the reason lies in the very varied histories of the British universities, or in the rugged individualism which is a national characteristic, and of which they have their full share, so that they have rarely had either the occasion or the inclination to speak with one voice. More probably it may be found in the story of their uneasy relationship with the dynamic public library movement, from which, for a complex of reasons more emotional than rational, they too long held themselves aloof, and thereby cut themselves off from the main stream of professional development. For in
Great Britain professional education was organized and supervised almost exclusively by the Library Association—the one exception, until this year, was the post-graduate diploma course of University College London—and through their withdrawal the Library Association came to be very largely dominated by public librarians. It was the latter, therefore, who showed the deepest concern to elaborate a coherent body of professional theory; the university librarians were more preoccupied with the pragmatic business of running each his own library, and the training of their talented and academically well-equipped but basically amateur staffs was conducted on the apprenticeship principle, and in general related only to the practices of the particular library concerned. This background picture is changing very rapidly—how rapidly and how completely is the subject of the next section of this paper—but the administrative stresses and strains of the coming quarter-century are likely to be equally effective in precluding any very significant contribution by university librarians to developments in the theory of cataloging and classification during that period.

*Professional Development*

Perhaps the greatest developments of all have taken place in the sphere of professional attitudes and relationships. Expansion of the existing universities and the founding of new ones have created unprecedented opportunities of promotion for established staff who are willing to move to other libraries, and an unprecedented rate of recruitment of new beginners. The consequences have been far-reaching. In the first place, the increased mobility of staff has brought variety of outlook into libraries that were mostly suffering from too much in-breeding. Many have undoubtedly felt both the immediate benefit and the stimulus to further new thinking that is generated by the clash of ideas. Moreover, there has been created a general atmosphere favorable to further deliberate interchange of ideas and experience—in short, to professional organization.

The Standing Conference of National and University Libraries (SCONUL), founded in 1950 on the model of the (American) Association of Research Libraries, was the first fruit brought to maturity in this new climate. It provided a forum in which matters of common concern to large learned libraries can be discussed by the senior officials responsible for their administration; and—even more important—it has sought from the very first to ensure that discussion is
European University Libraries: Great Britain

followed by action. The scope of its activities has been very wide indeed, omitting only questions of salaries and conditions of service (which are the concern of the Library Association and of the Association of University Teachers). Problems of continuing importance are watched over by a series of special sub-committees; among such topics are the export of books and manuscripts of historic or literary importance, cooperation in acquisition (both generally and as regards such special fields as Latin American and Slavonic Studies), the professional training of librarians, problems of preservation of books and manuscripts, palaeography and the cataloging of manuscripts, and the planning and design of buildings.

Practical work undertaken or sponsored by these sub-committees has included a number of pilot surveys of holdings in selected fields; the institution of a system of one-year apprenticeships in member libraries for students preparing to take the post-graduate diploma course at the School of Librarianship in University College London; the formulation of standards for conditions of storage of books and manuscripts; preparation of a catalog of dated manuscripts in Britain, with a list of scribes; and a catalog (by N. R. Ker, now nearing completion) of medieval manuscripts in British libraries not previously described. The Conference has also organized various short training courses each year—by courtesy of certain of its member libraries: in bibliography, in historical book-binding, in practical book-binding, and in the use of bibliographical tools in the field of science and technology. To widen the scope of book-selection, by giving academic staffs as well as librarians the opportunity to examine a wider range of foreign publications than is normally accessible in this country, the Conference has arranged, through the appropriate embassies or publishers' groups, a number of travelling exhibitions, which were put on display for about a week at a time in any university which asked to receive them.

