

# **INSPEL**

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Comments or brief notes responding to Journal articles are welcome and will be considered for publication to the extent that space permits.

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# THE CHANGING ROLE OF SPECIAL LIBRARIES IN DOCUMENT SUPPLY

By Graham P. Cornish

**Abstract:** The role of special libraries has changed dramatically in document supply over the last few years. The nature of the documents which special libraries handle will also change as their users perceptions of their needs respond to new technological developments. Librarians will become more and more "knowledge scientists". This particular trend leads those in this situation to receive requests for appropriate data, suitable packaged, on a given topic or aspect of a topic.

## A changing world

Anyone who is working in the world of information knows that this is a rapidly changing environment. Many concepts which were formerly taken for granted are now questioned and often have to be discarded completely. Anyone preparing a manual for librarians might mark topics such as cooperation, charging, communications, the law and user expectations as headings under which major changes have taken place and where more change is almost certain to occur. Document supply is certainly one aspect of information work which has not been, and will not be, immune from these many changes<sup>1</sup>. It is, after all, the one routine in any library which is more involved with non-library procedures than any other<sup>2</sup> and therefore even more vulnerable to the many changes taking place in the world of communications and economics.

## The place of special libraries in document supply

Special libraries occupy a special place in the structure of any document supply mechanism, whether it is in a Third World situation<sup>3,4</sup> or a highly technological networked environment. Their administrative structure is different from other participants in library cooperation<sup>5</sup> schemes which are often dominated by public or academic libraries funded by government. Therefore they rarely have the same obligations (or enjoy the same privileges) as these libraries. The use of their collections may be governed by rules decided by the company or society which owns the library, not by public statute. They may have more freedom to make charges or waive

them than their publicly-funded colleagues. Even where a special library is also a government library (for example) different rules from other public libraries will apply.

It is all very well to say that special libraries occupy a special place in the *structure* of interlending and document supply but what is more important is their *function*. Special libraries have always played a major role in document supply arrangements. Even in the early days of this concept, when libraries were still trying to establish just what was meant by cooperation, special libraries were involved as an essential element. In the UK, for example<sup>6</sup>, by 1969 there were over 1,500 special libraries working with the National Central Library out of some 2,400 libraries in total. Figures for the actual numbers of requests involved are not available but it is clear that special libraries occupied a most important place in the users of this vital national (and international) interlending resource.

In the early days of interlending the function of the special library was largely one of contributor to the cooperative network. Special libraries were a resource to turn to when other major general collections failed. They were known to have very rich collections in their specialised fields and it was not thought necessary to have detailed records of their holdings. Rather the general trend was to assume that, if a work on a particular topic could not be found through the more "normal" channels then the request could be sent without further formality to a library specialising in the appropriate topic. Later in the development of library networks and union catalogues special libraries began to add their holdings to the collective records of a region, city or nation.

As the concept of library cooperation for the purposes of interlending grew, so special libraries took a more active part in developing networks. Cooperative arrangements tended to include all libraries in a scheme, not just large public ones. However, there was (and is) still some resistance of the idea of making documents available to users of special libraries, especially if they were (or are) commercial or industrial in nature. Their function was seen primarily as supplying specialised documents which other, more general, libraries did not have in their collections. In order words, they were a useful "back-up" when other sources of supply failed. As special libraries knew the needs of their clientele in more detail than large general collections could do, they often used interlending less than other libraries, relying also on other libraries in their field for specific documents.

### **Different models, different roles**

There are many different models of interlending and document supply, ranging from the highly centralised, through the partially centralised and planned but decentralised to the worst model of all - unplanned decentralisation. The role of the special library in each of these is different and needs to be recognised as such, especially as these models are themselves changing in importance and practicality. In the highly centralised model (often, if wrongly exemplified by the UK situation) there is one major supply source to which all other libraries are encouraged to apply. Only when this central source fails are the resources of other libraries called upon. In this situation the special library becomes far more dependent on the centre than it did formerly although, conversely, the centre has a better knowledge of other collections and can therefore exploit these to support its own services. However, this model discouraged, intentionally or otherwise, the use of one special library by another. The "one stop shopping" mentality tends towards all request being sent to one source. Special libraries become the supplier of the ancient, the obscure to the esoteric! In the partially centralised model there are usually a few major libraries with specialised collections, as in the German model. This is more beneficial for special libraries as they may well be associated with the subject-matter of the major collections and therefore better able to interact with that special centre (for example agricultural libraries will work the national agricultural library of their country). This is also true of the partially decentralised network although the delegated centres will probably be more on a geographical than subject basis which could mean that a particular special library will be known within a region but possibly not so well known nationally, even though it may be the best resource in its subject within the country. Of course in the totally decentralised and unplanned system the special library takes its chance with everyone else. Probably it will attract more requests than in the other models because it will at least be known as a probable source for some documents.

### **Changing models, changing roles**

This is a changing world and the models for document supply are changing as well. Library budgets continue to shrink and this means that large general collections are neither as large nor as general as they were. Libraries once tried to collect everything, at least within the parameters of their responsibilities. This was true of special libraries also who could be relied upon to have virtually everything published in their specialised field. Such is no longer the case, nor, perhaps, should it ever have been. As Michael Wills recently remarked

Almost always, gluttony in libraries is accompanied by constipation: the reluctance, or inability to discard anything. The result is a library that grows ever larger. And, historically, this was, of course, the idea. Size was the measure of quality of a library; fat was beautiful."<sup>7</sup>

Cuts in budgets mean that to achieve the ultimate goals of the UAP programme libraries must cooperate to make as many documents available to as many readers in as many places as possible. Now the dependence of the large general collection on the specialised one is less certain than it formerly was. The virtual certainty of access to a wide range of specialised material can no longer be guaranteed. At the same time the special library is required to depend more and more on the collections of other libraries, some special and some of a general nature. In those countries, such as Finland and Denmark, where libraries in different sectors had little contact for interlending purposes, the independent structures are beginning to break down and there is far more interdependence.

These changes in finances are reflected in the research which many special libraries support. No longer can scientists and academics pursue the lines of investigation which interest them without some financial justification. This means that more research is directed towards producing a meaningful product, whether it is a drug, a plant, an educational theory or a translation of an ancient manuscript. This has a profound effect on patterns of information needs in the clientele of special libraries. Their research is becoming more and more interdisciplinary and therefore their information needs become more diverse. If a special library is serving a truly research community it should never have been able to meet all their needs anyway. Researchers are working at the frontier of their field and so the librarian should never have been able to predict with certainty what their needs would be. As one Australian writer has stated.

"Collections are not built for the sake of growth - they must follow closely the needs of users and increasingly will be influenced by new technology and the increasing volume of information in non-print formats."<sup>8</sup>

### Advantages of change

The change to greater interdependence is further reflected in changing models for interlending. Older systems had to rely on a combination of union catalogues which are notorious for their inaccuracy and lack of currency, and professional knowledge of libraries in a country or region. With the development of networking and online databases the models are changing and changing rapidly. In terms of locating materials there is no longer any need for one central record of everything that is held by a group of libraries and certainly no need for a centralised collection. With ever-



increasing numbers of libraries contributing to online systems such as OCLC, the total national resource of a country can be recorded easily and efficiently and documents located in seconds. For special libraries this can mean a complete reversal in their role in the centralised model and probably a considerable change in any other model as well. Instead of being libraries of last resort to which others turn when all other sources have failed to deliver the document required, special libraries become major contributors to the whole document supply network. Their holdings are as readily accessible as those of any large public or academic library; their special collections are more widely known and their approach to efficient library services may earn them a reputation for being highly desirable sources for document supply. On the other hand, it is possible to establish the existence of the document in a smaller library which would not previously have been approached.

At the same time, joining a network gives a special library much more access to documents and information than could formerly be enjoyed. This means that the range of services offered to readers can be considerably expanded to include access to bibliographic records and documents which it may have been difficult to identify in the past. However, there are several drawbacks to this changing model of which special libraries need to be acutely aware. Some are fairly obvious but others are more subtle and need careful monitoring.

#### **Disadvantages of change**

Many smaller and specialised libraries have found that, having joined a cooperative cataloguing network, they are now supplying more documents than they request, a complete reversal of their former situation. Whilst this levelling of request traffic may seem a good thing, many libraries do not have the resources to cope with increased document supply requests and may eventually withdraw from supplying altogether<sup>9</sup>.

This latter problem has even more far-reaching effects than had been previously thought. In the USA, where OCLC acts virtually as the national database, many libraries are beginning to withdraw from national networking arrangements, because of the difficulties outlined above. A number of libraries are beginning to set up local or regional networks for their own benefit only. Whilst these networks will link into national ones, such as OCLC, for searching purposes they do not contribute to them but retain online records for carefully-defined local or sector use only. Whilst this may ensure that some document supply requests are dealt with locally, it also means that these libraries will exploit the national resource when necessary but that libraries outside their prescribed circle cannot benefit from their participation. This



not only distorts document supply patterns but also deprives the national database of valuable input from smaller libraries which may have unique records to contribute<sup>10</sup>.

Interlending and document supply are activities which consume many resources in terms of time, staff and physical material such as packaging, postal services, and other non-library items. Many smaller libraries do not have the resources to meet these requirements and offer a service which meets basic quality standards. They also have a high commitment to their users which brings into conflict the problems of material being away from the shelves when needed by users. By increasing their role as suppliers rather than users of interlending systems it may become necessary for some of them to withdraw their cooperation altogether or at least limit the part they can usefully play.

In an economic climate where charging is becoming commonplace, the special library has other problems too. On the one hand, many special libraries are not interested in charging outside users: it is often too much administrative work and too complicated to keep accounts for small payments. On the other hand, many libraries see special libraries as often having the funds to pay for document supply whereas many purely publicly-funded libraries do not have this money. In the changing world of today the attitude is changing and libraries in a commercial environment often charge quite high prices for services to outside organisations, many of whom do not have the ability to pay. At the same time the number of requests handled by a special library may be quite small which means that the revenue generated is insufficient to pay for extra resources to offer a really efficient service. Once again the special library may be caught between two different attitudes.

## **Conclusion**

The role of the special library has changed dramatically in document supply over the last few years and this role will certainly continue to evolve as libraries learn to respond to new demands. The nature of the "documents" which special libraries handle will also change as their users' perceptions of their needs respond to new technological developments. Librarians will become more and more "knowledge scientists". A knowledge scientist is not expected to provide information but to interpret it for the customer. This particular trend leads those in this situation to receive requests for appropriate data, suitably packaged, on a given topic or aspect of a topic. The resulting package may be a concoction of statistics, manipulated data, law, company information, economic projections and predictions and some documents. The knowledge scientist will be required to obtain such documents either

locally or from remote sources. The customer in this situation has little interest in where or how the document was procured so long as it supplies the needs of the time. This trend will be particularly noticeable in those areas of information provision where customers ("users") have the economic power to buy the services they perceive as necessary. Many special libraries serve just such customers and will need to respond swiftly and positively to such needs, changing once again the models and roles in document supply.

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# UNESCO'S INFORMATION CONCEPT

AR<sup>v</sup>

By Axel Plathe

**Abstract:** The present article intends to present the concept of Unesco's main programmes and activities in the information field. Information as a tool for balanced global development: this is the fundamental philosophy of Unesco's programme concerning libraries, archives, documentation centres and technical and scientific information.

## 1. Introduction

Modern societies face increasingly complex social, economic, ecological and political problems and have to continuously develop appropriate mechanisms for their analysis and solution. Specialized information in all forms play an important role in the development and adaption of these mechanisms. UNESCO, the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization, is fully aware of the decisive contribution of modern information infrastructures and systems to social and economic development and the problem of complexity and the constantly growing volume of information. Hence, as the only member of the United Nations's family, the Organization has developed an elaborate concept for its engagement in the field of scientific and technical information institutions, libraries, documentation centres, records and archives management and the interconnection of information systems at national, regional and international levels.

UNESCO's engagement in the information field is based on its Constitution which stipulates that the Organization shall:

"maintain, increase and diffuse knowledge ... by encouraging co-operation among the nations in all branches of intellectual activity ... the exchange of publications, ... and other materials of information; and by initiating methods of international co-operation calculated to give the people of all countries access to printed and published material produced by any of them."<sup>1</sup>

Based on mandate given to the Organization in its constitution, the present article intends to present the concept of UNESCO's main programmes and activities in the information field<sup>2</sup>.

## 2. Historical background

UNESCO's activities in the field of information are closely linked to the General Information Programme (PGI)<sup>3</sup>, the concept of which is integrating in a larger context the main objectives of UNISIST and NATIS as co-ordinated programmes<sup>4</sup>.

The history of PGI and its administration within UNESCO Headquarters started in 1977 when, following a decision taken by the General Conference, the Programme was established and its execution entrusted to a special division. The creation of PGI was felt necessary in order to streamline the Organisation's activities in the information field and to give it more impact in light of the changing needs of information specialists and users.

Several changes in the history of the execution of PGI within UNESCO has occurred<sup>5</sup>. The interpretation of PGI as a so-called "Transverse Programme", i.e. programme responding to the needs of all fields covered by the activities of the Organisation and co-operation more closely with other sectors - thus better serving UNESCO's principle goals - reflected, from 1990 to 1993, at least at programme level, the interdisciplinary approach of PGI. However, in the Draft Biennial for 1994/1995 (27 C/5), PGI is included in Major Programme IV "Communication in the Services of Humanity".

Since 1990, the Division of the General Information Programme forms part of the than newly created Sector for Communication, Information and Informatics (CII). This new structure aims at promoting the interactions between these three fields. It is envisaged that this structure fosters the interdependency of information, informatics and communication in order to cope with the challenges and new developments in methodologies and technologies in these fields. This approach should theoretically permit PGI to profit from achievements in the domain of communication and informatics and vice versa to contribute itself relevant elements to these fields. In particular it is envisaged to reinforce the transfer of knowledge and expertise acquired in informatics to the information field mainly as regards storage, processing, transfer and reception of information in wide and local area networks and in stand alone systems as well as benefiting from the possibilities of Open System Interconnection (OSI). Interactions with the communication domain, e.g. regarding modern telecommunication techniques for the exchange of scientific and technical data and for information training, are expected to be exploited.

### 3. Concept Development

Four basic texts pertain particularly to UNESCO's information concept and shall be considered in the following in detail. These texts are the so-called Medium Term Plans.

#### 3.1 Medium-Term Plans

Basic objectives and programme actions of PGI, as well as those of all other UNESCO Programmes, are determined in the three Medium-Term Plans, which constitute since 1977 the frameworks of the Organization's aims and activities covering a period of six years each.<sup>6</sup> A comprehensive overview on these three plans will be given in order to determine UNESCO's understanding of information and its function in international co-operation.

##### 3.1.1 First Medium-Term Plan (1977-1982)

The First Medium-Term Plan deserves particular attention representing a major theoretical approach of the goals of PGI. In the introduction to the chapter entitled "Transfer and Exchange of Information", information is understood as an "essential basis" with "crucial immediate importance"<sup>7</sup> for the progress of civilization and society and the economic and social development of people throughout the world. In this context, reference is made to the increasing relevance of information concerning the establishment of a new international economic order.<sup>8</sup> In keeping with resolutions of the General Assembly of the UN<sup>9</sup> and of the Conference on Security and Co-operation in Europe (Helsinki 1975), which stressed the importance of wider dissemination of information of all kinds among countries, particular emphasis is put on the needs of developing countries. The text also affirms the "leading role"<sup>10</sup> which the UN system is expected to play in promoting effective assignment, control and exchange of information.

Three main fields of concern are particularly stressed:

- How to gain access to information?
- How to manage information?
- How to make effective use of information resources?

In response to these basic questions, the plan proposes strategies for the "development and promotion of information systems and services at the national, regional and international levels"<sup>11</sup>. These strategies encompass collection, processing and dissemination of information in each country and information exchange among the different countries.

At national level, the five basic programme activities of PGI cover the following:

- 1) Formulation of clear information policies
- 2) Creation and strengthening of infrastructures
- 3) Establishment of special information services
- 4) Establishment of training programmes
- 5) Adoption of national standards

In order to meet such an ambitious goal that "information of every kind and from every source to be made available to all countries in the world and thereby made accessible to all potential users"<sup>12</sup>, the plan anticipates three domains of activities with a view to:

- "facilitating activities ... so as to reduce the disparition between the different countries in the world and achive a more equitable distribution of information.
- "adopting standards ... such as to facilitate information transfer.
- "establishing a machinery for communication between the different nations, regional and international systems, specialized and non specialized".<sup>13</sup>

It is worthwhile to note that one of the ultimate goals and the "raison d'être" of PGI, i.e. the creation of a World Science Information Network, stands back in favor of the achievements of more feasible results as steps towards the realization of this visionary aim.<sup>14</sup>

### 3.1.2 Second Medium-Term Plan (1984-1989)

"Information Systems and Access to Knowledge" is the title of the chapter within the Second Medium-Term Plan concerning the role UNESCO has given to information in the development process. The plan continues to underline the "ethical necessity" of free access to scientific and technical information, particularly for developing countries, and its "utmost importance in bringing about a new order based on greater fairness and mutual solidarity"<sup>15</sup>. In a more explicit way, the plan concentrates on the information needs of developing countries emphasizing the continously unequal distribution of information and the unbalanced access to it. Therefore it fosters not only the provision of information to developing countries, but also the management of information produced by developing countries.