The full importance of this flowering of cooperative activity must await assessment by observers from a more detached standpoint, who are also aided by greater opportunities for hindsight. But undoubtedly much useful work has been achieved which would not otherwise have been attempted. Moreover, it is clear that the Conference has already been accorded acceptance in official circles as a mouthpiece of responsible professional opinion on matters affecting academic libraries and librarianship; this in itself must be accounted no small gain.
It might well be thought that the emergence of this new and specialized group meant a loosening of existing links with the profession in general, organized in the Library Association, which has had its own University and Research Section since 1928. But this impression would be wrong. What has in fact occurred is not so much a transfer of function from the older to the newer body, as a successful exercise by the latter in the exploration of areas of professional interest to which the other, for various reasons, had rarely been able to give sustained attention. The University and Research Section of the Library Association is a much more heterogeneous body than SCONUL; its membership (rapidly growing, and now in the region of 2,500) includes, irrespective of grade, all members of the Association who work in national, academic, or special libraries, or who, although not thus qualified, profess an interest in the work of such libraries. Understandably, therefore, much of its most resolute and effective work has been concerned with conditions of service, including salaries. In this large and important field, and to a large extent also in the field of professional education, SCONUL has chosen not to operate.

University librarians have thus had the opportunity, and encouragement, to continue their participation in the affairs of the Library Association, and through that their links with the rest of the profession. Indeed, thanks in part to their rapidly growing numbers—each year they constitute a larger proportion of the total membership, and so speak with a louder voice that is more easily heard and taken seriously—they have come to exercise a noticeably greater influence within the Association than at any time within the last half-century. In the recent drastic revision of the Association's constitution, provision was made (among many other changes) for a standing committee of Council specifically to advise upon, and to deal with, matters affecting national and academic libraries. The cause of mutual understanding has been greatly advanced by this step; but the step itself was made possible because such understanding had already begun to develop.

Among the most important stimuli to such rapprochement has been a growing interest on the part of university librarians in formal professional education, about the need for which (especially as organized in this country by the Library Association) many of them were formerly, for various reasons, not a little skeptical. The great expansion of the universities has resulted in serious dilution among their library staffs, through the need to recruit many completely inexperi-
European University Libraries: Great Britain

cenced new members, not only to fill new posts but also to replace some of the more experienced lost on promotion to other libraries. In these circumstances the system of in-service training, upon which reliance was traditionally placed, began to be found wanting; its results were won too slowly, and the experienced cadres which alone make it possible had been too seriously weakened. At the same time, pressure began to be exerted by other elements in the Association for improvements in the examination syllabus, and signs became evident of the growth of a more liberal attitude generally to the whole question of professional education. The convergence of these two trends has not only produced a complete revision of the Association's own educational arrangements, but also the establishment, with its goodwill and encouragement, of two new post-graduate schools (at the University of Sheffield and at the Queen's University of Belfast). Perhaps (in the long run) more important still, it has created a large area of common ground upon which diverse groups within the Association can meet in harmony and with a mutual will to understanding.

Other influences too have contributed to the same end. The wider dissemination of higher education has meant that the clientèle of the public libraries now contains a greater proportion of readers with academic interests—students who cannot find room in the overcrowded university libraries, or who find it more convenient to use their local libraries in the evenings, graduates who maintain their interest in study after they have gone down, scientists and technologists in local industry. To satisfy the needs of such readers, the public libraries are more frequently finding it necessary to call on the resources of the universities through the inter-library loan system; and there has also been a greater stimulus to consider, within local groupings, some measure of cooperation in acquisitions. And so there have been more frequent contacts both in correspondence and on committees.

Interchange of staff promises to be an equally fruitful source of better mutual understanding. As yet this is confined at the professional level mainly to the brief periods of practical work which students in the library schools are required to do as part of their course. But it seems likely that in the very near future the university libraries may find it necessary to change their staffing arrangements very considerably, as the needs of teaching departments in an era of very rapid expansion make increasing demands upon a pool of highly-qualified graduates which cannot in the nature of things grow com-
mensurately. Indeed the last two annual conferences of the University and Research Section have included sessions on this problem, at which signs were discernible of a trend away from the traditional two-tier pattern of staffing (non-graduate juniors for routine work, and highly-qualified honors graduates for all professional and semi-professional duties) to something more like the German system, which would distinguish between administrative and executive levels in the professional group, and make separate provision for each. Should this trend develop, there would be much more opportunity for movement of trained librarians between one type of library and another.

The times are exciting. Accepted standards and practices, unchallenged throughout the long period of stability between the wars, are having to be abandoned, or at least thoroughly re-examined, under the fierce stresses of the current rapid expansion, which promise to become even fiercer during the next decade or so. Never has there been such scope for experiment, such encouragement to those with new ideas to try them out in practice, such need to rethink the fundamentals of the craft. From this aspect, the immediate future is one of glittering promise.

From another aspect it looks less attractive. Higher education has become one of the major political issues of the day, and the risk that crucial decisions affecting the universities may be made on a basis of political expediency, rather than on one of full and sympathetic understanding of the true nature of the case, is correspondingly increased. Moreover, the degree of expansion which is being planned must involve such a heavy increase in the total national expenditure on higher education that pressure to economize in detail is bound to become very heavy indeed. It will require immense ingenuity and unceasing effort by the universities to guard against a progressive lowering of standards.

But that, too, is a challenge and a stimulus.

References

1. Great Britain. Statutes. 7 & 8 Geo. 6, c.31.
2. Great Britain. Statutes. 9 & 10 Geo. 6, c. 72.
5. Great Britain. Committee on Higher Education. Higher Education: Report
European University Libraries: Great Britain

of the Committee appointed by the Prime Minister under the Chairmanship of Lord Robbins, 1961-63. (Cmd. 2154) October 1963, § 465, pp. 151-152.

6. Ibid., Appendix One (Cmd. 2154-1). Table 46, p. 163.


8. Ibid., p. viii.


Library Trends

Index to Volume 12

PREPARED BY FREDERIC E. MANSFIELD, JR.

A
Abstracting services in libraries, 393.

*Académies* (educational regions in France), 529-532.


Acquisition procedures in college and university libraries, 571-572, 600-602, 614-615.


Austrian National Library, *see* österreichische Nationalbibliothek.

Automation and mechanization: input, 418-421; inverted method, 414-415; non-inverted method, 415; output, 422-423; processing, 421-422; searching, 416-422.

Automation and mechanization in reference services, 385, 400, 413-424.


B
Blind children, library service, 65.


Book reviews and reviewing, reference books, 444-452.


C

Cataloging, 521-523, 537, 546-547, 572-573, 616-618.

Cataloging, use of by reference librarians, 463-464.

Catalogs, printed library, 428-429, 497, 521.

Central Association for Public Libraries (Netherlands), 148, 149.

Centralized cataloging, France, 536-537.

Certification of libraries, *see* Examination and certification of librarians.

Children's books, 16-17, 19; in Latin America, 109-110.

Children's librarians, 31, 36-37, 64-65, 66; associations, 10; education and training, 35, 97-98; recruiting and retention, 36-37; relationship with other staff members, 32-34, 42-43.

Children's library service consultants, 32-33, 40-50, 95-96, 101-104.

Children's library services, 3-118; organization and administration, 31-35, 39-51; origin and history, 6-13; phi-
INDEX

losophy, 7-9, 11-12, 14-15, 43-44; service to adults working with children, 82, 84-91; standards, 24-28, 43-44, 93, 99-100; surveys, 29-37; workshops and institutes, 89-90, 97-98.

“Children’s library services in Latin America,” M. Daniels, 106-118.

“Children’s services operating under ‘systems’ organization,” S. G. Shaw, 38-51.

Circulation systems, 516, 542.

Clubs and activities in children’s library services, 78-83.

College and research libraries, 439-440, 447.

Colleges and universities: Austria, 513-514; Bulgaria, 584; Czechoslovakia, 583; France, 528-531; Germany, 496-497, 500-501; Gt. Brit., 124-125, 127-128, 606-608; Hungary, 583-584; Rumania, 584; Scandinavian countries, 480-483; Yugoslavia, 583-584.