Here, as in the First Medium-Term Plan, the reference to UNISIST is omnipresent as a basic philosophy with a view to control information in particular by means of computer technology in order to avoid "compartmentalization and disorder"<sup>16</sup>. The key word here is obviously "standardization" which ensures compatibility and



interconnection of individual information systems and is UNESCO's main concern in the information field.

The Second Medium-Term Plan stresses more explicitly as the other plans the role UNESCO has to play in the "elimination of the linguistic, legal, administrative and financial barriers that still impede the (free) flow (of information)" and in the eradication of the "root causes of inequality of access to information" which are not only of technical, but also of "economic, cultural or even political"<sup>17</sup> reasons.

The eminent political relevance of information is underlined, not only at national level, where information must be "democratized", but also at international level where the "industrialized countries at present enjoy a kind of de facto monopoly in the field of information" which risks to put developing countries in a position of "dependence on privileged suppliers"<sup>18</sup>.

The strategy of action of this plan is based on the principles of ready access to national and international information for all categories of users, taking into consideration the establishment of a flexible world network; on systematic elimination of obstacles to the free flow of scientific and technical information, availability of all normative tools and technical resources required to establish the machinery and create the framework for information processing and dissemination chiefly through the adoption of advanced computer and telecommunication technology.

The objective of this major programme of UNESCO is to "facilitate general access to information, to promote the free flow of information and to expand the Member States to exchange, store and use the information needed for their development, principally by means of data bases"<sup>19</sup>. Three distinctive programmes have been drawn up for the attainment of this objective:

- 1) Improvement of access to information: modern technologies, standardization and interconnection of information systems
- 2) Infrastructures, policies and training required for the processing and dissemination of specialized information
- 3) UNESCO information as documentation systems and services

Different sub-programmes cover e.g. training of information personnel and users, the development of national information policies and infrastructures, activities connected to the Records and Archives Management Programme (RAMP) and improved access to documents through implementation of the recommendations of the International Congress on Universal Availability of Publications (UAP) are included.

### 3.1.3 Third Medium-Term Plan (1990-1995)

The establishment of PGI as a so-called "Transverse Programme", i.e. a programme which is characterized by its theoretically close links to all activities of UNESCO, and the possibilities of contributing to their objectives in giving technical assistance in the information field did not essentially affect the orientation of the programme towards Member States. Nevertheless, this programme is distinct from the previous Medium-Term Plans in two decisive aspects: the fostering of an "integrated development"<sup>20</sup> of information infrastructures, which includes, as before, scientific and technical information services, but from now on also libraries and archives and the disappearance of UNISIST as a direct reference concept. Despite the dissipation of the appellation "UNISIST", the Plan refers to its former achievements in stating that "many (Member States) have already designed (information)-policies and have established or are in the way to establishing co-ordinating machinery for this purpose"<sup>21</sup>. In giving up direct reference to UNISIST and its global strategy, the Plan reacts to the newest trends in information handling ("information technologies"), and calls for a common approach for libraries, archives and other information services in order to ensure efficient application of these technologies.

It is in line with this development when the international approach, which culminated in the world information network project, is given up in favor of increasingly regional or subregional strategies. The fast development in micro-informatics, and the possibilities to use small or medium-size information units at relatively low costs, advances the search for smaller but nonetheless efficient solutions and concepts. Consequently, UNESCO concentrates its efforts on this planning period to follow closely the technological development, mainly in informatics, and to promote strategies and structures to be established in libraries, archives and other information institutions in Member States. The promotion of the progressive development of information systems towards self-sufficient weakens further the idea of a global information system.<sup>22</sup>

As regards concrete actions to be undertaken within the period of this Plan, emphasis is continuously given to the fostering of the conceptual and methodological framework for information services of all kind, and the training of users of information services and related technologies. As a new element, the importance of actions for assistance to libraries and records and archives management is stressed thus promoting a better balance between the different fields of information institutions.

### 3.2 Long-Term Strategic Plan for the General Information Programme

This plan, which has been in 1992 endorsed by the governing body of the General Information Programme<sup>23</sup>, contains a general strategy for PGI covering a period of

12 years i.e. two Medium-Term Plans. In its introduction, the authors of the Strategic Plan emphasize the increased necessity of sound information infrastructures in all spheres of life "regardless of national boundaries". The Plan underlines the "common goals" of information institutions and information specialists "for the whole society". In addition, the importance of "convergence between telecommunications and computers, information products and services, and information content and conduit technologies"<sup>24</sup> is stressed, thus corresponding to one of the basic philosophies of the CII Sector.

The clearly purpose-oriented strategy presents four fields of action, so-called "missions", on which PGI shall concentrate its efforts for the next twelve years to come. These missions are the following:

Mission I - Safeguarding of the Memory of the World

Mission II - Information for education and learning

Mission III - Information for human development

Mission IV - Information for environmental management

The first mission, the Safeguarding of the Memory of the World, is based on the conviction that rare and unique library and archival treasures as essential parts of mankind's collective memory, risk to be lost if the international community does not undertake collective efforts to safeguard these materials. The Plan explicitly includes administrative documents and records as important testimony of social-economic development processes, thus underlining the importance of archival materials in the information field.

In detail, the Plan foresees four fields of action concerning this first mission:

1. Sustained information campaigns in order to create awareness of the problems and devising methods to overcome them
2. Establishment of common methodologies and tools for maintenance, preservation and conservation
3. Promoting creation of national data bases for easy access to the nations recorded heritage
4. Creating legal tool in order to guarantee and regulate access to information and the uses and application of information technologies.

The second mission, "Information for education and learning", is mainly conceived in order to strengthen the role of libraries, archives and other information services on all levels of the educational process. These institutions are considered as partners of

educational institutions in the struggle against illiteracy, and for the promotion of human rights and ideas in favor of peace, democracy and intellectual freedom<sup>25</sup>.

The following fields of action are covered:

1. The promotion of the development of information institutions "to become educational centres able to provide assistance to individuals and groups in the learning process and their problem solving"<sup>26</sup>
2. The encouragement of a more important role of information institutions in continuing education
3. the promotion of public libraries and community libraries for transmitting "skills and values required for better living and effective behavioural change to individuals and families especially at the grass-root level"<sup>27</sup>.

The third mission, Information for human development, stresses the role of information for economic, ethical and cultural development which requires the "availability of complex and up-to-date information"<sup>28</sup>. In this context, the Plan basically refers to previous Medium-Term Plans and, indirectly, to main elements of UNISIST in developing its strategies:

1. Development of national information policies, mainly for decision-making processes.
2. Fostering of standardization and common methodological frameworks including the use of modern technologies for efficient exchange of information.
3. Creation of special decision support centres "to assist the governments and entrepreneurs to respond to economic and social changes"<sup>29</sup>.
4. Promotion of private initiatives in the information sector.

This last point deserves particular attention being a new concept in a field which traditionally is guided by state or para-state administrations. At this point, the Plan takes into account changes and evaluation of societies, particularly the "emergence of new democracies"<sup>30</sup>.

Protection of the environment is one of the "major issues facing humankind today"<sup>31</sup>. Consequently, PGI devotes in the fourth mission major efforts of its strategy planning for Information for environmental management, aware of the importance of appropriate information systems in order to support development and implementation of strategies and policies to cope with environmental questions. Two main focuses of PGI actions in the 12 years to come will be taken into consideration:

1. Promotion of establishment and improvement of national and international databases and their application for environmental policies.
2. Promotion of the use of international and global environmental data networks.

In this case, accent is put more on contents and less on methodologies which will be further developed within the framework of Mission III.

Two new fields of PGI's engagement until the first decade of the 20th century have to be retained: firstly, the safeguarding of the memory of the world which implicates complex preservation and conservation issues linked to concepts of cultural identities and cultural heritage. For the first time, PGI defines the major role it has to play in this field devoting a coherent programme to it. Secondly, a clear involvement of PGI in environmental and ecological issues in which specialized information plays an increasingly crucial role. In general, the Plan stipulates equality between the different components of the information sector, i.e., libraries, archives, documentation centres and other information institutions without giving preponderance to one of them. The archival and records management component is distinctly strengthened in all missions.

#### **4. Concept implementation**

The concrete realization of the basic concept of PGI, which is developed in the Medium-Term Plans, is presently planned as biennial workplans. In order to exemplify the implementation of the concept, the basic objectives, outputs and programme action as foreseen in the current workplan<sup>32</sup> will be concisely presented.

In general, PGI operates in varied ways: e.g. organization of consultant missions to Member States; organization of conferences, seminars, colloquia, expert meetings etc.; publication of manuals and guidelines<sup>33</sup>; identification, design and implementation of projects to be funded by extra-budgetary sources; elaboration of feasibility studies for different information services; co-operation with and subventions to specialized non-governmental organization such as IFLA, ICA and FID. PGI is particularly interested in collaborating with the above NGOs which is considered of crucial importance for professional exchange and, consequently, for the relevance of PGI's and the NGOs' approach to problems in the information field.

More concretely, as regards the development of the methodological framework for the establishment and management of information resources, and the development of regional information strategies and training of information specialists, the workplan foresees activities such as:

- a) providing advisory services to Member States mainly through short-term consultant missions;
- b) continuing development of standards such as the Common Communication Format (CCF)<sup>34</sup>; the International Serial Data System (ISDS), and international standards for archival descriptions;
- c) promotion of innovative training and re-training, e.g. organization of an expert meeting in the Arab region for information training strategies, or other seminars in collaboration with IFLA; the development of computer aided instruction material; etc.;
- d) developing and fostering regional information strategies and networks, e.g. within the framework of already established regional and sub-regional-coordinating mechanisms in Latin America and the Caribbean (INFOLAC, CARSTIN), in Asia and the Pacific (ASTINFO) and in Africa (Pan African Network for Geological Information System, PANGIS); advisory services for the establishment of a certain number of national referral centres such as the Amazonian Information system and the Andean Parliament Information System.

Concerning Libraries and Documentation Units, the workplan 1992/93 emphasizes the role of libraries for literacy, education and community development and promotes, inter alia, the establishment of public libraries and community information services; the strengthening of the UNESCO network of Associated Libraries (UNAL); provision of technical support and of advisory services for the development of school university and national libraries.

In order to assist in the provision of scientific literature for universities and research, the work plan foresees technical and financial assistance for better co-ordination of book and journal donation programmes, strengthening of document delivery services and library resource sharing.

With respect to Archives, the work plan concentrates on activities related to the preservation and conservation of paper and non-paper materials mainly through advisory services; the continuation of the microfilming programme for the restitution of the archival heritage and the elaborating of studies and guidelines within the Records and Archives Management Programme (RAMP), etc.,

The overall approved budget for PGI's programme activities within the 1992/93 biennium amounts to US \$ 3.25 million.

The Long-term Strategic Plan for PGI favors the streamline of the programme implementation.<sup>35</sup>

Principally, it will concentrate on using its own resources for "catalytic, normative (including legislation) and referral or networking activities, mainly at the international level, and its operation activities will concentrate on 'upstream actions' (analytic, diagnostic and country counselling activities)"<sup>36</sup>. In addition, it will increase its co-operation with outside partners, particularly IGOs and NGOs. Priority will be given to actions in favor of the Least Developed Countries (LDCs), the region of Africa and women. If necessary, activities related to the above four missions will be given priority following the principle of rotation.

## 5. Conclusion

Information as a tool for balanced global development: this is the fundamental philosophy of UNESCO's programme concerning libraries, archives, documentation centres and technical and scientific information. The activities of the Organization in this field are basically aimed at guaranteeing free access and free flow of information between and within all countries thus contributing to the overall development of Member States. The realization of this general idea requires mainly international co-operation efforts, particularly with respect to standardization and training of information specialists and users. In addition, UNESCO, through its General Information Programme, promotes the creation of awareness of the importance of information services for general development and in decision making processes on the highest level of national administrations and governmental agencies.

It is obvious that an analysis of UNESCO's activities in the field of information has to consider the fact that these activities are influenced by the Organization's status as an intergovernmental body with its specific aims, tools of intervention and administrative procedures. In comparison to non-governmental organizations with their possibilities of rapid interventions and more punctual assistance, UNESCO's activities in the information field are of a more catalytic, but nevertheless indispensable effect.

## Notes

1. Article I. Constitution of United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization. - Paris: UNESCO (Brochure)
2. See also: Jacques Tocatlian: Information for Development. The Role of UNESCO's General Information Programme. In: *UJISLAA*, 3(1981)3 p. 146-158; Jacques Tocatlian and Abdelaziz Abid: The Development of Library and Information Services in Developing Countries. UNESCO/PGI's Role and Activities. In: *IFLA Journal* 12(1986)4, p. 280-285; Kenneth H. Robert: The General Information Programme of UNESCO. In: *IATUL Quarterly*, Vol.



3(1989), p. 165-172; John B. Rose: The UNESCO General Information Programme and its Role in the Development of Regional Co-operative Networks. In: IATUL Quarterly 3(1989)4, p. 231-245; Dieter Schmidbauer: International Library Co-operation - A summary. In: IATUL Quarterly, 3(1989)3, p. 146-152; Axel Plathe: UNESCO und Internationale Bibliotheksarbeit. In: 80. Deutscher Bibliothekartag in Saarbrücken 1990. - Frankfurt/Main: Klostermann, 1991; Jacques Tocatlán: The Future of Information in UNSECO. An Assessment of the 26th UNESCO General Conference. In: Information Development, 8(1992)2, p. 69-75. A general introduction to PGI is also given in: Review of the General Information Programme 1977-1987. A compilation of Information on its Characteristics, Activities and Accomplishments. - Paris: UNESCO, 1988 (PGI-88/WS/19).

The article does not refer to the management of information produced by and related to UNESCO itself and made available to inside or outside users through its library, archives and documentation centers. For this issue, see Sabine Glaubitz: La gestion de l'information au sein de l'UNESCO. Memoire de diplôme. - Paris. Université de droit, d'économie et de sciences sociales, 1992 (unpublished)

3. PGI is the acronym of the French version "Programme Général d'Information".
4. The official definition of UNISIST is "International Programme for the Exchange of Scientific and Technical Information". Based on a feasibility study carried out by UNESCO and the International Conference of Scientific Unions (ICSU) on the establishment of a World Science Information System, UNISIST was formally initiated in 1973 as a long-term Intergovernmental Programme. The founders of UNISIST was formally initiated in 1973 as a long-term Intergovernmental Programme. The founders of UNISIST were convinced that "specialized knowledge is an instrument of social change and provides a source of power for social and economic development" (PGI Intergovernmental Council. Second Session. Final report. - Paris: UNESCO, 1979. - p. 3 (PGI. 79/Conf. 202/Col, 13 Council/II/5)). The programme calls for "co-ordinated and sustained international action in order to facilitate transfer of scientific and technical information for the economic development of nations". The objectives of the programme are as follows:
  - Advancement and co-ordination of information sharing
  - Provision of guidance and catalytic action for the necessary development in the field of scientific and technical information
  - Facilitating the access to publish information
  - Assistance to developing countries in meeting their needs for scientific and technical information

These objectives are intended to contribute to the establishment of a flexible world network of information systems and services. In 1979 the Intergovernmental Conference on Scientific and Technological Information, UNISIST II, expanded the scope of the programme to include all scientific, technological, economic and social information useful for the development.

The creation of a universal information network as an ultimate goal of the Organization's Information activities may be considered an extremely ambitious project. However, the objective of promoting free access and free flow of information should be understood as a general vision and ultimate goal.

Until 1977, the Division of the Scientific and Technological Information/Science Sector was in charge of the UNISIST concept; The Department of Documentation, Libraries and Archives, created in 1966, was until 1977 entrusted with the elaboration of the NATIS concept, which covers the development of national infrastructure of documentation services, libraries and archives.