College and university libraries: Austria, 513-526; Bulgaria, 593-603; Czechoslovakia, 589-591, 594-603; France, 528-538; Germany, 491-509; Gt. Brit., 607-622; Hungary, 591-603; Italy, 550-557; Portugal, 545-548; Rumania, 593-603; Spain, 539-545; Scandinavian countries, 480-489; U.S.S.R., 558-580; Yugoslavia, 585-589, 594-603.

College and university libraries, divisional organization and reference services, 363-365.


Correspondence courses in librarianship: Czechoslovakia, 180-181; Poland, 190-191, 193; South Africa, 267-268; U.S.S.R., 198-199; United Kingdom, 128.

Cuerpo Facultativo de Archiveros, Bibliotecarios, y Arqueologos, 155, 540-541.

Cuerpo Auxiliar de Archiveros, Bibliotecarios, y Arqueologos, 155, 540-541.

Cuerpo Facultativo de Archiveros, Bibliotecarios, y Arqueologos, 153-156, 540.

Curricula and syllabi in education for librarianship: Argentina, 328-331; Australia, 297-299, 300; Brazil, 325; Caribbean, 344; Chile, 336-337; Colombia, 334-336; Czechoslovakia, 167-184; Egypt, 237-241; German Democratic Republic, 143-146; Iran, 242-247; Iraq, 248-249; Israel, 218-222; Japan, 282, 287; Latin America, 345-346; Mexico, 342-343; Netherlands, 149-150; New Zealand, 308-309; Peru, 337-338; Poland, 188-193; South Africa, 268; Spain, 154-157; Turkey, 206, 209; U.S.S.R., 197-201; Uruguay, 338-339; Venezuela, 339-340.

D

Daniels, Marietta. “Children’s library service in Latin America,” 106-118.

Deaf children, library service, 65-66.

Delinquent children, library service, 68-69.


Deutsche Forschungsgemeinschaft, 493, 502, 504.


Direction de l'Enseignement superieur (France), 530.

Dissertations, 427-428.

Document collections in libraries, 365-368.

Documentation centers, 394-395.

E

Education for librarianship, 121-355; Argentina, 328-331; Australia, 295-305; Bolivia, 340; Brazil, 323-328; the Caribbean, 343-345; Central America, 341-342; Chile, 336-337; Colombia, 332-338; Czechoslovakia, 166-187; Ecuador, 340; Egypt, 236-242; German Democratic Republic, 143-146; Greece, 158-165; Iran, 242-
Library Trends

247; Iraq, 247-250; Israel, 211-224; Japan, 273-293; Latin America, 322-352 (see also specific countries); Lebanon, 250-251; Mexico, 342-343; Middle East, 227-259 (see also Egypt, Iran, Iraq, Lebanon, Syria); Netherlands, 147-153; New Zealand, 306-320; Paraguay, 340; Peru, 337-338; Poland, 188-193; Portugal, 546; South Africa (Republic), 260-270; Spain, 153-157; Syria, 251; Turkey, 205-210; U.S.S.R., 194-203; United Kingdom, 123-142, 618-622; Uruguay, 338-339; Venezuela, 339-340.


European college and university libraries, 473-623; see also college and university libraries.

Examination and certification of librarians: Australia, 296-299, 301-304; German Democratic Republic, 144, 145, 146; Iran, 242; New Zealand, 308, 311-312, 313-314; Netherlands, 148; Poland, 189, 192; South Africa (Republic), 263, 268-269; Spain, 153-157; Syria, 251; Turkey, 205-210; U.S.S.R., 194-203; United Kingdom, 123-142, 618-622; Uruguay, 338-339; Venezuela, 339-340.

Exceptional children: definition, 64-65; library service to, 64-70; public schools, 64. See also specific items, e.g., Blind children.

Exhibits, library, see Library exhibits.


F

Faculty libraries in European university libraries, see Departmental libraries in European university libraries.

Film and filmsstrips in children's library services, 72-74.

Fixed location shelving, 520-521, 533, 541, 616.


G


German Research Association, see Deutsche Forschungsgemeinschaft.

Gifted children, library service to, 69.


Graduate study, 427-428, 431-432.

H


Harris, Katharine G. “Reference service in public libraries,” 373-389.


Hospitalized children, library service to, 67-68.

I

Indexing services in libraries, 394-395.

Information centers, see Documentation centers.

In-service training in librarianship, Argentina, 331-332.

Institute libraries in European university libraries, see Departmental libraries in European university libraries.


Israel Library Association, 216.
INDEX

J
Japan Library Association, 278-280.

K
Koshukais, see Short courses and workshops in librarianship, Japan.
Kunze, Horst. "Education for librarianship abroad: East Germany, the German Democratic Republic," 143-146.

L
Ladley, Winifred C. Editor of issue on "Current trends in public library service to children," 1-118.
Legal deposit libraries, 481, 514, 571, 583, 586, 589-590, 594.
Librarians, classification of, 126, 143-146, 484-485, 504-505, 525, 540-541, 556.
Library Association of Australia, 296-299, 301-304.
Library buildings, 498, 502, 541-542, 547, 611-612.
Library exhibits in children's library services, 76-78.
Library legislation, 523, 539-540, 550, 555-556, 560.
Library resources: Austria, 517-518; France, 528; Germany, 504; Greece, 158-163; Israel, 214-215; Latin America, 107, 108, 109, 114; Middle East, 229-234; Netherlands, 148; New Zealand, 306; Spain, 153; Turkey, 205; U.S.S.R., 194, 560, 570.
Library schools, 121-352; Argentina, 323-331; Australia, 297, 299-301, 304; Brazil, 323-328; Chile, 336-337; Colombia, 332-336; Czechoslovakia, 167-184; Egypt, 236-240; German Democratic Republic, 143-146; Greece, 158, 163-165; Iran, 242-247; Iraq, 249-250; Israel, 212, 214, 218-224; Japan, 276, 282-293; Latin America, 322-352 (see also specific countries); Mexico, 342-343; Middle East, 227-259 (see also Egypt, Iran, Iraq); Netherlands, 150-151; New Zealand, 310-320; Peru, 337-338; Poland, 188-193; South Africa (Republic), 261-270; Spain, 150-157; Turkey, 206-210; U.S.S.R., 195-203; United Kingdom, 123, 127-141; Uruguay, 338-339; Venezuela, 339-340.
Library schools, accreditation, United Kingdom, 135, 138.
Library services act, and children's library services, 100-101.

M
MEDLARS, 418, 420-423.
Mentally retarded and emotionally disturbed children, library service to, 67-68.
Library Trends


N

NVBF, see Nordisk Vitenskapelig Bibliotekarforbund.


Netherlands Library Association, 147, 149.


Nordisk Vitenskapelig Bibliotekarforbund, 486-489.

Numerus currens, 520-521.

O

"The Organization and origins of German university libraries," C. Wehmer, 491-512.

"The Organization and problems of university libraries in Italy," S. Gervin, 550-557.

Österreichische Nationalbibliothek, 517, 526.

P

Paper-back books, reference, 443.

"Peek-a-boo" system, 413-414, 418-419.

Photoduplication in libraries, 394, 430, 431, 434, 485, 536.

Physical education in library training: Czechoslovakia, 175, 181, 182; German Democratic Republic, 145.


Professional status of librarians, 131-132, 535.


Public schools, and public libraries, 35, 64, 69.

Public schools in Latin America, 107-108.


“The Public library serves the exceptional child,” H. K. Limper, 64-70.

“Public library services to adults working with children,” R. Warncke, 84-91.

Publishers and publishing, reference books, 437-444.

Punched cards, 413-415, 423.


R


Recordings in children's library services, 74-76.


Reference books, 437-452; definition, 437-438; reviewing, see Book reviews and reviewing, reference books.

Reference librarians, education and training, 466-467.


"Reference service in academic and research libraries," E. Moore, 362-372.


Regional libraries, 386, 407-411.