5. From 1977 until 1985 the Programme was executed under the responsibility of the Director of the "Bureau of Studies and Programming" which was directly attached to the Director General. From 1986 to 1989, PGI was under the responsibility of the "Office of Information Programmes and Services" within the Sector for General Programmes and Programme Support. Since 1990, the "Division of the General Information Programme" within the "Sector for Communication, Information and Informatics" executes PGI. Until 1983, PGI was included in Chapter 5 of the UNESCVO programme under Copyright, Information Systems and services, Statistics. In 1984, PGI became a so called "Major programme" under the title "Information systems and services". From 1990 to 1993, PGI was a so called "Transverse Programme".
6. First Medium-Term Plan 1977-1983, Second Medium-Term Plan 1984-1989, Third Medium-Term Plan 1990-1995.
7. Medium-Term Plan (1977-1982) - Paris: UNESCO 1977 (19 C/4 Approved), p. 319
8. Op. cit., p. 321
9. VIIth Special Session and XXXth Ordinary Session
10. Op. cit., p. 319
11. Op. cit., p. 321
12. Op. cit., p. 321
13. Op. cit., p. 321

14. The chapter "Transfer and Exchange of Information", dealing with scientific and technical information, also includes, as one of the two overall objectives the "Improvement in the collection and analysis of statistical data, and of methods, techniques, and international comparability of statistics for use in planning, research, administration and evaluation". Since activities related to statistics are not covered by PGI, this field will not be taken into consideration in the present article. It should be noted, however, that the above indicates that UNESCO has initially envisaged a broader information concept.
15. Second Medium-Term Plan (1984-1989). - Paris: UNESCO 1983 (4 XC/4 Approved), p. 157
16. Op. cit., p. 158
17. Second Medium-Term Plan (1984-1989). - Paris: UNESCO, 1983 (4 XC/4 Approved), p. 158
18. OP. cit., p. 158
19. Op. cit., p. 159
20. Third Medium-Term Plan (1990-1995) - Paris, UNESCO (25 C/4 Approved), p. 177
21. Op. cit., p. 177
22. OP. cit., p. 178
23. Intergovernmental Council for the General Information Programme, Ninth Session, UNESCO House, Paris, 16-20 November 1992
24. Draft Long-Term Strategic Plan for the General Information Programme (PGI), op. cit., p. 3
25. Op. cit., p. 6
26. Op.cit., p. 7
27. Op. cit., p. 7
28. Op. cit., p. 8
29. Op. cit., p. 8
30. Op. cit. p. 2
31. Op. cit., p. 8

32. Approved Programme and Budget for 1992-1993. - Paris: UNESCO, 1992 (26 C/5 Approved)
33. A bibliography of these publications is available. List of documents and publications of the General Information Programme and UNISIST: 1977-1983. - Paris: UNESCO, 1985 (PGI - 85/WS/7). List of documents and publications of the General Information Programme and UNISIST: Supplement 1984-1991. - Paris: UNESCO, 1991 (PGI - 91/WS/20). These bibliographies include the numerous titles published within the Records and Archives Management Programme (RAMP).
34. Common Communication Format for the exchange of bibliographical data, development within the framework of PGI (see CCF, The Common Communication Format. Second Edition. - Paris: UNESCO, 1988 (PGI - 88/WS/2))
35. Draft Long-Term Strategic Plan for PGI, op. cit., p. 9ff
36. Op. cit., p. 10

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# DESIGNING NATIONAL INFORMATION POLICIES IN AFRICA: PROCESS AND OUTPUTS

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By Kingo J. Mchombu and Katabaro Miti

**Abstract:** The paper reviews the experiences of information professionals in Eastern and Southern Africa in formulating national information policies. It is concluded that the outcome to these efforts has been minimal. A number of constraints are identified eg. narrow definition of information, lack of policy evaluation, and inability to tackle sensitive issues. A fresh start on African thinking is proposed based on a different approach which starts with asking the basic question - if a national information policy is the answer what is the question? Such self-questioning will clarify objectives and pinpoint expected outputs. Better strategies are needed to elevate information issues from a private concern of information workers to a social/public concern which deserves a place in the public policy making agenda. An important element in stategization is the inclusion of sustainability issues in the final policy output.

## Introduction

The question of national information policies in Africa, and other Third World Countries is now new. It came to the forefront in the early 70s as an aspect of UNESCO's NATIS, UNISIST, and GIP programmes. A good 18 years later, and after many conference resolutions and mission reports nothing concrete has been achieved.

A fresh start on African thinking is called for which will provide an opportunity to look at how to manage the process of designing National Information Policies (NIP). We must look for alternatives to the present approaches, in order to design relevant policies which will make an impact on the development of a vibrant information and information sector.

## A review of past experiences

A review of the recent literature on formulating national information policies in Eastern and Southern Africa (Mchombu & Miti 1992) reveals a number of interesting elements, in terms of objectives, methodological approaches/process

management, and outcomes. (Montviloff 1990, Mascarenhas 1989, Lundu 1988, Huttemann 1987, Wesley-Tanaskovic 1985).

In analysing the experiences of the various countries in information policy formulation, we found a number of common perceptions by the information professionals, namely:

1. That the information sector receives inadequate resources from government.
2. That if a policy is put in place this would enable the sector to win additional government resources and recognition both the government and the general public.
3. A common element in all the literature appears to be the call for a national organ to strengthen regulatory policies, for coordination, networking, standardisation, legal deposit, and define the responsibilities (territoriality) of existing information institutions. Such an organ, it is hoped, will help in the formulation of a national information policy and to secure adequate resources from government as soon as a policy was in place.

There has been almost a mystical belief that with an information policy in place all or most of the ills afflicting information services will disappear.

There has been a fairly uniform approach to the formulation of national information policies in Eastern and Southern Africa. This has involved first a workshop whereby the major stakeholders (National / Public and University librarians, National archivists, and the major Documentation Centres) tabled their papers, describing the problems they face and made suggestions for a national information policy. Such discussion usually culminated in the formation of a National Information Coordinating Council chartered with the responsibility of producing a policy draft and preparing plans for implementation. A major characteristic of the workshop and drafting process was that it was more of a bargaining session among the major stakeholders with each of them safeguarding its territory jealously. Financial implications were generally ignored, or treated as an overhead to be absorbed by participating organisations. In general, the tendency was to maintain the status quo rather than usher in radical change.

Given the above situation, the only major achievement of these efforts has been to create and sustain awareness among information professionals that a National Information Policy is a required input in solving the problems facing the information sector in the respective countries. However, there was no consensus on how this could be achieved.

A number of obstacles have hampered the progress towards creating a national information policy.

First is the narrow definition of information that has excluded prominent players in the information sector such as extension services, the mass media, statistical information services, and computer bureaux etc. Information was restrictively defined to mean what is handled by libraries, archives and documentation centres.

Secondly the concentration on the distribution and coordination rather than the production of relevant information products. The African predicament is strictly the lack of the right and relevant information when and where it is needed. The process should therefore have concentrated on the production oriented policies rather than the consumption / distributive policies. In general there was a high level of preference for intellectual dependency, rather than charting a path towards national self-reliance in the local production of information products.

Derived from the above factor as a third factor, namely, that most of the current information policies lead to a non-sustainable development of the information sector. Self-sustaining development of the information sector in Africa demands that (amongst other things) there are policies which foster the development and strengthening of networks of interactive and mutually supportive institutions involved in both the demand and supply side of the information sector. In other words, information policy formulation should facilitate linkages between institutions which deal with the creation of information products, and those which are involved in the consumption of these products. A lot has been written about the vicious circle syndrome which stunt the growth of information systems in Africa - Government support of information services is poor = partly because of poor funding information systems cannot develop adequate information resources to demonstrate their value to the public and government to enhance their status = the public is largely unaware of the value of information and still lacks wide information use habits = the local publishing industry fail to supply a basic minimum of required locally relevant materials because the public/government are apathetic and lack the economic means to support a viable local publishing industry. And to undergird this circle, there is poor communication (and suspicion) between all the key players, each mis-perceiving the intentions of the other parties. The major question therefore becomes at what points can this vicious circle be converted to a virtuous circle?

Fourthly, ignoring of the government's stake in the information provision in Africa which has led to the restriction of information provision in the continent eg. secrecy of government documents, and governments control of the mass media to control what can be published, censorship, the rural-urban divide in information services, the public right of access to government information, harassment of writers,



consumer information services etc. One can understand the tendency to avoid these issues in order not to get into trouble from Africa's sensitive political forces, however, it does not obscure the fact that important areas for information policy consideration are usually neglected. These issues have to be addressed before a meaningful policy can be worked out.

Fifthly, the assumption that no previous policies on information existed. There are already a set of policies on information that deal with information (whether they are good or bad is besides the point). The formulation of a national information policy has to start with the analysis and evaluation of the existing policies. After such an exercise it would have been apparent that what is needed is not a single information policy but a series of policies. It would have also been apparent that there is a necessary link between the information policies or policy with other national policies for education, industrialization and commerce, science and technology etc.

Our review of experiences on National Information Policy formulation in Eastern & Southern Africa indicates that the policy designing process has been uniform in all the countries, irrespective of any differences in political systems, and the main outcomes have been predictably identical (i.e. formation of National Information Coordinating Council). Except in one situation, (Uganda) most of these information coordinating committees have not lived up to expectations and have tended to gradually fade away.

It is not surprising that the attempt at formulating national information policies have not succeeded. To succeed it is important that there is a re-definition of information to include diverse information sources, other than print-based information services e.g. extension services, the mass media, statistical information, computer data processing etc. and bring into the process participants in these sectors.

The production component of the information policy outputs is incorporated into the process. This would involve the inclusion of publishers, booksellers, researchers and other producers/suppliers of information products in the process.

The contentious issues are tackled and included in the policy discussions; eg. censorship, harassment of writers, the neglect of the rural population, the right of the public to access government information.

A thorough analysis and evaluation of existing policies is undertaken, in order to evaluate their impact, and identify weaknesses and gaps in existing policies. This may also include abandoning the concept of a single national information policy in favour of several policies covering the different information activities/sectors. Such evaluation should be objective evaluation, rather than a subjective exercise performed

by the heads of the information units, which ends up being descriptive, defensive and lacking in depth.

### **A way forward?**

Rectifying the information policy making process in Africa by carrying out the remedial actions identified above would probably strengthen the policy making process. But would this constitute fresh thinking? We doubt it. To usher in new thinking, Africa's information professionals need, firstly to ask themselves a number of basic questions: The first and main one being: If National Information Policy is the answer, what is the question? What are they trying to achieve and why? What is the problem they are trying to solve? What are the strengths, weaknesses and threats to the three most active groups - Librarians, Archivists, and Documentalists? Given the assessment of their capabilities how best can they go about pursuing the goals they wish to achieve? Who else has similar interests/objectives?

We do not have answers to all these questions, partly because different African countries will come up with different answers. However, we shall make a number of observations which are related to the questions.

The drive to establish a National Information Policy in Africa is commendable, but it does not reflect the reality of the information situation in most of Africa. The fact is, the issue is not whether African countries should have a national information policy which in most cases they already do, but what kind of policies and programmes can stimulate the information sector to play a significant role in the national development process.

The need for an information policy is still a private concern for the information professionals. In our analysis of the experiences of countries in Eastern and Southern Africa one notable similarity among the different countries was the lack of a clear strategy on how to achieve desired objectives. This poor strategization was obvious, for example, in the failure to realise that while political information is of interest to public policy makers, scientific and technical information is not. In general, in Africa there is little widespread public interest for reading (except for exams), the public is unaware of the computer/microcomputers as a vital tool in information handling, and the problems facing publishers of books and journals are not a public concern. Add to this a high level of information illiteracy in societies which have not yet become information driven societies and you will see why information matters in general are still out of the agenda of public policy makers in Africa. The challenge is therefore how to make information a social and public concern that deserves a place on the political agenda.

In the present set up, Librarians/Archivists and Documentalists are perceived by the public as neither strong nor important and often irrelevant. Two tactical moves seem to be called for to tackle this perceived 'weakness'. First is the formation of alliances with other like-minded groups eg. Statisticians, Journalists, Educationists, Researchers, Data processing and Computer Managers etc. Some initial awareness/sensitization to the need for an information policy for the respective sectors may be necessary before some of these groups are taken on board as full participants and equal members. This can be accomplished through joint seminars, discussions and some personal selling by the initiating group of information workers.

Another type of alliance is with user communities, e.g. those in Science and Technology, Industry and Commerce, Research, Education/Adult Education and of course Economic Development Planning, Agriculture etc. Most African countries, already have policies for the above sectors but often their information component is very weak, or has been neglected altogether. Detailed studies of these sectors, and how an information dimension could enhance performance would seem to promise some success, especially if presented to the right person at the right time. The belief we hold is that Africa should strive for sectoral information policies rather than a single monolithic information policy, which would be too unwieldily and complex to formulate and implement.

It would be helpful also to look into the possibility of creating forums for the exchange of views between the various players in the information field in Africa. A matter which deserves critical review is the twin-phenomenon of internal polarisation and external linkages, in which leading information systems in Africa exhibit great willingness to form linkages with external partners but shy away from establishing similar linkages within their own countries. In a sense, this incongruous behaviour is encouraged and rewarded by international donor agencies, for example, recent programmes for the so-called twinning of Third World Libraries to First World ones is a typical of this phenomenon.

Another useful tactical move would be to use the media whenever public decisions are made without using adequate information pointing to the need to use such information. To point out through the media whenever there is a public concern or debate on policy issues the need to apply adequate data and information to reach high quality decisions. There is also need to identify and use sympathetic politicians and senior civil servants to consistently point out where necessary information could be had. While this might sound far fetched, it is likely to have an effect on the image people have on librarians and other information workers and their role in society.

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# EDUCATION AND TRAINING FOR INFORMATION TECHNOLOGY IN AFRICA

By L.O. Aina

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**Abstract:** Inadequate manpower has been attributed to be one of the main constraints to the use of information technology (IT) in Africa. A survey of the curricula of 10 library and information science schools reveal that only four training institutions had substantial IT content in their curricula. Two of the institutions run the programme at the master's level while the remaining two are at the bachelor's level.

Two major obstacles identified as likely to militate against the education and training for IT in Africa, are the attitude of information managers towards information technology and the prevalent brain drain to Europe, America and the Gulf, of Africa's best professionals including lecturers skilled in information technology. The study concludes that the various library associations in Africa should attract international funding for library and information science institutions to enable them strengthen this area.

## Introduction

Information Technology has been described by Debons (1986) as the technology that augments and supports the human capacity to deal with the environment. Thus technologies that are associated with information system starting with those that enable one to acquire data, transmit data, process data and communicate data constitute information technology. The need to have technologies that will support and augment the human capacity in the field of information cannot be over emphasised if one considers the rate at which information is growing. The growth is exponential, therefore human capacity alone cannot keep pace with the growth. In the industrialised world it has been possible to cope with this phenomenal growth because of the various technologies that have emerged especially those associated with information such as micro processors technology and telecommunications technology. These technologies have enabled researchers and information specialists through on-line system to gain access to information stored several kilometres away. Africa is still to exploit fully this modern technology, even the little information that is produced within Africa constitutes a big problem when it comes to access which

has resulted in many unnecessary duplication of research efforts in several disciplines.

Constraints to the use of information technology (IT) in Africa include, 1) lack of enough resources to purchase IT components 2) inadequate infrastructures necessary to support this technology and 3) lack of adequate trained manpower to use IT. Adequate manpower is perhaps the most formidable obstacle to the use of IT in Africa. According to Alabi (1987) shortage of manpower and lack of continuing education have hampered most of the attempts made at automating library services in Africa.

Except for libraries/information centres of international organisations based within Africa and libraries/information centres with substantial funding from international organisations, most attempts of IT applications have failed. None of the university libraries in Nigeria that have attempted automation since the early 1980's has successfully automated its entire library system. Mohammed (1991) surveyed the automation of academic and special libraries in Nigeria and concluded that it was still a continuous exercise as only few libraries have succeeded in automating some systems in their libraries. Enyia (1991) also examined computerisation in Nigerian libraries and found that only the international Institute of Tropical Agriculture (IITA) has succeeded in automating its entire system. Ubogu and Gupta (1987) survey of the current status of computerisation in 80 libraries, documentation and information centres in Nigeria revealed that only four of the libraries and documentation centres surveyed, had computer installations but interestingly most of the respondents fully appreciated the need to computerize the library system, although a negligible proportion was adverse to it. The same trend is perhaps prevalent in other parts of Africa.

Alabi attributed the failure of most of these libraries to the absence of theoretical frame work necessary to provide a basis for useful application and therefore called for the need to educate future information specialists in IT within the African region. This is because IT experts trained in the industrialised world, where IT infrastructures are taken for granted find it difficult to operate in an African environment where the necessary infrastructure to support the application of modern information technology are lacking. Ubogu and Gupta also identified education and manpower as one of the constraints of computer application in Nigeria.

The main objectives of this study are to identify information/library training schools in the English speaking sub-saharan Africa that cover a substantial IT content in their curricula, based on the course content for IT recommended by the Institute of the Information scientists in 1988 and also to ascertain the proportion of IT courses



covered and finally to recommend how the education and training for IT can be enhanced in Africa.

### **Education and Training for IT in Africa - A State of the Art**

Up till the late 1980's there was no institution for education and training for IT in Africa, what existed in most curricula was largely introductory computer technology. Thus up to that time, the few information professionals in Africa with skills in information technology were trained abroad. However as information continued to expand not only in the developed world but also in Africa coupled with the fact that access to the literature in Africa was becoming a difficult task, it was realised that in Africa were to cope with information explosion then the need to train people locally to effect the necessary changes will constitute a crucial phase in the application of IT in Africa.

The first attempt at addressing this issue was in 1983 when the International Development Research Centre (IDRC) based in Canada and the Unesco made an exploratory tour of eight potential centres for the training of information professionals with skills in IT in six countries of Africa (Ethiopia, Ghana, Kenya, Nigeria, Zambia and Zimbabwe). The aim of the exploratory visits was to identify a training institution in Africa for the purpose of training information scientists locally in Africa. At the end of the visits two schools were recommended as training institutions for information specialists with IT component. These are the Africa Regional Centre for Information science (ARCIS) located in Ibadan, Nigeria to cater mainly for West African students and the School for Information Studies for Africa (SISA), Addis-Ababa, Ethiopia focusing mainly on the Eastern and Southern African students. The two schools admitted their first set of students at the beginning of the 1990/91 session. Both are postgraduate programmes, while the duration of ARCIS programme is 18 months, SISA programme lasts for two years. On graduation students are awarded a master's degree in information science. The first set of graduates of the two schools has since been produced. Meanwhile the Faculty of Information sciences, Moi University, Kenya admitted its first set of students at the undergraduate level in 1988. Some of the students specialise in Information Technology and the school has also produced its first set of graduates.

At the conference of the Nigerian Library schools held in Ibadan in 1988, one of the resolutions of the conference was that library schools in Africa should include substantial content of IT in their curricula. It is therefore not surprising that the Department of Library Studies, University of Ibadan, Nigeria restructured its curriculum to include the IT component hence the name of the Department was broadened to the Department of Library, Archives and Information Studies and it

extended its one year master's programme to 18 months. This was to ensure that adequate period of time was devoted to the IT courses. The same trend was also observed at the Department of Library studies, University of Botswana, when according to Havard-Williams (1989) the curriculum of the Department was restructured to include IT courses and the name of the Department was changed to the department of Library and Information Studies. The Bachelor's programme of the Department that took off in the 1990/91 session consequently had substantial IT content. Thus in a way, formal training in substantial IT courses began in the English speaking sub-saharan Africa in the late 1980s and early 1990s.

Even though up to the late 1980s there was no institution for the training of information professionals in IT, never - the - less continuing education in this area was addressed. The Pan-African Development Information System (PADIS) of the United Nations Economic Commission for Africa based in Addis-Ababa, Ethiopia organised a series of courses on IT in several parts of Africa. The use of IT in information retrieval system was the focus of PADIS hence it concentrated on PADIS methodologies and CDS/ISIS which is a database management system. The German Foundation for International Development, DSE, in collaboration with the Department of Library and Information Studies, University of Botswana also incorporated IT courses in their annual workshops for librarians in Eastern and Southern Africa in 1989, The CDS/ ISIS workshop annually held for participants from developing countries in Berlin, Germany was also formally transferred to the University of Botswana with effect from 1991. The Consultancy unit of the University of Ibadan, Nigeria through the Information Technology Application and Research Group (ITARG) also started organising different courses in IT for information professionals in Nigerian in 1988. Such courses range from largely introductory courses in IT to database management systems such as Dbase III plus and CDS/ISIS.

### **Methodology**

In order to attain the stated objectives, the curricula of 10 library and information science schools with bachelors postgraduate diploma or master's programmes were scrutinized based on the IT module of Information Science as recommended by the Institute of the Information Scientists (1988). The Institute had recommended four modules to be covered by any training institution seeking its approval. These are the core area of information science, information management, information technology and ancillary skills.

Under the Information Technology module, four broad areas are outlined. These are:

1. Computer systems: hardware and software
2. Telecommunications
3. Information technology applications
4. Environment (health and safety, ergonomics, data protection, copyright, piracy, encryption etc.)

The institute model was used because the assumption was that a training institution that covers a substantial proportion of the IT module of the Institute of the Information Scientists will produce graduates who will have enough skills in IT and will be able to function effectively in the African environment. Apart from scrutinizing the prospectuses of the schools surveyed, visits were made to some of the schools to ascertain the existing facilities used for teaching IT. Some lecturers teaching IT were also interviewed. However the principal instrument for collecting the data was an examination of the prospectuses of the training institutions.

The curricula examined were those of the three oldest library schools in Nigeria, Ibadan (masters), Zaria (masters and bachelors), Maiduguri (bachelors), and the newly created African Regional Centre for Information Science (masters) located in Ibadan, Nigeria. Other library schools examined were those of Botswana (bachelors and postgraduate diploma), Ghana (postgraduate diploma), Moi University Kenya, (Bachelors) Uganda (bachelors), Zambia (bachelors), and the School of Information Studies for Africa (SISA) (masters) Addis-Ababa, Ethiopia.

### **Results and Analysis**

According to Table 1, the survey shows that only four library/information science schools had substantial IT component courses in their curricula. Only two of the four schools are at the master's level (SISA and ARCIS) while the remaining two are at the bachelors' level (Moi University and Botswana). Table 1 shows a list of the schools identified and the proportion of IT courses covered in their curricula. Surprisingly two of the schools surveyed (Ghana and Zambia) have no IT courses in their curricula. ARCIS, SISA and Moi University have their computer laboratories within their buildings thus they have unfettered access to computers and other information technology equipment. The same is true to a large extent of Botswana students., although the Department has not got a computer laboratory within its building due to lack of space, the Department has 10 workstations located in lecturers offices which students have access to, most of the times. There is

Table 1

PROPORTION OF IT MODULE OF THE INFORMATION SCIENTISTS COVERED BY  
TRAINING INSTITUTIONS IN AFRICA

Training Institutions	IT MODULE COURSES													Number of Courses	Percentage
	Introduction to Computers	Software packages	Programming	Data structures	Telecommunication equipment	Communication technologies	Networking	Information retrieval system	Automation of libraries	Office automation	Data protection	Privacy & copyright	Information Environment		
MUI UNIVERSITY (BSc)	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	-	-	-	9	75.0
IBADAN (M.L.S.)	X	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	3	25.0
MAIDUGURI (BLS)	X	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	3	-
ZARIA (BLS) {MLS}	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	3	-
ARCIS (M.Inf.Sc.)	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	-	-	-	-	9	75.0
SISA (M.Sc)	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	-	-	-	-	9	75.0
BOTSWANA (BLS) {PGDL}	X	X	X	-	-	-	-	X	X	-	-	-	-	6	50.0
GHANA (PGDL)	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	X	-	-	-	-	4	33.3
UGANDA (B.A.)	X	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	3	25.0
ZAMBIA (B.A.)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

also a university wide computer laboratory for all the students which can be booked anytime especially during the weekends. Ibadan used to have only, one Hewlett Packard desk computer but efforts are being made to have a computer laboratory. This has reached an advanced stage. Thus it is believed that training institutions will only be able to teach IT courses effectively when they have the equipment as part of their facilities and not having to share the computer facilities available to the whole university system. Table 2 reveals that most of the schools have introduction to computer technology, soft ware packages and automation of libraries in their curricula while none of the school cover office automation, data protection and information environment.

**Table 2**

**Rank Order of IT Module Covered by Training Institutions' Programmes**

N = 12

IT Courses	No of Training Institutions	%
Introduction to computer	9	75,0
Softwarte packages	9	75,0
Automation of libraries	9	75,0
IR system	5	41,7
Programming	4	33,3
Networking	4	33,3
Data structure	3	25,0
Telecommunications	3	25,0
Communications technology	3	25,0
Office automation	-	-
Data protection	-	-
Information environment	-	-

**The Future of Education and Training for IT in Africa**

The establishment of the two postgraduate schools in Information science in Africa currently being funded by IDRC and Unesco, the Faculty of Information Sciences established at Moi University Kenya, and the strong IT component of the Department of Library and Information Studies, University of Botswana have made the education and training for IT in Africa a reality. One can therefore make an

educated guess that a sufficient number of information specialist with skills in IT will be produced before the year 2000. These specialists would have been trained in an African environment and will be academically and professionally ready to function in an indigenous environment. This will hopefully facilitate the automation of the various library services in Africa.

The future of education and training for IT in Africa is however very dicey. There are some obstacles that may hamper the training. The major constraints are the attitude of some information managers towards new information technology and the present brain drain of skilled manpower in Africa to the Gulf, Europe and America.

Most of heads of libraries and information centres in Africa were trained in the old traditional librarianship and some of them find it difficult to adjust to the new trend. While a negligible proportion of them are ready to imbibe the new culture the majority are adverse to it. Thus a situation where most of the graduates will not be easily employed on graduation cannot be ruled out since the environment conducive for the practice of the new acquired skills will be absent in the various libraries and information centres. Perhaps a more potent obstacle is the prevalent brain drain of Africa's best professionals to other countries in search of greener pastures. Only a negligible proportion of lecturers in the various library and information schools are adept at information technology and they were all trained in the industrialised countries of Europe and America hence they are marketable anywhere in the world.

While the first constraint of the attitude of library and information managers can be changed by exposing them through continuing education to the various aspects of IT, the question of retaining and attracting lecturers in IT in Africa will constitute a major problem for a long time to come. In spite of these formidable problems, it is believed that IT will soon become a major component of the curricula of most library and information training institutions and it will be offered at all levels therefore ensuring that there will be a constant supply of graduates who will function effectively in the African environment. The fact that the education and training for IT in Africa has commenced in a step in the right direction. All it behoves on the various library associations in Africa is to canvass for international support and funding for these training schools already identified. This will strengthen the various programmes especially in the areas of equipment and other resources. Most of the training institutions still depend on the university wide computing centre which students have to share with students doing other programmes. This obviously prevents unfettered access to the computers. It is hoped that most of these institutions in the near future will have their own IT laboratories where they will have unrestricted access.

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## **FACTORS AFFECTING UTILITY OF KEYS TO LIBRARIES' RESOURCES IN ZAMBIA**

**By Chileshe J.J. Chisanga and Davies Champo**

**Abstract:** The authors give reasons for the growing inability to utilize some very important keys to resources known to the librarians because they are beyond means. The overall economic situation is of great (negative) influence. It affects the use of printed materials, information technology, as well as networking.

At present Zambia's economy is going through very hard times. The country is facing problems of lack of foreign exchange reserves, high inflation, heavy debt burden, unemployment, budget deficits and many other problems typical of developing countries.

Since the emergency of the first health sciences collection in Zambia (by then Northern Rhodesia) in the 1950s, dependance has been mainly on imported library resources in excess of 90%. This has been evident in the field of health sciences where there is only one erratic medical publication and less than five newsletters of limited circulation and uncertain continuity. Learned societies and professional associations have not lived to their expectations either as most of them are poorly organised or are in their infancy and hence not able to organized their work and research findings into meaningful library resources. The Ministry of Health Planning Unit does publish a number of health books, newsletters and pamphlets, but it lacks a well organised and coordinated distribution and sales system.

Being import oriented Zambia libraries faced no problems in acquiring the necessary resources when the national economy was sound because it was easy to use all the necessary keys available to them. A good testimony to this is the diverse health sciences library collections whose sources cut across the globe, but only to be severely cut down in the 1980s when the economy sank deeper into the problems already mentioned.



## **Keys to Resources known to a Zambian Professional Librarian and their Availability**

### **Human Resources**

It takes qualified staff to understand the main objectives of any library, to know what is expected of them, to know what resources are available to them locally and globally, and how to utilize the available resources.

It is in this respect that qualified staff in our respective health science libraries should be considered as one of the main keys to resources. Once qualified human resources are available, avenues to knowledge and possible utilization of other keys to resources are open. The situation in Zambia today in respect to human resources is relatively good. Zambia produces librarians with Bachelor of Arts degree and diplomas from the University of Zambia. Post graduate studies at present are mainly done in the United Kingdom and United States.

The efforts of the University of Zambia in the supply of human resources are supplemented with a certificate training course in library studies which is offered by the Posts and Telecommunication Staff Training College. As such libraries with good financial backing and a good employment policy have enjoyed the services of qualified library staff as a key to resources.

### **Financial Resources**

Because libraries in Zambia heavily depend on imported materials the question of money is prime, and not just money but money in convertible currencies. The country has very few publishers and booksellers and as a result imports more than 90% of national library materials. There are serious problems now in relation to this because over the past twenty years the Zambia economy has not been performing well and hence the following factors have characterized our economy:

- (i) Lack of adequate foreign exchange reserves
- (ii) Upward inflation of over 100% per annum
- (iii) Weakening local currency in relation to US Dollar and other international currencies.
- (iv) Rising international debt burden of over seven billion US Dollars, and
- (v) Government budget deficits.

Given this scenario the implication for health science libraries in Zambia is that they are sandwiched between two evil forces. The first being the deteriorating economy characterized by the above mentioned factors and whose resultant effects are falling

library budgets and a reduced buying power of our local currency in relation to international currencies. The second is that of escalating costs of library materials on the international market which is coupled with rising postal charges.<sup>1</sup>

The end result for Zambian health sciences librarians has been the growing inability to utilize some very important keys to resources known to us because they are beyond means.

### Information technology

Micro computers in Zambian libraries are in an introductory stage. A number of institutions are now using micro computers for various applications, which range from data analysis, stock inventories, research, etc. ... to bibliographic services.

However not many libraries in Zambia have their own micro computers but a number of them have access to institutions' micro computers. This small number of libraries that have acquired appropriate software are enjoying the benefits of information technology as another key to resources. Perhaps the introduction of the CD ROM and electronic mail technology has been one of the most welcome news for librarians in developing countries. It has made distances to world's renowned databases shorter, as this can now be delivered to our doorsteps.

Again not many libraries have acquired the CD ROM drives or are connected to electronic mail system yet, but the enthusiasm to acquire this new technology is just overwhelming. As the trend has been with computers we expect that the present price of acquiring CD-ROM technology will drop from the present figure of around \$8,000 to a lower figure and thus making it easier for more libraries to utilize this facility.<sup>2</sup>

Until 1991 to date Zambia had no direct link with any databases, but now steps are being taken to link up with some continental and regional databases. Though these databases may not necessarily be in health sciences, the steps being taken are in the right direction. Examples of these developments are:

- (i) Pan-African Documentation and Information systems (PADIS).<sup>3</sup>
- (ii) Pest Management Documentation and Information System and Service (PMDISS)<sup>4</sup>
- (iii) Regional Informatics Network for Africa.<sup>5</sup>
- (iv) SateILife - HealthNet. <sup>6</sup>

The advantages that have come with these link-ups are time and cost savings, because we have been disadvantaged in that we send our search requests to libraries in Europe and United States to search on our behalf and send printouts to us. The process is long and costly in our region and is to some extent less efficient than the use of printed versions.

The use of audio-video texts, electronic mail, integrated automated information systems, and communication via satellites have been known to Zambian librarians for some time, but could not be introduced because of prohibitive costs. However, since the introduction of electronic mail in Zambia in 1991, the use of computers for communication has improved tremendously. By October 1993 there are 40 points connected to E-mail system in the country.<sup>6</sup>

### Printed Materials

Use of printed source materials like indexes has been our most dependable key to resources and it still is. But unfortunately the trend now in Zambia is to drop subscription to such materials in preference to journals whenever libraries are faced with falling budgets.

In addition to journals stocked and indexed there is a sizeable amount of grey literature in the country, but this lies in a disorganised state and it is hard to lay hands on it as no single information centre seems to have an efficient way of locating and accessing them. A concerted effort is needed. Perhaps a legislation of a National Information Policy would help improve the situation.

### Networking

Both formal and informal arrangements of resource sharing has proved to be a very valuable key, though a lot more needs to be done in this area. The major problems in this area are: high cost of photocopying; lack of photocopying facilities; lack of photocopy machine; spare parts; high postage rates; and lack of national union catalogues and serial holdings lists.

Computerised local, regional and continental networking has been hampered by non availability of computer facilities in most libraries and prohibitive telecommunication costs charged by the Posts and Telecommunications Corporation in the country. This has delayed on line resource sharing between libraries in Zambia.

## **Impact of the Availability or non Availability of Keys to Resources on Library Users and Personnel**

Since Zambia's independence from the British colonial rule in 1964 there has been a remarkable increase in the countries literacy levels. In terms of higher education the number of university graduates has been an increase in the output of doctors, clinical officers, nurses and other paramedical staff. This being the case there is an increased demand for health information and expectations are quite high. However, the ability for Zambian health sciences librarian to satisfy the user is in most cases hindered by factors outlined earlier in this paper. Our user is always a disappointed one. Because of the same factors outlined above the effect of the morale of library staff is very low.<sup>7</sup>

### **Conclusion**

It is hoped that if the Structural Adjustment Programmes (SAP) succeeds, a reverse trend will improve the Zambian economy and rundown infrastructure including Library and Information centres will once more be well funded so that libraries would be able to utilize as many keys to resources as possible.

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# **LIBRARY PROVISION FOR THE BLIND IN AFRICA**

**By Anaba Alemna\***

**Abstract:** This paper presents a brief overview of the existing library provision for the blind in some African countries. It has been found that although there are signs of improvement in the educational and social services for the blind in Africa, there is little evidence that library services for the blind are improving. Various challenges facing librarians in Africa in their attempts to provide services for the blind are outlined, and the implications of these challenges are also discussed.

## **Introduction**

Handicapped people live in every part of Africa - in small towns, large cities, rural areas, institutions and colleges. In many countries, the existing educational system also embraces educational opportunities for the visually handicapped. Some blind students, after the completion of their primary and secondary education, have even succeeded in being admitted to universities or other higher educational institutions. Some visually handicapped people, although an absolute minority, have been gainfully employed after having completed their vocational or academic training. To this group of visually handicapped also belongs the educated, newly or late blind adults. However, the illiterate blind still represents by far the largest group of visually handicapped people in Africa.

Some of the blind do attend special schools or institutions and are served by libraries there. But some of them are able to attend regular schools or live within the regular community and are perfectly capable of doing as well as, or better than their able-bodied peers. The blind should not receive services only from special libraries for the visually handicapped, but from their school, university and public libraries as well. They have a right to receive the best library services available, just as other people do. Thus the school, public or university library, whatever the case may be, is obligated to serve these individuals and help them obtain special reading materials as well as offer the same service that the rest of the community

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enjoys. It is the duty of all librarians everywhere to meet the reading needs of the patrons in their area and this does not exclude the physically disabled.

### **Library services for the blind in Africa**

In Africa, social services of any sort to any handicapped group is a very recent development. As such, in most African countries, established and organised library services to the blind and visually handicapped is almost non-existent. Except for a few countries such as Malawi and the Republic of South Africa, there are no national braille presses for large scale production of braille materials.

In Botswana where attempts have been made, albeit in a small way, to provide materials for the blind, this consists of a few collections of braille books found in a few institutions and a small collection of braille and talking books at the University of Botswana Library. Most of these are donations from the Royal National Institute for the Blind (RNIB) in the U.K. and the National Library Service for the Blind and Physically Handicapped (NLS) in the U.S.A.<sup>1</sup> In the main, the collections do not meet the educational needs of the students.

Writing with reference to Nigeria, Atinmo<sup>2</sup> states that library services to the visually handicapped is minimal, almost non-existent. Only one out of nine schools for the blind in Nigeria has a school library service, and a few university library are now attempting to acquire and organise library materials for the visually handicapped.

In Ghana, despite the long history of education for the blind and visually handicapped library and information services are largely geared toward sighted individuals. There is a dearth of appropriate material such as books in braille and talking books to aid the blind. The University of Ghana Library, with the aid of Rotary Club (Ghana), recently set up collections for the visually handicapped, forty years after the inception of the library. The existing public library system does not provide any services to the blind and visually handicapped.

The Republic of South Africa appears to have the best developed library services for the blind on the continent. The South African Library for the Blind has a braille press that provides materials for the blind in and around the Southern African region. An organisation known as Tape Aids for the Blind (South Africa) is in charge of recording some of the essential texts on standards cassettes and organising volunteer readers through the local Rotary Club<sup>3</sup>.

The present situation in Africa as briefly described, is rather disappointing. Similar conditions can be found in other African countries. But blindness is a physical condition and not a mental handicap. As such, the taste of blind readers do not differ from the sighted reader. Therefore books and magazines on wide variety of subjects

covering a broad spectrum of reading interests must be made available. Further, the alternatives available for sighted readers for obtaining material, such as local bookstores, are not available to this group. The library therefore becomes one of the very few sources, if not the sole source of reading materials.

### **Challenges**

One of the major challenges for librarians in their attempt to provide services to the blind in Africa is the lack of reliable figures for the number, age, sex, and educational level of the blind in Africa. Statistical data has always been a problem for African countries. This makes it difficult to draw up a programme based on specific targets.

The question of target groups and priorities was discussed in detail at the Unesco/IFLA Seminar on Library Service to Visually Handicapped Readers in African Developing countries, held in Tanzania in November, 1980. The participants, 18 representing library associations and association for or of the blind in 15 African countries identified the target groups as follows:

1. the visually handicapped in institutions (primary and secondary schools, universities, vocational, or rehabilitation centres.)
2. the educated, employed visually handicapped, including the newly-blind educated adults.
3. the illiterates, representing the majority of the visually handicapped population in Africa.

Due to limited financial and human resources in the countries represented at the Seminar, the participants realised the necessity of priorities in library service to the identified target groups. The participants concluded that those in institutions should be given first priority library service.<sup>4</sup>

The lack of production and distribution facilities for reading materials in Africa also poses a big challenge. Most of the schools for the blind and visually handicapped produce their own textbooks in braille for the use of the students. While not condemning this self-help attitude, the inexperience in this area often results in poor quality productions as there are no manuals to guide in the production. For those who rely on foreign materials, there is often the problem of obtaining materials that do not bear any relation to the culture and background of the students.

There is also the problem of lack of properly trained library personnel. In most library schools in Africa, the curricula is geared toward conventional librarianship courses. Library staff are therefore often unable to handle the need of the blind. The



idea that the needs of the blind may easily be ignored militates against the provision of services to the blind. Staff attitudes are an essential ingredient in making the library available to the blind.

Another challenge to the provision of library services for the blind in Africa is architectural barriers. Most of the older libraries in Africa (especially university libraries) were built long before the libraries ever considered providing materials for the blind. Therefore such barriers are steps, high book shelves, narrow doorways and lack of elevators are still prevalent in Africa libraries. These obstacles can be extremely frustrating, if not impossible for the blind to cope with.

A large number of countries in Africa have introduced adult education programmes. However, owing to the inadequacy of appropriate reading materials, blind adults have no opportunities for participating in these programmes. The challenge here is how to find ways of getting this very large group of blind people in Africa, to benefit from these programmes.

### **Implications**

Improvement in the library services for the blind in Africa can only be brought about by improvement in attitudes towards the blind. There must be the recognition that given the opportunity and proper training the average blind person can hold the average job in the average place of business, that he can be independent and self-supporting, and that it is vital for society as well as for the individual that this status of independent self-support be brought about.

There is evidence that attitudes about the blind in Africa are improving, at least in certain parts of Africa. They are no longer considered just as street beggars and liabilities. Blind and sighted alike are rejecting begging as an activity for the blind and welfare as a means of subsistence.

Librarians in Africa must learn who the handicapped are, where they are, and what their special needs are before long range planning of library services can take place. In the planning of library services, handicapped readers should be included in all the library services offered to sighted readers, whether reference, readers' advisory, library orientation or special events.<sup>5</sup>

There is clearly a need for closer cooperation with the agencies that are responsible for gathering data on the blind. Many organisations and institutions such as the Rotary Club, the Royal National Institute for the Blind (RNIB) and the National Library Service for the Blind and Physically Handicapped (NLS) are involved. No library in the field can afford to avoid them. Many of these organisations and

agencies have taken on the responsibilities of distributing braille and talking book machines. Others repair them. These will all promote the services to the blind.

For an efficient and effective provision of library services to the blind in Africa, additional funds will need to be provided for the services. Needham<sup>6</sup> suggests that funds allocated for the service should be made a visible part of the library's budget. This will enable the library to point out the need for increased funds.

Modern technology has made things easier for the blind. Where it formerly took up to four months to hand-copy a braille book, it can now be done in a few hours. However, since the cost is still very high, braille volunteers will be needed in African libraries. Lesson-by-lesson instruction can be given to those interested in learning to transcribe braille. Some students and library patrons may even volunteer to serve as readers for the visually handicapped in the library.

Though visually handicapped users usually need the help of a sighted reader in using reference books, the librarian should be aware that there are braille editions of such reference books as the *World Book Encyclopedia* and some magazines such as *Readers Digest* and *Newsweek* are available in braille or talking book editions. There is also an IFLA publication: *A Guide to Developing Braille and Talking Book Services*. Edited by Leslie Clark, IFLA, 1986.

More materials on topics relating to library services for the blind in Africa should appear in professional literature. This will help to educate other librarians as well as drawing the attention of the relevant authorities to this issue. Library Associations in Africa should draw the attention of architects and library planners to various architectural barriers to the blind and other physically handicapped in the planning of future library buildings. Wherever possible, existing library facilities should be re-designed to meet standard specifications for the blind and other handicapped users.

Where facilities and materials are available for the blind, they should be adequately publicized. Publicity would be the best means of attracting this group to the library. After all, what is the use of a service or facility if it is not accessible to users? Providing the appropriate materials to blind students for the purposes is one thing, making it accessible is another.

International interlending presents an attractive solution to overcoming the scarcity of relevant materials for the blind in Africa. But as in the case of other library materials, interlending in Africa has its own problems. These include inadequate national bibliographies, poor postal and telecommunication systems and the absence of unified cataloguing rules and classification schemes.<sup>7</sup>

Provided enough special reading materials is available, accomodation and facilities are adequate, and the staff is given special training for the type of work, the establishment of a library service to the blind or visually handicapped people in Africa through the existing library system may be an advantage in most countries. Establishing new libraries altogether may be too expensive, as this will require high initial capital outlay.

On the international level, the International Federation of Library Associations and Institutions (IFLA) Working Group on Libraries for the Blind should continue with their efforts to eliminate obstacles that inhibit production and distribution of materials for the blind. Some of these obstacles include copyright regulations; standardizing media of exchange; identifying locations of special collections for the blind; and postal law/customs regulations.

### **Conclusion**

Handicapped people have special needs because they are special people. But they are not to be set apart and always treated differently either. They also have the same needs as sighted people and the ablebodied. The blind also have their hobby reading needs, vocational reading needs, and recreational reading needs, just as the sighted do. It is time that the library profession in Africa paid close attention to these individuals and made provisions for their reading needs and welcomed them into the regular library community.

Today the blind in Africa are on the move. They are beginning to assert themselves in almost every walk of life. They are mobilising to improve their services, and librarians must join in this partnership. Together we have a big job ahead if we are going to move library services to the blind to a point of comparability with services available to the sighted.

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## EFFECTIVE SECONDARY SCHOOL LIBRARIES FOR QUALITATIVE EDUCATION IN NIGERIA

By Audrey B. Ojoade

**Abstract:** The truly educated person, "Kalos K'agathos", as reared by the Greeks in the 6th B.C., is still the type of homo sapiens desired for harmonious living together and serving "pro bono publico" in the society of the 20th A.D. Through qualitative education, which should have as its great asset, effective secondary school libraries, such a person is produced.

This paper describes how the Federal and State Governments in Nigeria have been trying to bring this about. Facts and figures culled from recent local newspapers and journal articles illustrate the situation and substantiate the need for getting priorities, straight and generally improving facilities, i.e. funding, physical space, adequate and relevant library collections, increasing trained teachers and fostering their active co-operation with professional library staff for the achievement of the desired goal as at this period in the country development.

When the boys have learned their letters "they are furnished with works of good poets to read ... and made to learn them by heart". Thus said Plato in the fourth Century B.C. (Protagoras, 125d).

Human nature is basically the same throughout the ages, as shown in Maslow's hierarchy of needs, thus today twenty-four centuries later, a good example is still one of the best ways for those being taught to follow and do likewise. Those works of good poets were located in libraries of the fourth century B.C. and such works are located or should be located in libraries of the twentieth century A.D.

Just as those works gave good examples in the time of Plato, similar works can be good examples today, if only they are made available and those being taught are made aware of their existence, their depth of meaning and potential use.

But where are these libraries, where are these works or books? Are they not part of the modern educational system in Nigeria? They should be, to have effective

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secondary school libraries for qualitative education. Indeed, the National policy on Education section 10 item 9 (1981:43) states "Libraries are one of the most important educational services. Every State Ministry needs to provide funds for the establishment of libraries in all our educational institutions and to train libraries and library assistants for this service".

### **Definitions of Education**

Just as many modern philosophies are said to be footnotes to Plato's *Republic*, so many modern definitions of education are footnotes to the original Latin word "educare" meaning "to rear". The full form is *educio, educare, educavi, educatum*, from which the word "education" derives.

In the simple illiterate and non-technological society that rearing or education is merely an informal way of passing on the cultural heritage from one generation to the next.

However, over the centuries, with the individual and technological developments making the society more complex, the informal method of education had to give way to a more formal one in organised schools.

But even as far back as the sixth century B.C. that informal method had already given way to a more formal one in the establishment of schools.

Education in those schools in Greece and in Rome aimed at "wholeness" in their pupils, and held that the educated man combined moral, intellectual and physical excellence - a true *Kalos K'agathos*. This same wholeness is described in the first century A.D. by the Roman Author Juvenal as *mens sana in corpore sano* (a sound mind in a sound body).

Plato in 400 B.C. envisaged the regeneration of society by means of education. In Nigeria the late Obafemi Awolowo, elder statesman of note, defined education as -

That process of physical and mental culture whereby a man's personality is developed to the fullest. (Such a man) never fears anything, he cringes not, and never feels inferior to anyone; he is self-reliant, and will resist any form of enslavement until the last breath in him is exhausted.

In a similar vein Prof. Aliyu Babs Fafunwa\*, former Dean of Education at the University of Ife (now Obafemi Awolowo University), currently Nigeria's Minister for Education stated as follows:

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Prof. Aliyu Babs Fafunwa ceased to be Minister of Education from January 1993.

Education, broadly defined comprises all efforts conscious and direct, incidental and indirect, made by a given society to accomplish certain objectives that are considered desirable in terms of the individual's own needs as well as the needs of the society where the programme is based. Education is also defined as the aggregate of all processes by means of which a person develops abilities, attitudes and forms of behaviour of positive value in the society in which he lives. Education is therefore more than mere schooling.

But as Jeffreys rightly noted (1971:15) "the logical paradox is that the perfect system of education was necessary to produce the perfect society, the perfect society was a necessary precondition of the perfect education".

Thus in Nigeria today the society has reached an abysmally low level of behaviour witnessed in all aspects of life.

Therefore an indisciplined society will surely produce an indisciplined individual.

One example suffices to illustrate how rampant this situation is. An extract from Abdu Rafiu's article Obasanjo's Recipe in the *Guardian* of 13th August 1992 gives the picture:

Today corruption, violent power struggle, electoral theft, acquisition of power for its sheer sake and inability to utilise it beneficially characterise the African skyline. And until society changes, its corrupt and inept leadership will hold sway. In that respect, merely divesting the military on the lion's share of the budget may come to nought after much ado ... corruption, as the small and big forms have discovered makes prices uncompetitive and pushes food items beyond easy reach. Only when a purposeful leadership and a purposeful followership stand in that healthy balance required to clear the present rot, can meaningful upbuilding begin in the rivers of today's decay.

Since the majority of pupils going through formal school up to secondary level in Nigeria will not go any further, it is essential that at that level all efforts should be harnessed to guide those pupils in what should be the desired values, attitudes and behaviour emanating from qualitative education. This should then result in a purposeful leadership and a purposeful followership.

### **National Policy on Education**

Towards this end it will be seen that those two ideas mentioned above within the definition of education, passing on the culture and wholeness, are fully expressed in the Nigerian National Policy on Education as seen in the following national aims and objectives (National Policy on Education (1981:8).

1. The inculcation of national consciousness and national unity;
2. The inculcation of the right type of values and attitudes for the survival of the individual and the Nigerian society;
3. The training of the mind in the understanding of the world around; and
4. The acquisition of appropriate skills, abilities and competence both mental and physical as equipment for the individual to live in and contribute to the development of his society.

The broad aims of secondary education within those overall national objectives also reflect this:

1. Preparation for useful living the society; and
2. Preparation for higher education.

In specific terms the secondary school should:

- a) Provide an increasing number of primary school pupils with opportunity for education of a higher quality, irrespective of sex, or social, religious and ethnic background,
- b) Diversify its curriculum to cater for the differences in talents, opportunities and roles possessed by or open to students after their secondary course;
- c) Equip students to live effectively in our modern age of science and technology;
- d) Develop and project Nigerian culture, art and language as well as the world's cultural heritage;
- e) Raise a generation of people who can think for themselves, respect the views and feelings of others, respect the dignity of labour, and appreciate those values specified under our broad national aims, and live as good citizens.
- f) Foster Nigerian unity with an emphasis on the common ties that unit us in our diversity;
- g) Inspire the students with a desire for achievement and self-improvement both at school and in later life.

Many scholars have testified to the adequacy of the National Policy on Education. Ejiogu for example (1987:57) says it is "The most comprehensive statement on Nigerian education ever made by a Nigerian Government and the first to apply to all parts of the country (but the policy is yet to be successfully implemented given the current harsh economy of the nation". The same point is re-emphasised by



Fagbamiye (1987:83) who adds "hardly any is Nigerian has spoken against the new secondary education programme rather many have spoken enthusiastically about it".

The basic necessities for implementation of the programme are qualified personnel including administrators, inspectors, school principals, teachers and the required physical infrastructures which embrace school buildings with laboratories and their relevant equipment and libraries stocked with appropriate materials. To cap it all, and most important is continuous adequate funding for maintenance of the system.

### **Qualitative Education**

Since education involves the training of the whole person, qualitative education should be judged by measuring all aspects of the life of the educated person.

However measurement is easier for some aspects than others e.g. the academic performance, which can be qualified. As Adesina (1987:34) states the major instrument for measuring quality in education is the qualification of the teachers. Jeffreys (1971:1) amplifies this when he observes that "atleast two other things beside their technical competence are required. One is a sense of vocation whereby the teacher must believe the job to be worth doing for its own sake and want to do it. The other is that the teacher should be an educated person- literate, civilized, knowledgeable thoroughful, human and self-reliant". These attributed are obviously what would be good examples to pupils in attaining qualitative education, but qualified teachers are severely lacking in spite of fifty colleges of Education turning out teachers with the National Certificate of Education annually. This will be developed below.

### **Libraries - What Role?**

Form all that has been said above about education with guidelines comprehensively set out in the national policy for achieving qualitative education, it goes without saying that effective secondary school libraries should be a great asset for obtaining the desired results, i.e. qualitative education.

Libraries do exist in secondary schools, but many almost only in name, because all the elements required for them to operate are not put in place.

An effective secondary school library is one which provides for its users, (teachers and students) services and facilities for executing their curricular and co-curricular activities. Such services and facilities include the provision of recorded knowledge relevant to their academic and recreational needs and available in various formats. These are in book and print form, as well as non-book form like maps, audio and video cassette, tapes, slides, films, microforms and in more recent times, computer

soft-ware. Also included are museum items, archival materials, kits and packages produced by the institution, or larger organisations, local, regional and national. As Norman Beswick (1975:18) aptly puts it a library resource centre which seeks to be actively used and at the heart of all our work must look for those areas of curriculum need, the teacher need and pupil need which it can most urgently and actively support, not base itself on an ideal standard of what ought to be provided".

### **The Librarian's Role**

An essential factor for providing these services is the librarian or teacher/Librarian, who must play an active role in bringing together the user and the required materials at the appropriate time, in the appropriate atmosphere and environment. Indeed the effectiveness of the secondary school library centres around the librarian who should be the moving figure coordinating the elements involved.

The librarian selects, and with supporting staff acquires and organises for use all the various types of materials. Organising for use, an all-embracing activity is the most significant aspect, in fact, the crux of the matter. There, within the four walls of the school library, may be ever so many materials and several users but without the initiative and commitment of the librarian in organising materials for use no education would have taken place.

Except for a few individual environmental factors, all secondary school libraries should play certain roles that are part of the educational process. The librarian must be sensitive to every situation that could enhance the library's role in that process.

From selection to organization, this educational orientation must be evident. Below are some examples of the librarian's activities in fulfilling the educational role.

Initially selection of materials will cover a wide variety of subject areas and give varying shades of opinion to avoid bias. The Librarian would schedule use of the library lessons in conjunction with class teachers to lay open to users the varied stock of the library and show how to locate specific items. Furthermore there is need to indicate no library on its own can satisfy all the needs of its clientele. Therefore there is cooperation among libraries for borrowing.

The library must be relevant to the needs of its users. Thus the librarian must use the curriculum as well as personal contacts to find out the needs of students and teachers.

Academic work should begin and end in the library since teachers should be encouraged to use the library to prepare lectures and students would follow up by

seeking materials referred to in the lecture and for additional references to carry out class assignments.

Other activities include exhibitions on bulletin boards inside the library and well published outside to attract users and reading clubs after school hours where serialized stories of interest to students might get them to know new materials.

But the librarian's performance in the school depends a lot on a supportive principal who would have seen the need for an effective library and so provided the wherewithal. This would involve space, of atleast the size of two classrooms to give allowance for a workroom for library staff, for a class of students to sit in the library and for bookstacks for the library collection.

Additionally, qualified teachers and support staff for the librarian are required if an effective library is to be developed and maintained.

The teachers and librarian must cooperate to acquire a relevant and adequate collection of library materials and work together for active use of the library.

Unfortunately in Nigeria all the above elements have serious problems.

### Space

Thus the space problem is part of the overall lack of buldings in secondary schools which usually stems from the culture of occupying temporary buldings on temporary sites. Such buildings were not designed to specifications of a secondary school which must include a library. For instance one sees a primary school building suddenly turned into a secondary school, perhaps to add more prestige to a local government area, but prestige cannot be derived from the name alone - the supporting facilities are a *conditio sine qua non* or else the action becomes a mere political gimmick. Where space is provided, furniture and equipment are either non-existent, insufficient or unsuitable. These are necessities for housing the library collection and seating the users.

Some of those primary school buildings are described in a West African report on Ondo State in 1991.

Primary education in the State is in dire straits with pupils increasingly being taught lessons under the trees because it is too risky to study inside crumbling school buildings. Most of the schools were built in 1960s and have never been renovated.

Rivers State is similarly reported in the National Concord of 13 July 1992 as earmarking 23 million for school buildings - for renovation of all secondary schools in

Port-Harcourt Local Government Area and two in each of the other Local Government Areas.

As for the library staff, the provision of a librarian with supporting library staff in secondary schools is a luxury in many areas in this country. The common feature rather in this aspect is a teacher/librarian with some class prefects.

What are the likely causes? Librayr Schools and Colleges of Education are not yet producing sufficient librarians trained for secondary schools and the conditions of service in secondary schools generally are not yet attractive enough, both deriving from poor funding. When principals cannot pay teachers's salaries, unless such principals are very supportive of the library as the centre of instruction, how would they find funds for a librarian's salary?

### Teachers

To gain secondary school students who can use libraries, there should have been a good orientation in the primary school. However, this requirement is very handi-capped because the teachers to train the primary pupils are both insufficient and illqalified.

In November 1991 at National Institute for policy and Strategic Studies (NIPSS) in Kuru the Minister for Education Prof. Aliyu Babbs Fawunwa disclosed that Nigeria had 350,000 teachers for 14 million pupils in 39,300 primary schools while all schools require 466,667 teachers as the approved number. They were short of 116,667 teachers so that there is one teacher handling a class of between 40 and 70 pupils instead of the stipulated 30.

Fagbamiye (1987) states that Nigerian teachers have been and are still ill-prepared for the task assigned to them, particularly since a very high percentage of people who are styled teachers are unqualified and are teaching often for reasons, other than love of the teaching profession. About 70% of all teachers are unqualified.

At the secondary school level there is still deficiency of teachers. Figures for 1988 using a teacher-student ratio of 1:25 showed the teacher requirement as 173467 but there were only 133743 giving a shortfall of 39724. Teachers' numbers had actually fallen from 135034 in 1987 to 133743 in 1988. Of these 33115, about 25% were unqualified.

As of 1991 the Plateau State Commissioner for Education said 2,500 additional teachers were needed for secondary schools but only 400 could be recruited that year

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Note: Nigeria at present has 30 states and the Federal Capital Territory of Abuja (listed as appendix).

due to financial constraints. Only a week ago, precisely 27 October 1992 this same government reported to be planning 50 additional secondary schools for the State. There are already 251. It is hoped that funds are available to pay for the qualified teachers what would be needed for those schools.

### **Funding**

Indeed inadequate funding is the main problem of the educational system, especially in state and private schools, which are the proprietors of the majority of secondary schools in the country, since out of 6001, catering for 2901993 students, the Federal Government only funds 46. Several examples for raising funds for education have been noted. Chairman Ademola Adeniyi-Adele introduced Lagos Island Foundation for Education (L.I.F.E.) to guarantee qualitative education forever. According to the National Concord of 20 March, 1992, he wants to raise ₦100 m in three years to ameliorate problems of primary education in particular for now.

In 1990 the Federal Government pledged ₦475m for 450 of the country's ailing premier secondary schools but the schools were still trying to have the pledge redeemed in 1992. About the same time the Guardian of 24 March 1992 reported that Paul Erihri, Chairman of Public Finance Group Ltd., Lagos asked the Federal Government to launch a ₦2bn. Education Reserve Fund to save educational institutions from complete collapse:

Under the present arrangement government cannot guarantee any form qualitative and quantitative education for Nigerians ... the free education concept incorporated in the manifesto of the two political parties is doubtful. The ₦2bn. fund should be private sector oriented to develop the practice of corporate finance of education.

Corporate bodies are the ultimate consumers of the products of educational institutions. Companies and eminent Citizens and those in well-placed jobs should be levied according to their incomes to assist in raising the education reserve fund. If the education is free, somebody must pay for it and that somebody cannot be the sole proprietor or Government. It is you and I.

Some State Governments make education the largest part of their budget e.g. Rivers State for 1992 budgeted 25.39% of ₦1.28 bn. or ₦327m. on education. Kano State Governor Alhaji Kabiru Gaya in March 1992 set aside ₦2.5m for establishing Girls Science Secondary Schools at Kiro and Garbo and ₦2m to furnish technical colleges in the State.

Lagos State had a total of ₦260m as budget of which Education received ₦489m. In addition the State is to give accomodation to secondary teachers to boost their

morale. The effect of neglect of teachers is noted by Adelani Opeyemi, Consultant educational psychologist as he states, "the entire socioety is suffering from emulative effect of decades-old neglect of the teacher whose disposition and input into the system determines the entire development of the society."

In 1991 Governor Raji Rasaki of Lagos had warned, "Planners must strike a balance between quality and quantity within the resources available for primary education adding that this is the only way to achieve objectives. Our primary education being the instructional base of our educational pyramid on which the success or otherwise of other systems of education and by implication, our manpower development and national advancement and growth depend must be firmly rooted. (*West Africa* 3850: 1044).

Another example of funding is by private sector evidenced by Old Student Associations as seen at the Methodist High School Okitipupa when it celebrated its 36th anniversary and the old students donated ₦300,000.

Individual philanthropists also provide funding for some secondary schools. An example in Uyo, the capital of Akwa Ibom State was described in the *Pioneer* of 6 July 1992. The Nigerian Christian Institute founded in 1982 in Uyo now has 400 students and 24 teachers. Thanks to an overseas philanthropist, Jack Wooking of Richmond in California, U.S.A. the Institute has one of the best libraries in the State with 75% of its books supplied by Mr. Wooking and a library complex to cost over ₦120,000 was to be commissioned soon.

The needs of all these efforts cannot be overemphasized while the S.O.S.s are heard all over the country as exemplified by the Takum teachers' strike in June 1992 when primary school teachers in Takum L.G.A. of Taraba State were still awaiting their minimum wage arrears for 1986, 1987 and 1991 including leave and transport allowance.

The situation had been so widespread with many local government councils owing their teachers several months' salary that the Federal Ministry of Education planned state and national merit awards for teachers and provision of office equipment and visual aids for performing council areas in May 1992.

### Library Collection

When one thinks of the library collection, books come to mind first and indeed in the secondary school library books form the major part of the collection. For the past ten years there has been an increasing scarcity of books in the country or where available they have been too expensive for the average person to buy.

In the economic recession of the early 1980's the book industry stagnated. As an outcome of the International Book Year of 1972, Nigeria's Book Development Council was founded in December 1973, but not given clear mandate to operate.

The first National Congress on Books held in March 1983 took stock of major impediments to book development and made far-reaching recommendations. Marinho (1990) sums up the issues and problems that affected the book industry. Tariff duties and scarce foreign currency allocation caused a great decrease in the importation of materials for printing and publishing and actual books. The three local paper mills needed to be developed, local authorship was to be encouraged in English as well as local languages. The copyright Law of 1970 was revised by Decree 47 of December 1988. The reading culture was to be fostered through libraries, book clubs, and media resource centres. A national list of textbooks was endorsed as a guide. In 1987 a National Book Policy came into being with a target of publishing five books per pupil. The Federation Government Book Aid Programme was established in 1988 and through it, ₦40million was released for English and Mathematics books at primary level. In the second part of this programme, ₦30million was provided for selected texts for Junior Secondary School and Senior Secondary School. The target for these is five books per subject per class of 40 students.

In the long term there should be 100% local production of texts for primary and secondary schools and 50% for tertiary, technical and the professions.

All this shows that the Federal Government had taken steps towards solving the problems of book scarcity. Steps had also been taken to ameliorate the secondary school library services as documented in the Federal Ministry of Education Library Section's achievements under Babangida's Administration.

- a) Introduction of Young Reader's clubs in all our unity schools.
- b) Training of teacher/librarians through organized seminars and workshops in 1988 and 1989;
- c) The physical development of libraries through conversion of classrooms and school halls into libraries;
- d) Strove to improve our services through computerisation of official gazettes and its supplements;
- e) Created greater awareness among students in the Unity Colleged on how to use the library.

But by 1989 when the constraints were still very many, the Government invited the World Bank and British Overseas Development Administration to carry out a full-scale book sector study. Loans have since been negotiated between the Federal Government and the World Bank for the improvement of libraries in various educational institutions.

### **Conclusion**

The conclusion then is that the picture is still lugubrious. Our problem essentially remains one of funding and appropriate use of funds. The educational sector (including secondary school libraries) is certainly not receiving its rightful share of funds. Yes, in 1988 the Federal Government began an experiment with computer education in the 41 Federal Schools and some military schools. The question arises whether priorities are right. If books are still the means by which the greater number of students can have access to information, then book collections in secondary school libraries should first be improved before funds are expended on computer for just a few. This takes cognisance of the fact that information required by students is not just from text books alone.

Students also require information from non-text book sources to satisfy their non-academic needs. It is these two main sources that eventually produce the "wholeness" of the educated man. For when all is said and done, regardless of the heights to which we develop our brains academically for technological breakthrough, the basic requirement of individuals is knowing how to live together in the society and serve pro bono publico. This comes from qualitative education. Aristotele was right when he said man is by nature a political animal. To quote his words "politikon o anthropos". That is to say that, man is gregarious; man is not an island.

Finally, one of the principal effects of qualitative education is the acquisition of book-learning through the instrumentality of the library. Indeed, during this process, the educated person, a real Kalos K'agathos would have been produced, but it must be remembered, repeat remembered, albeit paradoxically, that education is what remains after all (i.e. all the book-learning) has been forgotten.

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## Appendix

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- |                |             |             |
|----------------|-------------|-------------|
| 1. Abia        | 11. Enugu   | 21. Niger   |
| 2. Adamawa     | 12. Imo     | 22. Ogun    |
| 3. Akwa-Ibom   | 13. Jigawa  | 23. Ondo    |
| 4. Anambra     | 14. Kaduna  | 24. Oshun   |
| 5. Bauchi      | 15. Kano    | 25. Oyo     |
| 6. Benue       | 16. Katsina | 26. Plateau |
| 7. Borno       | 17. Kebbi   | 27. Rivers  |
| 8. Cross River | 18. Kogi    | 28. Sakoto  |
| 9. Delta       | 19. Kwara   | 29. Taraba  |
| 10. Edo        | 20. Lagos   | 30. Yobe    |

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# THE COLLECTION DEVELOPMENT AND ORGANIZATION OF ART MATERIALS: THE CULTURAL CENTER OF THE PHILIPPINES IN CONTEXT

By Elizabeth R. Peralejo

**Abstract:** This paper will focus on a national repository on arts and culture in a developing country, the Library of the Cultural Center of the Philippines. It will present a brief historical background on how the CCP Library and its collection started, evolved and developed. It will give a glimpse on how the Library functions toward the realization of the Center's goals and objectives. Furthermore, it will discuss the procedure on how the various types of materials are organized and disseminated to the clientele. In the process of the presentation, some problems which affect the Library's goals and activities will likewise be shared.

## 1. Introduction

The Cultural Center of the Philippines (CCP) is a government institution mandated to preserve, promote and enhance the Filipino people's cultural heritage. It realizes the fact that crucial to our development as a nation is the assertion of a national identity. Only a people who understands and takes pride in its cultural heritage can develop an economy and a government that can hold its own in the community of free and independent nations. As such, it envisions a Filipino national culture evolving with and for the people.

In pursuit of its vision, the CCP has for its objectives the following: to encourage the creation of original Filipino works; to promote artistic activities all over the country; to increase critical awareness and support of cultural activities among various publics; to foster artistic excellence among artists; and to increase understanding of the various cultures in the country among Filipinos and the rest of the world.

Based on the above mentioned objectives, the CCP does not only serve as a national venue for the performing arts but also as a coordinating center for artistic

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and cultural programs and activities throughout the country, mainly through the local arts councils which it helps to organize. In these art councils, local artists of a particular city, province or region plan and implement their own cultural programs and they can request for a subsidy from the Center for such programs.

## **II. Functions of the library**

The Library of the Cultural Center of the Philippines serves as a national repository of Filipiniana and foreign materials not only on arts and culture but on the humanities in general. It functions as a reference and a research library not only for CCP employees, artists and scholars interested to do research on Philippine culture but for the general public as well.

Filipiniana materials refer to those print and non-print materials about the Philippines, authored by Filipinos and/or published in the Philippines. Humanities, on the other hand, includes the fields of philosophy, religion, linguistics and philology, literature, drama, music, fine arts as well as applied arts.

In support of the vision, mission and objectives of the Center, the Library aims:

1. to acquire, organize, disseminate, promote and preserve works of Filipino artists regardless of ideology and cultural background;
2. to provide bibliographic guides to the collection and produce a location tool for all available resources on Philippine culture scattered in various institutions in the country;
3. to extend library services to the regions through the holding of seminar-workshops among librarians and cultural workers as well as through roving mini-libraries;
4. to establish linkages and networks with libraries, schools, cultural institutions and government agencies in the regions;
5. to gain an understanding and appreciation of world cultures and to create linkages with international bodies and institutions that would provide exchanges of materials and ideas.

## **III. History**

The CCP Library was envisioned as a special research library with a non-circulating collection on the performing arts. Although established as part of the CCP complex in 1969, it became operational only in 1972, three years after the Center formally opened to the public. This was due to the fact that there was no collection yet to

begin with. The first Library Director had to solicit donations from private individuals and institutions since funding then was very limited.

The nucleus of the collection was the forty or so art books donated by Asia Foundation in 1970. A similar gesture was made by Ford Foundation which donated a certain amount which was used to purchase selected titles among publications by and about Filipinos in the humanities and social sciences. Then, a good number of books on world culture, serials, pamphlets and non-print materials were donated by foreign governments represented in the Philippines during that time. This build-up of collection expanded the original intent to specialize in the performing arts to a widened scope in the humanities.

Today, the CCP Library is an excellent reference library with adequate facilities for reading, viewing and listening. It has a Filipiniana Section, a World Culture Section, a Periodical Section and a Special Collection Section which houses the donations of famous artists and private collectors. It also has an archives of manuscripts (i.e. personal papers of famous artists, writing grants, literary entries to all CCP competitions, young composers' entries to composition contests) and musical scores (i.e. piano vocal, orchestral, national anthem, commissioned works on Philippine music and foreign compositions).

The Audiovisual Section, on the other hand, contains a wide collection of slides, photographs, maps, posters, phono records, audio tapes which includes oral history and video tapes of CCP performances. There has been a tremendous increase in terms of non-print collection starting in the late 80's when all CCP departments / divisions were directed to turn-over their productions to the Library for safekeeping, preservation and dissemination. All these make the CCP Library collection one of the best in the country today.

From a non-circulating collection, the Library now allows CCP employees on permanent status to borrow as many as five materials at a time. Outsiders are allowed to use the materials within the Library only and are required to secure a membership card to be able to use the resources and facilities. This card is valid for one year and is non-transferable.

The Library adopts an "open-shelf" policy for books and periodicals with certain restrictions on the use of archival, special and non-print collections. Access to these materials are made upon request and under the supervision of the librarian incharge of the Section. These materials are supposed for room use only; however, due to the limitation of scarce facilities researchers are allowed to bring the materials to the general reading area thus, exposing them to certain risks such as mutilation, misplacement and loss.

#### **IV. Collection development**

Collection development is a phase which need no explanation except that it should be taken in its broadest sense, that is, as the process of selecting, acquiring and evaluating the strenghts and weaknesses of the collection. At the CCP Library, this is done systematically to intensify the total Library holdings.

##### **a. Selection**

The responsibilty for selecting materials rests with the acquisition librarian but the final decision lies on the Library Director. Selection is being done following certain policies and guidelines in accordance with the objectives of the CCP and of the Library.

In the process of selection, the acquisition librarian consults bibliographies and book reviews found in magazines, newspapers and outside sources; examines stocks regularly sent by local book dealers or publishers; visits book sales and exhibits; and attends book launchings. But this is only as far as published materials are concerned. When it comes to unpublished materials, particularly those in the provinces, we rely mostly from recommendation of scholars and researchers well as from linkages with individuals and institutions. That is why there is a felt need for a centralized data bank, especially in the area of cultural researchers done by and among the various ethnics groups in the country which are unpublished.

##### **b. Acquisition**

The process of acquiring materials for the Library's collection is being done through purchase, subscription, gift, donation, exchange and deposit. In certain instances, rare collections of famous artists and/or private collectors are being borrowed for photoduplication or dubbing.

##### **1. Purchase and Subscription**

The Library purchase its Filipiniana and foreign books from local dealers and distributors but funds allotted for this purpose is very limited to enable us to update our reference materials and buy expensive scholarly publications. There is also no provision for rare materials being sold in the market. Furthermore, government restrictions inhibit us to indent foreign books and non-print materials.

Aside from those already mentioned, another problem concerns subscription of foreign periodicals. Most of the time, magazines or journals arrive very late or not at all. This results to a lot of problems for the acquisition librarian who does the follow-up, both with the publisher or at the Post Office. To minimize this problem, we recommended the hiring of a jobber who will do the subscribing for us, pay the foreign publishers in dollar, get the magazines from the Post Office and deliver them to the Library.

## 2. Gift/Donation

Through the linkages established by the Library with various artists, private collectors, libraries, schools and other institutions, including government and non-government organizations, a sizeable number of materials are being acquired. Among the significant acquisitions are musical scores, librettos, literary manuscripts, photographs and memorabilia of famous personalities such as National Artists for Music Lucrecia Kasilag, internationally renowned soprano Dalisay Aldaba, record producer and song lyricist Manuel Villar and the late film/TV director Lino Brocka.

Our problem with regard to donations is the lack of space and the facilities where to put them. At present, the room allotted for special collections is getting smaller and too cramped for comfort. Unless the proposed library expansion plan will be approved and started by next year as projected, there will be no more room for expansion. Due to this space problem, some of the donated materials are temporarily placed in boxes, thus making them inaccessible to researchers.

## 3. Exchange

Another source of materials for the Library is the exchange agreements with various academic/cultural institutions, both local and foreign, where it gets some of its scholarly journals. Added to this is the cultural agreement entered into by the Philippines with other countries. To this date, we have been exchanging materials with Australia, Austria, Belgium, Cuba, Canada, Denmark, India, Indonesia, Malaysia, Mexico, People's Republic of China, Republic of China, Sweden, the United States and the USSR.

The problems with exchange agreements, both local and foreign, are that the materials are very irregular and that some journals have already ceased publications. These may be due to a defective postal system, unreasonable taxes or high cost of freight rates, not to mention the high cost of printing nowadays. With regard to the foreign materials we receive, our problem is that a number of them are in the language or text of the donor country. Since these could not be understood by most of our users they are not being used and simply occupy needed space. Therefore it has been recommended that for future cultural agreements with other countries, only publications written in English or with English translation will be included in the exchange.

## 5. Deposit

When the Library became the repository of all materials documented, produced and published by the other CCP departments/divisions, the holdings increased a great deal, especially in the area of non-print. This heavy influx of materials entails two types of problems: space and staff. There is only a little space left to accommodate the



increasing collection and we lack the personnel to organize them, not to mention the staff to attend to the increased number of viewing, listening and dubbing requests. Due to these limitations, some of the departments have been advised not to turn over their materials yet until we find the space to put them. Furthermore, we have already made recommendation for the hiring of one full time professional librarian to assist in the organization of collection and for an additional clerk to assist in the AV.

## V. Organization of Collection

At the CCP Library materials are classified according to the American Library of Congress classification scheme. Non-print materials, on the other hand, are classified according to type or format and provided with letter symbols as media code and accession numbers. As for descriptive cataloging, the Library adopts the revised edition of Anglo-American Cataloging Rules both for print and non-print collections.

The Library of Congress (LC) classification scheme we have been adopting is already an expanded or modified version. In the early 80s, a group of university librarians was assigned to expand the LC provisions, particularly the literature, language, geographic location and historical period under "Philippine Languages and Literature" (5501-6184). This project was sponsored by the Philippine Library Association, Inc. (PLAI) in coordination with the Philippine Association of Academic and Research Librarians (PAARL). This expanded version is now adopted by almost all academic research libraries throughout the country, including the CCP Library.

With regard to nonprint materials, the accession number system has been adopted instead of the subject classification system. The main advantage of this system is the simplicity in assigning call numbers. Since we lack a cataloger, this simple routine task involves no judgement and saves professional time. Therefore, materials are made available for use before full cataloging is completed. Likewise, new materials are added to the collection without any rearranging. This is important since housing of our non-print materials is fixed and interfiling or shifting will be difficult due to the limited space.

At present, our nonprint collection is increasing. Because of this, problems are beginning to crop up with regard to the kind of system we are using. First, the chronological numbering shows no relationship between the assigned number and the subject of the material, thereby necessitating the use of the card catalog to locate specific items by subject. Second, items in each medium on the same subject can not be housed together. Third there is the problem on locating duplicate copies. And

finally, there is no uniformity in the Union Card Catalogue which sometimes results to confusion among the users.

Since the Library is currently understaffed, non-print materials will continue to be classified according to the accession number system. But eventually, plans are underway for the classification and cataloguing of these materials according to LC and AACR 2 respectively. Provisions have already been made in the budget for an additional cataloger and supplies.

## **VI. Dissemination of Collection**

The collection of the CCP Library is open to the public, it being a government institution. But due to the limitation of space and facilities, around fifty clientele can only be accommodated at a time. Nevertheless we see to it that anyone who needs to make a research on culture and the arts will have the chance to use the collection. The following are the services being provided to them:

### **1. Reference Service**

Assistance comes in the form of information from the card catalog, search through books, periodicals, archival and even non-print materials. For inquiries or research on collection not available at the Library, referrals are made to specific libraries where the materials may be found.

### **2. Bibliographic Service**

List of books and audiovisual materials as well as indexes to periodical articles are provided to help in locating materials on specific topics of interest that are available in the Library. Besides these special bibliographies, the Library has produced the *Union Catalogs on Philippine Culture* - a series of catalogs of monographs, periodical articles, theses and dissertations on the seven arts published in the Philippines (i.e. music, dance, theater, film, visual arts and architecture, literature, broadcast media) that are found in various libraries throughout the country.

### **3. Exhibits and Displays**

Exhibits and displays are put up regularly at the near entrance of the Library. These range from a monthly display of new acquisitions to exhibit of books and other printed materials in commemoration of a particular artist or celebration. Likewise materials coming from various embassies or individual donors are exhibited in recognition of donations made.

### **4. Viewing and Listening Service**

The Library provides facilities for viewing projected materials and listening to records and tapes on a "first-come-first-served" basis. Arrangements are made with the AV librarian regarding the date and time of viewing and listening activities.

### 5. Dubbing/Taping Service

Since the AV Section has complete stereo and video facilities, requests for dubbing (from tape to tape) and taping (from record to tape) coming from CCP personnel and outsiders are accepted. However, request for dubbing of complete CCP performances are strictly prohibited; only excerpts are allowed to be dubbed.

### 6. Photocopying Service

Users who need pictures for their research, thesis, production and the like are allowed to take photo and / video shots from published materials and photograph collection upon presentation of a written request signed by the head of the institutions responsible for such project.

### 7. Photo/video taking

Users who need pictures for their research, thesis, production and the like are allowed to take photo and / video shots from published materials and photograph collection upon presentation of a written request signed by the head of the institution responsible for such project.

## VII. Conclusion

Inspite of all the problems and limitation, efforts are being exerted to meet and satisfy the requirements of a national repository on arts and culture. The Library staff, with the support of the CCP management, continue on finding ways to develop and organize the collection. However, for a more improved and effective collection and services, the following programs and projects are envisioned:

1. computerized organization of collection, specifically in the area of cataloging, bibliography-making and indexing;
2. computerized data bank of resources, information on arts and culture und cultural researches done in the country;
3. microfilming of rare and valuable collection of the Library for preservation and posterity;
4. documentation of the oral history collection on cassette and reel tapes for fuller utilization;
5. more active and vigorous networking with other cultural repositories in the Philippines and in other countries;
6. strict compliance and implementation of the government legal deposit decree on art materials and other cultural resources.

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# DE L'INDOCHINE A L'AFGHANISTAN, DES ARTS ETRANGERS DANS LES BIBLIOTHEQUES PARISIENNES

By Francis Macouin

**Abstract:** The author of this study gives a detailed and precise description of the development and history of museums dealing with oriental art and art in the Far East including Vietnam, Cambodia, India, and Japan. He particularly points out the "Musée Guimet" and several special institutes such as the "Centre de recherche archéologique Indus-Belouchistan" and its libraries.

He also gives hints in which national libraries and archives books can be found dealing with particular of art in different regions.

He presents three conclusions. At first, the documentary resources are concentrated in Paris. Secondly, the students of Oriental and Far East art still do not have the library they need. Thirdly, he found out that the modern Indian art has not been collected in France, yet.

J'ai cherché à ne pas trop vous ennuyer et pour cela j'ai voulu éviter l'austère catalogue des organismes parisiens en relation avec l'art des régions qui s'étendent du Vietnam à l'Afghanistan. Je vais donc tenter, en me laissant guider par l'histoire, d'expliquer la situation présente et d'évoquer les changements dont on parle actuellement.

L'intérêt que portèrent d'abord les Français à l'Inde et à ce que l'on appelle depuis la fin du XIX. siècle l'Indochine, mais à l'époque l'Inde ultra-gangétique, c'est-à-dire l'Inde au-delà du Gange, fut d'abord un intérêt politique, commercial ou missionnaire. Cependant les échanges d'ambassades entre Louis XIV et le roi de Siam, Phra Narai, au XVII. siècle, furent sans lendemain et les ambitions françaises dans la péninsule indienne furent abandonnées au traité de Paris de 1763 qui sanctionnait une des nombreuses guerres entre la France et l'Angleterre. Toutefois il en résulta une certaine curiosité intellectuelle pour ces contrées et je ne peux pas ne pas évoquer la figure du premier "indianiste" français, Anquetil-Duperron (1731-1805). Celui-ci s'engagea comme soldat au service de la Compagnie des Indes en 1754 pour

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rechercher vainement les livres de Zoroastre (Zarathustra) et les Vedas et il publia en 1801-1802 une traduction latine des *Upanishads* qui fut très consultée par Schopenhauer<sup>1</sup>. Il accrût aussi la collection de manuscrits sanscrits que réunissait au XVIII. siècle la Bibliothèque nationale, alors Bibliothèque royale. A titre anecdotique je signalerai qu'on doit à un Anglais, Alexandre Hamilton, le premier catalogue de ces manuscrits, parce qu'il fut retenu prisonnier à Paris en 1803 par une nouvelle guerre entre la France et l'Angleterre.

Au cours du XIX. siècle les études orientalistes se développèrent considérablement. Citons pour mémoire quelques étapes: un enseignement du sanscrit (et un autre de chinois) fut inauguré en 1814 au Collège de France qui est la plus haute et une très spéciale institution d'enseignement de la France<sup>2</sup>. Une société savante, la Société asiatique fut fondée en 1822. Une chaire de malais et javanais fut créée en 1841 à l'Ecole des langues orientales vivantes (aujourd'hui institut national des langues et civilisations orientales, INALCO).

La Société asiatique qui fut organisée à Paris à l'exemple du Bataviaasch Genootschap van Kunsten en Wetenschappen (Société des Sciences et art de Batavia, fondée en 1778) et de la Royal Asiatic Society of Bengal (Société Asiatique de Calcutta, instituée en 1784) existe toujours et regroupe la quasi totalité des spécialistes français<sup>3</sup>. Bien que son domaine couvre toute l'Asie et même au-delà (de Afrique du nord au Japon) elle joue un rôle important dans le domaine indien. Elle gère en outre une importante bibliothèque orientaliste qui s'est constituée par échanges et donations (legs Alfred Foucher par exemple); on peut y trouver une documentation ancienne de valeur sur l'art.

Mais si les études orientales se développèrent au XIX. siècle, il fallut attendre la fin du siècle pour que l'art ou plus exactement l'archéologie au sens ancien, c'est-à-dire l'étude des arts et monuments antiques, devienne un sujet d'étude particulier auquel quelques institutions se consacrèrent. Il n'est pas douteux qu'une des causes de ce changement est à rechercher dans le problème que posait la découverte d'Angkor et des monuments cambodgiens, après que la France eut commencé à coloniser la péninsule indochinoise dans les années 1860.

Pour faire face à ces prodigieux ensembles architecturaux, en grande partie enfouis dans la végétation, on créa la Commission archéologique de l'Indochine en 1898. Celle-ci devient en 1901 l'Ecole française d'Extrême-Orient, en abrégé EFEO<sup>4</sup>. Ce n'est pas un établissement qui dispense un enseignement mais un organisme qui offre à de jeunes chercheurs la possibilité de faire, pour étude, un séjour prolongé en Orient. Sa mission ne se limitait pas à l'Indochine ni à l'archéologie mais elle fut chargée de l'inventaire et de la sauvegarde des antiquités des pays qui étaient sous administration française et elle oeuvra comme une direction des monuments

historiques de l'Indochine. En particulier elle assura la restauration d'Angkor jusqu'en 1975. Son siège et sa bibliothèque étaient installés à Hanoi jusqu'en 1954. La décolonisation et, spécialement dans la péninsule indochinoise, les guerres l'ont obligée à se réinstaller à Paris et à réorganiser ses activités. En particulier, elle dut reconstituer une bibliothèque, aujourd'hui riche d'environ 65000 volumes dont 20% sur l'art. Une partie des anciennes collections, qui étaient restée à Hanoi, ont abouti à la Bibliothèque des sciences générales de Ho-chi minh-ville (Saigon).

On retrouve curieusement les Français à l'autre bout de l'aire géographique ici considérée, l'Afghanistan. En 1922 une convention entre ce pays et la France était signée. L'article premier précisait :

"En raison des relations de sincère amitié qui existent si heureusement entre les deux gouvernements et du développement particulier pris en France par la science. Sa Majesté le Roi d'Afghanistan accorde au Gouvernement de la République Française, le privilège exclusif de pratiquer des fouilles sur toute l'étendue du territoire afghan."

Cet accord, qui était renouvelé par tacite reconduction, permit aux Français de faire des prospections archéologiques jusqu'en 1979. Il prévoyait aussi le partage des trouvailles entre les deux pays selon des règles précises. L'organisme français chargé des opérations, la Délégation archéologique française en Afghanistan (DAFA) eut constamment des rapports étroits avec le musée Guimet où la part française des trouvailles est conservée<sup>5</sup>.

Ce musée porte le nom du riche industriel, Emile Guimet, qui le fonda. Il a été ouvert à Paris en 1889 pour être un musée d'histoire des religions<sup>6</sup>. Son créateur avait essayé, autour de son importante collection japonaise, de rassembler tous les objets rituels et les représentations des panthéons des diverses religions asiatiques. Après la mort du fondateur en 1918, le musée se mua peu à peu en musée d'art asiatique. Il absorbe, un peu avant 1930, les collections du Musée indochinois du Trocadéro qui avait été formé après l'exposition universelle de 1889. La transformation est parachevée en 1845 lorsque les collections asiatiques qui étaient au Louvre sont transférées au musée Guimet. Ce dernier, en contrepartie, cède au Louvre ses collections extérieures à l'Asie. Le fondateur du musée avait voulu que son musée fût un centre d'étude et pour cela il lui fallait une bibliothèque. Cette dernière, constitutive du musée depuis l'origine, suivit les mutations de l'établissement et devint par là la bibliothèque spécialisée dans le domaine qui nous occupe.

Les arts de l'Inde et ceux de l'Inde extérieure, comme on qualifiait alors ceux de la péninsule indochinoise et de l'Indonésie, ne furent formellement enseignés qu'à

partir de 1928<sup>7</sup>. Le premier cours eut lieu à l'École du Louvre. Cette école d'enseignement supérieur, créée en 1882, est fortement liée aux musées nationaux et les cours sont habituellement assurés par les conservateurs de ces musées, en l'occurrence par ceux du musée Guimet pour notre sujet. En plus d'une initiation aux arts de l'Asie dispensée à tous les élèves, il y a chaque année un cours spécifique portant sur une question précise relative à l'art de l'Asie du sud ou du sud-est. La bibliothèque propre à l'école, ouverte en 1932, procure la documentation de base pour ce cours spécifique. Depuis une dizaine d'années elle a pu se constituer une collection sérieuse de premier niveau universitaire.

Un enseignement universitaire est dispensé aussi dans deux universités (Paris IV et Paris I) issues de l'éclatement de l'ancienne université de Paris. Cet enseignement permet de préparer un certificat de licence d'art indien. La bibliothèque naturelle pour les étudiants de ces universités devrait être la Bibliothèque d'art et d'archéologie. Cette dernière a été constituée de 1908 à 1914 par le couturier Jacques Doucet puis donnée en 1918 à l'université de Paris<sup>6</sup>. Elle fut inconfortablement logée dans un bâtiment d'allure mauresque en 1933, mais elle souffre depuis des années de son confinement dans des locaux devenus beaucoup trop étroits et elle n'est accessible actuellement qu'aux étudiants ayant atteint le niveau du doctorat. Ayant longtemps subi la misère imposée aux bibliothèques universitaires françaises, elle a très peu développée ses collections dans le domaine des arts de l'Asie et bien qu'elle soit chargée depuis 1980 de recueillir toute production scientifique consacrée aux arts, la part de l'Inde y demeure faible.

Si je résume ce qui vient d'être dit, il n'existe à Paris qu'une bibliothèque qui a réellement la tâche impérative de couvrir l'art de l'Asie du sud et du sud-est, en même temps que l'art de l'Extrême-Orient: c'est la bibliothèque du musée Guimet. Le musée, outre son rôle de musée national, assure l'enseignement spécialisé de l'École du Louvre et abrite le siège parisien des deux équipes du CNRS qui pratiquent des prospections archéologiques en Asie du sud: l'unité intitulée "Archéologie de l'Asie centrale" qui est l'héritière de la DAFA, supprimée en 1982 à cause de la situation en Afghanistan, et le Centre de recherche archéologique Indus-Baloutchistan (UPR 316) qui fouille au Pakistan. La bibliothèque, sise à l'intérieur même du musée, est donc au centre d'un ensemble voué aux arts de l'Asie. Tout en étant une bibliothèque spécialisée conçue pour la recherche de haut niveau elle demeure largement ouverte au public. Elle accueille gratuitement les lecteurs, sans condition d'étude. Pour donner une idée de sa taille, je dirai simplement que ses collections sont évaluées à 100 000 volumes et qu'elle dispose d'environ 1500 titres de périodiques. L'autre lieu de documentation important, la bibliothèque de l'EFEO, est moins spécialisée mais indispensable pour de Sud-est asiatique.



Evidement, Paris, grâce à ses autres bibliothèques offre des ressources que l'on ne peut pas négliger. Une bibliothèque d'art comme la bibliothèque Forney fait une place aux arts de l'Orient dans une optique "grand public" et recueille plutôt une documentation sur les arts décoratifs. Pour certaines questions, le Centre de documentation muséologique de l'ICOM qui dépend de l'UNESCO peut être utile. Evidement, comme dans d'autres domaines il est difficile, en France, de se passer de la Bibliothèque nationale et ses fonds en langues orientales sont précieux; dans certains cas il peut être profitable aussi de se référer aux archives de la Société de géographie gérées par son département des cartes et plans. Enfin il ne faut pas oublier les services que peuvent rendre les bibliothèques de nombreux instituts, bibliothèques sur lesquelles je reviendra dans un moment.

Je n'ai pas voulu vous infliger le détail de ce qu'il est possible de trouver dans les institutions que j'ai évoquées. Je voudrais néanmoins parler sommairement de deux catégories de documents particulièrement importants dans le domaine de l'art, les photographies et les documents d'archives. Les photographies sont gérées suivant les cas soit par la bibliothèque soit par un service distant, non pas habituellement pour des raisons de doctrine mais plutôt pour des questions matérielles ou à cause de l'histoire de l'établissement. La masse de la documentation photographique est assez importante. Je citerai quelques chiffres: il y a 150 000 documents photographiques à l'Ecole française d'Extrême-Orient, au musée Guimet les seules plaques de verre sont au nombre de 50 000, les photos sur l'Orient occupent 140 cartons à la bibliothèque d'art et d'archéologie, et récemment, musée de l'Homme, on vient d'attirer l'attention sur 18000 clichés provenant de l'Indochine. On n'a pas consacré à ces documents autant de soins qu'aux livres et leur situation n'est pas particulièrement brillante: ces photographies ne sont pas nécessairement inventoriées, encore moins cataloguées et leur conservation est préoccupante.

L'autre catégorie de documents que j'évoquerai sont les archives. Il y a une administration spécialisée. les Archives nationales, pour tous les documents officiels. Mais, jusqu'à une date récente, les papiers des individus (ce qu'on appelle les archives privées) et ceux des sociétés savantes ou commerciales n'étaient pas pris en compte par cette administration. Parmi cette documentation figurent des choses de première importance comme les notes de terrain des archéologues, des travaux non publiés et la correspondance de divers savants. Ces documents sont souvent donnés ou légués aux bibliothèques où on les appelle fréquemment "manuscrits" alors qu'on les nomme "papiers" dans les services d'archives. Les diverses institutions que j'ai citées en possèdent plus ou moins et je voudrais seulement signaler que la bibliothèque de l'Ecole française d'Extrême-Orient conserve les journaux quotidiens et les rapports mensuels des fouilles qui ont été pratiquées en Indochine depuis 1898. Elle possède aussi les plans et les relevés des monuments étudiés.

Ainsi que je le disais précédemment, en dehors de quelques grandes institutions spécialisées, ou en leur sein, il existe à Paris de nombreux instituts. Fréquemment autour d'un professeur ou d'un petit groupe de spécialistes on crée une structure officielle appelée "institut" ou bien "centre", habituellement destiné à la recherche dans un domaine particulier. Ces instituts dépendent d'administrations différentes, l'université, le Collège de France, le Centre national de la recherche scientifique (CNRS), etc. Très rapidement ils génèrent une petite bibliothèque, Ces bibliothèques d'institut sont souvent précieuses parce que, grâce à ses membres très liés à la recherche internationale, elles abritent une documentation qu'il est très difficile d'obtenir par les circuits commerciaux habituels. Toutefois ces bibliothèques présentent quelques inconvénients. Leur durée n'est pas garantie: la disparition de la personnalité qui lui donne vie, la fin de la recherche pour laquelle elles ont été conçues, une réorganisation administrative peuvent provoquer leur disparition; les livres ne sont évidemment pas détruits mais ils forment au mieux un fonds mort dans une institution qui n'a pas vocation à les exploiter. Un autre problème qu'elles posent provient de leur accessibilité. Ces bibliothèques, même lorsqu'elles sont bien tenues, fonctionnent à l'usage quasi exclusif des membres de l'institut. Ce sont donc des bibliothèques confidentielles, ouvertes avec parcimonie, leur documentation, bien qu'achetée en grande partie avec de l'argent public, demeure inutilisable pour un public élargi.

Deux opérations touchant à notre domaine concourent à remédier à ces inconvénients. Elles consistent à rassembler en un même endroit plusieurs instituts de spécialités voisines et à organiser une salle de lecture commune où se trouvent les divers catalogues. Un minimum de coordination et d'harmonisation permet d'éviter quelques gros défauts. Cette solution a été mise en oeuvre par le regroupement dans un nouveau bâtiment d'un ensemble connu sous le nom de "Instituts d'Asie du Collège de France". Parmi ceux-ci figure l'Institut de civilisation indienne (fondé en 1928) qui étudie l'Inde jusqu'au XVI. siècle. Bien que ses acquisitions soient axées sur les textes sanscrits et la philosophie, sa bibliothèque, riche de 60 000 volumes, renferme une documentation générale sur l'art qu'elle s'est procurée récemment.

Le regroupement est aussi la solution qui paraît avoir été retenue par ce qui est provisoirement, et quelque peu pompeusement, appelé Bibliothèque d'Asie. A côté de la bibliothèque de l'École française d'Extrême-Orient seront réunis plusieurs instituts, dont le Centre d'étude de l'Inde et de l'Asie du sud-est (CEIAS) consacré à la période moderne de cette région. Dans ce dernier cas l'intégration envisagée sera légèrement plus poussée: l'ensemble sera placé sous le contrôle d'un conservateur de bibliothèque et le catalogue informatisé sera commun (ouverture prévue début 1994).

A la suite des regroupements que j'ai évoqués, il m'est impossible de ne pas aborder la question qui risque de bouleverser le petit monde des bibliothèques d'art parisiennes. Vous savez qu'il a été décidé de créer à Paris une nouvelle grande bibliothèque qui succèdera en partie à la Bibliothèque nationale. Les imprimés, c'est-à-dire les livres et les périodiques, devant quitter les locaux de la Bibliothèque nationale, de la place devrait se trouver libérée. On pensa donc que la Bibliothèque d'art et d'archéologie, qui allait mourir par étouffement, pourrait s'y installer. On y ajouterait la bibliothèque du Louvre, car par une étrangeté singulière dans le Grand Louvre la bibliothèque du Louvre va disparaître. On adjoindrait à cet ensemble quelques collections de moindre importance comme le fonds ancien de l'Ecole des Beaux-Arts. Ainsi serait former une grande bibliothèque d'art à Paris. Ce projet, connu sous le nom de "Bibliothèque nationale des arts", prendra-t-il en compte les arts de l'Asie? La question n'est pas tranchée mais il semble bien qu'on pense restreindre son champ à l'antiquité classique et à l'Europe et qu'on en écartera l'archéologie. Même si cette nouvelle institution est cantonnée dans une vision occidentale étriquée, sa création entraînera seion toute vraisemblance quelques modifications dans le tableau que je viens de dresser.

Je terminerai sur trois constations. La première est que, en France, les ressources documentaires sont concentrées à Paris. En deuxième lieu, on est obligé de remarquer que les étudiants débutants n'ont pas encore la bibliothèque dont ils ont besoin. Enfin, l'art moderne de l'Inde n'est pas traité, aucun organisme n'ayant la responsabilité de collecter la documentation contemporaine. Ayant subi cet "état des lieux", vous avez pu vous rendre compte que, même s'il y a des ombres au tableau, on a, pour étudier, l'art de l'Asie, du sud et sud-est, concentré en un siècle à Paris, une documentation qui n'est pas à négliger.

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## **INTERNATIONAL SYMPOSIUM ON THE CULTURAL HERITAGE COLLECTED IN LIBRARIES OF GEOSCIENCES, MINING AND METALLURGY**

**By Peter Schmidt**

**Abstract:** The plenary papers dealt with three topics: first, they discussed the subject of the symposium from the viewpoint of the users; second they presented the viewpoint of the libraries; and third, special problems of Developing Countries were illustrated. The author includes an overview on the social events.

Freiberg, Saxony, which is famous for its mining academy founded in 1765 and rich in monuments of European and international rank, was the host of the First International Symposium "Cultural Heritage Collected in Libraries of Geosciences, Mining, and Metallurgy" on September 20-23, 1993. Participants came from Albania, Australia, Austria, Brazil, Canada, the Czech Republic, England, Hungary, India, Ireland, Italy, Japan, the Netherlands, Norway, Poland, Russia, Slovakia, South Africa, Spain, Sri Lanka, Switzerland, the USA, Zambia and Germany. They represented libraries, publishing houses and antiquarians, national and local geological authorities, geological services, mining academies and museums, institutes of the history of sciences and technology, information services, ministries and academies, learned societies and associations, and many other institutions. Approx. 140 participants had submitted more than 100 papers; finally, approx. 90 papers were presented. It was a large symposium for such a special subject.

The plenary papers dealt with three topics: first, they discussed the subject of the symposium from the viewpoint of users; second, they presented the viewpoint of the libraries, and third, special problems of Third World countries were illustrated (Professor A. Bhaskara Rao, Universidade de Brasilia, called his contribution "Libraries, Geosciences and Developing Countries: Realities and Perspectives").

Many of the papers presented in the sections were dedicated to the description of historical collections of famous libraries of geosciences, mining and metallurgy. This included papers on selected collections of the Mining and Metallurgical Academy of Krakow, the Iron Library of Kloostergut, the Instituto Tecnológico GeoMinero de España and the Escuela Técnica Superior de Ingenieros de Minas de Madrid, the Colorado School of Mines in Golden, the Montan-universität Leoben, the Techno-

logical University of Clausthal, the Freiberg University of Mining and Technology, and the Mining Library in Essen. Other authors presented information on the private libraries of the inhabitants of the mining place Vordernberg in the 16th century, mining ordinances, mining textbooks between the 15th and the 19th century, and the geological periodicals of East Germany. The papers which put special emphasis on the connection between the sources, on the one hand, and the history of geosciences, mining and metallurgy, on the other hand, included subjects such as oceanographic papers and their statements about the seabed, connections between mineralogical books and mineral collections, the importance of "reserve précieuse" for the assessment of environmental geochemical problems, the extraction of seismologic data from historical library collections, manuscripts, the faithful renovation and new presentation of technical monuments, manuscripts on melting techniques, and the history of metallurgy. Other participants spoke about unpublished works and private libraries of geoscientists, geological maps, computer-aided bibliographic identification, reprints, aspects of information and documentation in their work with cultural heritage, the reflection of mining in the literature, miner's poetry as a means of conservation of miner's language, the international connections between the cultural heritage collected in the individual libraries, the cultural heritage of geosciences collected in museum and monastery libraries, preservation and restoration, public relations work, etc. - All specialists can look forward to the proceedings of the symposium with great interest!

The excursions mainly aimed at establishing a connection between the subject of the symposium and other cultural heritage, as well as the beautiful landscape of the central Erzgebirge and the area of Dresden. During one afternoon, the participants paid a visit to the historical old town of Freiberg. As in the sessions, an interdisciplinary approach of thought and action was needed in the excursions. It was shown, by means of significant examples, whether, where and why we can find in our time the details described and possibly shown in manuscripts and books from past centuries. The scientists participating in the excursions expected "living heritage" to be explained by expert guides.

Human warmth, emotion and social gatherings? They were there as well as the matter-of-fact discussions in the sections and between sessions! The participants were invited to a barbecue with miner's beer on the evening of September 20, and of the evening of September 22 they met in the surface part of the mine "Old Elizabeth" which is well known far beyond Freiberg. The beer was donated by the Freiberg brewery Brauhaus AG. The beer barrel had been found in a bush by two diviners (Ill. 1), and not far from there they had also discovered two baskets with little presents for the participants.

What is the connection between divining rods and the cultural heritage collected in libraries of geosciences, mining and metallurgy? Well, there is quite a connection. Not only that these libraries in their stocks may contain books in favour and against the use of divining rods; every present found by means of the rods included a little book in small octavo cleverly prepared by Montanuniversität Leoben which contained eight pages with illustrations and

- sent greetings from the old mining towns of Leoben and Freiberg,
- stated that diviners had found something at the cradle of mining and metallurgical sciences,
- wished a pleasant stay with greetings to all mine freaks, geologists, mineralogists, geophysicists, librarians and bibliophiles, and announced a second symposium on cultural heritage.

To give this little book an even more bibliophilic appearance, the entire edition was numbered - from 1 to 150.

Of course, this surprise was not just a joke but an expression of "joie de vivre". Joy should be part of work, and so it should be organized for oneself and others! If work brings joy, success cannot be far away.

During the meeting at the "Old Elizabeth" mine, original technical monuments of the Freiberg mining industry were within reach: a steam engine of 1848, a water columns machine of 1875, the landing, the cobbing table, the mine forge, the carpenter's workshop, a miner's prayer room with a 200-years-old organ, a metallurgical fan from 1831. The "Arschledersprung" (jump over the back leather) so typical for miner's towns was included as well as the singing of miner's songs in late hours. Ill. 2 shows Mr. Heitzmann (Switzerland) before the jump. In Ill. 3 Mrs. Wardenga (Germany) confirms by her signature that Mr. Kutz (USA) has accomplished the "Arschledersprung" and thus has been accepted as a member of the mining profession.

We wish to thank all participants of the symposium on cultural heritage for their attendance, discussions and contributions. We thank those who wiped the showcases of the exhibition in the same way as those who chaired the sessions, sold books to support the symposium, gave ideal support to the meeting, or financially helped foreign experts to enable them to attend. Some of the foreign experts had to travel thousands of kilometres to come to Freiberg! Institutions which gave their support included Deutsche Forschungsgemeinschaft, Fritz Thyssen Stiftung, the Saxon State Ministry of Science and Art, the Federal Office for Geosciences and Resources, the Saxon branch of the German Association of Librarians, and many others.

The future needs light. With respect to the cultural heritage collected in them, the world's libraries of geosciences, mining and metallurgy have lined up to light their way into the new millennium.

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Illustration 1: Mr Katsukake (Japan) and Mr Bayer (Germany) as diviners





Illustration 2: Mr Heitzmann (Switzerland) giving his statement before the jump over the back leather



**Illustration 3: Mrs Wardenga (Germany) confirms by her signature that Mr Kutz (USA) has accomplished the jump over the back leather**