Register of chartered librarians (United Kingdom), 126, 130, 135.

"The relationship of the state library agency to public library service to children," E. Burr, 92-105.

Reprinting of reference books, 443-444.
INDEX

Reynolds, Michael M. “Interlibrary loan; a reference service,” 425-436.

S
Scandia Plan, 485-489.
Scandinavian Federation of Research Libraries, see Nordisk Vitenskapelig Bibliotekarforbund.
“Scandinavian university and college libraries,” H. L. Tveterás, 480-490.
Shaw, Spencer G. “Children’s services operating under ‘systems’ organization,” 38-51.
Short courses and workshops in librarianship: Colombia, 332-333; Ecuador, 340; Egypt, 237, 240-241; Greece, 164; Iran, 242-243, 244-245; Iraq, 247-249; Japan, 279-282, 287, 291; New Zealand, 313; Paraguay, 340; South Africa (Republic), 269-270; Syria, 251; U.S.S.R., 195.
Standing Conference of National and University Libraries, 618-620.
State aid to libraries, 380-387.
State libraries: and public library service to children, 92-105; and reference service, 407-408.

“Statewide and regional reference service,” W. J. Haas, 405-412.
Storage libraries, 612.
Storytelling, 52-63.
Student use of public libraries, 384-385.
Subject allocation among libraries, 487-488, 599-600, 614.
Subject authority lists in automation, 415-416.
Subscription books, reviews of, 447-450.
Subscription books bulletin, 446-448, 450, 452; merger with Booklist, 446-450.

T
Technical book review index, 445.
Telephone reference service, 379-380.
“Thesaurus,” see Subject authority lists in automation.
Translation services in libraries, 394.

U
Undergraduate libraries, 369-370, 610-612.
Universal Decimal Classification, 533, 541, 547.
“University libraries in Spain and Portugal,” J. Lasso de la Vega, 539-549.
“University libraries of Yugoslavia, Czechoslovakia, Hungary, Rumania, and Bulgaria,” M. Rojnii, 583-605.

V
Verein deutscher Bibliothekare, 493.
Vertical files, 385, 393.
Library Trends

W
War damage to European libraries, 497, 532, 561, 586.
Wissenschaftsrat, 493.
Workshops in librarianship, see Short courses and workshops in librarianship.
Y
This Page Intentionally Left Blank
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Volume, Issue</th>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Editor</th>
<th>Date</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>V. 1, N. 1</td>
<td>Current Trends in College and University Libraries</td>
<td>R. B. Downs</td>
<td>July 1952</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1, 2</td>
<td>Current Trends in Special Libraries</td>
<td>R. H. Henkle</td>
<td>Oct. 1952</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1, 3</td>
<td>Current Trends in School Libraries</td>
<td>Alice Lohrke</td>
<td>Jan. 1953</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1, 4</td>
<td>Current Trends in Public Libraries</td>
<td>Herbert Goldhor</td>
<td>Apr. 1953</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2, 2</td>
<td>Current Trends in Cataloging and Classification</td>
<td>Maurice F. Tauber, Ralph R. Shaw</td>
<td>Oct. 1953</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2, 3</td>
<td>Scientific Management in Libraries</td>
<td>Dorothy M. Crossland</td>
<td>Apr. 1954</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2, 4</td>
<td>Availability of Library Research Materials</td>
<td>William F. Killian</td>
<td>Apr. 1954</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3, 2</td>
<td>Services to Readers</td>
<td>Ralph H. Trotter, R. W. G. Vail</td>
<td>Apr. 1956</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3, 4</td>
<td>Current Acquisitions Trends in American Libraries</td>
<td>Robert Vosper</td>
<td>Apr. 1955</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4, 2</td>
<td>Special Materials and Services</td>
<td>Maurice F. Tauber</td>
<td>Oct. 1955</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4, 3</td>
<td>Conservation of Library Materials</td>
<td>John B. Kaiser</td>
<td>Jan. 1956</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4, 4</td>
<td>State and Provincial Libraries in the United States and Canada</td>
<td>Paxton P. Price</td>
<td>Apr. 1956</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V. 5, N. 1</td>
<td>American Books Abroad</td>
<td>Dan Lacy</td>
<td>July 1956</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5, 2</td>
<td>Mechanization in Libraries</td>
<td>Charles Bolte</td>
<td>Oct. 1956</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5, 3</td>
<td>Manuscripts and Archives</td>
<td>Peter S. Jennison</td>
<td>Jan. 1957</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5, 4</td>
<td>Rare Book Libraries and Collections</td>
<td>Howard H. Peckham</td>
<td>Apr. 1957</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V. 6, N. 1</td>
<td>Current Trends in Circulation Services</td>
<td>Wayne S. Yenawine, A. A. L. S. Committee</td>
<td>July 1957</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6, 2</td>
<td>Research in Librarianship</td>
<td>Ralph T. Esterquest, John B. Kaiser</td>
<td>Oct. 1957</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6, 3</td>
<td>Building Library Resources Through Cooperation</td>
<td>John B. Kaiser</td>
<td>Apr. 1958</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6, 4</td>
<td>Legal Aspects of Library Administration</td>
<td>John B. Kaiser</td>
<td>Apr. 1958</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7, 3</td>
<td>Current Trends in Library Administration</td>
<td>Roy B. Stokes</td>
<td>Apr. 1959</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7, 4</td>
<td>Current Trends in Bibliography</td>
<td>John B. Kaiser</td>
<td>Apr. 1958</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V. 8, N. 1</td>
<td>Current Trends in Adult Education</td>
<td>G. Walter Stone, James E. Skipper</td>
<td>July 1959</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8, 2</td>
<td>Current Trends in Newly Developing Countries</td>
<td>Vincent Duckles</td>
<td>Apr. 1960</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8, 3</td>
<td>Photoduplication in Libraries</td>
<td>Ann E. Skipper</td>
<td>Jan. 1960</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8, 4</td>
<td>Music Libraries and Librarianship</td>
<td>Vincent Duckles</td>
<td>Apr. 1960</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V. 9, N. 1</td>
<td>State Aid to Public Libraries</td>
<td>S. Janice Kee, Niels H. Sonne</td>
<td>July 1960</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9, 3</td>
<td>Current Trends in Bookmobiles</td>
<td>Helmut Lehmann- Haupt</td>
<td>Jan. 1961</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9, 4</td>
<td>Current Trends in Antiquarian Books</td>
<td>Helmut Lehmann- Haupt</td>
<td>Apr. 1961</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V. 10, N. 1</td>
<td>Future of Library Services: Demographic Aspects and Implications, Part I</td>
<td>Frank L. Schick</td>
<td>July 1961</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10, 2</td>
<td>Future of Library Services: Demographic Aspects and Implications, Part II</td>
<td>Frank L. Schick</td>
<td>Oct. 1961</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10, 4</td>
<td>Urban University Libraries</td>
<td>Frank L. Schick</td>
<td>Apr. 1962</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V. 11, N. 1</td>
<td>Library Boards</td>
<td>J. Archer Eggen</td>
<td>July 1962</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11, 3</td>
<td>Law Libraries</td>
<td>Berntia J. Davies</td>
<td>Jan. 1963</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11, 4</td>
<td>Financial Administration of Libraries</td>
<td>Ralph H. Parker, Paxton P. Price</td>
<td>Apr. 1963</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V. 12, N. 1</td>
<td>Public Library Service to Children</td>
<td>Winifred C. Ladley</td>
<td>July 1963</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12, 2</td>
<td>Education for Librarianship Abroad in Selected Countries</td>
<td>Harold Laneur</td>
<td>Oct. 1963</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12, 3</td>
<td>Current Trends in Reference Services</td>
<td>J. Clement Harrison</td>
<td>Jan. 1964</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Marzaret Knox Goggins</td>
<td>Jan. 1964</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Library Trends

Forthcoming numbers are as follows:


