INTERNATIONAL ASPECTS OF LIBRARIANSHIP

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Papers Presented before the Eighteenth Annual Conference of the Graduate Library School of the University of Chicago

EDITED BY

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INTRODUCTION

LEON CARNOVSKY

THE impact of two world wars must surely have removed any traces of cultural isolation that still persisted at mid-century. It would be strange, indeed, if the library, itself a manifestation and reflection of the culture in which it flourishes, could remain aloof from the international stresses that surround it. Every day the large library in particular is made aware of its difficulties in locating and acquiring foreign books and periodicals; of bibliographical limitations that hamper it and its sister-institutions in the search for literature published beyond national boundaries; of obstacles that its own government sometimes establishes and that, whatever their rationale, often result in frustration and sometimes defeat in the service of scholarship. If this is a pattern familiar to the American librarian, it is no less so to his European and Asiatic colleagues—if anything, they must contend with it in an aggravated form.

Yet this pessimistic portrayal is only part of the story. For if there are difficulties and frustrations, there is also accomplishment. The work of UNESCO and the Organization of American States, the co-operative labors of American librarians in the Farmington Plan, the participation of librarians and bookmen from one country in congresses and deliberative assemblies in others—all these have ameliorated difficulties, if they have not solved basic problems. In areas of such magnitude as the international flow of ideas incorporated in print, no single individual or agency, however broad its scope, can hope to do more than make a dent—by example or by persuasion.

The eighteenth annual summer conference of the Graduate Library School was organized around these and related considerations. Beginning with an analysis of the scholar's problems in apprehending discoveries and achievements in foreign lands, the conference immediately turned to the program and possibilities of UNESCO in lessening these and other difficulties. Next it considered the barriers and stumbling blocks with which the American librarian is confronted in the acquisition of foreign materials, but always with the suggestion of a solution, based on the experience of a great research library—the New York Public—and of a group of American libraries acting in concert. Following this came an analysis of the practical problems facing the American publisher in his search for foreign markets and of the steps being taken to surmount them. Since an acute problem in many countries—particularly those where illiteracy is still widespread or where independence has only recently been won—is the lack of adequate guides to resources, a session was devoted to bibliographical lacunae.

After these general considerations the conference turned to a study of library conditions in Europe, the Middle East, and Latin America. Here the emphasis fell equally on the library as a governmental and administrative unit and on the social and cultural forces that determined the form which the library took and, indeed, that in some instances mili-

tated against its existence at all. Finally, the program of the United States information libraries was appraised, their contributions identified, their weaknesses exposed; and the grand pattern of American participation in world-wide library development and rehabilitation was set out historically and contemporaneously.

At the beginning of the conference the following questions were raised to which it was hoped the papers would provide answers:

1. What are some major bibliographical hurdles encountered by the scholar and research student?

2. Is scholarship "nationalistic"? If so, are barriers to the free flow of information responsible?

3. What are some practical accomplishments of UNESCO in library establishment and improvement? In bibliography and documentation?

4. What progress are American libraries making in attaining world bibliographical coverage? Is the Farmington Plan proving its value?

5. What are the barriers to the distribution of American books abroad? How well has the book-coupon scheme worked?

6. Where is the lack of good bibliographies felt most acutely? Can UNESCO or the international library organizations repair the lack?

7. How does European library structure differ from American?

8. Are the new Middle Eastern nations hospitable to the institution of the public library? If so, will they look to Europe or to the United States for their models?

9. What has happened to bibliography in Latin America and the Caribbean as a result of UNESCO influence?

10. What is the role of the United States Information Library abroad? Is it an instrument of American foreign policy, a demonstration of good American library practice, or both? How is it regarded by the citizens of foreign lands?

11. What has the American librarian contributed to his colleagues abroad?

12. What should be the future policy of the American Library Association in international library affairs?

It would be foolhardy to assert that final answers have been given; yet these papers, individually and taken as a whole, may illuminate many hitherto dark places in the pattern of world bibliography and librarianship. If so, they represent a significant step in the direction of international library improvement and understanding.

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THE INTERDEPENDENCE OF KNOWLEDGE AND INFORMATION IN THE WORLD TODAY

MAURICE B. VISSCHER

THE fact that a conference should be held to consider international aspects of library functions is significant in several respects. To a scientist the principle of universality of scientific knowledge seems so self-evident that it seems nearly impossible that it could be doubted. Yet there are many forces at work in the world which are operating to make the international exchange of information difficult. The librarian is usually acutely aware of these problems. Nevertheless, it may be of interest to professional librarians to consider the difficulties from the viewpoint of the professional scientist.

It is not my intention to deal at length with the technical aspects of bibliographic control because many librarians are better qualified for that task. My own experiences in connection with the work of *Biological Abstracts* and with the activities of UNESCO in the scientific literature field have brought me in close contact with the practical problems of the dissemination of scientific knowledge and of information about knowledge. Nevertheless, my primary interest has been in the broader objectives rather than in the mechanics of such dissemination.

The present-day problem of scholars and librarians arises from several causes. The first and central core problem lies in the gigantic growth of scientific literature within the last century. Figure 1 presents a graph showing the rise in the rate of publication of scientific communications since 1800. The numbers given are estimates, but it is unlikely that the figures carry an erroneous implication. The important point to note is the obviously exponential nature of the growth curve. Every science librarian knows this story well from practical experience. Shelf space necessary for storage of scientific literature in many libraries is said to double every fifteen years.

The scientific enterprise is a relatively new feature in human history, and we, at mid-twentieth century, have no reason to believe that we have seen its full flower. In the United States no estimate of research outlay places the figure at more than 1 per cent of the national income. Even this figure includes a major fraction in the category of development and control rather than bona fide investigation. It would not be surprising if the years ahead saw a continuation of the present geometric progression in volume of research publication, because one cannot see a valid reason for deliberate limitation of research support at its present level.

To be sure, there are romantic souls who are urging a moratorium on research until our standards of moral behavior catch up with our advances in knowledge; but at the same moment new millions of dollars, pounds, rubles, and pesos are being appropriated for research on novel and more deadly weapons. There is, in other words, no sign of a slowdown, even in the field of research for destruction. And as to the areas of research in

science related to health, agriculture, and peacetime industry, there are very few signs of a recession. The largest limiting factor today in the United States is not money but scientific manpower. There may be a limit near the present level in manpower, but it must be pointed out that several factors extraneous to interest in science are mainly responsible for the current lag in recruitment for careers in science. The unfavorable salary scales are deterrents, as is the current policy regarding military service for young men. Both these factors are capable of alteration. The mountains of publications which constitute the present output of research workers are already so overwhelming that few scholars are able to search the world literature in their fields of research with any degree of confidence in the completeness of the result. Furthermore, in any field that is not very recently opened, the labor involved is so time-consuming that the task often becomes a major occupation for months or years.

At the present time, with one of my colleagues I am preparing a critical review of the literature on a very small physiological topic, pulmonary edema. We have identified in three months about fifteen hundred relevant references and are in the process of scanning the papers and studying those which appear to us to be important. There have been a dozen fragmentary reviews of this topic in the last decade, but we find that some of the most important papers are not men-

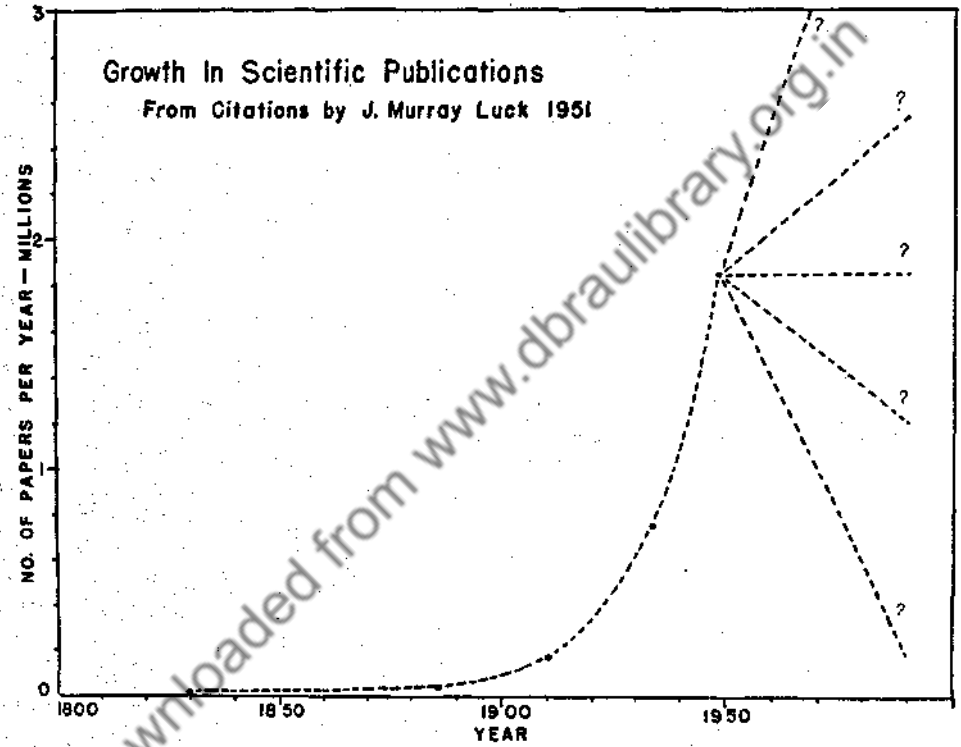

FIG. 1

tioned. And, especially, we have found that many of the more important contributions are not abstracted or indexed under headings identifying them as being relevant.

I mention this personal experience primarily to stress the point that much scientific information is at present buried in the libraries of the very institutions in which people are as busy as bees repeating the same studies and spending precious years rediscovering established facts. Even more deplorable is the failure to take the established facts into account in planning studies on facets of problems indirectly related to them. For this reason the new studies are not so well oriented as they could be.

Although the volume of publication today is the central fact in the difficulty in searching out scientific data and reasoning therefrom, there are other important difficulties. One of these is the language problem. Until three centuries ago scholars used classical Latin for their communications. For most of the intervening time French, German, and English were the main media of scientific intercourse. But in the last half-century increasingly large numbers of increasingly important contributions are being presented in other languages. The trend today is toward more, rather than less, use of other languages. The rise of nationalism in the world could scarcely have any other result. It may be a bright ideal to wish that every scholar might be equipped to read in all languages in which literature is published in his or her field. But it becomes pure fantasy when such literature appears in a half-dozen Slavic languages and in several oriental, Romance, Germanic, and Near Eastern tongues. There are some xenophobes who have said that nothing in languages strange to them is worth reading, but the facts are otherwise. To take some recent examples, stereovectorelectrocardiography was developed in Japan and published about extensively in Chinese characters in 1939. In 1947 and since, hundreds of thousands of dollars have been spent in the United States by scholars who did not learn of the Japanese work until 1952, after they had repeated much of it unnecessarily. Another example is the development of blood banks. The first demonstration that stored blood could be used safely for transfusion purposes was published in Russian in the early thirties. This work came to the notice of western European and American students of the problem some years later and provided the impetus for further studies, which have made the expression "blood bank" common usage and have saved hundreds of thousands of human lives.

Absolute unfamiliarity with a language is, unfortunately, not the only bar to international exchange of information. In many countries with currency control or severe budget limitations, the purchase of foreign publications is sharply limited. Furthermore, there are differences in common or traditional habits of thought and expression which make it difficult to comprehend the thought-processes of persons from entirely different cultural backgrounds. Or, if the thought is comprehended, it is often rejected summarily as incompletely established and therefore worthless. Scientists are, in other words, not entirely free from parochialism.

But the most important contributor to the sin of chauvinism is, I believe, something still more practical. Scientists may live in an international intellectual world, but they also live in a very national practical world. Scientists and other scholars in general need salaried jobs to

live. To get such jobs and to get promotion, they must have the respect, first and foremost, of their own countrymen. The national and regional character of most scientific meetings also contributes to the greater interest in and familiarity with the work of near-by colleagues than with that of students in other regions. Thus many factors combine to discourage full awareness of contributions to knowledge from abroad. Language barriers, lack of funds to buy the less frequently used publications, cultural idiosyncrasies, career motivations, and provincialism conspire to make us provincial to the disadvantage of both the utilization and the progress of knowledge.

How real this provincialism is can be seen readily from a compilation I have made of citations in two important journals in my own field. In Table 1 you will see statistics from the May, 1953, issues of the *American Journal of Physiology* and the *Journal of Physiology* (London, England). In the American journal 84 per cent of the citations are to United States publications. Only 8 per cent are to publications outside the United States and the British Commonwealth. Among these are several multilingual journals, so that the foreign-language citations are about 5 per cent. Although a qualitative evaluation of the amount of important foreign-language publication is difficult, it is not plausible that the ratio is 95 in English to 5 in all other languages. As to volume of publications, the ratio is not known with certainty, but my guess would be about 1 to 1. One cannot do more than guess, because the Slavic and Chinese literature is largely unavailable to us in the United States. Since in 1935, at the time of the International Physiological Congress in Moscow, it was claimed that there were one thousand members of the Physiological Society of the U.S.S.R., a number considerably larger than the membership at that time of the American Physiological Society, one might expect a fairly large volume of publication in the Russian language. Moreover, the Scandinavian, German, Swiss, Latin American, Dutch, Belgian, Italian, Japanese, Israeli, Spanish, and Turkish physiological scientists are all productive, some very highly so, particularly among the first seven mentioned.

TABLE 1

REFERENCES TO LITERATURE IN TWO CURRENT JOURNALS

	American Journal of Physiology (May, 1953)	Journal of Physiology (London, May, 1953)
No. of papers in issue	32	19
Total no. of citations	422 (13.2 per paper)	226 (10.6 per paper)
Total no. of citations to American literature	359 (11.2 per paper)	78 (3.1 per paper)
Total no of citations to British Commonwealth literature	31 (1.0 per paper)	120 (6.2 per paper)
Total no. of citations to all other literature	32 (1.0 per paper)	28 (1.3 per paper)
Per cent with no citations to "other literature"	50	55

The British journal statistics are slightly different. A slightly higher per cent of citations are to journals from non-English-speaking countries, but a much larger share of references are to United States publications than was true of references to British publications in the American journal. A part of the apparent provincialism might be due to the fact

that interest may center on particular problems in a country on occasion, but on looking at the subject matter I did not see that this was a plausible explanation. The subjects treated were those undergoing study in various parts of the world. I conclude that the language barrier and a conscious or unconscious chauvinism are important factors.

In regard to the language problem and the availability of the publications, there is more to be said. Indexing and abstracting services do provide some degree of coverage of foreign-language literature in most areas of science. The UNESCO Scientific Abstracting Conference Report in 1949 accepted one-third as the fraction of scientific papers published which are abstracted in some way. Presumably, there had been considerable selection, and the papers deemed more important are concentrated in those abstracted.

Some light has been shed on the question of the completeness of abstracting endeavors by a study sponsored by the Committee for the Survey of the Physiological Sciences of the American Physiological Society. An analysis was made of the countries of origin and the coverage in abstract journals of 2,051 papers bearing on the cerebral circulation published in 1952 in *Physiological Reviews*. Of the total number of papers published in a 10-year period referred to in this bibliography, 41 per cent originated in the United States, 8 per cent came from British Commonwealth countries, and the remainder from other parts of the world. Some of the details of this study are shown in Table 2. It will be apparent that the percentage of the papers arising in various countries abstracted in abstract journals published in the United States ranged from 6 to 28 per cent. As might be expected, the largest percentage was for United States papers. Although this may be most understandable in terms of the mechanics of operation of abstracting journals, it is not necessarily the most advantageous as regards the provision of information for scholars and persons who may wish to apply the knowledge in question. The journals from Eastern Europe and the Orient are, in general, the most difficult to gain access to in the original, and therefore it might be much more important to have adequate abstracting of papers from those countries. Likewise in the case of western Europe, where the papers are published mainly in German and French, the per cent coverage by United States abstracting agencies was very low.

Even when one considers papers abstracted by any of the four major services in the world at large, the percentage of

TABLE 2*

CEREBRAL CIRCULATION

	United States	British Commonwealth	Western Europe	Eastern Europe	Orient	Latin America	Total
No. of papers	838	169	796	109	100	39	2,051
Per cent of total	40.9	8.2	38.8	5.3	4.9	1.9	.....
Per cent abstracted in U.S.	27.9	25.4	10.1	5.7		20.5	18.4
No. abstracted by 4 major services	412	99	336	72		10	929
Per cent abstracted	49	59	42	35		26	45

* Rearranged from *Survey of Physiological Sciences Report of Pilot Phase 1953*. 2,051 papers (10-year bibliography, 1952).

all papers covered is only 45. It is of some interest to note that the highest percentage coverage is for papers arising in the British Commonwealth and the lowest those from Latin America. A part of this difference may possibly be due to a qualitative evaluation of the importance of the contributions from various parts of the world, but it is unlikely that this is the entire explanation.

Another way of looking at the problem is to consider the distribution as to national origin of papers which are abstracted in a large service. Such a study

TABLE 3*

SAMPLE ANALYSIS OF *Biological Abstracts* COVERAGE

Country of Origin of Original Article	No. in Sample	Per Cent
United States	1,494	48.3
British Commonwealth	469	14.9
France	159	5.1
Japan	131	4.2
Germany	123	3.9
Switzerland	97	3.1
Scandinavia	97	3.1
India	64	2.0
Holland	52	1.7
Italy	51	1.6
Argentina	39	1.2
U.S.S.R.	33	1.1
All others (40 countries)	309	9.9

* Based on an 8 per cent random sample of 37,357 abstracts published by *Biological Abstracts* in 1952 (based on data from Bentley Glass survey).

is being made by Dr. Bentley Glass for *Biological Abstracts*. Excerpts from his data are shown in Table 3. Here it will be seen that nearly half of all abstracts are of United States papers, 15 per cent from the British Commonwealth, and considerably smaller percentages from any other country. These results can be explained in part by the policies of the abstracting journal. A large number of United States publications supply author abstracts to *Biological Abstracts*. Very few journals from other countries do so. The very low figures from the U.S.S.R., for example, are related in part, at least, to poor availability from that country in the United States. Nevertheless, in spite of factors which would tend to bias the results in favor of United States and English-language journals, it is significant that 37 per cent of all material in *Biological Abstracts* arose from non-English-speaking countries in 1952. It is my opinion that if the biasing factors were eliminated, the proportion from the non-English-speaking world would rise to considerably more than 50 per cent.

It will, I believe, be obvious from these data that at the present time foreign contributions to the scientific literature as judged by the examples I have given are very large. It would be unwise to attempt to evaluate the relative importance of papers appearing from one or another country. Such evaluations are difficult at best; and even if they are valid at a given point in history, one is not justified in assuming that the same situation will continue indefinitely. Most physiologists would, I believe, agree that in the first quarter of the present century British physiologists were making many contributions of the first order of importance. Many physiologists would also agree that within the last quarter-century extremely important developments have been made in Britain and the Commonwealth nations. Merely to mention the names of Adrian, Sherrington, Barcroft, Hopkins, and Hill, among others active during the last quarter-century, will bring from physiologists general recognition of the merit of their work. And right at the present moment the British school of investigators of the chemistry of nerve-fiber function is making important history.

But many physiologists today might

consider that the Scandinavian group is at present making the most fundamental contributions by virtue of the studies of such investigators as Tiselius, Linderstrom-Lang, Ussing, Hevesy, and Lundsgaard, to name a few. However, in many instances it is really impossible to credit a single national group with anything like full credit for major developments. For example, one may take the brilliant new discoveries in the field of muscle chemistry. They started with the discovery of an enzymatic function of myosin by the Russian physiologist, Engelhardt. Great progress was made by the Hungarian, Szent-Györgyi. Other important work was done by Cori in the United States, and research on these problems is being prosecuted actively in Belgium, Sweden, Britain, and elsewhere. Thus the newer knowledge of the function of muscle proteins in relation to the contractile process might be taken as a perfect example of the importance of international co-operation in an important area of science. If walls had existed between the several countries that I have mentioned with respect to the flow of scientific knowledge, it is virtually a certainty that world knowledge in the field would be very much less than it is today.

Besides the current situation, it is not without importance to consider the reservoirs of knowledge in the literature of science. There are many millions of scientific papers collecting dust in the libraries of the world. By no means all the meat has been extracted from scientific papers that are ten, twenty, or more years old. It is not only the scientific historian and the student of the philosophy and logic of science who are interested in the older literature. It is true that, with improvements in methodology, much older literature becomes obsolete because more accurate observations have been made. However, there are many areas of science in which the methods of study have not changed so appreciably over the years and in which older observational data are quite as accurate as the new. In such areas buried knowledge is a very real waste.

When one considers the national origins of information over the last hundred years, one finds that the United States and the English-speaking world generally have made much smaller relative contributions than at present. I noted above that one of my associates and I have been preparing a review on the subject of pulmonary edema. In Table 4 appear the

TABLE 4*

PULMONARY EDEMA

	Place of Publication		
	United States	British Commonwealth	Other Countries
Number	191	100	476
Per cent of total	25	13	62

* Literature search by F. J. Haddy and M. B. Visscher, made in 1953. Analysis of 767 references selected at random from total of 1,500.

results of an analysis of the origin of this material. The percentages may not hold exactly for other subjects in the field of physiology or in other sciences, but it is likely that the figures would not be different in principle. Here it appears that almost two-thirds of the literature relevant to this subject has arisen in non-English-speaking countries. Certainly, if one is to tap the reservoirs of information now stored in our libraries, it is completely impossible to ignore the contributions from the non-English-speaking world.

Another interesting facet of the problem of international exchange of informa-

tion is the extent to which foreign readers use our journals. I have tabulated in Table 5 some of the current data regarding subscriptions to *Biological Abstracts*. As might be expected, United States subscriptions made up more than half the list, but the striking fact is the large number of foreign subscribers. Forty-five non-English-speaking countries are on the list. Obviously, the scientists in those countries are demanding the best that there is available in world coverage of literature in the biological sciences.

TABLE 5

CURRENT SUBSCRIPTIONS TO *Biological Abstracts* BY COUNTRIES

Country	No.	Country	No.
United States	4,515	Germany	109
British Commonwealth	710	Holland	94
Scandinavia	242	Brazil	74
Japan	223	Belgium	65
Italy	157	Hungary	54
India	157	Switzerland	50
France	138	Argentina	48
Russia	119	All others (32)	554

I have tried to present some factual data which I believe may provide a basis for valid discussion. The world literature in science has grown and very probably will continue to grow at a staggering pace. In spite of the fact that a somewhat larger fraction of the total output of publications seems to be arising from the United States at the present time, it would be rank nonsense to suggest that United States scientists could afford to ignore the contributions from the rest of the world. Very few scientists, in fact, hold such a naïve view, but many scientists act much as though they did. This is evidenced by our failure to cite publications from other countries, by our failure to abstract and index as completely the literature from other countries as from our own, and by the decreasing emphasis that is being placed in graduate education in the United States today on training in the foreign languages.

However, if it is our complaint that it is difficult to keep up with the foreign literature, it would be an even more justified complaint to point out that it is difficult to keep up with domestic literature. It is really impossible to think about the problem of making fuller use of scientific information from abroad without considering the general problem of making better use of all scientific information. I therefore suggest that one reconsider the implications of the phenomenal rise in world scientific output. It is becoming such a task to review even relatively small segments of the literature of science that productive investigators are becoming more and more reluctant to devote the time necessary to it. Reviews covering a thousand scientific papers cannot be made without the expenditure of several thousands of hours. Thus it becomes increasingly unlikely that in the future critical reviews will be undertaken by many active research workers. This time has not yet arrived, because there is as yet no satisfactory mechanism to replace the critical review. Nevertheless, as the labor becomes more arduous than it is at present, the problem of finding suitable authors for critical reviews will become more and more difficult.

There is no obvious solution to all the problems involved in inter- and intranational exchange of scientific information. It might be, and has been, suggested that an optimal solution would be for interested persons to work at the problem of improving bibliographic services in their own countries. Unfortunately, however, services of this sort do not by themselves, in a given country, meet the

needs of scientists in those countries. Let us consider for a moment what would happen to *Biological Abstracts* if it abandoned abstracting material from foreign countries. It would almost certainly have to abandon publication because it would not be serving a sufficiently useful function for its subscribers. The very fact that no such abstracting journal has ever been proposed is silent testimony to the recognition of the crucial importance of international exchange of information in science. As a responsible officer of such an abstracting agency, I would never consider jeopardizing its present usefulness by such a move unless and until a working plan was in operation to bring abstracts from foreign sources to the subscribers and users of the abstract journal in question.

Having had some little contact with the financial and operational problems of a bibliographic service, I believe that no ultimately satisfactory service to the students of science and the consumers of scientific knowledge will be possible on the basis of subscription income from libraries and individuals. A modest compromise with the ideal is being made on the basis of such financing, but this compromise leaves much to be desired from many viewpoints. For example, the scholar is unhappy with the incompleteness of coverage, making it impossible for him to locate knowledge that exists without exorbitant expenditures of time. Everyone, including the public that pays for research, should be unhappy about the waste in funds resulting from ignorance of existing knowledge. Librarians are justified in being unhappy, too, over their inability to lay their hands on material that may be of importance to their consuming public.

In all the conferences on scientific documentation which have been held in recent years, many of them under the impetus of UNESCO, there has been one point about which there has been universal agreement: the present situation with regard to scientific bibliographic control is unsatisfactory. There has also been agreement with regard to some principles of procedure as to improvement. There has been no agreement that has resulted in any great practical amelioration of our present problem.

It is not hard to understand why the question of a major solution is unsolved. Two difficulties stand in the way. First, there is no agreement as to what an optimal mechanism for scientific communication might be. The second difficulty lies in the fact that no one sees exactly where the financial subsidy would come from to implement any satisfactory solution.

The first of these two problems is, in my opinion, the more difficult. This is true because it would require a prophet to know what is going to happen to such an important thing as the volume of scientific publication in the next ten years. Furthermore, no one can predict what advantages may accrue from new electrical and mechanical mechanisms of identification and correlation of information.

However, we live in a real world in which we have to accept compromises and improvisations. We have to do with what is good if we cannot get what is best. Thus, as a pragmatist, I advocate that we keep on improving our present machinery until a definitely superior machine is available and operating to do the job we want done. Therefore, I believe we must perfect existing types of abstracting and indexing procedures at the same time that we move in the direction of trying to develop more adequate ones. Work in the field of scientific docu-

mentation is a specialty which should receive more and more encouragement, because, as the literature problems acquire greater magnitude, it will be increasingly essential that the persons who index scientific papers will not contribute to their being lost by failing to recognize the categories in which they should be mentioned. In order to make foreign literature valuable, it will be necessary for such bibliographic experts to be not only familiar with the science in question but also accomplished linguists. All too frequently one finds evidence of complete misunderstanding based upon language difficulties in scientific bibliography.

One topic pertinent to this discussion I have deliberately omitted until the more basic problems have been dealt with. I wish now to refer briefly to the complications which military policy and necessity and political expediency bring into the picture. I have deferred their introduction until now because they bring in special considerations not germane to the central problem.

In the real world of tension today, one cannot seriously doubt the necessity for secrecy about some aspects of applied science. There is, however, room for grave doubt as to whether the limitations which have been placed on the free circulation of the basic science knowledge so restricted have been justified or wise. Much information which was known to be in the hands of nations unfriendly to the United States has, for example, been unavailable to most United States citizens. Thus we simply deprive ourselves of the possible advantages of knowledge to no good purpose whatsoever. Even in the cases where basic knowledge is possessed uniquely by one national group, there is doubt that its interest is served by secrecy. This is true because, if a very small group of scholars have access to information, the chance of further developments diminishes with the size of the informed group. Scientific discovery depends upon many factors. No two scholars approach problems with exactly the same background information and training. The educated hunch that leads one to a fruitful solution does not occur to every equally competent scholar. I have no doubt that hundreds of bacteriologists saw the same effects of culture contamination by molds that led Sir Alexander Fleming to his discovery of penicillin and that their only reaction was one of exasperation over a spoiled plate. But out of a unique constellation of information and logic in Fleming came the greatest boon to humanity through medical science that our times have seen. But Fleming did not eventually make a fruitful discovery alone. He had the assistance of scholars trained in fields in which he was unfamiliar, who made his basic discovery practically useful. There were very many minds and laboratories that were essential to the development of antibiotics to the point of usefulness they have today. And there can be no reasonable doubt that the future holds new and more important developments in store, if there is free exchange of knowledge so that many minds may be applied to the problems.

These points need stress because the layman does not in general perceive the great importance of free exchange of basic information to scientific progress even in military affairs. But the point that I believe is most important is that the political climate in tense times tends to make people think that security is necessarily bound up with secrecy in science. For example, work on penicillin was secret during World War II. I fail to find any valid justification for such a classification, and I believe that political,

rather than national defense, considerations necessitated such classification. Fear and other emotions cloud judgment, especially when full information is lacking.

There is also another side to the coin to be examined in connection with national secrecy. Not only is it disadvantageous to scientific progress in a nation to hold basic knowledge secret, but such action also has extremely adverse effects upon public opinion abroad. Just as fear breeds secrecy, so secrecy breeds fear, and, with it, dislike.

The human being ordinarily responds to trust by being trustworthy. He ordinarily responds to treatment as an equal by reciprocation. There are, of course, exceptions. There are psychopathic personalities in every race and every nation. In some, unfortunately, the psychopaths have great power. We in the United States have a great problem on our hands to make sure that psychopathic personalities do not exploit our national troubles by unreasonable and unwise restrictions on the intra- and international exchange of knowledge. This must be prevented in order to protect our own future progress and safety and also to improve the attitudes, which are rapidly deteriorating, of foreigners toward our country.

In the scientific enterprise there is no doubt that we live in one world. It is, to be sure, perverted in spots. The ideological sphere that is this "one world" is in parts defective, just as the earth is, but there is no national monopoly on brains or ideas. There are, of course, cultural differences in the cultivation of scientific manpower and production. The history of science to date would have been a very different one and a tragic one if science had been confined within national bounds. We cannot guess about the future without taking into account our knowledge of the past. If we do propose to make some such guesses, we may presume—I believe with safety—that great advantage will accrue to the science and to the people of every country if mechanisms are improved for the free exchange of scientific information and knowledge. We must sharpen and strengthen the tools we now have, but we must also be bold in experimenting with new methods, calculated to meet more effectively the needs of the decades to come, when existing tools may become as outmoded as the oxcart in the days of jet propulsion.

UNESCO WORK AND METHOD ILLUSTRATED BY THE LIBRARY PROGRAMS

LUTHER H. EVANS

Not long ago, before I became director-general of UNESCO, I could have given a quite plausible statement about UNESCO's program and accomplishments. As a member of the executive board and as a member of several United States delegations to the general conferences, I had the privilege of sharing in the making of the programs, in their practical evolution, and even in some aspects of their administration. However, now that I no longer serve in such capacities but am rather the director of UNESCO's programs and of its office and perhaps, above all, because my office gives me a creative responsibility concerning UNESCO's present and future activities, I do not dare to respond as fully as you would perhaps like to the invitation to talk about the program of UNESCO in general and about its library program in detail. I think you will understand this and also realize that I would like to take this opportunity to think out loud about a limited number of specific types of activities and to invite you to re-examine with me what UNESCO is doing.

It is entirely appropriate that my first extensive public statement in the United States since taking up my new job should be made to a meeting of librarians. It gives me an opportunity, while saying a partial goodbye to a profession I love deeply, to indulge in a few reflections on UNESCO which are prompted not so much by any new experiences which I may have had in the past few weeks as by many years of work as a librarian, which I can now interpret in the light of new responsibilities and can use to help me interpret the UNESCO scene.

First of all, because I have been a librarian and particularly because I have been a national librarian, in my day-to-day work I have been doing things which are exactly in line with UNESCO's aims. I know that it is not an inspiring way of describing UNESCO to quote its official documents; nonetheless, merely by turning to UNESCO's constitution, I can illustrate this close association between the fundamental tasks of librarianship and those of UNESCO itself in purely pragmatic terms. The first Article states, among the purposes of UNESCO, that it is to "collaborate in the work of advancing the mutual knowledge and understanding of peoples"; that it is to "give fresh impulse to popular education and the spread of culture"; that it is to help to "advance the ideal of equality of educational opportunity"; and, even more precisely, that it is to "assure the conservation and protection of the world's inheritance of books" and "give the people of all countries access to the printed and published material produced by any of them." This is, of course, exactly what all of us as librarians have always been trying to do in our professional work. I am sure it is heartening to see that the professional objectives of librarians and, indeed, the spirit that pervades the profession have such a striking place in the statement of

UNESCO's aims. I think you can also see the handiwork of at least two Librarians of Congress in some of the above expressions.

In the practical working-out of UNESCO's programs the activities which result cannot be stated entirely in terms of technical librarianship, nor would librarians want that to be the case. It does mean, however, that the contribution which can be made to UNESCO's programs by and through librarianship is vastly important, because so much of the strength of all parts of education, science, and culture depends on it. The specialists of education, science, and culture cannot, in fact, get on with their own job unless librarians are there to help them.

Librarians are indeed part of the apparatus of civilization, and it is the librarians' business, in America and everywhere else, to see that the apparatus works at maximum efficiency. One need not press a theory of cause and effect to an extreme in pointing out that it is where there are no libraries, or such hopelessly inadequate libraries that they can hardly be said to exist, that undue and arbitrary control of the free development of education, science, and culture is most serious.

This brings me to another aspect of library development as it concerns UNESCO; namely, that a library system, although it may conform to certain fairly generally accepted principles, must be properly adjusted to the complex of social, economic, and political conditions of its immediate environment. This is, of course, at the root of the UNESCO problem. We have to clear our heads of the idea that because a certain type of institution works well in the United States, for example, exactly the same organization will work well in places where the whole environment and cultural climate are different and where library service has to meet the needs of people with basically different cultural traditions and enjoying a different stage of social development. I know that failure to realize this in some UNESCO activities has on occasion given rise to justifiable criticism.

This very difficult problem of adapting the form of a library or library system to local conditions is sometimes the reason for the seeming slowness of UNESCO action. We cannot "breeze in" with ready-made plans: our experts in the field or our committees of experts have always to feel their way cautiously. In formulating a UNESCO policy and in adjusting principles to widely differing environments, the risks of going wrong are vastly greater in the international scene than in the scene of national action. I am not, of course, suggesting that even in places where there are long-established traditions of library organization the problems of development can be solved by rule-of-thumb methods. The admirable fluidity of much American library organization recognizes more than is normal elsewhere the constant need for adaptation, and there is here a strong tradition of healthy self-criticism.

In recent years various problems have come to the fore as UNESCO has developed its courage in going into the field. An example is the outstandingly successful Delhi Public Library, which I have been able to see for myself. The basic principles on which this library is based are those of the *UNESCO Public Library Manifesto: The Public Library: A Force for Popular Education*, which would be readily accepted by all American public librarians and also by those in other countries where public libraries are well developed. It is mainly supported by

local public funds, and UNESCO's assistance is quite limited in amount and will terminate after five years.

In practice, in Delhi the *Manifesto* principles are applied faithfully, but essentially in Asian terms. It might be argued that we should be even more bold and imaginative in trying to find original answers to such old problems as that of providing reading facilities for the general public; and it is possible that new techniques of public librarianship will arise from the Delhi experiment. When UNESCO embarks on field projects, it must, all the time, aim at creating institutions which, while they derive everything possible from past experience elsewhere, have clarity of expression and vitality because, organizationally and in terms of the service they render, they speak in indigenous terms. Sometimes American and British people, seeing their own excellent USIS and British Council libraries, ask why these fine examples of public library service have not been imitated by the local national authorities—and I know of no place where they have been. The reason, I think, is simply that they are quite correctly made in the image of the public libraries back home and need to be "translated" before they can be repeated in national terms. One of UNESCO's jobs is to help this translation to be made.

We are now starting a pilot library similar in conception to the Delhi library at Medellín, Colombia; and in Rio de Janeiro we are experimenting, with the co-operation of the Brazilian government, in the creation of a national bibliographical center.

These field projects are somewhat different from several library development projects in the UN Technical Assistance Program. The latter are intended solely and directly to provide immediate answers to direct and clearly formulated demands for better library and documentation facilities. The efficiency of any project is generally to be reckoned simply in terms of the speed with which it can "produce the goods." In our normal program, however, the field projects generally have two main objectives which are essentially different from those of a Technical Assistance project. First, they provide a *demonstration* of library service which will be of value regionally; and, second, they provide a center for *research and experiment* in the adaptation of methods of library science to the local conditions of the region. In practice this difference is not very important, because, in order to demonstrate and experiment, we must have a library or bibliographical center good enough to be worth demonstrating and sufficiently strong not to be killed on the laboratory bench while we are experimenting. Consequently, underlying any intention we may have to use our pilot projects for demonstration and experiment, we are bound to fix them well and securely on the map as competent institutions serving local needs with efficiency.

The best of all ways to demonstrate an activity is to bring people to it to see for themselves. For this reason we try to arrange all trips of UNESCO library fellows in, for example, South East Asia so that they have a chance of staying for a time in the Delhi Public Library; and we plan to bring interns to the project, not simply to observe and study its work, but actually to serve as assistants in the library so that they can learn the techniques of modern librarianship which it employs. The fellowship holders, particularly, have a double role: in the first place they visit the project to study its work; but also, coming from countries other than India, they are able to con-

tribute an understanding of their special problems in the hope that the library will be able to reflect their needs also in its methods and techniques and in this way justify its validity as a regional pilot project. The same methods will be applied to the other field projects for public library development in Colombia and bibliographical work in Brazil.

In 1955 we shall make our biggest attempt to demonstrate the work of the Delhi Public Library by holding a seminar on public library development in South Asia in the library itself. For this we hope that it will be possible to bring together for a month between thirty and fifty librarians and educators from the region, who, following the general technique of UNESCO's seminars, will work intensively on an important program of self-education. The value of a seminar of this sort is not only that it succeeds, as I hope every seminar succeeds, in giving a worth-while experience to its participants but also in that the participants, when they get to their own homes, will be intellectually equipped and provided with all necessary stimuli to act as well-instructed publicists for public library development.

The second method of demonstration is publishing as much as we can about the library. Already, largely through the excellent services of two British librarians, Mr. Sydney and Mr. Gardner, who were UNESCO consultants in Delhi, a great deal has been published about this library in the Indian and other South Asian papers; and Mr. Gardner has written a long report which was published by UNESCO. This has had a world-wide circulation, particularly among educational groups, and has done a great deal to make our achievement in Delhi understood. It has also, I hope, helped to stimulate something much more than academic interest—a desire to start the same type of public library organization in other areas.

One of my purposes in addressing you today is to ask you to think creatively about the problems which UNESCO faces in the various fields of its program, and particularly its library activities. How far should we go in this pilot public library development, for instance? Should we call a halt after Delhi and Medellín, or should we proceed with others, hoping that an idea which does not catch on widely at first will do so after a longer period and a larger number of demonstrated successes? There is much to be said on both sides of this matter.

The development of a center for research and experiment as a pilot project is much more difficult than a pilot public library project. Such projects cannot be done well without considerable expenditure, and unsystematic research can be seriously misleading. We have therefore not hurried—and for lack of money have been unable to hurry—in formulating a research program. A modest start has been made in working out a small research program for the Delhi library. It is too early to say much about this, since no part of it has yet been formally included in the program; but, as far as we see at present, there are many questions which can usefully be examined regarding the actual effectiveness of the library in the community it serves. Also, we would like to analyze the social and educational effects in the library's environment of an increase in the availability of books. It has been suggested that a study might be made of the effects of reading in localities where literacy is rapidly increasing and where emergent tendencies in reading abilities can be scientifically studied, perhaps in the manner of the study of television made for

UNESCO by Professor Siepmann, chairman of the Department of Communications of New York University. I am told that some work of this sort is being done in Holland, and you will all know of significant studies that have been made in the United States, particularly at the University of Chicago.

During the last few years, remarkable progress has been made in the concentration of UNESCO's programs in response to a general insistence on the dangers of allowing UNESCO to develop hundreds of small and detached projects which do not fit into any broad scheme.

It is, of course, easy for librarians to provide their own justification for every part of their profession's work, but in UNESCO we have to think of librarianship in terms of its contribution to education, science, and culture; but even that is not enough. We have to think of librarianship in terms of its contribution to those aspects of science, education, and culture which are made part of UNESCO's action program. Sometimes it would seem that quite arbitrary decisions ought to be made. We have, for example, always defined our public libraries programs in terms of their contribution to general education. Those of us who know the great public libraries in this country, for instance, or in Scandinavia or England and the contributions which they make to higher studies and research realize that the public library is something more than an agency of general and popular education. Similarly, bibliography, which is one of the most ancient expressions of, and contributions to, scholarship, finds its place in UNESCO in a somewhat more modest way. Actually, this question of bibliography has provided UNESCO with one of its most interesting problems of organization and concentration, to the unraveling of which the Library of Congress, and particularly Verner Clapp, have had many contributions to make. Whereas it has been comparatively easy to concentrate UNESCO's interest in public libraries on their service to general education, it is far more difficult to define the scope of bibliography and documentation and to limit our program accordingly. Without exception, all the specialist departments, and notably the natural and social scientists, include some bibliographical work in their programs, and there have been several field projects for national bibliographical and documentation development in the Technical Assistance Program. The work, therefore, has a natural and wide diffusion for the obvious reason that the specialists recognize the contribution which good bibliographical work can make to international communication. Our effort to concentrate our bibliographical programs is now partly effected by an international advisory committee on bibliography, representative of librarians and bibliographers and specialists in the major subject fields. The committee's main duty is to help in the designation of priorities and the general line to be followed in clearing up the immense confusion and wastage in bibliographical effort today all over the world and to see where and how gaps in service can be filled. I need not go into this in great detail, because Mr. Clapp read a paper by Mr. Carter on the subject at the ALA conference in 1953, to be published in *American Documentation*. One important feature of this work can be noted. The International Conference on the Improvement of Bibliographical Services, for which the UNESCO–Library of Congress Bibliographical Survey provided the main working paper, came clearly to the conclusion that international biblio-

graphical communication must be based on firmly established *national* activity. It is useless for UNESCO to think up wonderful international programs for bibliographical development unless each country which wishes to participate in bibliographical communication has a competent bibliographical service as the national contact point in an international system. Our main effort is therefore largely at the national level and in the countries with underdeveloped services. The problem poses itself even at the national level, however; viz., What should UNESCO's role be, and for how long in any particular kind of activity? Should UNESCO regard its work in helping establish national bibliographical centers as an effort to make a pilot project succeed, or is there much more to be done before UNESCO has done its duty in this field?

Continuing with my attempt to illustrate UNESCO's effort by reference to our library programs, I can say a word or two about the type of UNESCO work which we sometimes call "continuing service activities," or clearing-house work. There are several clearing-houses for information in the organization, the most important perhaps being the Education Clearing House, which provides a documentation service, including the service of abstracts and microfilms, to UNESCO's education contacts all over the world. The Clearing House for Publications grew out of the immediate postwar need to help in the reconstruction of war-damaged libraries. It has now turned into a very large enterprise for helping libraries to dispose of their duplicates, not in a haphazard way, not merely as a matter of benevolence, but by systematic distribution to the libraries, and only to the libraries in particular, where available publications are wanted. A large number of American libraries contribute, and the librarians who have been involved in one of the UNESCO exchange transactions have good evidence of its effect. Mr. Carter has given me, as an example, an offer of approximately 1,200 items of medical publications, offered by a United States library: 82 per cent of this material was immediately accepted by libraries in nineteen countries. The United Kingdom took 182 pieces, Yugoslavia 123, Japan 36, Indonesia 88, and so on. And only recently I was told of the value of clearing-house service in helping to distribute Yale University publications. There is no question of the value of this work. It is a day-to-day, practical job, typical of clearing-house activity; it launches no dramatic projects in the field, such as the Delhi Public Library; it demands the personal attention of no learned committees, such as the Bibliographical Advisory Committee; but nonetheless it is getting on with the job in a useful way.

Here again, however, I must put a question to my American and other library colleagues, viz., Should UNESCO continue with such exchange services, or should it force libraries to rely upon their own national exchange centers, assisted in some measure perhaps by voluntary international associations of librarians? UNESCO, by operating on the principle of helping to start good things and then moving on to others, may some day have to reduce its service in the exchange field.

The work of the clearing-house—and this is another example of concentration—is very closely tied to the large-scale project of breaking down barriers against the free flow of books and other materials of knowledge throughout the world. The Conference of Allied Ministers of Education, which conceived a plan which served as a precursor of the UNESCO

constitution, made special reference to the tendency to impose tariffs on books as an increasingly serious menace to international understanding. The danger which the allied ministers saw in 1945 has, in fact, grown more serious and has forced the task of eliminating trade barriers to knowledge into a prominent place in UNESCO's program.

An international agreement on the importation of educational, scientific, and cultural materials was adopted by the UNESCO General Conference in 1950 and came into force in May, 1952, when ten countries ratified it. Up to the present, seventeen countries are applying this agreement, including the United Kingdom, France, Sweden, Switzerland, Pakistan, and the Philippines—but not, unfortunately, the United States. On the other hand, the United States has signed and is seeking congressional approval for another UNESCO agreement designed to facilitate the importation of auditory and visual aids to education, such as films, filmstrips, sound recordings, and microfilm.

The whole story of tariffs limiting trade in books is one of the most tragic examples of man's obstinate unreason. The amount of revenue that any country can derive from tariffs on books is so small as hardly to seem of importance. The revenue alone, in any case, is often not enough to hinder the would-be importer. Much more is he hindered by the bewildering maze of regulations which makes overseas book buying a major strategic operation; and for all this trouble and this small gain economically an incalculable loss is caused, with no comparable progress in purely national publication to compensate for it. I wish to stress the importance of universal acceptance of the major UNESCO agreement on the free importation of books and of educational materials generally. The statistics which UNESCO has published on national book production give a good indication of this, in showing how few countries there are in the world which can ever hope to satisfy a large portion of their intellectual needs from their national publication output.

Another type of activity—one which concerns the Mass Communications Department of UNESCO and also librarians—is the effort that has been made, in co-operation with the Universal Postal Union, to reduce postal rates on printed matter. Since Americans carry on a constant running fight with their own postal authorities to maintain the privileges which are due to libraries, you can appreciate the importance of this same battle on the world-wide front. At the recent Universal Postal Union conference in Brussels, in 1952, on UNESCO initiative but on the formal motion of the member states, certain amendments were made to the Union's Convention, the most important perhaps being that national postal administrations are now able to apply a 50 per cent reduction of the ordinary rate for printed papers to books, periodicals, newspapers, and other publications. Also, there has been a considerable simplification of an international subscription scheme, permitting payment for foreign newspapers and periodicals in one's own currency at the local post office. In every country participating in the scheme it is much easier now for people to obtain newspapers and periodicals from abroad. Encouraged by these results, UNESCO is going ahead in attempting to obtain a general all-round lowering of air and surface freight charges for certain educational, scientific, and cultural materials, including, of course, books and periodicals. There is a basic question of policy in all this, to which there is no easy answer, viz., How

far may we legitimately go in asking subsidies for such materials?

In 1948, before the agreement on the importation of educational, scientific, and cultural materials was prepared, UNESCO had launched the book-coupon scheme as an attempt to circumvent barriers which it was not foreseen at that time could be successfully broken down by international control. The coupon scheme has been such a success that it is now firmly established and has a big part to play in helping the acquisition of publications, despite the development of more fundamental projects to remove the barriers which originally made coupons necessary. The coupon system is, I think, fairly well known in the United States, although American librarians have little need to use coupons for purely economic reasons, since its main purpose is to enable countries with soft currencies to buy books and other educational material from those with hard currencies.

The scale of the entire enterprise depends largely on the amount of United States dollars which are available for conversion in UNESCO's hands for redeeming purchases of coupons made with soft currencies. Any payment made in dollars for coupons redeemable in soft currencies naturally increases the dollar account and hence the volume of operations. In its earliest phase the sale of coupons was effected entirely in soft-currency countries; but in 1950 several libraries and booksellers in the United States, which had no economic need to acquire coupons, decided, nonetheless, to buy them for at least some of their overseas purchases. I am proud to say that I was able, when I was Librarian of Congress, to take the initiative in this matter. A number of leading librarians of this country agreed with me that the system was so beneficial as a means of improving the circulation of publications, and such a businesslike and practical fulfilment of UNESCO's ends, that its dollar capacity should be enlarged. By this means nearly $100,000 was provided as additional backing. The effect was twofold: it provided UNESCO with greater reserves of United States dollars, and it enabled more soft-currency countries to get more books from hard-currency countries. The present monthly turnover of coupons is between $100,000 and $150,000, and most of the overhead costs are covered by handling charges granted by the suppliers.

The success of the book-coupon scheme gave rise to the gift-coupon program as a means of helping institutions, including libraries, which have no money at all, or not enough, to buy the books and equipment they need. The simple objective of this scheme is to allow persons or groups to make monetary gifts to their colleagues in other countries which they can spend in whatever way they think best for their own educational, scientific, and cultural needs. By now there are eleven donor countries in the scheme and about thirty recipient countries. About thirty libraries have been specially selected as the recipients of gift projects. These include the Delhi Public Library, and among the others are the Government Training College at Colombo, Ceylon; the Medical Faculty of the University of Alexandria, Egypt; the Library of Bayreuth, Bavaria, Germany; the Quaker Student Centre, Munich, Germany; the Community Reading Room at Patras, Greece; the Ramakrishna Mission at Vidyala, the Indian Institute of Technology, the Central Research Institute, the library of the University of Jamma and Kashmir, and other libraries in India; the Teachers' College at Bandung, Indonesia; the National Library at Teheran, Iran; Doshisha University, Kyoto, Japan, and several other Japa-

nese libraries; the National Library at Belgrade and the library of the University of Ljublijana, Yugoslavia; the Philippines University Library and several others in the Philippines; the French African Institute at Dakar, Senegal; the University of Istanbul, Turkey; and the Pedagogical Library, Montevideo, Uruguay. The gift-coupon scheme has been immensely helped in recent months by the co-operation of the American Library Association, which has made a special appeal to libraries in 112 American cities of over 100,000 population, 48 state library extension agencies, and 306 libraries in cities of less than 100,000. Similar promotional activities on behalf of gift-coupon projects, involving books or library equipment, are also under way in Canada and Germany, and they are being extended to Australia, Denmark, and the Netherlands.

UNESCO has done some work with a view to the training of librarians, through the preparation of manuals, the granting of travel fellowships to librarians for study abroad, and the two seminars about which I am sure all American librarians have read. Another seminar was held in Ibadan, Nigeria, in 1953. I shall not dwell upon the need for training librarians, but I would like to have all librarians face the question which faces my staff and myself at this moment, viz., What things most need doing in the field of training librarians, what projects would be most fruitful, and by what principles of scale, of support of our efforts by the beneficiary countries, of time limitations, of geography and stage of educational development, etc.? Our job of deciding how to spend very small sums most usefully is a complex one, and we should welcome suggestions from librarians who are concerned with such matters.

It is obviously impossible in a comparatively short paper to give anything like a complete picture of UNESCO to a group of librarians who, by the very nature of their work, are likely to be interested in everything which UNESCO is doing. The most that I have attempted is to take a few examples from our library projects and the projects to help the free flow of publications to illustrate UNESCO's methods. The most important initiative in developing UNESCO's program comes from our member states, and generally this initiative is most effective when it represents the real experience and the national interest of the country itself and its specialized workers in some aspect of our program. The Delhi Public Library was not a bright idea thought up by the secretariat, but arose from the need which the Indian government itself was the first to express. The contribution which American librarians have been able to make to the development of our bibliographical program arose not because the United States is a country where everything in the bibliographical world goes smoothly but because all of us here who were concerned with bibliography and documentation realized that we have difficulties which we share with other countries and which can, in part at least, be solved at the international level. I know that the resourcefulness of the American librarians in facing their own difficulties and in transferring them into international terms is limitless, and I do not expect, now that I am director-general of UNESCO, that I will lack your encouragement and support. Although UNESCO gives a modest place to library work in its own program, I believe it to be an important part and one which, whatever our budgetary resources may be, must be maintained and developed.

PROBLEMS OF AMERICAN LIBRARIES IN ACQUIRING FOREIGN PUBLICATIONS

JOHN FALL

THIS paper is intended to be a general survey of methods used in foreign collecting at the present time. It covers the obtaining of current materials, whether books, periodicals, serials, documents, or noncodex materials, as well as out-of-print and rare materials. The paper is based largely upon experience in the reference department of the New York Public Library, where the collections are already extensive and the policies for adding to them well established. But, in speaking of such collecting efforts, one may readily envisage the problems faced by the newer libraries, the smaller libraries, and libraries connected with the federal agencies.

At the present time conditions for purchasing contemporary western European publications are close to ideal. The uncertainties of the war and postwar years have more or less cleared away. There are, it is true, vast parts of the world from which no reasonable response can be elicited; but problems of importation from western Europe and from Japan, Australasia, South Africa, Mexico, the Argentine, Chile, and to some degree from the Iron Curtain countries, are negligible.

It would not be difficult for most of us to spend all the money available for foreign publications in these countries. The richness of German book production, for instance, mentioned in *Stechert-Hafner Book News*,[1] suggests how easily money can be spent. The growth in book production over the prewar years, as analyzed by Melvin J. Voigt,[2] shows increases of 31 per cent for France, 97 per cent for Switzerland, and 154 per cent for Austria. These increases suggest the difficulty we face in getting the wide coverage in book acquisitions that we might want. Added to this difficulty are the increases in prices.

The aggressive interest of a large number of American libraries in foreign publications is best illustrated by the progress of the Farmington Plan, which, from a small beginning in three countries, in 1948, has now spread to more than ninety countries and colonies in all parts of the world. Subject areas have been extended with the help of such libraries as that of the University of Florida, which has agreed to cover "as inclusively as possible" Caribbean materials.[3] If a study like the one made for the Association of Research Libraries, concerning the foreign collecting activities of some United States libraries during 1937, were repeated today, the evidence of a broader grip upon foreign publications would be telling.

The Committee on National Needs and the American Library Association

[1] Felix E. Hirsch, "The Rebirth of the German Book," *Stechert-Hafner Books News*, VII (April 1953), 93–97.

[2] "Increased Book Funds for University of California, Berkeley, General Library," in Association of Research Libraries, "Minutes, February 1, 1953," Appendix F. (Mimeographed.)

[3] "Farmington Plan Letter," No. 6 (November 18, 1952). (Planographed.)

Board on Resources of American Libraries are active in encouraging the extension of foreign accessions of United States libraries.[4] With the support of the American Library Association, the Association of Research Libraries, and the Library of Congress, we may hope to explore procurement possibilities in parts of the world where difficulties now prevail. The minutes of the Association of Research Libraries, containing the report of its Committee on National Needs, which for a time were summarized in the "Library of Congress Information Bulletin," help give us a picture of the possible expansion of foreign sources.

Co-operative effort is essential not only because of procurement difficulties but because of budgetary and selection problems. It would be a delusion for us to believe that we are now doing an altogether satisfactory job. No single library has staff or specialists enough to cover all world literature. Even countries like Egypt, whether under a king or not, present difficulties, because of language barriers, censorship problems, and bibliographical complexities. Censorship weighs heavily upon the exporter, and undoubtedly many of the nation's documents are "classified." We are familiar with the efforts in this country to keep certain publications secret; when we add to such publications the secret documents of every modern country, we may realize what a formidable array of material is not to be found in United States libraries. Indeed, even a world organization like the United Nations does not release certain documents and working papers.

[4] Frederick H. Wagman, "Committee on National Needs: Report on Meeting Held in Iowa City, January 27, 1952," in Association of Research Libraries, "Minutes, June 29, 1952," Appendix III. (Mimeographed.)

If these barriers appear in areas of easy communication, consider how great they are, not only in hostile countries, but in friendly ones where there is little enthusiasm for selling books, keeping up mailing lists, or advertising publications which are available. From time to time, most of us have been heartened by the visit of an exiled European bookseller now doing business in Latin America. When we recall the bad luck many of us have had in the South American commercial markets, despite the work of many notable United States librarians there during and after the war, such dealers, versed in German or Austrian methods, have given us hope. However, these well-trained Europeans, with good business sense and eager to improve book distribution, upon their return to their new countries serve us almost as badly as do the native dealers in their answers to queries and in their promises to find and send books.

The preparation of the microprint edition of the British parliamentary papers is a notable step in the direction of simplifying the procurement of a difficult, long-run, and expensive publication. Libraries which spent thousands of dollars to build up the original sets contributed enormously to the research needs of the country by co-operating in the use of their sets for this printing. The filming of the Mexican gazettes by the Library of Congress is another excellent contribution, and if filming of foreign periodicals is undertaken in the same manner as in the American periodicals series, important benefits will result. Such projects do suggest, however, that collecting efforts may take a different turn. When there is a chance that other governmental series or other costly long-run publications are going to be filmed, the question arises whether a library is justified in building

up its files of perishable and hard-to-get materials. And, too, some of the sport of collecting disappears when a microcopy, collated perfectly and relatively low in price, is available.

But no matter how hard we work to collect and no matter how much money we have, all the publications cannot be collected by any one of us. In fact, there is likely to be an increase in the number of nonlibrary agencies to which scholars will need to turn for information on certain subjects. Despite the wealth of data, printed and in other forms, which we have on the Vatican, the private archives of that organization are far richer and, of course, contain valuable unknown material. We know how difficult it is to accumulate and analyze the papers and records of an individual. Studies of great industrial and national organizations, based on their private records, will not depend on libraries for source materials.

Unnecessary duplication in our holdings, sometimes actually encouraged in our co-operative schemes, must be avoided. The foreign newspaper lists which have been prepared with a view to co-operative microfilming suggest the possibility of greater duplication at the expense of diversity in our collections of foreign journals.

A later paper will discuss the bibliographical problems connected with securing publications. When a national bibliography, or any sort of commercial list, exists, the problem of acquiring publications is vastly simplified, for one can turn to a bookseller or an individual in a given country and ask for specific titles. If no such list is available, one must develop a working relationship with a foreign dealer and ask him to obtain books in which one is likely to be interested. Such books might be in a limited subject area or they might cover a wider range. This form of ordering is not unlike having a personal Farmington Plan working for one's own library. In the Farmington Plan countries, such arrangements are generally vastly simplified because of the established services of a reliable agent. The pricing of books so purchased presents a problem. In some countries, if one is a large buyer, it is reasonable to expect that certain adjustments will be made in discounts or postage. In others, e.g., Great Britain and Austria, discounts are prohibited. In still others, where short discounts exist or where special problems arise in connection with the location of the books, one certainly cannot expect a dealer to carry out a transaction at a loss; indeed, where the securing of books presents a special problem for the agent, it is reasonable to pay him a fee for making the purchase. It is better both for the library and for the dealer if an understanding is arrived at in advance and is clear and above board. Otherwise, the library may blame the dealer for taking undue advantage of it, and the dealer, for his part, may try various ways of concealing the charge.

Where there is no bibliography, where you have no idea what books are being issued, and where you have no satisfactory contact, about all you can do is to write to the various international book dealers in the hope that they may be able to obtain the necessary publications. For example, it is possible to obtain books from the Congo through Belgium, from Morocco through France, from Indonesia through Holland, and from any areas in former imperial territories through Great Britain. It is possible to obtain publications from Rumania and other Iron Curtain countries through East Germany. If one has no success in these ways, one can often secure leads through the Library of Congress or other American libraries, or

from the library of the United Nations.[5] United States representatives in the country concerned may also be in a position to make suggestions.

Payment in such situations presents difficulties. An individual or a small bookseller may find himself making an outlay in excess of his bank account and learn that payment for a perhaps involved transaction will not reach him for several months. Before the war, a number of American libraries made advance payment to a representative in China. It is sometimes to a library's advantage to deposit a small sum of money in advance, simply to make sure of coverage. One official Polish agency, since closed, required such deposits.

Thus far we have been considering the acquisition of materials by purchase. Many more publications, however, may be obtained by gift or exchange. Quite often, by communicating with the various agencies of governments—including the information agencies of foreign states located in this country—or with industries or organizations in various parts of the world or with learned societies or educational groups or universities, one can obtain, without cost, books which might be difficult to acquire through the book trade. Minor problems sometimes arise in connection with the payment of postage or with packing of publications. However, if one has an agent in the country, one can easily turn the transaction over to him.

Through exchange one can sometimes obtain desirable items more easily than through purchase or by gift. Foreign libraries with separate exchange offices are much more likely to do a satisfactory job than are those where exchange is only an incidental activity. In such countries as Germany or the Netherlands, where there is a central office for exchange of publications, the operations are simplified. It should always be borne in mind, however, that exchange involves sending as well as receiving. If the American library has an extensive publishing program, exchange arrangements can be made fairly easily; otherwise, it may be necessary to search for a required book or to purchase it. The use of lists frequently facilitates exchange arrangements, but these are expensive to prepare. When we hear complaints of dealers on the cost of preparing their antiquarian lists (Stanley Pargellis estimates this at about £4 a page in Britain;[6] Richard Wormser says it costs about the same as it does in the United States), we should realize that preparing even simple exchange lists may be expensive.

All of us can be proud, however envious at the same time, of the exchange program of the Library of Congress in the area of official publications. That library's continued and successful acquisition of documents justifies the claim that "there is scarcely a country the documents of which the Library does not receive, at least in part. Its province is the world."[7] As long as the Library of Congress continues its aggressive efforts, the responsibilities of the rest of us for documents from countries, or in subjects, for which we have little reader demand are reduced and our energies freed for other acquisition matters. Even if we desired to collect official publications in the same extensive way, we could not do

[5] United Nations Library, Acquisition Unit, "List of Book Dealers outside the United States," October, 1950. (Mimeographed.)

[6] Stanley Pargellis, "Book Supply and the Book Market," *Library Quarterly*, XXIII (July, 1953), 199–204.

[7] Robert D. Stevens, "The Role of the Library of Congress in the International Exchange of Publications: A Brief History" (Washington: Library of Congress, 1953), p. 1. (Planographed.)

so, since such exchange procedures are the prerogative of national libraries.

During the war American libraries made numerous efforts to keep their contacts with Europe and to develop others in different parts of the world. Committees actively encouraged such efforts, and after the war the Co-operative Acquisition Program, under the aegis of the Library of Congress, enabled many American libraries to obtain quantities of German and other European books issued during the war years. In spite of some unfavorable comment, the program remains a notable achievement in the postwar acquisition of books for American libraries and may serve as a model for the future. Suppose such a program had not existed. As soon as trade with former enemy countries had been reestablished, we would have rushed in and competed with one another, probably with a consequent unreasonable rise in prices. We would also have entered the scene late. The government libraries of this and other Allied countries would have preceded us, buying and making increasingly scarce the available titles. Instead, a group of expert librarian bookmen traveled through Europe and accumulated at reasonable prices great quantities of desirable publications. These were subsequently distributed to American libraries at a fair price. Many libraries could largely forget the problem of acquiring war-year publications and concentrate on current purchases.

The Farmington Plan also represents a landmark in the co-operative acquisition of publications. Its scope is much broader than that of the Co-operative Acquisition Program, and, as we have seen, it is continuing to grow. Most participants in the Farmington Plan will agree that it is not perfect, but it constitutes a remarkable development in bringing books from abroad to these shores. The maintenance of a central office at Harvard College Library, which supervises the imports and exerts a system of diplomatic control over both dealers and libraries, is an excellent guaranty for the future of the plan. The Library of Congress Russian Duplicate Program has helped some libraries. The efforts of UNESCO to strengthen exchange are continuous and, while perhaps not yet notably successful, hold promise. The United States Book Exchange is another co-operative venture which has performed useful services for many libraries as a source for overseas publications.

The buyer of foreign books is continually harassed by the paper quality of many of them. Some of the absolutely essential books from France and Latin America are in a stage approaching deterioration when they reach us, even though they have not been opened and may even be right off the press. Perhaps libraries can do nothing to change this situation, but they can, if a series is involved, arrange for microreproduction abroad. In such a case, however, cautions must be taken to see that copyright restrictions are not violated and that specifications for the work are followed. The binding of foreign books within the country of origin can sometimes be arranged for at a price lower than that prevailing in the United States. This is especially desirable where extensive collating is required, as in patents. If the collating and binding are handled abroad, the irritations and delays incidental to receiving missing numbers are eliminated.

The acquiring of old and out-of-print foreign publications presents problems different from those of the acquiring of new ones. For one thing, profit in such publications is greater, and foreign deal-

ers tend to produce good and frequent lists. One can quickly exhaust one's resources on books from such lists. Though the prices are often fantastic, we continue to compete with one another for such publications.

Large American libraries are likely to participate rather actively in foreign book auctions, especially in those held in Great Britain. Prices at British auctions have in the past few years been consistently high. One can follow them easily through the auction indexes or keep up to date by consulting the *Times Literary Supplement* or by subscribing to the Sotheby list of prices. The dealer's commission at such auctions is 10 per cent.

In Germany, Switzerland, and Austria in bidding at auction one must expect to pay a higher fee than prevails in Great Britain, because both the dealer and the auction house exact a fee. If the bid placed is an unusually large one, the dealer may be willing to accept a lower commission. Of course, it is always possible to place bids with the auction house and thus avoid the dealer charges; but such a procedure loses the advantage of the dealer's examination, usually expert, of the item wanted.

Sometimes a library will negotiate for a particular item, whether book or manuscript, and, after winning it at the sale, will find that the foreign government refuses an export license for it. This happens in connection with English items, and it is also reflected in the curbs which the Italian, Indian, and other governments place upon exports. In some countries it is not unusual for the dealer to make his actual shipment from an area where such restrictions do not hold. Although I have never had this experience with a British dealer, I have had it with others. When this occurs, one must consider the dealer's predicament if it is necessary to return the item.

In connection with the control of exports, one should remember that in many of the Iron Curtain countries the state retains a tight control over the book-distributing business. A change of government in one of these countries or a shift in totalitarian thought patterns may result in the necessity of dealing with an entirely different agency. The recent purges in Czechoslovakia and Poland, for example, led to the establishment of new state agencies. The services given by such agencies are not unsatisfactory; in light of the problems with which they are faced, they do a sensible job. It is true that they are likely to distribute propaganda if given "open orders," but the propaganda is often quite revealing, and it certainly indicates the political atmosphere of the nations involved.

Since the war there has been a widespread movement to encourage the shipment of publications by parcel rather than by ocean freight. There are a number of advantages in this—among them, greater speed, more frequent delivery, ability to handle such shipments more rapidly in a library and to pass bills more speedily, and, perhaps most important of all, the probability that such parcels will not be detained by the customs authorities. Parcels will be held up only infrequently, but a shipping case, no matter how little its importance, is likely to be stopped, with a consequent delay in its receipt and expense in getting it cleared. Most libraries, in areas where there are customs agents, can get shipments through with reasonable speed and with a minimum of expense; but, even so, the cost of clearing a large and bulky shipment may be as much as the shipment itself.

On large bulk shipments, or on those of notable value, customs clearance is almost always required, and, if undertaken

by an individual, it is a time-consuming and an expense-ridden job. Shipments in customs storage have varying charges based on a monthly rate or a higher daily rate. In order to keep these at a minimum, it is necessary that prompt attention be given. One needs to be familiar with procedures of steamship clearance, the work habits and personalities of customs employees, the method of transferring shipments to the customs stores, the filing of proper papers, and even the employment of warehouse personnel to open and close the shipment for customs inspection.

The fees of reputable agents, when one considers the time involved in clearance and the specialized skills being hired, are not excessive. But the invoices which are received and interpreted as agents' fees are sometimes confusing. Suppose you have a shipment valued at $688 and find a bill from Tice and Lynch, Incorporated, a leading library agent since 1874, for $102.13. One's immediate reaction is shock at the agency charge; but, broken down, such an invoice works out as shown in the accompanying tabulation.

S.S. "Union Victory," for bond and services	$ 10.50
Bond for consular invoice	2.50
Fees of Gondrand Brothers, European shippers	57.63
General order warehouse charges	15.50
Cartage and delivery from Hoboken to New York	16.00
Total	$102.13

Before one regards costs as excessive, one should consider the size of the shipment and its weight and measurement. In the instance shown, eight heavy cases were involved. The fees of Gondrand Brothers covered the inland shipment—the books were coming from Hungary—and ocean freight and were not unreasonable. (If they had been, the American agent would have been quick to question them.) Cartage and delivery involved the transfer of the eight cases across the Hudson River to Manhattan. The agent's fee is covered in the charge for the S.S. "Union Victory," for bond and services. The agent may conceivably have lost money on this transaction, since he had to make the trip to Hoboken. Another shipment valued at $77 had charges of $35, chiefly ocean freight; and another valued at $88 had charges of $28, again chiefly ocean freight. At the present time, freight charges, which have risen as much as 150 per cent since the war, are $40 per ton on publications from Great Britain. Shipping costs from an inland country such as Switzerland are even larger, because cases must be carried, usually by truck, to Italian or French ports.

Customs clearance charges often apply to gift and exchange shipments, especially when these are bulky or in cases. On one occasion a government agency in Indochina was approached for some needed documents. The government office told our consulate that it would be pleased to make this shipment but had no money for transportation. Because of the state of Indochinese currency at the time, a consulate official suggested that he pay the cost of the shipment, the receiving library to reimburse his account in this country. The shipment did not reach the library for a year or more, because, when it arrived, the customs office failed to notify the library, and eventually the shipment was sold at auction. A curiosity seeker bought it, noticed the library's address label, and then resold it to the library. This transaction suggests the problems that can arise if one's orders do not instruct the distributor how to ship and address bulky or expensive shipments.

Despite the freedom with which libraries can import printed properties, they face greater restrictions when noncodex and nonmanuscript materials are involved. Phonograph records should be sent in small shipments, by parcel post, at valuations under $100. If frames or slip cases are included with prints, they may involve a vexatious added cost because of duties imposed upon them. In all such transactions, the advice and help of a trusted broker are of inestimable value.

Until the consular invoice requirements were eased, thanks to the efforts of the Association of Research Libraries Committee on Customs Simplification, the entry of material for libraries was more difficult than it now is. One way to escape the customs hazard is to place foreign orders with one of the many excellent dealers in the United States; this is surely more satisfactory for smaller libraries. But all libraries, regardless of size, should consider a number of factors in selecting a dealer, whether domestic or foreign, and cost charges are not the least of these. If you decide to buy English books in the United States, you must investigate the value of the pound in dollars. Even with a discount allowed the English book in America, the cost may be higher than the net price plus postage, insurance, and delivery charges from Britain. The same is true for other countries. In general, it will be found that the American dealer is aware of foreign competition and that he has adjusted his prices to conform to European prices or even to improve on them. Sometimes he may merely argue that as an American taxpayer he is entitled to a special preference.

American dealers in foreign books have good European and world contacts; they speak the language of the book trade; some of them have foreign offices; and they offer the opportunity at library meetings, and often in the libraries themselves, for face-to-face meetings and the arrival at a mutual understanding of problems. On the other hand, some of the large international dealers—among them Nijhoff, Swets, and Stevens and Brown—also visit our libraries and discuss with us matters of mutual concern.

When large and complicated shipments are involved and when an agent is depended upon for services other than delivery of publications, it is sometimes desirable to use a foreign dealer even at the loss of financial benefit. Such supplementary services might include his efforts to obtain the documents of his country without charge, packing and shipping them, examination of collections and advice concerning them, securing "fugitive" items not in the book market, and generally keeping one informed concerning book trends in his country.

In our competitive search for books in foreign countries we inevitably tend to boost the prices. If no one were interested in early books on America, the market for such books would not be so charged with excitement. But the very fact that a number of libraries and private collectors endeavor to secure such items raises prices. In a book-selection world of laissez faire, this is something beyond our control, nor, perhaps, is it desirable to try to control it. The Farmington Plan, if it continues to develop, may impose limits upon such collecting, or it may lead to controls which result from co-operative or regional library ideas. For example, microreproduction may lead to reduction in book prices. But, for the time being, most libraries are concerned with adding desired items to their collections and are quite willing to pay reasonable prices. It is altogether pos-

sible that stiff competition among libraries will shortly develop throughout the Near and Far East.

Earlier, I called attention to restrictions imposed by foreign countries on what might be considered national treasures. Great Britain, for instance, regulates exports by Statutory Instrument 1952, No. 1157, which provides that "articles manufactured or produced more than 75 years before the date of exportation" require a license before they may be exported. Recently an export license for Thackeray manuscripts was denied after long, involved, and expensive transactions. Mexico, invoking its export laws, refused to let a dealer send early printed material which was listed in his catalog; and India, under its 1947 antiquities law, prohibits, without special permission, the export of manuscripts over one hundred years of age. In other countries, as has been indicated before, the export laws may sometimes be evaded; indeed, they may not have been meant to be strictly enforced. If export laws were observed to the last syllable, our libraries would certainly be the poorer. The desire to preserve, and even to recall, national treasures was demonstrated after the war when Iceland asked Denmark for the return of Icelandic documents which had been in Copenhagen, in some cases since the sixteenth century. A more recent example of the return of a national treasure was described in the "Library of Congress Information Bulletin" of October 13, 1952, when a Columbus letter, purchased by the Library in 1945 and later found to have been purloined from the Royal Academy of History, was returned to Spain. Another instance is the return of the *Alice in Wonderland* manuscript in 1948 to Great Britain. In the 1940's an English village requested the return of a psalter which had been in private hands probably for four hundred years and had been sold at auction to an American library for $60,000.

Institutions which can send representatives abroad can accomplish much in building up collections. Lawrence Clark Powell's visit to England and Cecil Hobbs's to the Far East are cases in point.[8] The New York Public Library's Karl Kup has sent a number of important items from Japan, Indonesia, India, and other far places. After the first World War, Drs. Harry Lydenberg and Avrahm Yarmolinsky visited Russia to study book sources, and, while there, they purchased an untold wealth of items when the great libraries were being dispersed. Securing these manuscripts and scrolls is not without difficulty, and sending them often involves formidable problems. Especially in some of the newly created independent states, access by Western book-buyers may be difficult. At the present time, there seem to be few imaginative library collecting expeditions, except on the part of the government agencies, whose interests are chiefly in current materials or in the microphotography of records. With the help of the State Department and other agencies, government libraries can acquire materials not easily available to others. The objectives of the microfilm program at the Library of Congress are so broad that it is now possible for many libraries to facilitate their acquisition of certain materials which formerly were not readily obtained.[9] If libraries could in some way make a working arrange-

[8] See "U.S. Library of Congress Information Bulletin," February 9, May 18, May 25, June 29, July 20, 1953, appendixes. (Planographed.)

[9] *Annual Report of the Librarian of Congress for the Fiscal Year Ending June 30, 1952* (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1952), pp. 60–62.

ment with the State Department procurement officers or with other federal agencies abroad, the acquisition of books and documents would be materially increased. Perhaps as the Farmington Plan becomes more solidly intrenched as a collecting medium, it will be able to impress upon official agencies the need for greater co-operation.

As costs of American publications have increased, so have those of foreign publications. The observations of the Committee on Serials for Research Libraries, under the chairmanship of Dr. Charles H. Brown,[10] were that French scientific and technical periodicals might cost 50 per cent more in 1952 than in 1951, and English periodicals were expected to increase 25 per cent in cost.

The status of the book and publishing trade in foreign countries can best be gauged from the national bibliographies, but there are other ways in which one can learn about current developments. Some booksellers issue private lists—printed, typed, or mimeographed. The literary magazines help, as do the journals connected with the antiquarian and current book trade. The *Publishers' Weekly* occasionally carries an article on the trade of a foreign country, naming shops and publishers and discussing prices and trends. In recent years articles have appeared on Portugal, Denmark, Ireland, Australia, Greece, and Japan. The article on Portugal is representative; it describes the shops, discusses the output, and mentions the publishers.[11] Even in the absence of a national bibliography, aids such as this permit one to embark upon a sensible purchase program. The *Stechert-Hafner Book News* is also a useful and informative publication which gives lists, articles, and guidance.

Sometimes as remote as the most distant countries are those within the orbit of the Soviet Union. Even token exchange has vanished from the Baltic area. From the Soviet Union one can still secure books on exchange, if one is willing to accept their interpretation of the value of the ruble. We would be forced to do so if it were not for the fact that in New York, France, England, and elsewhere the same Russian books may be bought for less. The Russian serial list *Periodica* is particularly frustrating because publications available in one year are not available in another.

But it is not only backward areas, Soviet secrecy, high prices, and the lack of lists which cause trouble; sometimes the difficulty lies in our own country. On November 12, 1952, the *New York Times* reported that some Soviet materials were destroyed by our postal authorities. The story resulted not from information received from libraries but from a protest which originated with the Civil Liberties Union. Apparently, "some universities" and some research workers received publications without difficulty, but others were not so well treated. Indeed, some months prior to the story, a representative of a major university came to New York to learn why deliveries seemed uncertain, and in the spring of 1952 the University of Wisconsin asked other libraries about their Russian receipts. It is difficult to tell what might have been held up, destroyed, or never mailed, because the delivery of U.S.S.R. publications has always been subject to uncertainty and delay. At least two libraries received assurances in December, 1952, and January, 1953, that deliveries from United States post offices would be

[10] Charles H. Brown, "Report of the Serials Committee," in Association of Research Libraries, "Minutes, January 26, 1952," Appendix F. (Mimeographed.)

[11] W. S. Hall, "Selling Books in Europe," *Publishers' Weekly*, May 22, 1948, pp. 2154–58.

made to them, but as late as June, 1953, mails were said to be screened and publications diverted from their proper recipients.

The efforts to tighten the laws against "immoral" publications might have a most unfortunate effect upon imports.[12] Would we want to fight the fate of single books or issues of journals? It is true that in the area of erotica we are even now not entirely free to import, but when such books are purchased they generally are admitted. When they are held up, what should one do? The books are often important. If they are in a foreign language, they may enter without difficulty; but such books are often illustrated and so raise questions.

There are censorship problems in other geographic areas, too. In some, what is printed has already been subjected to censorship; thus, even if shipments are extensive, they do not necessarily represent the state of thought in a given country. How free is the printing press in Ireland, in much of Latin America, in Spain?—to mention only areas from which we should be most able to learn the ideas, controversial and otherwise, of their citizens.

Claiming publications which have been ordered but which have not arrived is a time-consuming process. If periodicals are coming direct, it is difficult to convince either the foreign publisher or the agent that library records are correct, especially if months elapse before a claim is made. If one can wait and have the agent collect the journals and ship them, say, at weekly intervals, delivery is more certain. First of all, the agent checks their receipt against his records, and he forwards the periodicals together with his invoice or list. If his list does not agree with the contents in the parcel received, it is possible to make an immediate claim, but generally none is necessary because this method almost always leads to the receipt of full shipments. Of course, there is always the chance of a shortage; in such an event, claims should be immediate.

Defective copies present difficulties. In some libraries collating is done by the catalogers or the binders. The speed with which they can get at a particular book depends upon many factors, and months may elapse before the foreign dealer is asked to replace a defective copy. Since he has sold defective merchandise, even though unknowingly, he is responsible and must replace it. However, his chances, after long months, of returning books to the publisher are not good, especially if the library has bound the book, attached class marks, stamped the library identification, and subsequently canceled it with a "discard" stamp. One dealer in Paris collects such returns, which represent to him his losing battle with libraries.

An additional complication in returning books is the requirement of an *import* license in some countries. These have been established to protect their currency. I know of one instance where an effort was made for six months to return to a reputable Italian dealer a book valued at $150, but the Italian customs have refused to permit its entry, on the assumption that the dealer is buying it, and there are restrictions on purchasing books printed before 1903.

Many transactions, indeed, are no longer between dealer and buyer but between governments. Think of the high prices we paid for current German books after the war, prices based on exchange rates set by the occupation authorities.

[12] "House Group Closes Hearings on 'Pornographic' Books," *Publishers' Weekly*, December 13, 1952, pp. 2318–21.

During the war itself our dealing with booksellers in many countries was subject to government license, and the British effectively held up shipments taken on the high seas. Today our purchases from China and Hong Kong are subject to special scrutiny, as have been our exchange shipments to Iron Curtain countries. Our own government, as we know, is not unknown to investigate our own mails if political propaganda is suspected.[13]

When it comes to payment, the purchase of postal money orders for foreign bills takes time, although sometimes, because of the low fee, it may result in money-saving. Not infrequently, however, the post office rates are pegged higher than the bank rates, because they are slower to adjust to changing monetary conditions. The bank draft purchased in a foreign currency is cheaper than if it were purchased in dollars. In fact, drafts purchased in foreign currencies for more than $200 are free of a draft charge.

Sometimes one is faced by the problem of determining the price in dollars of a listed item because of uncertainty as to the rate of exchange, especially when a foreign currency is fluctuating. If the expenditure is likely to be one of considerable size, a cable asking for translation into dollars is useful. The entries in lists are sometimes confusing, where there is no designation of the currency being used or where the dollar sign may refer to the currency of the United States or to that of any of several other countries. Sometimes the difference is minor; on the other hand, considerable sums may be involved. Only recently, an established British dealer failed to indicate to his American customers whether he was quoting in dollars or in pounds; a price in his catalog reading "200" might have meant two hundred dollars or two hundred pounds.

Some American libraries are making payments with UNESCO coupons in cases in which their dealers are interested in securing payment in this fashion. This method makes it possible for the foreign dealer in a soft-currency country to make more purchases here if he desires. Therefore, it is to this nation's advantage to encourage the use of the coupons.

The longer one remains in acquisition work the more interesting it becomes, partly because of the many remarkable and generous people in the book trade. During both wars a number of American libraries, through their own arrangements, were able to secure the co-operation of foreign booksellers, even though the outcome of the wars was uncertain. The fact that these dealers continued to work for us, to subscribe to foreign journals and pay for them, to store the books and serials we would be wanting, is a noble tribute to the European book trade.

Bookselling unfortunately often lacks continuity; today's eminently satisfactory dealer may be considerably less satisfactory tomorrow. Sometimes the changes in service are imperceptible; trained personnel may have died or may have left because salaries in another line of activity were more attractive. Perhaps the driving spirit behind the organization has retired, or the firm is no longer interested in the purely commercial book, finding pictures or rarities more profitable. Even the more progressive export-

[13] United States Attorney General, "Report . . . to the Congress of the United States on the Administration of the Foreign Agents Registration Act of 1938, as Amended May, 1953," (Washington, 1953), pp. 8–9. (Planographed.)

ers sometimes claim that their profit derives from such rare-book materials as they can sell. In 1949 a leading Scandinavian bookseller, with many library accounts, reported a profit of only $34.68 in his new-book department. One hears similar stories elsewhere, especially in France. In England, one library agent has opened an antiquarian shop in order to keep the other library business solvent. While library agents seldom lose on the sale of current books, periodicals, and government publications, they would find it difficult to carry on without other sources of income. While a library must make certain it receives value for its money, it must also remember that the agent is in business for profit and that, if he is a good agent, he is supplying services often above price. Because of the vicissitudes of the foreign book trade, a library will find it desirable to review its foreign dealer relations periodically. Such a review need not entail a series of carping criticisms, but it should elicit an understanding of the dealer's problems and also make clear to him the library's needs and desires.

What we really need in the foreign procurement field is such a publication as was proposed at the acquisition meeting during the American Library Association convention, on June 22, 1953: namely, a newsletter to keep us informed on all aspects of acquisition work—sources, problems, prices, and techniques. Such a letter would serve as a bond between persons concerned with securing publications, it would unify protests against restrictive laws and actions, and it would keep us all informed on the nature of collecting activities. The Farmington Plan issues a "Letter," but it is not of sufficient scope to be helpful beyond the Farmington area. The unpublished annual reports of the chiefs of the order divisions of the large libraries, while usually not designed for out-of-office use, are rich in information and can often serve as manuals in the art of importing books. The minutes of the Association of Research Libraries are of great value, but they are available only to members of the association.

A newsletter would also help the dealers. It might encourage them, when in America on antiquarian business, to spend more time in discussing current books. It would enable us to work out fair agreements on such matters as the question of who should pay for shipping cases, parcel post, wrapping, and insurance. Some special agreements which are now the basis of negotiation might be more generally applied. The letter might keep us informed about the publishing output of each country and how best to go about acquiring commercial and noncommercial publications. It would serve as a medium of factual and useful information secured from library travelers abroad, and it would unify and strengthen us in our efforts to work in the foreign market.

Purchasing foreign publications is big business, and every year it grows larger and involves larger amounts of money. United action on the part of acquisition librarians would go far toward insuring greater efficiency in spending it.

THE FOREIGN DISTRIBUTION OF AMERICAN PUBLICATIONS

MALCOLM JOHNSON

Books are more than an article of commerce, and for that reason their distribution abroad is more than a commercial matter. Other nations have realized this long since; France, Italy, Great Britain, Germany, Russia, and other countries have gone to great lengths to see that their books circulated freely elsewhere in the world.

It was the British who originated the phrase "trade follows the book"; but it was the Germans who, during the period between the wars, realized most fully the truth of that phrase. The Germans knew also, as we are learning, that inherent in a country's books is the spirit and nature of that country; in their works of science and information, and even in their fiction, the Germans drove home the point that the German ideal was the one for the world to follow. In pursuit of that end they used subsidies of many kinds, among them the so-called "book mark," which had the lowest value in terms of foreign currencies of any of the various types of Reichsmarks which the ingenious mind of Dr. Schacht had devised.

We have used no such devices; but more and more, in the field of publishing as well as that of government, the realization has grown that the American book abroad has, in many senses, a new mission to perform. Many of us, by this time, have seen some of the flood of books which Russia is pouring into the free world. For the most part they are produced by the State Publishing House in Moscow, although in some countries Russia has used the device of securing control of a local publishing house. In Russian and in almost every principal language, the Russian book is available, well printed and well bound, at prices which are usually below any rational cost of production. In Italy or Israel or France you will find Russian books in English and in the languages of the country, not only works of Marxism and Leninism and the novels of the great Russian writers but works by contemporary English and American authors and, indeed, any books which can serve the Russian cause.

The Russians know, as again we are learning, that the book is a means of spreading their viewpoint with a permanence nothing else possesses. Radio, the newspapers, and magazines serve their purpose. They make their impact and are gone. The book remains. It is passed from hand to hand, read, treasured, loaned. Librarians know how one book can serve countless people, and it can serve those people even though it is a private possession and not on a library shelf. The lasting value of books, their durability and permanence, is a point too often overlooked in our attempts to place a picture of America, our way of life, our arts and letters, our education, and our technology before the people of other nations.

The subject of the paper I am privileged to give today is "The Foreign Distribution of American Publications." In it I shall try to cover the principal ways in which our books go abroad and some of the related problems. There will be

many omissions and many qualifications, some noted and some implied. The publisher selling abroad must deal, in one way or another, with every literate country and with an infinity of customs and currency regulations. These regulations shift, sometimes with great rapidity, and a quirk in a new law can sometimes bar books for months or years. If, in consequence, some of these remarks seem unnecessarily general, it should be remembered that a long and tedious study would be necessary to deal fully with all the exceptions and ramifications of the subject.

Large-scale foreign trade in American books is relatively new. For most of the nineteenth century we looked to Europe for much of our fiction and even more of our informational literature. It is true that we exported some books, and authors like James Fenimore Cooper and others had great popularity in other countries; but, for the most part, American book production stayed home, and we probably imported many times the number of volumes exported. The advances in American technology and in America's international standing which came with World War I, coupled with the growing development of American writing and publishing, led to a gradual but steady change. Reliable figures for exports and imports are not readily available, particularly for the earlier years, but between 1919 and the beginning of World War II, the export value of American books was probably in the vicinity of $5,000,000 a year. I say "probably," because the Department of Commerce figures include certain kinds of learned journals and do not include small mail shipments, so that any department figures need a certain factor of correction. Yet the figures from year to year are reasonably comparable, and from $5,543,000 for 1938, the total rose by 1945 to $11,605,000 and by 1952 to $24,680,000. These, of course, are wholesale figures, and, balancing 25-cent books and technical books and taking a rough average value of $1.00 a copy, we sent abroad last year some 25,000,000 volumes. These were in commercial shipments; there is no way of knowing how many more books went abroad as gifts and by other means.

The exchange—and this is to be noted with regret—was not equal; in 1952 we imported books to the value of less than half our exports: $11,160,000. On a percentage basis, it has been estimated that before the war 3 per cent of our total book production was exported, while England exported 30 per cent. Since the war the percentage of American books has doubled, perhaps more than doubled, while the figure for some houses has gone as high as 15 per cent, taking into the total an estimate of the books purchased by the government for overseas use.

Our books in foreign commerce are available in two forms: the books themselves and translations. Because they form two distinct categories it will be simplest to take them up separately.

I

The principal handicaps under which the American book suffers in world commerce are the nonconvertibility of most currencies in terms of dollars and the high retail price that American books bear. The latter, of course, is not true of the paper-bounds; they are a subject in themselves and will be dealt with as such. But I might note that in world trade the two kinds of American books in most active demand are the paper-bounds, which are cheap enough to be available to almost anyone anywhere, and our books of information, using that word in

the widest possible sense. The informational book, ranging from works in medicine, science, and education to more general books of history, biography, politics, and economics, are generally hardbound, better and differently made than the books people elsewhere are accustomed to, and disproportionately expensive. It is not unusual for an American technical book to be priced at $10.00 or more; figures of this magnitude, translated into marks, for instance, and applied to the German scale of salaries, mean that a professor in the university will either have to look to his university library for a copy or else sacrifice a week's pay.

But even this is not so much of an impediment as the various barriers which soft-currency countries have set up against the import of dollar goods. Even Great Britain has American books on a strict and inelastic quota; a quota which would appear to reduce by a third or a half the number of our books which would otherwise enter the United Kingdom. A handful of countries, like Canada, Switzerland, and Lebanon, have free convertibility, but they are the exception; more typical is Australia, where, until recently at least, an American book could be purchased from the United States only if a recognized school adopted it as a text and then only if the school could find a dealer with a dollar quota sufficient to import the book. Some countries, among them Egypt and the Argentine, and for various reasons, make no dollars at all available for American books, and throughout the world the situation in every soft-currency country is somewhere between the two extremes of no exchange at all and a quota based on the imports of some given postwar year.

The publisher has few means with which to meet this. He cannot afford to accumulate foreign currencies, in many cases representing funds virtually unusable except for purposes beyond the normal scope of business operations. Nor can he afford to carry long-term credits in the hope that one day the situation will change. For one thing, many soft currencies vary in value almost from day to day, and no publisher is in a position to face the contingency of exchange losses.

Yet in many countries where the need for American books is great and where it is very much in the national interest that they be available, there is little or no exchange for their purchase. To help in this dilemma, there was added to the bill that originally established the ECA, now the MSA, a provision for aiding the distribution of informational materials, books, magazines, motion pictures, and newspapers, through the device of a guaranty fund. This was the Informational Media Guaranty Fund, first under ECA, then transferred to the State Department, and now to be incorporated in the new United States Information Agency which Mr. Streibert is setting up in Washington.

The mechanism of the fund is simple. The publisher is allowed to sell his books in local currency and then, under certain controlling restrictions, to sell the currency to our government for dollars. The local currency is used for our diplomatic or other expenses in that country, and for this reason the consent of a country itself is necessary before the Media Guaranty Fund can be put into operation.

The fund is working now, as far as books are concerned, principally in Holland, Germany, and Israel, although contracts exist in Yugoslavia, Austria, France, Italy, and perhaps some other countries, and contracts are under discussion in Egypt and the Philippines. In theory, any country eligible for Marshall

Plan aid is eligible for the operations of the fund.

Outside this fund the publisher is on his own. He promotes the sale of his books to bookstores and sometimes directly to educational institutions by mail and through salesmen, much as he does in the United States, except that personal representation is on the sparse side. In Canada, of course, most American houses have agents or subsidiaries; the Canadian market is so free and unrestricted that most of us think of it simply as another section of our domestic business. It forms one of the largest of our export markets, in 1937 being 40 per cent of the total and in 1947, the last year for which I have a breakdown, about 33 per cent. In that year we shipped almost twice as many books to Canada as to the whole United Kingdom. For the rest of the world, with the exception of a few large publishers, it is customary to work through general agents, like H. M. Snyder and Company or William S. Hall and Company, who represent large groups of publishers in their given areas. In Europe a smaller group of publishers has, in recent years, been experimenting with resident sales representation, working out of Stockholm into all of free Europe.

In most countries the book trade is organized along much the same lines as our own, though the foreign bookseller is likely to fill the triple role of bookseller, library supplier, and school and college bookstore. He operates, however, under one serious handicap: he can seldom see a new American book before he buys it, and he cannot usually return the results of an overoptimistic purchase of that unseen book, since one that has traveled halfway around the world and back is usually battered beyond further use. Book exhibitions, some privately organized, some under the auspices of the State Department, help, but more of them are needed.

II

Books reach foreign readers in more ways than through the efforts of the original publisher. One of the best and most effective of these ways, in the countries in which they operate, are the USIS libraries, and I should like to pay tribute to them here and to the librarians who are running them. Their contents have been criticized recently, and I suppose that into any library there creeps from time to time a title which cannot be said to further the purposes for which the library may have been established, but the only real criticism I have of the many USIS libraries I have seen is that they are too small and that their contents are by their nature too restricted. In many cities USIS libraries are the only place where booksellers, educators, and technicians can see relatively new American books. From a commercial point of view alone, the libraries are valuable, and I imagine that the work of education they do among local libraries and librarians is not the least of their values.

One phase of their work not often realized at home is their use of educational books at the elementary- and secondary-school level. Such books have little circulation in our own libraries, but abroad, in the countries whose educational standards are still in the developmental stage, they are read to tatters. Teachers themselves borrow them, and, what is more, use them. In Damascus, in a native school in the soukh, I saw one example, and probably a typical one. The teacher, with a rudimentary knowledge of English, enough at least to enable him to read it, would borrow for a few weeks at a time copies of Rowe Peterson's admirable series of small colored picture-

texts on various phases of nature and the natural sciences. The text would be translated and its high points written in Arabic on the blackboard, and as the teacher talked, he would turn the colored pages, opening new worlds before the children's eyes. I do not know what effect these little American books will have on a coming generation, but it can hardly fail to be a beneficial one. As a citizen and a publisher I wish these libraries well and hope they grow and prosper.

Another aid to book distribution is UNESCO's coupon plan, aimed to help scholars and libraries. It seems to work in a spotty manner, popular in some countries where it is available and not much used in others. Its technical limitation is that it can be used only in a country having a franc, sterling, or pound balance, or in Yugoslavia, Israel, or Iran. UNESCO also issues various book lists and circulates books in its own Technical Assistance programs, but there is, of course, no emphasis on American titles.

Other branches of our government than the State Department are beginning to use more books in their foreign programs, but the small libraries and collections acquired for local use by the Point Four teams, the MSA technical assistance offices, and other groups working abroad are still in a fairly rudimentary state. The government has also made available part of the interest on the United States loan to Finland for the purchase by Finnish schools and libraries of American books and technical materials, purchases which would otherwise be totally impossible because of the exchange lack.

One of the most interesting and significant noncommercial channels making books available where they are most useful is the privately operated library, free of government or institutional subvention or control. The only large-scale example I know of, though there may well be others, is the American Library in Paris. It was founded in 1920 by a group of Americans living in Paris, who took over books sent to France for soldiers in World War I. From that small start it has grown, always privately supported, so that on May 30, 1953, it was able to announce the opening at Nantes of its eighth branch. It is used as much by the French as by the foreign colony, stocks American books in the original and in translation, and offers a pattern that might well be copied elsewhere.

There are countless other instances of government loans and gifts, foundation grants, and grants by private enterprise, and I suppose that books so flowing by various noncommercial devices into the economies of many countries would be a substantial part of their entire book import. But the hard core of American book distribution abroad, despite the difficulties of currency and price, is still the commercial book trade.

III

The high price of our hard-bound books has been noted. One result of these prices is to drive the foreign purchaser more and more to his library, if he has one, simply because he cannot afford to buy the books himself. Another result has been to make the extremely cheap paper-bound book an increasingly vital factor in the export trade.

There are no accurate figures for paper-bound exports, but two of the leading publishers agree that last year about eight and a half million books, with a wholesale value of about one and a half million dollars, were shipped abroad. More significant than the figure itself is the fact that virtually none of these

books went into the United Kingdom, normally one of our largest book markets, and that the sales trend is up. The paper-bound-book industry has introduced into foreign book selling the same wholesaling structure that is the basis of American paper-bound-book distribution. It seems to be working; it has already seriously affected the old European English language reprints like the "Zephyr" and "Tauchnitz" series.

The foreign buyer of paper-backs is more serious-minded than his American counterpart. He seems also to be particularly interested in the English language itself, and such titles as *English through Pictures*, dictionaries, and vocabulary builders are among the best-selling titles. This penetration of the paper-bound book is important to all publishers and to the foreign book trade, for it is widening the base of English-reading book buyers and may in the end have as important an effect in popularizing English as did the introduction of American movies with sound tracks after the first World War.

Educational books below the college level also present a special, although completely different, case. The school systems of any country distrust and dislike foreign influence, but there is a widespread curiosity about our schoolbooks and a desire for the kind of know-how our books exhibit. Textbook publishers, long experienced in the Philippines in Tagalog as well as English-language publishing, have begun to think about the needs of other countries. Winston is producing in the United States an elementary series in Aramaic for Ethiopia; Silver Burdett has already printed a geography in Thai for the Siamese and has in preparation in Urdu a nine-book series in the social studies; and there are other similar projects in process or under discussion with foreign authorities. We have as yet nothing to compare with England's Michael West readers for India and the Near East; but we are making progress, and one of the most stimulating possibilities for the future is the application of our storehouse of educational materials and experience to the service of education abroad. Any widespread development of this beginning could well have a profound influence in molding a peaceful and mutually understanding world.

IV

Up to this point, we have been dealing largely with books in English and books made here, for the American book trade produces, with exceptions in the educational field, virtually nothing in foreign languages. What books we sell abroad are mostly in our own tongue. It is true that English is becoming the second language of the world and that multilingual areas like India are finding it an essential medium of communication; but every man reads his own language more easily than a foreign one, and the translation of what American writers have to say is of no less importance—perhaps of more—than the circulation of the English original.

The trade in translations is, in form, a simple one. It is only in its details that it becomes tryingly complicated. The publisher or the author's agent offers rights by languages, seldom by countries, to foreign publishers whose reputation and credit are known. The foreign publisher usually pays an advance against royalties, frequently on the basis of his first edition, and then picks his own translator. The translation may be good or bad. The American publisher seldom bothers to check, and there have been instances where translators have inserted here and there their own ideas, usually at variance with those of the author. This is hard to

guard against and can have easily imagined consequences.

An additional difficulty in translation is that a good many words we use currently cannot be translated at all into the wholly or partly ideographic languages like the Chinese and that other languages, like the Arabic, have no equivalents for the terminology of modern science and industry. Most scientific books are, in fact, virtually translation-proof in all but a few languages, but the spread of English as a second language has been such that readers competent to use and understand such books read English even if they do not speak it. There are other minor problems in handling translations; whether to sell German rights in Germany, Austria, or Switzerland, Portuguese rights in Brazil or Portugal, and, more complicated, whether to sell Spanish rights to a publisher in the great publishing center, Spain, or to a publisher in one of the lesser centers in Mexico, Argentina, Chile, Peru, or Colombia.

The foreign publisher, on his part, finds it hard to know which books to choose and, unless there is a USIS library handy, is not always able to secure sound advice or to see the latest American production. In dealing with the American publishers the necessarily low royalties he can offer and the American fear, generally unfounded, that English-language sales of a given title will drop if it is translated are a constant barrier.

The consequences can be serious in countries like Japan, where the small royalties and the mutual ignorance of American publishers about the Japanese market and of Japanese publishers about how to go about finding good American books and then contracting for them have caused a good deal of concern to persons interested in seeing that the Japanese public continues to know and understand us.

It is a convention of publishing that a translation is at once costlier and more risky than a good indigenous work; and to encourage translations there have been and, indeed, still are a good many plans, government-supported and otherwise. In practice it is possible to encourage translations in only two ways: by making books easily and cheaply available to the foreign publisher or by inducing him to publish a book through the purchase of a given number of copies or through some other kind of subsidy. During the war subsidy programs operated in Latin America, with publishers in Mexico, the Argentine, and other parts of the continent. After the defeat of Germany and Japan an elaborate system was worked out for selecting desirable books here and then making them available to local publishers. Some of these plans worked out well, but, as in any eleemosynary effort, the driving power of economics was lacking, and distribution was not always satisfactory.

There is an argument current now in publishing and other circles as to whether translations should be emphasized at all, on the grounds that English is so much the new lingua franca that translations are superfluous. That is a point of view, but it seems obvious that if we are to reach below the thin layer of well-educated people in any nation to the much greater group of people below, translations must remain a part, and a large part, of our considerations.

V

There are countries where no American books are wanted; a few in which their entry is effectively prevented. But this is only on a general scale: even Russia and the Iron-Curtain countries im-

port for their libraries and technical institutes books in all important fields of learning. While this traffic has been criticized, it seems to me to represent one of the few small rays of light in our dark relationship with the Kremlin, for American books have inherent in them, in the formats and workmanship and in the competence of their contents, a mirror of America itself. The German belief, noted earlier, that a book inevitably carries with it the reflection of the nation that produced it is not fallacious.

But Russia, and now I dare say her satellites, have other access to many American books. She is no respecter of any copyright, and what she wants, she takes. The last UNESCO translation index, for 1951, shows 34 titles reported by the USSR as translated from books of United States origin (out of a total of 489), but the number is probably greater. We find out about them in odd ways; by bibliographical notices at the end of stray Russian journal articles, and sometimes when one turns up in a secondhand Moscow bookstore frequented by Americans. They are usually well produced, the cuts photographed from the American book, and ordinarily the original is given credit in the front matter, the title and author's name being printed in the Western alphabet.

This question of copyright and where it does and does not exist is all part of the problem of foreign distribution. Sometimes it can be troubling, involving translations and books in English as well. In more peaceful times the Chinese, blessed with ingenuity and labor so cheap as to be practically free, together with a total lack of any copyright laws, made it a practice to reproduce, by a kind of stone lithography and on ground bamboo paper, any American book likely to have much sale among the polyglot population of the Asiatic seaboard. A $10.00 dictionary might appear for as little as $1.00 Mexican, or about 30 cents; and the appeal of these books, profitable in editions of as little as 500 copies, led to extensive catalogs of titles. The books themselves were depressing productions, with smudgy type on gray paper, but to students and others living on the margins of subsistence they were a godsend.

Again, there is no copyright, external or internal, in the Near East and a publisher there may lift with impunity what he wishes from the world's literature.

Copyright on an international basis is a complex affair and is not properly a part of the present subject. In most countries literary rights are respected by the reputable publisher, and outside the Iron Curtain the theft of literary property is only infrequently as great a burden as the loose present legal situation might be thought to make it. It might be noted in passing, too, that for a time in the last century the United States itself was one of the leading offenders.

VI

By and large, the American book finds a ready acceptance. The barriers raised against it in the form of customs and postal regulations are not usually raised simply against books; they are part of the general framework of the given country's import procedures. We press continually for their abolition, and we would like to see America write into appropriate treaties, in the way the Canadians, French, Italian, English, and probably other countries do, special provisions for the conduct of the export and import book trade. So far as I know America has never done so, deploring special privileges for any commodity, even books.

The nature of foreign purchases is worth a little attention. I can only ana-

lyze them on the basis of what I have seen and what my colleagues in the industry tell me, for again I know of no statistical analysis. I have heard reports of masses of comic books on the Dutch newsstands, and other reports of the worst sort of paper-bounds in the Indian bazaars; but I have seen nothing to indicate that either comic books or novels of sin and debauchery represent (with certain exceptions and in localized areas) any significant part of our export book trade. Dollars are too hard to come by in most places to squander on frivolity. The emphasis is less on fiction and even nonfiction of the entertainment variety than on solider works; and in science the higher the level of the book, the more welcome it would seem to be.

The European export figures of the publishers who deal with Europe through Ben Russak in Stockholm, point up this trend, a trend which other information indicates holds true for the rest of the world. There are ten publishers in the Russak group, including such great houses as Knopf, Harper, and Viking, and a sales analysis of each month's results is made available to each member. The two significant things about these analyses is that volume is slowly but steadily increasing and that the largest individual volume is that of my own house, which includes no fiction and is of a scholarly and expensive nature. The runner-up in sales volume is the Princeton University Press, whose scholarly production is also not exactly light in nature.

These figures, like most statistics, need interpretation, and there are contributing reasons for the large discrepancy between proportionate foreign and domestic volume; but, by and large, the overwhelming demand for the serious book is borne out by ample experience. Apparently, the barriers to international scholarship within the Western world are generally less chauvinistic than of a hard and simple material origin: the shortage of money and exchange. Even in countries not uniformly friendly to all things American, this appears to be true. William C. Haygood, in an article in the *Saturday Review* at the height of the book-burning furor, pointed this up neatly when he wrote: "In Spain, a nation which has been hidden behind an opaque curtain these last 16 years or more, our Information Libraries have brought us an incalculable amount of respect, good will and gratitude. . . . Anonymous Spanish Government officials . . . paid the Library its greatest tribute by never once invoking Spain's stringent censorship law governing all foreign book imports, despite the fact that we openly circulated materials hostile to the Franco regime."[1]

I suppose Spain would bar an openly pro-Communist book, but from personal experience I can add that, within the limits imposed by a badly strained economy and virtually no dollars, I have seen no hindrance there to a free selection of books, either as such or for translation purposes. Mr. Haygood's article is worth a thorough reading. In his comments on the place and purpose of American books abroad he has put on record a case that has long needed making.

VII

In the list of questions to be considered, printed in the prospectus of this conference, there are several references to bibliography. I do not think the opportunities of bibliography abroad can be overemphasized. More thorough, more detailed, information about our books is almost a universal need. The foreign bookseller, standing between the Ameri-

[1] William C. Haygood, "Enclaves of America Overseas," *Saturday Review*, July 11, 1953, p. 33.

can publishers and the library, school, or individual who is his customer, is confronted with a vast production of new books and an ever vaster accumulation of books in print. The professor in charge of the natural sciences at Queen Aliya College in Bagdad applies to MacKenzie's bookstore in Rashid Street for an elementary chemistry suitable for girls who are to become nurses. MacKenzie's is a fine store, the best in Iraq for foreign books. It has a well-kept file of publishers' catalogues, a set of Whittaker for English books and of the *Cumulative Index* for American books. It takes the *Publishers' Weekly*, which reaches it about six weeks late, and it may well have the *United States Quarterly Book Index*. But where does the proprietor turn for the disinterested information he needs? Where does the professor turn?

Again—and I use these several instances from the Near East because I have recently been there and they are fresh in my mind—one of the leading booksellers of Damascus was recently asked to select and purchase some $10,000 worth of foreign books in specified fields for the library of the University of Syria. He is a good and conscientious bookseller—and I might add that booksellers abroad are frequently of an ingenuity and energy that would make them ornaments of the book trade in any country—and he was doing his best with publishers' catalogues, and a worn copy of the *Scientific, Medical, and Technical Bibliography* which Mr. Hawkins of the New York Public Library edited some years ago for a joint group of publishers and a bibliographical committee of the National Research Council. His selection will be good, within the limits of the information available to him; but in a country now beginning to look at the rest of the world with anxiety and ambition, with little money and great need, it should be better.

Our English friends, who have dealt seriously with the foreign market for a much longer time than we have and who well know the relation that English books hold to English trade and English international relationships, are better equipped than we are in this respect. The services of the British Council and of the various overseas promotion devices which the British publishers and export booksellers have developed offer the foreign buyer far more help than we are yet able to give.

In some respects this is a responsibility of the community of publishers, but we must lean heavily on the librarian for help, and the disinterested authority of the librarian can be of the utmost consequence in the next decade of export bookselling.

VIII

In this very summary survey it has been necessary to pass quickly over many things that merit more attention and to ignore others. A word should have been said about the pressing need for more children's books abroad and why it exists; about new devices, like "Franklin Publications," to supply kinds of books not likely to be available under the ordinary terms of foreign publishing; about the current USIS translation program, now dealing in 64 countries with 44 different languages.

We are late in the world, and it looks towards us now, whether we wish it or not, in hope or in fear, or in enmity. It is a truism to say that books, no less than people, are our ambassadors and that our job, whether as publishers or librarians, is to see that we use the power and the virtue of books as well and as wisely as we know how, in the service of the things we believe in and for which we stand.

SOME LACUNAE IN FOREIGN BIBLIOGRAPHY

ROBERT W. WADSWORTH

WRITING as the citizen of a defeated nation in 1923, Georg Schneider concluded his historical survey of bibliography with some general observations on the state of bibliography at the end of the first World War. Pointing out that while recent events had set back international efforts toward bibliographic control they had merely intensified the need, he called for a new emphasis in bibliographical work upon efficient organization, as an answer to economic pressures and a mounting flood of publication. "The needs of the times call more pressingly than ever before," he wrote, "for rearrangement of the economics of intellectual work. . . . The method of doing bibliographic work must be regulated so that the simplest possible methods will be applied most suitably, and so that nothing will be done that is not absolutely essential—this in order that the essential work may be accomplished. To do this, it is necessary to have a clear understanding of the purposes and methods of bibliography."[1]

Bibliography, though certainly not the exclusive concern of the world during the thirty years that have gone by since these words were written, has not stood still. In addition to services set up in special fields, it has produced two editions of the *Union List of Serials* and three of the *World List of Scientific Periodicals;* three editions of the *Index bibliographicus;* two short-title catalogs of early English imprints; the commencement of a new printed *General Catalogue of Printed Books* in the British Museum and the reprinting of the older *Catalogue of Printed Books in the Library of the British Museum;* the printing in book form of *A Catalog of Books Represented by Library of Congress Printed Cards;* the beginning of the printed *Deutscher Gesamtkatalog;* the descriptive and theoretical works of Schneider,[2] Vorstius,[3] Pinto,[4] and Malclès;[5] and such innovations in national bibliography as the French dictionary catalog "*Biblio,*" the "nontrade" series

[1] Georg Schneider, *Theory and History of Bibliography,* trans. Ralph Robert Shaw ("Columbia University Studies in Library Service," No. 1 [New York: Columbia University Press, 1934]), p. 293.

[2] *Einführung in die Bibliographie* (Leipzig: Verlag Karl W. Hiersemann, 1936), a revision of the theoretical portion of the first three editions of his *Handbuch der Bibliographie* (Leipzig: Hiersemann, 1923–26). The fourth edition of the *Handbuch* (Leipzig: Hiersemann, 1930)—greatly enlarged in its enumerative portion—omits nearly all this theoretical treatment, retaining the historical essay (revised) as the opening chapter, "Geschichte der Bibliographie." The theoretical-historical sections of the third edition (1926) have been translated into English by Ralph Robert Shaw as *Theory and History of Bibliography* (see n. 1).

[3] Joris Vorstius, *Der gegenwärtige Stand der primären Nationalbibliographie in den Kulturländern: zugleich ein Beitrag zur Theorie der Bibliographie* (Leipzig: Otto Harrassowitz, 1930). Part II (theoretical portion) was issued also as his "Zur Theorie der primären Nationalbibliographie," *Zentralblatt für Bibliothekswesen,* XLVII (July, 1930), 323–43. See also his *Ergebnisse und Fortschritte der Bibliographie in Deutschland seit dem ersten Weltkrieg* (Beiheft 74 to *Zentralblatt für Bibliothekswesen* [Leipzig: Otto Harrassowitz, 1948]).

[4] Olga Pinto, *Le Bibliografie nazionali* (2d ed., rev., corr., and enl.; "Biblioteca di bibliografia italiana, supplementi periodici a la *Bibliofilia*" [Florence: Leo S. Olschki, 1951]).

[5] L.-N. Malclès, *Les Sources du travail bibliographique* (3 vols.; Geneva: Librairie E. Droz; Lille: Librairie Giard, 1950——), in progress.

of the *Deutsche Nationalbibliographie*, and the *British National Bibliography*. Yet a recent writer has called attention to the "enormous amount of work" published and the "energy and large sums" spent to obtain "the most trifling results" and pointed to "glaring omissions, duplication, chaos."[6] Little seems to have occurred to lessen the force of Schneider's comment; and today, with Schneider's own country—divided bibliographically as well as politically, as the result of a second World War more destructive than the first—outdoing itself in duplicative bibliographical effort, it might seem better judgment to omit this quotation, had not the author himself recently indicated a cautious optimism concerning the importance now attached to bibliography.[7]

There can be no doubt of the current enthusiasm. The reports of the UNESCO/Library of Congress Bibliographical Survey (1949–50),[8] the UNESCO Conference on the Improvement of Bibliographic Services (1950), and the establishment by UNESCO of an International Consultative Committee on Bibliography (1953) indicate the dignity now achieved by bibliography.[9] "Never before," declared a recent writer with reference to an international conference, "have the basic problems of bibliographical services been discussed on the basis of one agenda at one time by so many authoritative groups in so many different countries."[10] Bibliography has become the object of something very much like an international hue and cry. The meeting this morning is one more piece of evidence that no assembly of librarians is complete without at least an obeisance in the direction of bibliography and that even the most unassuming statement on the subject is likely to arouse an interest hopelessly difficult to satisfy.

To deal with bibliography, one must begin with a definition and a confession. A bibliography, for the present purpose, is a list—assembled for any purpose or from any point of view, stated or implied—of books or other records either printed or reproduced by a technique serving as a substitute for printing. The

[6] United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization, *Conference on the Improvement of Bibliographical Services, Attended by Representatives of National Working Groups Established by the UNESCO/Library of Congress Survey of Bibliographical Services, Unesco House, Paris, 7–10 November 1950: Working Paper*, prepared by Denise Ravage, trans. from the French (UNESCO/CUA/ 3 [Paris, 1950]), p. 3; cited henceforth as "Ravage."

[7] Georg Schneider and Hans Widmann, "Bibliographie," in Fritz Milkau (ed.), *Handbuch der Bibliothekswissenschaft*, I (2d enl. and improved ed., ed. Georg Leyh; Wiesbaden: Otto Harrassowitz, 1952), 1018.

[8] *The UNESCO/Library of Congress Bibliographical Survey*. Vol. I: *Bibliographical Services: Their Present State and Possibilities of Improvement: Report Prepared* [by Verner W. Clapp] *as a Working Paper for an International Conference on Bibliography* (Washington, 1950). Appendix: *Notes on the Development of the Concept of Current Complete National Bibliography*, by Kathrine Oliver Murra (Washington, 1950); cited henceforth as "Murra." Vol. II: *National Development and International Planning of Bibliographical Services: A Continuation of "Bibliographical Services, Their Present State and Possibilities of Improvement"* (UNESCO/CUA/1 [Paris, 1950]).

[9] These recent developments are summarized by Verner W. Clapp in "First Meeting of the International Consultative Committee on Bibliography (Unesco), April 20–23, 1953," *Library of Congress Information Bulletin*, XII, No. 17 (April 27, 1953), 18–21. Even more recently UNESCO has launched its series of "Unesco Bibliographical Handbooks" with Knud Larsen's *National Bibliographical Services: Their Creation and Operation* ("Unesco Bibliographical Handbooks," I; UNESCO/CUA/52/XI/2A [Paris: UNESCO, 1953]).

[10] "The Third International Congress of Librarianship and Bibliography," *Unesco Bulletin for Libraries*, IV (April, 1950), 601.

approach is that of the general consumer dependent every day upon bibliographies of all sorts and all origins for identification and minimal description of publications; a consumer who uses fine bibliographic tools with relish without wishing to be numbered among those who "derive more pleasure from reading a catalog than from the whole of literature";[11] and a consumer whose blind spots happen to be those of an American. In bibliography there are imperialists, and there are provincials with a human tendency toward preference for the home deities. Kind things have been said by foreign observers concerning American prowess in bibliography, but the fear has been expressed that Americans, in their generosity and their zeal, are in danger of overinfluencing international bibliographical activities.[12] At least one American should be prepared to concede cheerfully that the best bibliographies are foreign.

The mass of enumerative bibliography can be subdivided into groups based upon purpose, content, method, or form. One distinction, at least, is fundamental: subject bibliography belongs to the scholar. We have excellent authority for the statement that "in the scientific community the comprehensive subject bibliography which is produced somewhat mechanically by non-specialists is tending to bring the arts of the bibliographer into disrepute,"[13] and the librarian has no choice but to tremble and keep still. To him and to the bookman falls the uncontested and unenvied assignment of general bibliography, based on national or personal origin, form, price, circumstances of publication—in short, upon any aspect of publications except for the value of what they say.

The second axiom of current bibliographical thinking states that the basis for general bibliography must be national. The concept of national bibliography as the foundation of all modern bibliography has been shown to be at least a century old; it has achieved almost the security of folklore.[14] In 1894 Frank Campbell protested against "the practice of one country meddling in the Bibliography of another" and declared that "there is no principle more sound and necessary than that each country must perform its own Bibliography; and that if it has a craving to perform its neighbour's duties, at least it must first perform its own properly."[15] "The official, semi-official, and trade bibliographies of a country are the bases of all bibliographical work," wrote Peddie in 1912,[16] and Schneider placed national bibliographies "at the center of all bibliographies."[17]

[11] Schneider, *Theory and History of Bibliography*, p. 31.

[12] L. Brummel, "National and International Organization of Bibliography," *Festschrift für Josef Stummvoll, Alois Kisser, Ernst Trenkler, zum 50. Geburtstage*, ed. Michael Stickler and Bruno Zimmel in collaboration with Walter Krieg, *Antiquariat*, VIII, Nos. 13/18 (July/September, 1952), 19.

[13] Comment of representative of the Royal Society, as quoted in *The UNESCO/Library of Congress Bibliographical Survey*, II, 26, as a part of the summary of the report of the Working Group for the United Kingdom.

[14] See Murra, p. 1: "Current complete national bibliography is the enigma of bibliographical control pursued by bibliographical planners for at least a century. During the whole of this time its importance as the basis, in logic, for all bibliographical work, has been recognized."

[15] *The Theory of National and International Bibliography, with Special Reference to the Introduction of System in the Record of Modern Literature* (London: Library Bureau, 1896), p. 252. The quotation is from "The Bibliography of the Future: A Paper Reviewing the Existing Condition of National and International Bibliography, with Suggested Reforms" (read before the Library Association, Belfast, September, 1894).

[16] Robert Alexander Peddie, *National Bibliographies: A Descriptive Catalogue of the Works Which Register the Books Published in Each Country* (London: Grafton & Co., 1912), Preface, p. v.

[17] *Theory and History of Bibliography*, p. 56.

The national study groups established in connection with the UNESCO/Library of Congress Bibliographical Survey—while showing "unanimous agreement that subject bibliography is the proper concern of international organizations"[18] and that scientific bibliography transcends frontiers of politics and even of language, seem not to have questioned the assumption that "all real bibliographical activity is national in origin"[19] and that "international measures in the field of bibliography are meaningless unless they are based on work done at the national level."[20] For the old dream of a universal general bibliography has been substituted the modern one of a co-operative bibliographic record made up of national components, each presenting the vital statistics of national publication and "posting up to date the ledger of the national literature."[21]

This view loses some of its simplicity when one considers the difference between a small, peaceful, literate nation with a well-organized book trade—Sweden, for example, which can afford to be concerned about bringing up to date its bibliographic record of anonymous and pseudonymous literature[22] and which can boast a continuous record, going back more than a century and a half, of academic theses—and one like China; or the difference in literary activity between France, which supports two current national bibliographies, and Paraguay, which has none. To regard existing national bibliographies as material for a uniform, consistent world bibliography or even for sound statistical comparisons, furthermore, is to overlook their variety.

If one ignores variations in the entering or omission of schoolbooks and other minor publications and the inclusion or noninclusion of titles of periodicals, of new printings from unchanged plates, and of reprints issued as separates, there remains a basic lack of precision in the concept of national bibliography which, perhaps because it is deeply rooted in tradition and habit, seems to have attracted relatively little attention. A national bibliography may be limited to a single state but represent two or more languages; it may be limited to a single language but unlimited as to national origin or place of publication; it may combine national production with works written about the nation and with works published outside the nation by writers of national origin. That legal and financial support for bibliography must be provided by governments is obvious; that bibliographical compilations themselves, even those called "national," must be held within political boundaries is not.

All these varieties and others are recorded in the current guides to bibliographies, which furnish some, at least, of the raw material for the "taxonomic study" of bibliography awaiting attention.[23]

[18] *The UNESCO/Library of Congress Bibliographical Survey*, II, v, introd.

[19] *Ibid.*, II, 20 (from summary of report of the Netherlands Working Group).

[20] Ravage, p. 2.

[21] Paraphrased from Henry Stevens, "Photo-bibliography, or a Central Bibliographical Clearing House," *Transactions and Proceedings*, Conference of Librarians, London, 1877, ed. Edward B. Nicholson and Henry R. Tedder (London: Whittingham, 1878), as quoted by Murra, p. 4.

[22] Summary of the report of the Swedish Working Group, *The UNESCO/Library of Congress Bibliographical Survey*, II, 24.

[23] Verner W. Clapp, "The Role of Bibliographic Organization in Contemporary Civilization," *Bibliographic Organization: Papers Presented before the Fifteenth Annual Conference of the Graduate Library School, July 24–29, 1950*, ed. Jesse H. Shera and Margaret E. Egan ("The University of Chicago Studies in Library Science" [Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1951]), pp. 17–18: "We need a taxonomic study of bibliographies; one that would categorize the principal types so as to identify those which have the possibilities of widest usefulness, around which a pattern might be constructed,

Book-trade lists of national or linguistic points of view, copyright-deposit lists, catalogs and accession lists of libraries, and government gazettes and lists of publications of government printers may be entered with any of a variety of general reference works having more or less useful bibliographical equipment. One bibliographer admits to the comparatively chaste pages of a slender volume nothing farther afield than biobibliographical reference works; another, excluding subject bibliography, has drawn criticism by "attracting" histories of literature to national bibliography; and a third, in an excess of zeal, has scraped the bottom of the barrel and presented, among "national bibliographies" of the United States, the *Century* and the *New Standard* dictionaries.

The first desideratum, clearly, is a bibliography of national bibliographies and the less fanciful supplements and substitutes—organized preferably by regions, by linguistic blocs, or by some other principle of affinity; provided with full information concerning both current and retrospective bibliography; carefully and concisely annotated; and thoroughly indexed. The retrospective sections might well be patterned after the chronological conspectus lists in Malclès[24] and Pinto;[25] the current information should improve on the contents of the Library of Congress list of "Current National Bibliographies"[26] and the *Index bibliographicus*[27] by indicating dates of publication and coverage. The form should be such as to permit continuous revision—perhaps by the substitution of revised sheets. The materials for such a bibliography are at hand in the collection of reports prepared by the working groups set up by the UNESCO/Library of Congress Survey and the reviews, made and to be made under the auspices of UNESCO, of current bibliographical services; in the provisional edition of "Current National Bibliographies"; and in general handbooks of retrospective bibliography. The publishers of such a manual could name their price.

The best check on unkind or irresponsible criticism of these "bibliographies of the second power" is the sobering discipline of organizing some observations on the same facts. What follows has been arranged—in sheer desperation—about three focal points: (1) current national bibliography, with special reference to "undeveloped" countries; (2) current national bibliography of the "developed" countries, with special reference to publications outside the book trade; and (3) retrospective bibliography.

For current trade lists a strong case can be made for language rather than citizenship as a principle of organization,

and which are most likely to reward the effort and cost of development."

[24] See "Les Bibliographies nationales" in her *Les Sources du travail bibliographique*, Vol. I (*Bibliographies générales*), chap. vii.

[25] *Le Bibliographie nazionali.*

[26] "Current National Bibliographies," published in parts in the *Library of Congress Quarterly Journal of Current Acquisitions*, as follows: Part I in VI, No. 4 (August, 1949), 28–33; Part II in VII, No. 1 (November, 1949), 14–22; Part III in VII, No. 2 (February, 1950), 11–13; Part IV in VII, No. 3 (May, 1950), 14–21; Part V in VIII, No. 2 (February, 1951), 15–26; Suppl. I in IX, No. 1 (November, 1951), 9–13; Suppl. II in IX, No. 3 (May, 1952) 128–32; Suppl. III in IX, No. 4 (August, 1952), 192–96; Suppl. IV in X, No. 1 (November, 1952), 6–12. An additional unnumbered supplementary instalment appeared in X, No. 4 (August, 1953), 194–98.

[27] *Index bibliographicus: Directory of Current Periodical Abstracts and Bibliographies* (3d ed., compiled by Theodore Besterman; 2 vols.; "Publication No. 247 of the International Federation for Documentation" [Paris: UNESCO; The Hague: IFD, 1952]). Vol. I numbered also as "Publication No. 863 of the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization"; Vol. II numbered also as [UNESCO] CUA/51/VII/2 AF.

and one can appeal to the practice of publishers and booksellers presumably in pursuit of hard cash. German trade bibliography has traditionally included all publications in the German language; this policy is reflected in the entering of Swiss and Austrian publications in the *Barsortiments-Lagerkatalog* and in the issuing, by the Deutsche Bibliothek, of a cumulative index covering parallel issues of the German *Wöchentliches Verzeichnis*, the *Österreichische Nationalbibliographie*, and *Das Schweizer Buch*. For an outsider, at least, it is difficult to find fault with this arrangement, and one is tempted to connect the policy with the historic vigor of the German book trade and the uniformity and excellence, under a variety of political conditions, of German bibliography.

The claims of language are likely to make a strong appeal to any detached observer of the separate bibliographical activities of the Latin-American nations. A recent bibliography of bibliographies disposes of a number of titles by a reference to the "numerous" attempts made in Mexico to establish a current national bibliography.[28] The summary of the UNESCO/Library of Congress report made on behalf of a group of Central American republics by Dr. Fermín Peraza Sarausa—himself responsible for one of the most admired Latin-American bibliographies—states simply: "All these countries are at the stage where the main effort is directed towards compiling on a secure basis a national bibliography in its simplest form: a list of books. Attempts are being made to re-establish or create a retrospective bibliography, to continue to improve current bibliography where it exists, and to create it where it does not."[29] The appearance of a new *Anuario bibliográfico colombiano* is evidence of the influence of UNESCO; it is also a reminder of the situation described by Childs in 1941, when it was necessary to assemble fragments of the national bibliographical record of Colombia from reports of the national and departmental governments.[30] National attainments vary from the comparatively solid coverage in Cuba and Puerto Rico to the deficient records for the interior republics in South America. The prevalent pattern is that of the "anuario bibliográfico"—often including material about a nation in addition to works published in it, and not necessarily published on time.

Cultural ties are close. A feature of a Brazilian bibliographical periodical is a regular list of publications issued in Portugal. One dreams of an international monthly list of books in Spanish, comparable to "*Biblio*" and the *Cumulative Book Index*. The common bibliographical concerns of the Spanish-American countries have been recognized in the retrospective bibliographies of Palau[31] and the Instituto nacional del Libro español;[32] in the current *Anuario español e hispanoamericano del libro y de las artes gráficas con el catálogo mundial de libro impreso en lengua española* (1944——)[33]

[28] Malclès, *op. cit.*, I, 166.

[29] Summary of the report prepared for Costa Rica, Cuba, El Salvador, Guatemala, Nicaragua, and Panama, *The UNESCO/Library of Congress Bibliographical Survey*, II, 3.

[30] James B. Childs, review article: "Latin-American Current National Bibliographies," *Library Quarterly*, XI (July, 1941), 363.

[31] Antonio Palau y Dulcet, *Manual del librero hispano-americano: Bibliografía general española e hispano-americana desde la invención de la imprenta hasta nuestros tiempos con el valor comercial de los impresos descritos* (2d ed., corr. and enl.; Barcelona: Librería Palau, 1948——), in progress.

[32] *Catálogo general de la librería española e hispanoamericana, 1901–1930: Autores* (Madrid: Instituto nacional del Libro español, 1932–51).

[33] Edited by Javier Lasso de la Vega Jiménez-Placer and Francisco Cervera Jiménez-Alfaro (Madrid: Editores del Anuario marítimo español, 1945——).

and the Introduction to the UNESCO report on retrospective Spanish bibliography;[34] in certain private enterprises undertaken in Argentina; and in the report of the Argentine Working Group, with its emphasis upon the need for coordination of bibliographical work among the Spanish-speaking peoples and its specific proposal for a co-operative annual bibliography.[35]

Until such a co-operative list becomes a reality, American librarians will continue to make grateful use of the *Handbook of Latin American Studies*, the publications of the Pan American Union, and the catalogs of publishers and booksellers.

National bibliographies for the countries of the Near East,[36] the Middle East, and the Far East are so few and so inadequate that territorial bibliographies and other works of reference, histories of literature, library catalogs and accession lists, and especially journals listing new publications must be used to supplement them; and some of the most useful sources are the booklists issued by importers: Heffer, Probsthain, Brill, Luzac, Maisonneuve, Perkins, and Tuttle. Under the circumstances, the enterprise of the Library of Congress in publishing the accession list *Southern Asia: Publications in Western Languages* and of UNESCO in issuing a *Bibliography of Scientific and Technical Journals Published in South East Asia* and a *Liste des travaux scientifiques publiés au Moyen-Orient* should receive enthusiastic support.

The report on "National Bibliographies: Asia," submitted to the Association of Research Libraries by the Committee on National Needs in 1951, reads in part like a lament: Lebanon: "no known listings"; Indo-China: "no helpful lists"; Korea: "no known listings"; China: "no national bibliography is known to be published."[37] The *Quarterly Bulletin of Chinese Bibliography* and *Philobiblon* have both ceased publication, leaving *T'oung Pao* and other Western journals as the most convenient sources of information on new books in China, and there is no satisfactory control over a periodical literature reported to be enormous.[38] In the Philippines, the Philippine Library Association is laboring to assemble, from public and private collections, the records of titles for a bibliography of Philippine imprints and works relating to the Philippines; the difficulties can be estimated from a single paragraph in the UNESCO/Library of Congress report: "There are no trade catalogues of current publications, nor any other means of obtaining readily information or data on Philippine subjects. No indexes to periodical articles have ever been published, and the Government has

[34] United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization, Libraries Division, "Retrospective Spanish Bibliography," prepared by Javier Lasso de la Vega Jiménez-Placer, *Unesco Bulletin for Libraries*, VI, No. 4 (April, 1952), E50–E59.

[35] *The UNESCO/Library of Congress Bibliographical Survey*, II, 4.

[36] The shining exception is Turkey, with a well-established current national bibliography and—beginning in March, 1952—a current index to articles in periodicals.

[37] Association of Research Libraries, Committee on National Needs [Report of meetings], October 29–30, 1951, Sec. A ("Acquisition of Current Publications"), 3 ("Stimulation of Production of National Bibliographies in the Critical Areas") (processed).

[38] John King Fairbank and Kwang-ching Liu, *Modern China: A Bibliographical Guide to Chinese Works, 1898–1937* ("Harvard-Yenching Studies," Vol. I [Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1950]), p. 4: "It is impossible to keep up with the enormous volume of Chinese periodical publications in any comprehensive way. Four or five hundred periodicals of various sorts are said to be in process of publication at one time in Shanghai alone, some lasting for only brief periods. There is no Chinese equivalent to *Poole's Index* or the *Reader's Guide*."

discontinued its lists of new, free, and saleable Government publications."[39]

Particularly exasperating has been the lack of a general current bibliography for India. Except for government publications, which are well covered, the choice has been between the world bibliographies of books in English, booklists and reviews in journals, and the separate classed lists, unindexed, issued by the various states. The New Book Society of India—responsible for the annual *Indian Book Trade & Library Directory*—has announced publication of a bibliography covering the period 1901–50;[40] and for retrospective work there are catalogs for the British Museum and the libraries of the India Office and the Royal Empire Society.

For material in Arabic the American librarian suffers from the dispersion of publishing through a number of countries bibliographically undeveloped and from inadequate organization of the book trade. Heavy use must be made of journals reporting or reviewing new books: the *Middle East Journal; IBLA; al-Machriq; al-Andalus;* and others. The Egyptian National Library publishes a mimeographed monthly bulletin of accessions in Arabic and issues a printed annual cumulation, which might be made the basis for a union list of new publications in the language.

In most of the areas mentioned, deficiencies in bibliographic control can be plausibly related to economic or cultural conditions unfavorable to publishing and bookselling, an active library movement, and other prerequisites for effective demand for even primitive trade bibliography. The same might be said of the "colonial" areas of Africa, in which bibliography typically takes the form of official lists of government publications, or of such entries as occur in subject lists in official bulletins. In bibliographically "advanced" countries, on the other hand, even well-developed bibliographic mechanisms must be strengthened and supplemented to meet new demands:[41] (1) to expand current coverage to types of material likely, because of commercial indifference or intrinsic difficulty, to be neglected; and (2) to extend retrospective to periods now represented inadequately or not at all.

By common agreement national bibliography transcends trade bibliography. In addition to books and other trade publications, it includes periodical literature and the publications of governments, societies and institutions, and authors acting as their own publishers. An exhaustive catalog of deficiencies in these nontrade categories might explain a large part of the well-advertised dissatisfaction with "current comprehensive national bibliography."

Although it has been estimated that fully half the content of periodical literature is without value and can and should be excluded from serious consideration,[42] the "periodicals problem" has been indicated as the central problem of scholarly

[39] *The UNESCO/Library of Congress Bibliographical Survey*, II, 34.

[40] According to a bookseller's report to the University of Chicago Library, August 17, 1953, the publisher has abandoned this enterprise.

[41] Cf. *The UNESCO/Library of Congress Bibliographical Survey*, II, 21: "Although assisting backward countries to establish their national bibliography on a solid basis would be a contribution to civilization and peace, this is not the most difficult problem, which resides in '... the enormous production of books, periodicals and all kinds of documents in greater and smaller countries more advanced, threatening to isolate the enquirers on green islands in oceans of printed paper'" (from the summary of the report of the Norwegian Working Group).

[42] Schneider, *Einführung*, p. 159.

libraries and of subject bibliography.[43] Bibliographies recording only independent books are ineffective (1) for literatures in which a large part of current writing appears in periodicals and (2) for documentation in subjects dependent upon journals for reporting current research.

Periodicals enter, or should enter, into bibliography at a number of points. It should be a simple matter at any time to identify a given title and find full information concerning frequency, publisher, editorial responsibility, subject scope, and conditions of distribution. It should not be impossible to trace a new journal announced under a Latin title, with an international board of editors, and issued by a publisher known to specialize in importations. New periodicals should be recorded as such with the appearance of the first number, and there should be a prompt, accurate record of mergers, suspensions, and "deaths." Contents should be indexed by author and subject.

A list of "Bibliographical Tools for Control of Current Periodicals," published in March, 1953,[44] assembles international directories, like Ulrich; advertisers' guides like the German *Leitfaden*, post-office lists, and other national directories; and notes on listings of periodicals in national bibliographies and periodical indexes. On the whole, it confirms the justice of Malclès's arraignment of current directories of periodicals: international directories and lists of titles for special subjects and library catalogs, however informative, are never up to date; commercially oriented directories, while up to date, are superficial and neglect the more specialized publications; and there are no official comprehensive directories.[45] The need is keenly felt in some of the more bibliographically active countries: the Working Group for France places among its desiderata an annual list of titles of periodicals;[46] the British Working Group calls for periodically issued annotated lists, on a world basis, of serials;[47] and a German bibliographer has urged the importance of a complete list of new German periodicals, stating that existing lists are incomplete and fail to distinguish new titles.[48]

New Serial Titles[49] promises to furnish complete directory information concerning new periodicals held in American libraries; and the supplemental list proposed for mergers and suspensions[50] would supply information lacking in commercial directories and trade bibliographies. *New Serial Titles* will not serve as a current directory, and it cannot solve the problem abroad. A complete listing of current periodicals—arranged to call attention to new titles and other changes—might be an annual appendix to a national bibliography, as is the selective list included in the *Annual Catalogue of Australian Publications;* it cannot replace the regular recording of new titles and other information in the periodical issues of the current national bibliography, in the manner of the *British National Bibliography* and the German trade bibliographies.

[43] Vorstius, *Ergebnisse*, p. 23.

[44] Carl Björkbom, "Bibliographical Tools for Control of Current Periodicals," *Revue de la documentation*, XX (March 31, 1953), 19–24.

[45] *Op. cit.*, I, 242 ff.

[46] *The UNESCO/Library of Congress Bibliographical Survey*, II, 14.

[47] *Ibid.*, p. 27.

[48] Vorstius, *Ergebnisse*, p. 60.

[49] *New Serial Titles: A Union List of Serials Newly Received by North American Libraries*, prepared under the sponsorship of the Joint Committee on the Union List of Serials (Washington: Library of Congress, 1953——).

[50] Considered by the Joint Committee on the Union List of Serials; cf. C. Sumner Spalding in *Library of Congress Information Bulletin*, XII, No. 20 (May 18, 1953), 15.

The indexing of periodicals is the area in which the claims of general bibliography and special bibliography must be carefully distinguished. Periodical indexing or abstracting on an international scale is taken for granted in subject bibliography, even if it means double work. General bibliography is responsible for indexing by author and subject at least the important material in nonspecialized periodicals and newspapers. The contents of an entire volume may be issued in periodical form.[51]

Periodical indexing has gone through several phases: (1) indexing of single volumes of single titles; (2) cumulative indexing of volumes of single titles; (3) common indexing of numbers of titles. That the first is still a live issue appears from the recommendation of the Uruguayan Working Group that editors and publishers be urged to supply annual indexes, by subject and author, to volumes of their periodicals;[52] Haskell's fine bibliography of cumulative indexes and the comment of a German bibliographer that a comprehensive list of cumulative indexes is needed for Germany[53] emphasize the value of the second. Most contemporary dissatisfaction concerns the third.

Indexes of general periodicals (often also of newspapers) exist for a number of countries, and the accession lists published by the Library of Congress for Russia, eastern Europe, and southern Asia—among their other excellences—present contents of periodicals in addition to their record of books. For the American librarian, the relatively good coverage for the Scandinavian countries and the Netherlands is cold comfort for the most conspicuous lacuna in Europe: France. Since the suspension of Jordell's short-lived *Répertoire* at the end of the nineteenth century, France has been without a general index. There is no need to labor a topic on which French bibliographers are sensitive and one which is said to present great difficulties.[54] The indexing of periodicals is a task supremely well suited to libraries, and it seems reasonable to hope for a solution worked out by library co-operation, perhaps on the plan suggested by Malclès.[55] The success of such a project would immediately emphasize the shortcomings of periodical bibliography elsewhere except, perhaps, for some of the smaller countries, in which commercial indexing has been successful.

Related to the indexing of periodicals is the analysis of collective works issued as "Festschriften" or "Mélanges," either independently or as parts of serials. Until recently the Polish *Przewodnik bibliograficzny* was held up to admiration as the only current national bibliography fulfilling its obligation in this respect.[56] In 1953 the *Deutsche Nationalbibliographie* put an end to this old complaint by adopting the policy of analyzing contents and indexing names of contributors for "Festschriften" and comparable collections.[57] Adoption of this rule by bibliographies of French and Scandinavian

[51] *The UNESCO/Library of Congress Bibliographical Survey*, II, 7 (report on Ecuador): "Pamphlets and articles in periodicals should be mentioned because of their special importance in Ecuador: important works have been published in instalments, and periodicals frequently contain the entire contents of a volume. Such works should be included in the proposed national bibliography."

[52] *Ibid.*, p. 8.

[53] Vorstius, *Ergebnisse*, p. 63.

[54] *The UNESCO/Library of Congress Bibliographical Survey*, II, 14.

[55] *Op. cit.*, I, 268–70.

[56] Vorstius, *Ergebnisse*, p. 64. The author makes the same point in his *Der gegenwärtige Stand der primären Nationalbibliographie in den Kulturländern*, p. 34.

[57] "Erweiterte Titelfassung bei Festschriften und Sammelwerken wissenschaftlichen Charakters," *Deutsche Nationalbibliographie* 1953, Ser. A, No. 1 (January 3, 1953), p. 1.

publications would provide for a large part of the current literature and would set a natural terminus for retrospective work. There is no satisfactory comprehensive analytical list.

Proceedings of international congresses and conferences, held at irregular intervals and in a succession of places, may appear in small editions under bilingual or multilingual titles, often cited incompletely or incorrectly. They do not lend themselves gracefully to "control" through national bibliographies, and they have been excluded from the *Union List of Serials*. Inclusion of these publications in *New Serial Titles* will leave for retrospective work the gap after 1937, the terminal date of the special union list of *International Congresses and Conferences*. Coverage in *New Serial Titles* is likely to mean a national approach to an international problem, with headings and titles chosen from the point of view of American catalogers and lost in a general list of serials of other sorts. There may be justification for a special subject bibliography compiled from an international point of view. If UNESCO could add to its burdens an annual *Index congressuum*, to match the *Index translationum* and the *Index bibliographicus*, and if the new list could include not only a classed bibliography of publications of the congresses of the year but a calendar showing dates and places for congresses announced for the next year, the interests of all libraries might be served better than by a purely American union list.[58]

However great the temptation, university libraries cannot ignore theses and other publications of academic institutions. Individually, these have very little meaning apart from the subject literatures to which they relate, and mastery of a subject should, by definition, include familiarity with the literature in thesis form. Collectively, however, they form a bibliographical type treated—because of the circumstances under which they are issued—as a distinct department of national bibliography. With the substitution for print of new methods of reproduction, the discontinuing of "automatic" exchange of theses, and the shifting of older theses—cataloged as economically as the law allows—to storage, this special treatment is not likely to diminish in importance.

The directions issued for students some time ago by the library of an important American university made the statement: "Before the final choice of a subject is made care should be taken to consult the printed Catalogues of foreign and American theses. This will show whether the subject as a whole or in part has already been covered, and if it has, will bring up the question as to whether it is still open in some of its phases for original study."[59] The "printed Catalogues" were not named, but it seems safe to assume that they represented the United States, France, Germany, Switzerland, the Netherlands, and the northern countries, with additional lists for single institutions elsewhere. Very recently an annual bibliography of British theses has been announced by the Association of Special Libraries and Information Bureaux. Lists vary in arrangement and terminology, give usually a minimum of description, may be far from up to date,

[58] One has the impulse to urge that each of these bodies be compelled to print in the proceedings of each meeting a conspicuous list of all previous congresses held by the same organization, with dates, places, and titles in original languages, to make effortless the connection, for example, between the *Rapports présentés ... III^e Congrès International des Cercles de fermières de Gand (1913)* and the *Official Proceedings of the First International Congress of Farm Women* (held in Colorado Springs, 1911).

[59] Columbia University Library, *Notes for the Use of Graduate Students* (New York, September, 1936), p. 1.

and as a group give no comprehensive retrospective view.

For the candidate writing on educational administration in New York State there may be no problem; a student working on the Sapphic odes of Horace, on the other hand, might be glad to learn of a thesis accepted in Valladolid in 1911. He could find title and author by reading through the entire section devoted to "Philosophy and Letters" in a special list of manuscript theses held by the library of the University in Madrid, published recently as a special supplement to Volume V (1949/1950) of the *Anuario español e hispanoamericano del libro y de las artes gráficas;*[60] there would remain only the problem of obtaining a copy of the thesis. If each candidate were actually required either to prove that no thesis had ever been written on his topic or to compile a critical annotated bibliography, based on firsthand acquaintance, of those that had been written on it, there would be no problem of an intellectual proletariat, and the discipline would produce a hardy breed.

The implication, if not the solution, is clear. Here, at least, there is no mystery about the source of information and no question about an "obligatory deposit." One's gorge may rise at the thought of a world list of theses, compiled on uniform principles by the same patient industry that has produced a *Minerva;* but without one, or the equivalent separate fragments, or until theses are automatically recorded in subject bibliographies, the "romantic" view of graduate work—that each thesis must take into account all previous work done on the subject and must be shaped for a unique niche in the structure of scholarship—will rest on very uncertain foundations.

To the types already mentioned could be added a number of other bibliographical "queers": (1) Government publications—once described as "distinguished . . . by being inaccessible"[61]—and reported perhaps most fully in the Anglo-Saxon countries, with daily lists in both Great Britain and Canada. Coverage elsewhere varies. (2) Music, whether recorded as part of a periodical list of copyright deposits (as in France and Italy) or as a separate section of an annual bibliography, as in Sweden. Music is omitted from the *British National Bibliography.* Both Germany and Austria appear to issue separate bibliographies of new music. (3) Maps. Given special treatment, as in Norway, or omitted, as in the *British National Bibliography.* Recently added to the Italian *Bollettino.*[62] (4) Books for the blind. A German bibliographer has called attention to the fact that catalogs are the only record.[63] (5) Microfilms. There seems to be no foreign parallel for the *Union List of Microfilms.* A German writer has suggested the establishment of a central agency to report significant new films to the *Deutsche Nationalbibliographie* or some other bibliographical service.[64] (6) Audio-visual ma-

[60] "Relación de las tesis doctorales manuscritas existentes en la Biblioteca de la Universidad de Madrid," *Anuario español e hispanoamericano del libro y de las artes gráficas,* ed. Javier Lasso de la Vega Jiménez-Placer and Francisco Cervera Jiménez-Alfaro, V (1949/50) (Madrid: Editores del Anuario marítimo español, 1952), 213–46.

[61] Campbell, *The Theory of National and International Bibliography,* p. 112.

[62] Report submitted to UNESCO by the Working Group of Italy, p. 2 (typewritten copy in English translation; included in the Library of Congress collection of "Reports from Planning Groups in Some 35 Countries on the Bibliographic Situation in Those Countries with Recommendations for Improvement Both at the National and International Level, Submitted to the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization" (n.p., n.d.; positive microfilm copy in The University of Chicago Library of negative microfilm in the Library of Congress).

[63] Vorstius, *Ergebnisse,* p. 67.

[64] Erich Zimmermann, "Probleme der Bibliotheksverwaltung um Photostelle und Mikrofilm,"

terial. The Danish Working Group has suggested this field as one in need of attention everywhere and one suitable for an experiment in international co-operation.[65]

While it may be sound in theory to concentrate upon improvement of current bibliography—"to close the floodgates of bibliographical disaster, and . . . evolve order out of chaos for to-day"[66]—before turning to the past, many librarians may feel considerably greater annoyance in practice over lacks in retrospective bibliography than over the failure of current bibliography to account for every advertising pamphlet, house organ, railway timetable, or taxicab receipt. As a field of work, furthermore, retrospective bibliography holds the undeniable allure of escape from the pressure of current production, and it welcomes gratefully assistance from the humblest sources. Catalogs of auctions and book fairs, advertisements and lists of books on sale, and even memoirs are grist for the mill; the characterization of Whitaker's *Reference Catalogue of Current Literature* (in its earlier form) as without "bibliographical value"[67] would hardly have been made if the period covered had been two centuries earlier.

Most noticeable, perhaps, is a general pall between the period of early printing and the beginning of modern organized book-trade bibliography. In the United States this darkness covers three-quarters of the nineteenth century; in Latin America it is the "post-Medina" period; in Italy it precedes Pagliaini. In England it is the "inspissated obscurity" described by Esdaile in his account of the bibliographical records of the eighteenth century and the early nineteenth century and of the lacks in the British Museum;[68] this is also the period of confessed weakness in the Times *Tercentenary Handlist of English & Welsh Newspapers, Magazines, and Reviews,* which has complete or nearly complete accounts for the seventeenth and the nineteenth centuries.

The most promising attack upon retrospective bibliography is the printing of library catalogs—either catalogs of single libraries or union catalogs, if only in short-title arrangement, of holdings in a number of libraries. No better evidence for the lacunae in retrospective bibliography exists than the printed catalogs of the British Museum and the Bibliothèque Nationale; and the lack of such a catalog for Italy is a serious handicap. The suspension of the *Deutscher Gesamtkatalog,* with its sumptuous elaboration of detail, is from any point of view an international tragedy—how great becomes obvious when it comes out that it provided an unmatched record of German literature of the sixteenth, seventeenth, and eighteenth centuries.[69]

To such a nucleus could be added supplementary lists based upon research in contemporary records, especially periodicals and newspapers. In 1928 Arundell Esdaile pointed out, as a task still awaiting "courageous workers," the indexing of all book announcements in newspapers for the period between 1700 and the

Bibliotheksprobleme der Gegenwart: Vorträge auf dem Bibliothekartag des Vereins Deutscher Bibliothekare anlässlich seines 50jährigen Bestehens in Marburg/Lahn vom 30. Mai bis 2. Juni 1950 (Beiheft 1 to *Nachrichten für wissenschaftliche Bibliotheken* [Frankfurt am Main: Vittorio Klostermann, 1951]), pp. 105–14.

[65] Report submitted to UNESCO by the Working Group of Denmark, August, 1950 (typewritten and included in the Library of Congress collection of "Reports from Planning Groups"), p. 15.

[66] Campbell, *The Theory of National and International Bibliography,* p. 255.

[67] Arundell Esdaile, *The Sources of English Literature: A Bibliographical Guide for Students* ("Sandars Lectures," 1926 [Cambridge: At the University Press, 1929]), p. 38.

[68] *Ibid.,* pp. 54 ff.

[69] Vorstius, *Ergebnisse,* p. 38.

foundation (1731) of the *Gentleman's Magazine*.[70]

A complementary enterprise is the extension back, in time, of the indexes to periodicals and the unveiling of authorship of articles published without signature. What control over the contents of periodicals for the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries might mean for graduate work in English and comparative literature can be only imagined.

To draw any conclusions from a list of published bibliographies is difficult; to make any inference from a partial list of imaginary bibliographies is harder still.

It is a temptation to speculate on the causes of variation in bibliographical achievement. One might explore the thesis that nations have the bibliographical equipment they deserve, or perhaps what they demand—that the orderly, literate, law-abiding states are the best bibliographical housekeepers. Bibliographical attainments might be related to the state of the book trade, to literacy, to educational activity, or to library development. The excellence of German trade bibliography has been attributed to its close relationship with an enlightened book trade;[71] in France, and now in England, book-trade bibliography operates beside an institutional national bibliography; and in "undeveloped" countries bibliography depends upon institutional or government support (as in Latin America) or (as in parts of Asia) upon the work of outsiders.

All such considerations are irrelevant to the foreign consumer, whose interest is the bibliographical services *he* demands. His ideal remains the prompt registration of all production in such a manner that any unit can be conveniently identified; where this registration should be done, and by whom, are secondary. For him the value of the Library of Congress lists of foreign accessions is precisely their usefulness, within limits, as substitutes for national bibliographies,[72] and he is not disturbed in the least by "intermuddling of national literatures."[73]

If it is not necessary to pick at bibliographical problems piecemeal by single nation and a co-operative attack on bibliographical dark places can be regarded as no more reprehensible—and no more offensive to national *amour-propre*—than a treaty on navigation, one could dream of official bibliographical deposit centers for Latin America and parts, at least, of the Near East and the Orient, with trained staffs registering the entire production and publishing the bibliographical record—on the basis of copies deposited by international agreement—of groups of nations united by regional, linguistic, or cultural bonds. Economically organized by approved standards, regional bibliographical centers might set standards that could breathe new life into the established bibliographical enterprises elsewhere. As one contribution to Schneider's "rearrangement of the economics of intellectual work," they might extend the sway of bibliography and hasten the coming of that dunces' paradise in which "index-learning turns no student pale,/Yet holds the eel of science by the tail." Where there is a will, there is a way.

[70] *Op. cit.*, p. 57.

[71] Schneider, *Theory and History of Bibliography*, pp. 281–82.

[72] One writer has gone so far as to pay the Library the compliment of listing its *Monthly List of Russian Accessions* as the *only* current national bibliography for Russia. Corrective details are provided by Thomas J. Whitby in his "An Analysis of the Bibliographic Activities of the Book Chamber in Soviet Russia" (unpublished Master's thesis, Graduate Library School, University of Chicago, June, 1952; typewritten) and his "National Bibliography in the U.S.S.R.," *Library Quarterly*, XXIII (January, 1953), 16–22.

[73] Campbell, *The Theory of National and International Bibliography*, p. 252.

PATTERNS OF LIBRARY GOVERNMENT AND COVERAGE IN EUROPEAN NATIONS

LEON CARNOVSKY

ONE day in December, 1951, some two months after I had begun a study of French public libraries, M. Julien Cain, the director of the Services des Bibliothèques de France and the Bibliothèque Nationale, asked me about my major impressions. I replied that the extreme centralization of control, shown in both national legislation and administration, was in sharp contrast to the decentralization I was accustomed to in the United States. He smiled, then he said: "All American librarians give the same answer. Our system is, in a sense, unsatisfactory, in that it imposes controls at a great distance from the scene of library operations. At the same time we must recognize that if it were not for centralized control, we would not have even such libraries as now exist." We Americans, on the other hand, have sometimes wondered if a greater degree of centralized control might not lead to a better national library pattern than we now have. For example, Joeckel in his *Government of the American Public Library* observes: "The interposition of forty-eight states between the federal government and individual libraries makes any closely organized system of libraries under a central authority, such as that of France, for example, impossible in the United States."[1]

In this paper I shall present the status of library government and coverage in France and other European countries where centralized control exists, and also in countries where it is absent. Certain comparisons between European countries and also between Europe and the United States are introduced.

FRANCE

The libraries of France come under the jurisdiction of a central agency within the Ministry of National Education, an agency established by law in 1897. There are five major groups of libraries, all publicly supported by the state, the municipality, or both. The first category comprises the great national libraries known jointly as the Réunion des bibliothèques nationales de Paris (decree of December 22, 1926). At the head stands the great Bibliothèque Nationale, and affiliated with it are the libraries of the Arsenal, the Conservatoire, and the Opéra. The second group consists of the libraries of the seventeen universities, one of which, Strasbourg, serves also as a national library. Then, in the third category, come the libraries of the great scholarly and scientific foundations—the Institut de France (which also supervises the Bibliothèque Mazarine) the Musée de l'Homme, the Academy of Medicine, etc. They are comparable to the important special libraries in this country which are usually privately established and endowed but open to the general public. Next, the fourth group consists of the municipal libraries, roughly compa-

[1] C. B. Joeckel, *The Government of the American Public Library* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1935), p. 38.

rable to our own public libraries, but only roughly, for in administration, support, book collections, and use they are quite different. The municipal libraries are divided into three groups. First are the *bibliothèques classées*, which include the forty-two [illegible] important by virtue of the wealth of their collections. Their major personnel are appointed by the state and paid in part by it, in part by the municipality. Next are the thirty-five *bibliothèques controlées*, also under the supervision of the state, but the personnel are paid completely by the municipality. Then come the large number of municipal libraries, over four hundred, subject to state supervision but decidedly less important—open only a few hours a week, their collections relatively small. The fifth category includes the *bibliothèques centrales de prêt des départements*, which in general concept correspond to our own county libraries. Thus far only seventeen of the ninety French departments have such libraries, each with its own bookmobile, temporary deposits in tiny hamlets, and basic book collection. Though few in number and limited in operation, they represent the major movement toward *le lecture publique*, or the real popularization of general reading through libraries. Their personnel are state-employed and administered.

Standing at the top of this network is the Services des Bibliothèques. Key individuals in this organization are three inspectors, who spend most of their time visiting libraries, advising on technical problems, and making recommendations with regard to their financing and administration. Since the end of the war they have had the important task of helping plan the reconstruction of totally or partially destroyed buildings and the reorganization of others. After each visit the inspector prepares a comprehensive report, a copy of which is sent to the mayor. These reports and the recommendations they contain serve as bases for subventions from the state in the form of either money or books. In addition, each librarian must submit an annual report to the Minister of Education on the state of his library, together with a list of acquisitions. Each library, incidentally, has a locally appointed committee to advise on operations and acquisitions, but the members are rarely active, and responsibility remains primarily that of the local librarian. The trustee system in the American sense does not exist.

Though this description fits the public library structure in France in general, there is an important exception—the libraries of Paris and the Department of the Seine. These come under the jurisdiction of the Prefecture of the Seine and are completely locally supported; they are not subject to inspection by the Service des Bibliothèques. Each of the twenty *arrondissements* in Paris has its library, almost always located in the town hall; in addition, there are a few installations for work with children, notably the famous L'Heure joyeuse, an American gift after World War I, and a special library, the Bibliothèque Forney, devoted to industrial arts. Since the Paris public libraries have been described elsewhere, additional comment is unnecessary.[2]

The French make a useful distinction in their libraries, referring to the older institutions as *bibliothèques d'étude* and to the more recent, more popular, ones as *bibliothèques pour le lecture publique*. This distinction is borne out in the nature of

[2] Leon Carnovsky, "The Public Libraries of Paris," *Library Quarterly*, XXII (July, 1952), 194–99.

the collections and in their readers. The libraries for study are based on important collections confiscated at the time of the French Revolution (the *fonds d'état*), supplemented by acquisitions keyed to the needs of the French curriculum. In general, the relatively few contemporary publications fall in the arts, belles-lettres, history, and biography. One finds little in science and virtually nothing in applied sciences and technology. Even the social sciences are not widely represented. Clearly, though members of the general public are not discouraged from coming, they do not come in large numbers. Yet the libraries *are* heavily used, by students in *lycée* and university. One frequently finds every seat occupied and sometimes a line of prospective readers waiting for others to leave.

This suggests a comment on the physical facilities. Almost invariably the libraries are located in premises not originally intended for them. They are found in palaces, castles, former monasteries, and schools; they are frequently broken up into several rooms, the stacks (closed, of course) far removed from the reading-rooms. Many libraries were demolished in the course of the war; others suffered severe damage and are in need of reconstruction.

In contrast to the *bibliothèques d'étude* are the small municipal libraries and the newer *bibliothèques centrales de prêt*. The latter are a postwar development, brought into existence by a decree of November, 1945. These libraries, as do our own, aim at encouraging reading and library use by the public at large, and especially by the residents of the small villages and rural areas for whom the scholarly libraries are inaccessible and unsuitable. Many are successful in a modest way; others have had a difficult time, because of indifference, even antagonism, to reading by certain elements in their areas, and especially because of having to change lifetime habits which have been molded by economic necessity and religion. These libraries have not come into being as a result of a mass demand for them; instead, they have been provided completely at state initiative and state expense. When the project of the central lending libraries was begun in 1945, it was hoped that all France would be served by them within ten years. Today, it seems highly unlikely that this goal will be reached; there still are vast areas where the concept of the the public library remains to be translated into reality.

ENGLAND

Great Britain's libraries, like those in France, receive their legislative birthright from central, or parliamentary, action; however, in England one does not find the inspectorate or any other form of control such as prevails in France. For present purposes parliament might be compared with one of our state legislatures which enacts a law permitting municipalities to establish libraries. Beyond this the responsibility is the city's.

English library history roughly parallels our own, in the sense that our first great public library, in Boston, was established about the same time as England's first important public libraries. These came about through the passage of the first public library law in 1850, the result of the efforts of Edward Edwards and John Ewart and the recommendations of the Select Committee of the House of Commons to report "on the best Means of extending the Establishment of Libraries freely open to the Public, especially in large Towns, in Great Britain and Ireland." This Public

Libraries Bill was quite precise in its provisions and set up so many restrictions and qualifications that one wonders how any communities would have been encouraged to take advantage of it. It applied only to towns of 10,000 or more; it required a two-thirds majority of the local taxpayers in favor of library establishment, and if this was not obtained it would be necessary to wait two years before another vote could be taken; the tax rate was not to exceed one halfpenny in the pound of property valuation; and the money could be used for buildings and salaries, but not for books. Subsequent legislation (1855) extended the privilege of library establishment to towns of 5,000; it increased the tax rate from a halfpenny to a penny; and it permitted the purchase of "books, magazines, maps, and specimens of art and science" —this in spite of the objection of one member that the libraries might thus be converted into "mere newspaper reading rooms and sedition shops." Although later legislation by parliament eased the path toward library establishment and operation, the penny-in-the-pound limitation remained in force until 1919, when the Public Libraries Act was passed. This act removed the tax limitation, and, hardly less important, it permitted county councils to establish libraries for all or part of their jurisdictions.

In spite of the British legislation—or perhaps because of its restrictive character—library progress was slow, much slower than in this country. But just as we have benefited enormously from the contributions of philanthropic giants, so did the English, primarily from those of John Passmore Edwards and Andrew Carnegie. Edwards, a successful publisher, provided funds for about twenty library buildings and books in London and Cornwall. Carnegie made his grants on the same basis employed in the United States; he gave buildings on condition that the municipality provided the site and promised the upkeep. Between 1879 and 1919, when he died, Carnegie had contributed to 310 of the 572 towns (54 per cent) in England, Scotland, Wales, and Ireland which established libraries. But the improvement in the library situation was essentially quantitative, in that there were *more* libraries, but their quality in book stock and services was severely limited.[3] The financial restrictions imposed first by parliamentary legislation and subsequently by local enactment prevented the provision of much more than the most elementary sort of library service. Arnold Bennett, in an essay which he wrote in 1909, characterized the libraries in this way:

> Another agency for the radiation of light in the average town is the Municipal Free Library. The yearly sum spent on it is entirely inadequate to keep it up-to-date. A fraction of its activity is beneficial, as much to the artisan as to members of the crust. But the chief result of the penny-in-the-pound rate is to supply women old and young with outmoded, viciously respectable, viciously sentimental fiction. A few new novels get into the library every year. They must, however, be "innocuous," that is to say, devoid of original ideas. This, of course, is inevitable in an institution presided over by a committee which has infinitely less personal interest in books than in politics or the price of coal. No Municipal Library can hope to be nearer than twenty-five years to date. Go into the average good home of the crust, in the quietude of "after-tea," and you will see a youthful miss sitting over something by Charlotte M. Yonge or Charles Kingsley. And that something is repulsively foul, greasy, sticky, black. Remember that it reaches from thirty to a hundred such good homes every year. Can you wonder that it should carry deposits of jam, egg, butter, coffee, and personal dirt? You cannot. . . . That youthful miss in torpidity

[3] W. A. Munford, *Penny Rate: Aspects of British Public Library History, 1850–1950* (London: Library Association, 1951), p. 43.

over that palimpsest of filth is what the Free Library has to show as the justification of its existence.[4]

Bennett's judgment of the British libraries was echoed ten years later by Sir Frederick Banbury in his protest against the library as an institution, and expressed in a speech against removing the penny-in-the-pound rate:

> My experience is that Public Libraries are places where, if the weather is cold, people go in and sit down and get warm, while other people go in to read novels. I do not believe, speaking generally, that Public Libraries have done any good. On the contrary, they have done a great deal of harm, because the books read, as far as my information goes, are chiefly sensational novels, which do no good to anybody. Except for spending public money, I do not see any object in this Bill.[5]

In spite of Sir Frederick's diatribe, the Public Libraries Act of 1919 was passed, and it undoubtedly provided an impetus to British library development. However, subsequent surveys and reports by J. M. Mitchell[6] and Sir Frederic Kenyon[7] stressed the gaps still evident in public library coverage and advanced various recommendations for improvement. The familiar prescription of cooperation, both among libraries and with education authorities, is well presented, but always the emphasis falls on local rather than parliamentary responsibility.

[4] Arnold Bennett, *Books and Persons, Being Comments on a Past Epoch, 1908–11* (New York: George H. Doran Co., [1917]), pp. 104–5.

[5] Quoted in Munford, *op. cit.*, p. 36. For a brief summary of British library legislation to 1919, see Public Libraries Committee, *Report on Public Libraries in England and Wales* (reprinted from Cmd. 2868 without appendixes) (1935).

[6] Carnegie United Kingdom Trust, *The Public Library System of Great Britain and Ireland, 1921–23* (Edinburgh: T. & A. Constable, Ltd., 1924).

[7] Great Britain, Board of Education Public Libraries Committee, *Report on Public Libraries in England and Wales* (London: H.M. Stationery Office, 1927).

The act of 1919, authorizing county councils to establish libraries, went far toward alleviating the rural library problem, and the Carnegie United Kingdom Trust, which had earlier evinced an interest in it, gave considerable financial stimulation to the movement. Today the ubiquitous bookmobile is a familiar appurtenance of county libraries all through the United Kingdom; it has been estimated that the county libraries serve well over fifteen million people.

Though the progress made by British libraries in the last quarter-century, both in book stock and services, has been marked, this is not to say that the millennium has by any means been reached. Indeed, a powerful indictment was incorporated in the 1942 McColvin report on the public library system of Great Britain.[8] He says of the book collections:

> A majority of the books seen in children's departments were shabby and unattractive and a scandalously large number were positively filthy. . . . In too many libraries the fiction shelves are a drab and unattractive array of shabby books, with an intermixture of filthy items. . . . A great many of the non-fiction books were in poor condition—shabby, in need of rebinding, faded, unattractive, useless. . . . This is definitely the most striking lesson of the survey—that most libraries are overstocked with the wrong material (which is not, of course, the same as saying that they are sufficiently stocked with the right material.)[9]

Similarly critical remarks are reserved for personnel and for certain aspects of administration. Indeed, the general tenor of McColvin's comments is not unlike that encountered in our own recent Public Library Inquiry, and his proposals for larger units will certainly find a familiar ring in this country. McColvin proposes

[8] Lionel R. McColvin, *The Public Library System of Great Britain: A Report on Its Present Condition with Proposals for Post-war Reorganization* (London: Library Association, 1942).

[9] *Ibid.*, p. 56.

reducing the 604 existing library systems to 93, of which 9 would be in London (in place of the present 17). Though he states that "we need some form of national central body which will guide, coordinate and encourage the development of local services," he insists that the library must be a local service and not under control of the central government.[10]

Before leaving Great Britain, we must pay our respects to the National Central Library, one of the most successful co-operative ventures the library profession has thus far seen. Originally founded in 1916 as the Central Library for Students, to provide books for adult classes and for students remote from library facilities, it became the National Central Library in 1930 and received a Royal Charter the following year. Today it is the center of a vast network of library lending services reaching into every part of the British Isles. Its services are threefold. First, it lends directly from its own book stock; and in developing its collection it aims to supplement, not duplicate, the holdings of other public libraries. Thus it will not lend books available at the applicant's own library, or fiction, textbooks, reference works, current periodicals, and the like; on the other hand, it *will* provide the more expensive type of book which is not likely to be in sufficient demand to warrant its acquisition by the typical library. Second, it arranges for lending books to individuals from hundreds of libraries throughout the country. This it does through the maintenance of a union catalog of 200 libraries which have agreed to lend their books through other libraries. Beyond this, the library is tied up with twelve regional systems, each one of which maintains a union catalog of the nonfiction holdings of the libraries in its region. The number of urban, county, university, and special libraries co-operating in this system totals 624. A potential borrower who wishes any book not in his local library may locate it in his region, or, if it is not there, he may find it through the union catalog at the National Central Library, which may have it in its own stock or locate it in a region at some distance from the borrower. The book may, in fact, be in one of the so-called "outlier" libraries—frequently highly specialized collections of materials which even the large public library is unlikely to possess. Though the machinery is perhaps a bit cumbersome, there can be no doubt of the values of the system; latest available figures indicate annual loans through it of well over 75,000. In addition, the library sent out nearly 20,000 volumes to adult classes; this constitutes its third function. We might note, incidentally, that the National Central Library receives a substantial annual grant from Her Majesty's Treasury, amounting to £31,250 for the year ending February 28, 1953.[11]

[10] *Ibid.*, p. 114.

SCANDINAVIA

The centralized character of library legislation in both France and Great Britain is typical of the pattern throughout most of the European countries. We turn next to Scandinavia. Norway, Sweden, and Denmark have all been strongly influenced by library development both in England and in the United States, though their legislation has taken a somewhat different turn and has introduced one or two novelties. Much more important than these novelties is the fact that the legislation goes far beyond the

[11] The National Central Library, *37th Annual Report* . . . (London, 1953), p. 8.

permissive, as in Great Britain and the United States, and decidedly beyond the provision for a central inspectorate, as in France. In Scandinavia one finds numerous well-organized local libraries, established and supported by their immediate constituencies, supervised by a national office, and aided financially and professionally by the central government.

Norway.—Although Norway had an important public library development all though the 1800's, the real impetus to the modern movement began in 1892, when Tambs Lyche returned to his native country after a long sojourn in the United States. Through his magazine *Kringsjaa*, a general journal somewhat similar to our old *Review of Reviews*, he continually propagandized for popular libraries and adult education. A typical comment from one of his articles, written in 1893, sounds familiar:

> Municipalities establish water works and gas works, and that is fine. But I dare maintain that it is of still more importance to the welfare of the population that the municipality found good free libraries for the public. . . . For the book contains the material without which human beings of our time are unable to live a complete and satisfactory life.[12]

A few years later Lyche, together with two librarians from the University of Oslo, drew up a plan for the reorganization of the Deichman Library, an old city institution which had been established more than a hundred years before—a plan which was adopted by the municipal authorities in 1898 and intrusted to Haakon Nyhuus for its realization. Nyhuus, with a fund of American library experience behind him, undertook the task, and as chief librarian he completely reorganized the operations of the Deichman. But his influence extended from Oslo to the entire nation; thanks to his initiative, the then existing 750 small libraries were placed under the supervision of an office in the national Department of Education, and, with Nyhuus as technical advisor (1903–6), the processes of book selection, purchase, preparation of the books for the shelves, etc., were standardized and centralized.[13] Subsequently, an inspection system was introduced; today there are five inspectors whose functions include assistance and advice to the local libraries.

In 1935 a national library law was enacted, with definite provision for direct financial grants to local libraries, but the outbreak of the war interrupted further library development. However, in 1949 a new law was passed, with many important provisions. Thus public libraries are made mandatory, with a minimum appropriation of 25 øre per capita. (Since the Norwegian crown is equivalent to 12½ cents, this appropriation, amounting to 3 cents, is extremely modest, to say the least.) Government grants are to be given to libraries which are completely free to all and competently administered (i.e., approved by the central inspectorate); these range from matching grants for libraries spending up to 400 crowns, to 50 per cent of a local grant of 3,000 crowns or more; however, no library receives more than 3,000 crowns (or about $375.00). Every public school is required to have a library. Finally, as much as 5 per cent of the total national appropriation for library grants goes into a royalty fund for Norwegian authors, the distribution of this money being based presumably on the library circulation of their books. The result of the law has been a sharp increase in

[12] Quoted in A. Kildal, "American Influence on European Librarianship," *Library Quarterly*, VII (April, 1937), 201.

[13] Arne Arnesen, "How Norway Became the Focus of American Library Methods in Europe," *Library Quarterly*, IV (April, 1934), 148–55.

local and national appropriations for library purposes and, of course, an increase in the total number of libraries. A recent figure indicates a national contribution of 300,000 crowns—not excessive, perhaps, by American standards, but ten times as much as had formerly been appropriated. It should be noted, too, that since the law was enacted the average local appropriation was 3.47 crowns (about 40 cents) per capita, though the law requires a minimum of 25 øre (3 cents).

Sweden.—Like Norway, Sweden, too, was influenced by America, though probably to a lesser extent. Many of the arguments advanced in the United States in the 1800's, centering around the need of popular education in a democracy, the role of libraries to complement the schools, and even the library as a counterattraction to the saloon, were echoed in Sweden. P. A. Siljeström visited the United States in 1840, and subsequently wrote: "The problem of national education is by no means solved because possibly every citizen may know how to read and write. The important question is: How are citizens to be made thinking beings in the greatest possible numbers?"[14] And again: "In no other country in the world is the taste for reading so diffused among the people as in America, and no country offers to all classes such facilities for the gratification of this taste. There are more newspapers, periodicals, readers' 'folk-libraries' in the United States than anywhere else. The popular government of a true democracy cannot exist without this foundation of a popular education."[15] Though Siljeström was not directly responsible for the introduction of the parish libraries, which have existed since the beginning of the nineteenth century, he undoubtedly aided in their increase and spread. In addition to these libraries, there existed the folk high schools, first established in 1868, numerous town libraries, and, perhaps most important of all, a large number of study circles. By 1905 sufficient interest had been implanted to make possible state grants to 634 libraries, inevitably small in size but establishing an important precedent and signifying official state concern with local library operations. Later, in 1912, the government adopted a plan presented by Dr. Valfrid Palmgren, who had visited the United States and returned full of enthusiasm for the library idea. Grants were made on a matching basis, and only one library in a community received a grant, which took the form of books selected by the library from a list drawn up by a central directorate in the Board of Education. Furthermore, study-circle libraries were to receive state subsidies on condition that they combined into groups large enough to spend at least 6,000 crowns annually for books.

The legislation which regulates the Swedish libraries today was enacted in 1930, following the recommendations of a committee of five experts. As before, only one library in a commune (or parish) may receive a government grant. The library must have a library committee with the responsibility of appointing a librarian, and the physical quarters must be approved by the Board of Education. Books must be made available for purposes of adult education, and the library is subject to periodical inspection

[14] P. A. Siljeström, *The Educational Institutions of the United States: Their Character and Organization*, trans. Frederica Rowan (London: John Chapman, 1853), p. 248.

[15] Quoted in C. S. von H. Bogoslovsky, *The Educational Crisis in Sweden in the Light of American Experience* (New York: Columbia University Press, 1932), pp. 121–22.

from the central directorate—i.e., the library advisers to the Board of Education. Financial grants are made on a matching principle.

In addition to these libraries—now to be found in practically all communes[16]—there are the so-called "central" libraries, which are located in twenty-two of the twenty-four counties. Their role is to supplement the collections in the communes, and the central librarian exercises a supervisory role over the other libraries in his district or county. These libraries are supported by their county council and the national government and in some cases by the towns themselves. The whole country is caught up in a network of interlibrary lending, and even such academic and research institutions as the Royal Library in Stockholm, the University libraries of Uppsala, Lund, and Göteborg, the Royal Science Academy Library, and the Caroline Medical Library in Stockholm will send out certain books for serious readers.[17]

One novel aspect of Swedish public librarianship is the agreement that books will not be loaned until one year following publication, in order not to interfere with potential sales to individuals. However, even some of the publishers disapprove of this provision; they feel that anything which encourages reading will ultimately redound to the benefit of all.

Sweden differs from Norway in that, though a high degree of centralization exists in both, local library establishment is permissive in Sweden, whereas in Norway it is mandatory. Interestingly enough, in both countries it has led to virtually universal coverage—undoubtedly a result of comparable social forces plus government grants-in-aid. It is recognized that many of the Swedish communes are too small, there are too many study-circle libraries, and government aid tends to be too widely diffused. A royal committee advanced a proposal a few years ago for the amalgamation of the study-circle libraries with the municipal libraries, but thus far the Riksdag has not acted upon it.

Denmark.—As we have seen, library development has reached a highly advanced stage in both Norway and Sweden, but it is in Denmark that we find the highest development not only in Scandinavia but perhaps in all Europe. Coming after a period of library experience in Great Britain and the United States, the Danish libraries benefited from it, and today the country is served by so many libraries, themselves maintaining close relationships with one another, that the ideal of universal coverage is all but realized.[18]

The great impetus toward library development came with the passage of the Public Library Act in 1920. Here was state recognition of the importance of libraries, bulwarked by provisions for state aid. As in Norway, library establishment remained a local responsibility, but state financial grants served as the stimulus. We find in Denmark a twofold type of public library—the small communal or parish library and the central library—just as in Sweden; in fact, the Swedish pattern was modeled directly after the Danish. Today there are thirty-three of these central libraries in Denmark, usually one, occasionally two, to a county. Each one serves its own city and

[16] *Actes du Comité international des bibliothèques, 18me session, Copenhagen, 25–27 September, 1952* (The Hague: Martinus Nijhoff, 1913), p. 193.

[17] A. E. Bostwick (ed.), *Popular Libraries of the World* (Chicago: American Library Association, 1933), pp. 270–71.

[18] Preben Kirkegaard, *The Public Libraries in Denmark* ("Danish Information Handbooks" [Copenhagen, 1950]).

at the same time has a number of responsibilities toward the numerous parish libraries in its area. It receives a grant from the national government, as do all public libraries and, in addition, another grant because of its extended services as a central library. The central librarian may advise or disapprove, but he cannot directly interfere with the operations of the local libraries; they all retain their autonomy. The central libraries offer advice and informal inspection to the small libraries; in addition, they offer directly and through the small libraries a variety of services, ranging from book loans to the preparation of reading lists and performance of the technical processes.

Standing at the top of the Danish library system is the library inspectorate, currently headed by Robert L. Hansen. One of his major functions is the distribution of the government grants; another is to insure, by periodic inspection, the fulfilment of the conditions which have been laid down for receipt of the grants. In spite of the fact that both communal and central libraries are local affairs, the inspectorate exercises considerable power in keeping them up to scratch—especially since it has the authority to make or withhold government grants. Furthermore, libraries which receive more than 2,000 crowns annually in state grants must have the approval of the inspectorate when a new librarian is to be appointed.

The establishment of libraries in Denmark is permissive only; however, it is interesting to note that legislation enacted in 1950 provides: "In municipalities which on April 1, 1960, have no approved public library, the municipal council must . . . on a written petition from a local library association, supported by at least 10 per cent of the voters of the community (at least 40 persons) make provision to establish a public library . . . within a year from the receipt of the petition."[19] The national library director may exempt certain municipalities and may approve two of them joining to establish a single library with branches in each. As for the size of the grants, a basic grant is given to each library "equal to 80 per cent of the first 25,000 crowns provided locally, 40 per cent of the next 25,000, and 25 per cent of all in excess of 50,000 crowns." Thus a library which received 100,000 crowns annually from its community would receive, in addition, 42,500 crowns (about $5,300) from the state. Nor is this all. It would also receive a special grant equivalent to 15 per cent of the local grant which is spent for books and binding. As for the central libraries, in addition to all this, they would receive a special state grant of 5,000 crowns plus 20 per cent of the local grant to a maximum of 20,000 crowns, and still another grant to help support a bookmobile. Provision is also made for state aid "on the establishment or thorough reorganization of a library" and for a special fund to living Danish authors and to their widows who have not remarried. The law specifies that this is compensation "for the loan by public libraries of books by these authors."

In 1939 the Danes established a Bibliographical Office of Public Libraries, with functions similar to those performed by the Library of Congress as a central cataloging and classification agency; catalog cards are sold to libraries throughout the country. This office has also published a number of suggested catalogs for libraries of different types,

[19] The Danish Public Libraries Act of May 27, 1950 ("Statens Bibliotekstilsyns Publikationer," No. 22 [Copenhagen, 1953]).

and it performs a vast number of services, such as centralized purchasing of many books for the libraries. It receives an annual grant consisting of 2½ per cent of the basic government grants to public libraries, but beyond this it is completely self-supporting. The office is supervised by a board which is made up of representatives from the state inspectorate, the Ministry of Education, and the Danish Library Association.

Such is the highly impressive pattern of public librarianship in Denmark—a pattern which has already influenced the development of librarianship in other Scandinavian countries and which will undoubtedly exert even greater influence in future. Whether it can be taken over by other countries with a different culture and geography is open to question. Denmark is a nation with no illiteracy, with a long history of socialism, with an area and population equal to about half the state of Ohio.[20] It has learned much from other countries, and it obviously has much to teach in return.

SWITZERLAND

In sharp contrast with the highly centralized character of library government just described is the decentralized system which prevails in Switzerland. The twenty-two cantons which make up the Swiss federation are comparable to our forty-eight states in the degree to which they remain the repositories of governmental authority; certainly, this is true as far as public library matters are concerned. The major exception to this generalization is the Bibliothèque pour Tous, to be considered later.

The Swiss library picture is one of great diversity; some communities have the most excellent type of library service available, others have very little or nothing at all. The university cities are probably the best served; this is because the universities and their libraries are supported by the cantons in which they are located, and the university library is freely open to use by any cantonal resident. In fact, while there is a charge to the student at the University of Bâle of 5 francs a semester, the nonstudent pays nothing. The book collections, as might be imagined, are keyed to the needs of the curriculum and are certainly not "popular" in our sense; yet the general public does come and makes considerable use of the library facilities. In addition to the six university libraries, one finds numerous cantonal libraries—comparable to the state libraries in Germany—and also a considerable number of communal libraries. Sometimes, as in Lucerne, cantonal and local libraries are combined into a single building and receive support from both canton and city. Frequently, the local library was established by a private or semipublic organization and serves the entire city. Such, for example, is the fine Pestalozzi library in Zurich, established by the Pestalozzi Gesellschaft. This library is now supported by the city (180,000 francs), but still receives a substantial annual grant from the society and also, from the canton, the proceeds from a tax on liquor (about 10,000 francs, or $2,000).

In addition to supporting the national library in Berne, the Swiss central government has accepted the responsibility for maintaining the Bibliothèque pour Tous, a nation-wide operation originally created by the Association of Swiss Librarians in 1920. This was an outgrowth of a library service, known as the Bibliothèque du Soldat, which had been

[20] C. B. Joeckel, "Realities of Regionalism" in L. R. Wilson (ed.), *Library Trends* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1937), p. 74.

established for the Swiss army during World War I. The proposal was made that the books and the boxes in which they were transported be used for civilian as well as military purposes. A popular subscription was undertaken without great success; however, the Federal Council approved the transfer of the books to civilian auspices, together with an annual subvention of 60,000 francs. Today the Bibliothèque pour Tous maintains a central headquarters in Berne and seven regional depots throughout Switzerland. In addition to the national contribution, it receives substantial sums from the cantons, the towns, business firms, and organizations and private individuals. It makes about half a million loans a year and has gone far toward providing universal library coverage. Boxes of books are sent to towns, schools, churches, camps—in fact, to any group of six persons or more requesting them. The Bibliothèque pour Tous has its analogue in our traveling libraries, and, as a matter of fact, Dr. Hermann Escher, former Zurich librarian and at the time president of the Swiss Library Association, got the idea for it from a visit to the United States.

ITALY

With our consideration of Italy, we return to the concept of national centralization in library legislation and supervision. Italy's libraries are under the Ministry of National Education, with its director-general of academies and libraries. Pre-eminent among them are the two national central libraries—one each in Florence and Rome, extremely rich in holdings, especially the one in Florence, and both enjoying the privilege of the *dépôt légal;* national libraries in Milan, Naples, Palermo, Turin, and Venice; and the eleven university libraries. Other great public libraries—in the sense that they are publicly supported and open to qualified students and readers—are the Laurentian, the Riccardiana, and the Marucelliana in Florence, the Estense in Modena, and eleven others. Based, as most of them are, on great ducal and princely collections and collections confiscated from religious orders, they are extremely rich in manuscripts, older books, incunabula, and precious bindings. These libraries are a far cry from the public library in the American, British, or Scandinavian sense. The popular library, or *biblioteche popolari,* still exists only to a limited degree and for the present, at least, is of very little significance in the pattern of Italian librarianship.

BELGIUM

The little country of Belgium contains within it so many factors of divisiveness and conflict that it is not surprising to find them reflected in its library development. Beset by sharp political and religious differences, harboring two distinct languages and cultures, French and Dutch, dominated by an industrial economy in the south and an agrarian in the north—all these have led to a national dualism which has thus far militated against the emergence of a firm national library movement. To put it positively, it has resulted in a chaotic library pattern, emphasizing duplication and waste of resources on the one hand, and lack of libraries altogether in many parts of the country, on the other.[21]

Belgium today contains a vast number and variety of libraries, under the sponsorship of many different public and private organizations. Three organiza-

[21] Leo Schevenhels, "Public Library Development in Belgium," *Library Quarterly,* XX (January, 1950), 39–42.

tions in particular should be mentioned. The Ligue de l'Enseignement was organized in 1864 for the encouragement of education, and it included in its program the establishment of popular libraries. It actually made small grants to libraries, but later it devoted its energies to a traveling-library program. Since the Ligue operated only in the French-speaking sections, another organization, the Willemsfonds, organized in 1851, carried on a comparable program in the Flemish areas, and later on, in 1875, the Davidsfonds branched off to serve the Flemish Catholic population. In addition to the libraries established by these three organizations, there are numerous others set up by private groups, churches, political parties, and towns; and frequently one finds several independent libraries functioning in the same community.

In 1921 M. Jules Destrée, minister of sciences and arts in the Belgian government, succeeded in putting through the act which bears his name and which provided for national subsidies to the popular libraries. Completely realistic, in that it recognized the ideological differences behind the existing libraries, it provided for financial aid to libraries organized by communities or taken over and operated by them and to libraries organized and operated by private groups but open to the general public. The libraries thus aided were to be subject to state inspection and managed by certified librarians of Belgian nationality. There are today approximately twenty-five hundred such libraries. Of these, the oldest and most progressive is located in Antwerp; on the other hand, Brussels, with a population of nearly 200,000 does not have a "public library" in the proper sense at all.

The central inspectorate consists of a chief inspector, two principal inspectors, one French and one Flemish, and eight additional inspectors, one for each province. It is this agency which is responsible for the distribution of state grants to the libraries in accordance with the provisions of the Destrée Act.[22]

NETHERLANDS

From Belgium it is interesting to turn to the Netherlands, for both have so many elements in common and yet such pronounced differences, especially in their library development. Showing much greater homogeneity in language and culture, Holland still retains religious diversity, with both Calvinism and Catholicism exercising strong influence. As in Belgium, library establishment was left largely to private initiative; one therefore finds Catholic libraries, Calvinist libraries, and now, increasingly, town or "neutral" libraries—all flourishing side by side. All three types may receive state, provincial, or local subsidies, but state grants are made only on condition of local contributions in accordance with scales based on population.[23]

Some of the libraries—for example, in Rotterdam and Harlem—are municipal enterprises, similar to our own local libraries, in that they are operated by municipal governmental authorities; but in a large number of cases the form of control is quite different. The members of the library, who pay a fee for the privilege of using it, "form themselves into a society which elects a Library Committee, which acts for them in administrative matters." This does not mean that the committee interferes in

[22] See also Charles Depasse, *L'Organisation officielle de l'éducation populaire en Belgique* . . . (Liége: Éditions Biblio, 26 Place St.-Lambert, 1950), pp. 123–33.

[23] Lionel McColvin, *Survey of Libraries: Reports on a Survey Made during 1936–1937* (London: Library Association, 1938), pp. 198–99.

running the library, which remains the librarian's responsibility, although in the denominational libraries some control is exercised in matters of book selection. With all its diversity in library structure and control, Holland today is a country where the library idea has taken a firm hold.

GERMANY

Thus far, two major European countries, Germany and Soviet Russia, have not been mentioned. Very little recent information is available on postwar library development in Germany and even less on Russia (at least in accessible form). Before the war Germany's scholarly libraries were world-renowned; her Prussian and Bavarian state libraries, her Deutsche Bücherei in Leipzig, her great university and technical libraries, her numerous provincial and municipal and special libraries, were respected for their collections and administration. As we know, the war wrought havoc with many of them, and it will be a long time, if ever, before they attain the preeminence among the world's bibliographical resources that they once enjoyed. It seems likely that, in view of the losses of irreplaceable material, the German libraries will be forced to depend on one another to a greater extent than ever before.

In contrast with the academic and scholarly libraries, the public libraries in Germany never did attain the stature of those in the United States, Great Britain, and Scandinavia. As elsewhere in Europe, however, there were beginnings, sponsored by private organizations or by municipalities, and, apparently, American and British libraries served as prototypes for many German public libraries. As Father Burke points out, they tended to divide sharply into a group which favored indiscriminate catering to popular cultural interests and a group "which emphasized the need for strictest selection of the cultural values to be transmitted."[24] In any event, all types were swept up in the Nazi propaganda machine and became instruments of national policy. Today the public libraries are once more slowly emerging, but anything remotely approaching a national public library movement is nonexistent.

SOVIET RUSSIA

As for the Soviets, there can be no blinking the fact that enormous strides have been taken in the creation and development of libraries for all. It has always been a cardinal principle of the Soviets to use libraries as instruments of mass education, and the responsibility for their operation is delegated to the constituent republics. Each of them has a commissariat of education, under which is a library board. According to a Russian official source, in 1940 there were 50,893 public, or "mass," libraries under the commissariats of education, and nearly 40,000 more under different auspices (trade-unions, collective farms, etc.), or a grand total of 90,298.[25] These, of course, are in addition to the scientific and academic libraries and to the great libraries in Leningrad, Moscow, and other important centers. The library board aims at wide geographical coverage, whereas other government agencies and institutions cover special interests

[24] Redmond A. Burke, C.S.V., "German Librarianship from an American Angle," *Library Quarterly*, XXII (July, 1952), 184.

[25] Reported in A. V. Baumanis, "Principles and Practices of Soviet Librarianship" (unpublished Master's thesis, Graduate Library School, University of Chicago, 1952). Much of the material in this section on Soviet Russia has been drawn from Baumanis' thesis.

and needs. The Moscow Library Board, for example, is responsible for 2,000 "districts." Mrs. Joan Firth reports that the widespread rural population in remote areas is served by postal loans, book boxes (traveling libraries), book carriers, and vehicular libraries (or bookmobiles). The book carriers consist of volunteer librarians who take books from local or district libraries direct to homes where the occupants are unable to visit the library in person. The bookmobile may carry up to 2,000 books; each one is equipped with a radio set and tables and chairs, so that open-air reading facilities may be set up.[26]

There can be no question that a vast amount of reading is being done, both in an absolute sense and in relation to the amount done in pre-Soviet times. Aside from the much greater availability of materials, the Soviets have systematically aimed at removing illiteracy—estimated as being as high as 70 per cent under the czars and less than 10 per cent today. Cashmore, the British librarian who visited Russia in 1936, observed that "there was something almost inhuman in the evidence of so very much 'solid' reading." The practice of reading aloud to groups of adults has long prevailed; in fact, it was provided for in a governmental decree (1918) signed by Lenin.[27] The decree called for persons "able to read aloud distinctly and with understanding" to serve as readers. Though this practice was probably emphasized to inform the illiterate, it apparently is still in wide use today.

The role of the Soviet library in indoctrination or thought control is too well known to require elaboration. As Baumanis reports:

> The mass library is a device for both sectarian indoctrination and censorship. This fact is neither concealed nor denied by Soviet library literature. On the contrary it is emphasized again and again . . . and every issue of Soviet library journals supports this library reasoning, while Party demands and government ordinances and instructions formulate in some detail the objectives of a library practice corresponding to this philosophy. Library activities are evaluated in the same vein in no uncertain terms, appropriate measures are taken to correct deviations, and persons failing to collaborate are dismissed.[28]

The practice of censorship, however, was not a Soviet invention, nor, unfortunately, is it a Soviet monopoly. Baumanis tells us that before 1917 the small public libraries in Russia "were handicapped by legal provisions limiting their book resources to titles explicitly approved for these libraries by the government. Their dependence upon the local police chief was great, as he was in charge of checking up the reading material promoted by the local library."

CONCLUSION

As I have studied the status of librarianship in foreign lands, I have been impressed by the extent to which practices in one country have served as models for others. The development of American libraries a hundred years ago was influenced to some degree by the British House of Commons report, for it was widely distributed over here and presumably was widely read. On the other hand, American practice undoubtedly found its imitators and adapters on the British scene. As we have seen, Scandinavia was strongly influenced by Anglo-American models, and one Scandinavian

[26] Joan Firth, "The County Library System in the U.S.S.R.," *Library Association Record*, LV (July, 1953), 216–18.

[27] Baumanis, *op. cit.*, p. 90.

[28] *Ibid.*, p. 145.

country frequently served as the prototype for others. Even Soviet Russia, with all its sharp differences and unique applications, found enough that was suggestive in American librarianship to warrant her inviting Harriet G. Eddy, a California county library organizer, to help in setting up the Soviet library system, and to send Anna Kravchenko to study library practice in the United States.[29] Clearly, we all have much to learn from one another, and it would be tragic if we were to withdraw behind our private curtains of national self-sufficiency. Such international organizations as UNESCO, the International Federation of Library Associations, the International Federation of Documentation, and the Institute for International Education are, or can become, of first importance in facilitating the mutual exchange of experience among all the nations of the world.

But though we may learn and make adaptations from each other, there remain for each country certain elements of uniqueness—elements which go far toward making the libraries the kinds of institutions they are. These unique elements are the history, the traditions, the economic and political structure, even the personalities. France's libraries bear the stamp of the French Revolution; as Mlle Odette Réville recently pointed out: "Our libraries, almost all, are based on sources patiently gathered through the centuries by scholars and learned bookmen. They are disparate (ill-assorted), overcrowded, burdened with obsolete contributions—but also infinitely varied, rich in inestimable treasures, to which a judicious grouping often gives supplementary worth."[30] Traditions of book-ownership versus book-borrowing clearly tend to militate against a communal enterprise like the public library—just as book scarcity (as in Germany) may advance it; and long hours of work and educational limitations certainly inhibit library use. As for the influence of personalities, who can say what libraries in Scandinavia would be like today if it had not been for the foresight of Tambs Lyche in Norway or Valfrid Palmgren in Sweden? Or, for that matter, of Andrew Carnegie in America and Britain?

As we have seen, the two great governmental patterns which dominate in Europe are those of extreme centralization (as in France, Scandinavia, Italy, and, to some extent, Russia) and extreme decentralization (as in Great Britain and Switzerland). One hesitates to make value-judgments as to which type is to be preferred; good library systems and indifferent ones are possible under either. But there can be no doubt, I believe, that a real ferment for public libraries is abroad in the world, and we may look ahead with confidence to ever widening library development.

[29] A. E. Bostwick (ed.), *Popular Libraries of the World* (Chicago: American Library Association, 1933), p. 300.

[30] Odette Réville, "Bibliothèques et bibliothécaires en Amérique et en France," *Archives, bibliothèques, collections, documentation*, No. 8 (March-April, 1953), p. 223.

AWAKENING LIBRARY CONSCIOUSNESS IN THE MIDDLE EAST

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WHEN Charles M. Doughty wrote the brief Preface to the third edition of *Travels in Arabia Deserta,* he opened his comments with the simple statement that "the Great War of our times has brought the Land of the Arabs into the horizon of the Western Nations."[1] For almost four decades not only Arabia Deserta but also all other countries from the Maghrib to Indonesia have assumed increasing significance in world affairs. There is no need to recite the recent political history of the Middle East,[2] for all newspaper readers are aware of the transcendent importance of such events as the Anglo-Iranian oil dispute or the Arab-Israeli war in our modern world.

Today all Middle Eastern countries are in the grip of a social upheaval of which the ultimate outcome is uncertain, but which affects the entire world. Nationalist aspirations, the disintegration of traditional family patterns, awareness of higher living standards in occidental countries, Communist agitation, emancipation of women, growth of urban industrial centers, and increasing pressure of population on land in some areas are a few of the causes and ingredients of this upheaval.[3] In the past we have had little interest in and known almost nothing about the economic, social, and educational conditions in the Middle East; and, by the same token, our knowledge of libraries and the conditions that govern their development and expansion in these jurisdictions is very limited. To be sure, there has been some information on the great depositories of Arabic, Persian, and Turkish manuscripts in the journals dedicated to oriental studies; but most of these reports reflect a primitive concept of archival and research library administration, both on the part of the libraries and on the part of the writers.

The development of popular as well as research libraries in the Middle East is part and parcel of the social upheaval to which reference has just been made. Here, as elsewhere in the world, library development is both a symptom and a cause of social change; and a few brief notes on the forces at work beyond the library walls will contribute substantially to understanding a number of generalizations which will be made in this paper.

With the sole exception of Israel—an exception to nearly any broad statement about the Middle East—there is a superficial homogeneity in the whole vast area from Gibraltar to Pakistan and from Samarkand to equatorial Africa. This relatively homogeneous Islamic society

[1] (3d ed.; New York: Boni & Liveright, 1921), p. xv.

[2] In this paper the term "Middle East" is used to define the area from India to Gibraltar, but excluding Greece, Crete, and Cyprus. Except for the last three jurisdictions, it is coterminous with the area defined in Ernest Jaeckh (ed.), *Background of the Middle East* (Ithaca: Cornell University Press, 1952). Though predominantly Moslem, it is not identical with Islam, since it excludes all but one of the five largest Moslem countries in the world (Indonesia, Pakistan, the USSR, India, and China).

[3] "The Middle East in the Grip of a Social Upheaval," *UNESCO Courier*, VI (April, 1953), 9. Mrs. Franklin D. Roosevelt's *India and the Awakening East* (New York: Harper & Bros., 1953) provides another effective picture of these conditions.

is characterized by a more or less uniform system of religious beliefs, a basically rural population, an embryonic state of industrial and commercial development, an extraordinarily rich cultural heritage, poorly developed communication systems, endemic disease, high birth and death rates, and widespread illiteracy, to mention a few conditions that are immediately obvious to any occidental. These are also primary factors that affect library development.

On the other hand, no apostle of modern librarianship in the Middle East could dare overlook basic points of dissimilarity between individual countries in this area. In Turkey, Egypt, Syria, and the half-Christian republic of Lebanon the process of social change has been much more rapid than elsewhere. In some respects religious differences are almost as great as in Christendom. There is not only the ancient schism between Sunnite and Shiite but also the numerous radical sects into which the latter group has split. Even more significant is the secularism in republican Turkey, the last seat of the caliphate and today perhaps the most important single Moslem state. Racial differences have had much more effect on Islamic history than orthodox Moslems like to admit. The differences between a Berber of the high Atlas, a Turk of Tashkent, and a partially civilized inhabitant of the interior of Java are not completely reconciled by obedience to the word of the Prophet. Nationalism and international rivalries have always been nascent among the diverse Moslem peoples, but in the last few decades these elements of political life have been greatly intensified.

This paper cannot possibly give anything like an adequate picture of libraries and librarianship in the whole vast realm of Islam or even in the jurisdictions we have defined as part of the Middle East. Our discussion will be largely confined to example from the best-known countries in the Middle East, particularly Turkey, Egypt, and Iran. Some attention will also be given to librarianship in the most advanced state of the Middle East, Israel. Israel's whole tradition is different from that of her neighbors; but her geographical position is immutable, and she must find a *modus vivendi* with Arabic countries. Librarianship in the two most populous of the strictly Moslem countries, Pakistan and Indonesia, has developed largely under the aegis of the English and Dutch, respectively; and a similar situation exists in Algeria, Tunis, and Morocco, where libraries have developed largely on models in metropolitan France.[4] Libraries in all parts of the Soviet Union, whether or not in traditionally Moslem territory, belong to a wholly different tradition. In some countries, for example, Afghanistan and the new nation of Libya, no accounts of libraries are available, and the entries in the directories are almost blank.[5] This situation should not continue; for without a dependable corpus of descriptive literature on the libraries of all countries, agencies such as UNESCO cannot make effective plans to aid in library development, and western European and American scholars will, in many instances, be deprived of information about important collections of source materials. We urgently need, for example, a Philby or a Rutter in the ranks of librarianship to visit the holy city of Medina and tell us more about the noble library of the

[4] This statement does not imply that powerful indigenous forces are not at work in these countries but rather that they do not present as characteristic a situation as we find in Turkey, Egypt, and Iran.

[5] E.g., *The World of Learning, 1952* (4th ed.; London: Europa Publications, [1952?]).

Shaykh El Islam ʾArif Hikmat, a library near the Mosque of the Prophet said to contain 17,000 volumes, principally manuscripts.[6] In other countries—even Turkey, Egypt, and Lebanon—there is much more to be learned about existing libraries than has been published; and our background of information on the conditions governing the future development of libraries is almost a *tabula rasa*.

For the sake of convenience, this paper will be divided into sections corresponding to the major types of libraries, viz., the great depositories of oriental manuscripts, national libraries, academic libraries, public libraries, and special libraries. Some attention will also be given to education for librarianship, private collecting, and the book trade.

The most striking aspect of Middle Eastern librarianship is the fabulous wealth of oriental manuscripts. Up through World War I the treasures of most of the manuscript libraries were virtually unavailable to the average European orientalist, as a result of religious and political conditions combined with a total lack of information on library techniques. Access to the Seraglio library, with its treasures of Greek as well as Arabic and Turkish manuscripts, was all but impossible. In the 1920's conditions began to change, even though the continuing disorderly condition of many libraries was discouraging. As late as the mid-1930's William M. Randall had trouble getting into the Al-Zahiryah National Library in Damascus, although three years after his first visit he had free and easy access to the noble manuscript collections here.[7] The immediate explanation for the relatively sudden change of policy was the transfer of the library from the Ministry of Pious Foundations (*Wakf*) to the Ministry of Public Instruction and the subsequent appointment of a graduate of the École des Chartes as librarian. However, this is merely a part of a trend, most noticeable in Turkey but also apparent elsewhere, to secularize certain pious foundations (including many libraries) in the public interest. The process contrasts favorably with the none too orderly secularization of monastic property in England during the Reformation, in France during the Revolution, and in Bavaria during the last century.

The concept of availability of manuscript collections has penetrated to all parts of Islam, and even the unbelieving orientalists of Europe and America can browse at will in the collections of the Osmanli *padişahs* or in the famous Shrine Library in Meshed,[8] holy city of the Shiites. Quite properly, liberalization of policy toward readers has not yet extended to outside loan in manuscript libraries; but in most libraries where there are both printed books and manuscripts (e.g., the Millet and Bayazit in Istanbul), the rule against lending is applied indiscriminately to all library materials. The key to the remaining major problems of Islamic manuscript libraries lies in proper cataloging, interlibrary co-operation, and extension of facilities to scholars at a distance (especially by microfilm).[9]

[6] J. Rives Childs, "Saudi Arabia's Libraries Still Largely Unknown," *Library Journal*, LXXV (1950), 1297; H. St. J. B. Philby, *A Pilgrim in Arabia* (London: R. Hale, 1946), pp. 64–65; and Eldon Rutter, *The Holy Cities of Arabia* (2 vols.; London: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1928), II, 230–31.

[7] "Departmental Libraries in Egypt and Syria," *Special Libraries*, XXXI (1940), 276.

[8] A rich but little-known collection, especially strong in manuscripts; informally described by Bertha M. Frick, "A Traveler's-Eye View of Libraries in the Near East," *College and Research Libraries*, X (October, 1949), 393.

[9] The pioneer microfilming project in the field of Islamic manuscripts was conducted in the 1930's

Before this key may be found, the countries of the Middle East must undergo the same evolution in librarianship that North America and western Europe have known, viz., development of a bibliographical tradition, establishment of professional training facilities, recognition of the necessity for standards of administrative practices, provision of adequate buildings and equipment, and awareness of the needs of the scholar and his potential use of the collections. These prerequisites for proper servicing of the treasures of Islamic manuscript libraries have been outlined in my *Program for Library Development in Turkey*.[10] Preliminary bibliographical studies should be undertaken at once, and I have attempted to illustrate the type of work that needs to be done in my *Basic Turkish Reference Books*[11] and "Notes on Turkish Bibliography."[12] A list of reference books pertinent to each national jurisdiction in the Middle East as well as for Islamic culture in general would be welcomed by occidental as well as oriental scholars. While there is little doubt of the necessity for printed catalogs of manuscripts, preferably national union catalogs (including new, comprehensive censuses of Islamic manuscripts in Europe, America, and the U.S.S.R.), methods and techniques of cataloging Islamic manuscripts on a large scale must be carefully reviewed. The praiseworthy projects of the Turkish Ministry of Education to compile union catalogs of all Turkish historical manuscripts in the libraries of Istanbul[13] and of all Turkish divans in the libraries of Istanbul[14] are so slow that they are becoming veritable *Schmerzenskinder* of oriental bibliography. Moreover, they show distinct technical deficiencies. Catalogs of individual libraries listed by Joseph A. Dagher in his *Répertoire des bibliothèques du proche- et du Moyen-Orient*[15] show much unevenness in quality and lack of uniformity in method, although there are exceptions, such as the remarkable series of catalogs currently being issued by the general library of the University of Istanbul.[16]

The problem of professional training for the custodians of the great manuscript collections is a difficult one. A course at the École des Chartes or internship in the manuscript division of one of the great occidental research libraries is not sufficient, for cataloging and servicing of oriental manuscripts present many special problems with which we are unfamiliar. To subject a skilled orientalist to what would seem to him to be irrelevant banalities of American library schools would be likely to incur a scorn that would not promote the advancement of education for other types of librarianship. A special type of school would be most desirable, preferably

by the noted German Arabist, Hellmut Ritter. See Bernhard Lewin, "Istanbul-Bokstaden," *Nordisk Tidskrift för Bok- och Biblioteksväsen*, XXXVII (1950), 23–29. Ritter took 100,000 exposures of 2,000 important manuscripts in the various libraries of Istanbul, and all are now in the University of Uppsala Library.

[10] (Istanbul: Millî Eğitim Basımevi, 1952), pp. 36–38.

[11] ("Occasional Contributions," No. 40), Lexington: University of Kentucky Library, 1952.

[12] *Papers of the Bibliographical Society of America*, XLVI (1952), 159–63.

[13] Turkey, Millî Eğitim Bakanlığı, *İstanbul Kütüphaneleri tarih-coğrafya yazmaları katalogları* (Istanbul: Maarif Matbaası, 1943——). Ten fascicles of Part I, *Türkçe tarih yazmaları*, have appeared so far.

[14] Turkey, Millî Eğitim Bakanlığı, *İstanbul kitapları Türkçe yazma divanlar kataloğu* (Istanbul: Millî Eğitim Basımevi, 1947——). Only one fascicle has appeared thus far.

[15] Paris: UNESCO, 1951.

[16] See Thompson, "Notes on Turkish Bibliography," *op. cit.*, p. 163.

located in Istanbul, not only because this great city is the natural meeting place of East and West and thus a point to which European and American as well as Middle Eastern orientalists would gravitate, but also because of its pre-eminent wealth in Arabic, Persian, and Turkish manuscripts gathered by Osmanli officials for five centuries. If the Israeli and the Arab world could settle their differences and if the colossal tragedy of the padlocking of the Jewish National and University Library on Mount Scopus after the Arab-Israeli war could be undone, Jerusalem would be another logical center for training curators of oriental manuscript collections. This library is unquestionably the best-rounded and best-administered collection of books between Budapest and Tokyo. Even now a rich stream of Hebrew as well as non-Hebrew manuscripts—nearly 1,200 since the truce[17]—has come into Israel from the Diaspora. When the solid accomplishments and indisputable integrity of Israel compel fair-minded Arabs to meet the Israeli halfway, it may yet be possible to set up an institute for research and training in oriental paleography in Jerusalem. At present the Institute of Librarianship and Archives of Cairo University has a program for training curators of oriental manuscript collections; and there is every reason to predict its success in this third great center of oriental studies.

In still another respect the Jewish National and University Library is unique in the Middle East, for it is the only major collection of printed books and manuscripts in the area that has adequate quarters—or rather that once had adequate quarters. In the Islamic countries most libraries are in old mosques and *médrêsês*, deficient in heating, lighting, and ventilation. While a few of the old foundations are in beautiful and characteristic library buildings, e.g., the Ragip Paşa in Istanbul or the Ahmet III in the Topkapı Sarayı (Seraglio), other collections are in urgent need of new buildings and adequate equipment. In the metropolitan centers a central manuscript library would facilitate research immeasurably and would undoubtedly mean a great saving in administrative costs.

A serious barrier to spatial centralization as well as to co-operation in general is the plurality of authority to which the manuscript collections are responsible. Lewin has suggested that Egypt solved the problem by uniting manuscript collections in the Egyptian National Library;[18] but a quick glance at Dagher will show many other collections in Cairo in libraries subject to various other governmental and private authorities. In Istanbul many manuscript libraries were brought together in the Süleymaniye, and others were made responsible to the director of the Süleymaniye; but there are still many other collections of manuscripts in this city which are controlled by other authorities (the autonomous University of Istanbul, the directorate of museums, the municipality, the patriarchal sees of the Greek and Armenian churches, and private groups).[19]

Although it may be impractical politically to force spatial or administrative unity, a far greater degree of co-operation could be attained. For example, it is

[17] Jewish National and University Library, *Report on Activities from February 1st, 1950, to September 30th, 1952, and the Present Situation* (Jerusalem, 1952), p. 6.

[18] *Op. cit.*, p. 23.

[19] For notes on administrative organization of Turkish libraries see Lawrence S. Thompson, "The Libraries of Turkey," *Library Quarterly*, XXII (1952), 271.

difficult to understand why three state-supported manuscript libraries in Istanbul have microfilming laboratories that would be a credit to any major European or American library when a single laboratory could do the work for all of them. It is probably inadvisable for co-operation to be enforced by government authorities, but the development of library associations and of strong and effective national library systems can do much to make librarians aware of the value of co-operative activity. Embryonic library associations exist in Turkey, Egypt, and Israel, and they could also be developed in Iran and Lebanon. It is important that these new library associations appeal to all types of librarians, especially the manuscript librarians, a group which is frequently indifferent to all-inclusive library organizations. A particularly useful device to stimulate the professional interest of manuscript librarians and to provide for interchange of ideas would be a journal in which their field is regularly and adequately represented. The only journal of this type which has appeared thus far is the new organ of the Turkish Library Association in Ankara, *Türk Kütüphaneciler Derneği Bülteni*, of which Volume I (1952) has just been completed.

In the United States we have an outstanding case of the beneficent influence of a strong national library in setting goals of professional achievement and, through its own activities, leading the way in co-operative ventures of all sorts, either directly or indirectly through affiliated organizations. In the Middle East Turkey, Israel, and Egypt have strong national libraries which are in positions of potential leadership, provided that they receive adequate funds. The phenomenal growth of the Turkish National Library[20] in the five short years since it opened its doors in August, 1948, is abundant evidence that national libraries can develop quickly in a relatively short period of time. The Jewish National and University Library attained distinction in barely half a century.[21] The striking history of these two libraries and the obvious positions of influence and leadership which they now hold indicate clearly that the weaker national libraries in such countries as Iran or Lebanon could also develop into an effective force within a short time if given adequate support. Even in nations such as Libya or Saudi Arabia the government should give the most earnest consideration to developing a strong national library at the earliest possible date. Smaller Middle Eastern nations might well follow the example of the Turks, who sent one of their most promising young educators, Adnan Ötüken, to study western European librariansbip at the old Preussische Staatsbibliothek in the 1930's. Ever since his return, Adnan Bey has pursued his idea of a national library *and* a national center of librarianship with utmost devotion and singularity of purpose. His Millî Kütüphane has become not only a depository for the national literature but also a bibliographical center, headquarters for a new national library organization, fountainhead of new techniques, and the hothouse for nurturing the idea of a Turkish school of librarianship.

The establishment of a bibliographical center at the Turkish National Library in 1952 is perhaps the most significant single move that has taken place in any of the larger Moslem countries in recent

[20] Adnan Ötüken, "The Youngest National Library in the World," *Libri*, I (1950), 171–72; and G. A. Glaister, "The National Library of Turkey," *Library Association Record*, LIII (1951), 50–52.

[21] Daniel Hay, "The Jewish National and University Library," *Library Association Record*, XLVI (1944), 24–27.

years. The Turkish copyright office and the editing and distribution of the national bibliography, *Türkiye Bibliyografyasi* (now in its twenty-fifth year), are supervised by the National Library. A periodical index, *Türkiye Makaleler Bibliografyasi*, has been initiated, and plans are under way for other major projects. Even the publications of the Jewish National and University Library, including *Kirjath Sepher* (now in Vol. XXIX), do not have the same broad significance as the Turkish bibliographical center. In Egypt bibliographical planning has been centered in a UNESCO office headed by William Purnell; and the Bibliographical Committee of the Egyptian Library Association has conducted its deliberations on the basis of UNESCO recommendations (centralized national bibliographical services, copyright, and publication of a national bibliography). Nothing concrete had been accomplished up to the fall of 1952.

National bibliography is always an appropriate and desirable activity of a national library. However, the relative homogeneity and intellectual solidarity of the Arabic-speaking countries suggest the need for a comprehensive Arabic cumulative book index. A large national library in one of these countries would be the logical center, and, specifically, the Egyptian National Library is the only one that has thus far attained the stature necessary for undertaking this job. Possibly the Cultural Department of the Arab League might be in a position to underwrite a bibliographical center in the Egyptian National Library with functions similar to those of the Turkish Bibliographical Center. A companion project, but one that can best be undertaken on a national basis, is a government document bibliography. The *Türkiye Bibliyografyasi*, like most Continental European national bibliographies, includes government documents; but if we have an Arab-language cumulative book index, it would be impractical to include Syrian or Moroccan documents, which would be most conveniently listed by the chief depository in those jurisdictions.

Academic libraries in the Middle East are much like those in Latin America. They are characterized by excessive proliferation of branch libraries, with no central administrative authority, apparently inadequate support, poorly trained staffs, inadequate physical facilities (except, perhaps, in Egypt), and a poor *rapport* with the basic programs of instruction and research.[22] With the exceptions of the better American-supported colleges (those in Istanbul, Beirut, and Cairo), the academic libraries of the Middle East differ radically from the ones we know in North America. Although Middle Eastern (like Latin-American) university libraries are modeled on Continental European prototypes, they show the worst features of the latter and only a few of the virtues of such well-administered European university libraries as those of Tübingen, Leiden, and Uppsala.

The most iniquitous effect of the excessive number of institute, department, and office libraries is that an institution such as the University of Istanbul spends twice as much on books as the universities of Göttingen or Lund, more than the universities of Nebraska or Kentucky, and yet cannot show a fraction of the results in terms of current acquisitions.[23] In fact, no one knows or has any means of ascertaining how much money is spent

[22] Thompson, "The Libraries of Turkey," *op. cit.*, pp. 277–81; and Mary Gaver, "Iranian Libraries," *Library Journal*, LXXVIII (1953), 772–76.

[23] Thompson, *Program for Library Development in Turkey*, pp. 32–36.

for library purposes, how many volumes are in the collections, or even the number of employees engaged in library service in most Middle Eastern university libraries. Individual department heads and institute directors are allowed to spend money for books and services of library attendants with no accounting to a comptroller or a director of libraries. No Middle Eastern university even has a position corresponding to the head librarian or director of an American university library system. Attempts to consolidate administrative authority or to enforce centralized purchasing and cataloging will not be welcomed by the faculties, and they should be preceded by careful studies and planning on the highest level.

In Turkey, Egypt, Iran, and Israel substantial sums have been spent in developing university libraries during the last quarter of a century, but only in the last-named country have results been commensurate with expenditures. A few academic libraries, such as the General Library of the University of Istanbul, the libraries of the teachers' college in Ankara, the Medical Faculty in Tehran, the University of Alexandria, and, of course, the American colleges, are more or less properly classified, and some even admit students and instructors to the shelves. Miss Gaver reported that only one out of eight university libraries in Tehran allows free access to the shelves.[24] In Turkey some academic libraries even offer the privilege of home loan. All these trends represent some progress over traditional Islamic educational methods, but there is a long road to be traveled before Middle Eastern academic libraries give effective service.

[24] Manuscript report submitted to United States State Department, January 13, 1953.

The American-supported colleges, the Egyptians, and the Israeli[25] have come to understand that the key to improved college and university library service is a properly trained staff, not simply one or two scholars as administrative heads but without real competence as librarians or even without professional interests. Nevertheless, the idea of the necessity of formal training is gradually taking hold, and in Jerusalem, Cairo, and a few other centers we can find library staffs which include scholarly librarians in all the broad fields represented in the university, as well as "professionally trained" employees on the middle management level. We shall return later to the problem of library education in the Middle East.

A particularly grave aspect of academic librarianship in the Middle East is the extremely low salary scale for librarians, who are classified so low in government pay plans that it is difficult to attract the ablest young people into the field. Only in Egypt and Israel do head librarians receive salaries comparable with those of full professors in the universities. In some countries librarians are compelled to secure additional university appointments in order to make ends meet, a situation that is particularly aggravated in Iran.

The most eloquent pages in any study of Middle Eastern librarianship are those on which nothing is written. Unfortunately, the caption "school libraries" comes at the head of these blank pages. While nearly all secondary schools or-

[25] Shlomo Shunami, "Library Organization Needed in Palestine," *Library Journal*, LXX (1945), 1007–8, points out Dr. Hugo Bergmann's efforts along this line when he was director of the Jewish National and University Library. See also Curt Wormann, "Library Problems in Israel" (original in Hebrew; translated title), *Yadlakore*, II, No. 1 (1950), 13.

ganized along western European lines have some sort of book collection, these collections bear only a remote resemblance to what we know as a school library. In all Turkey, for instance, only the library of the preparatory department of the American College for Girls in Istanbul-Arnavutköy could pass muster as a respectable school library by North Central Association standards.

The average Turkish *lycée* contains a miscellaneous collection of books sent by the Ministry of Education with no regard for the special needs of the individual school. There are translations of western European classics, old textbooks, government documents, and some professional literature in the field of education that will hardly have any readers among the pupils. The books are shelved by *numerus currens*, indexed crudely by author, and placed in charge of an employee of custodial status. Quite naturally, the use of the books is negligible. Outside Turkey, Egypt, and Israel, even these rudimentary school libraries are nearly nonexistent in the Middle East.

Still, there is much hope for rapid development of school libraries in the Middle East. There is an earnest and continuing concern for all aspects of primary and secondary education in the Middle East, and the concept of the potential role of the school library has taken hold. So far there are virtually no trained school librarians, and there are no positions which would be attractive to a competent school librarian. Perhaps this situation exists primarily because the need for school libraries is seen more clearly by top-level officials than by the teachers, most of whom have only a remote conception of the true function of the library in the school. When school libraries as we know them come to the Middle East—and their arrival is imminent in the better secondary schools—the most difficult job of the librarian will be not to secure adequate support from the ministry but to indoctrinate his colleagues with the proper role of the library and to win a strong position for his office within the faculty. In the Arabic-speaking countries the groundwork has already been laid with the publication and wide distribution of Ethel M. Fair's *Libraries in the Service of Youth* (translated title), an elementary work written especially for an Arabic audience.

The concept of a public library as a vital community center has a place in traditional Islamic culture, but its development has been arrested. Andrew Carnegie's passion for founding libraries was shared by such notables as Süleyman the Magnificent, the Koprülüs, and even that villain of villains, Abdülhamit II.[26] An eighteenth-century Turkish patrician such as Ragip Paşa was keenly aware of public relations tricks when he presented to the library he founded in Istanbul a gold-incrusted vial containing three hairs said to be from the beard of the Prophet. Again there is the story of the Shaykh El Islam in Istanbul, who arranged to distribute clothing to children who came as readers to what is now the Millet Library. Unfortunately, the turbulent political history and truncated economic and social development of the Middle East have militated against an evolving tradition of the public library. Rutter tells us of four or five libraries in Medina, a city once famed as a cultural center, which have disappeared as a result of the Wahhâbi troubles.[27] No one knows for sure what the Janissaries destroyed in the library of the Patriarchal See during their periodic raids on the Fener, or what

[26] Lawrence S. Thompson, "Books in Turkey," *Middle Eastern Affairs*, III (1952), 171–72.

[27] *Op. cit.*, II, 201.

foreign adventurers have stolen from the Topkapı Sarayı.

As a result of the interruption of the public library tradition in the Middle East, we have the incongruous picture of public libraries being administered in our day in the same style in which they operated in the eighteenth century or earlier. Until quite recently the library has been viewed as a quiet retreat for the elderly scholar who must not be disturbed by seekers for miscellaneous bits of information, newspaper and periodical readers, children, and other denizens of the public library in western Europe and America. Consequently, the holdings consist largely of older works on Islamic history, literature, and philosophy, both in print and in manuscript. In general, nothing is available for home loan, even when there are duplicates of printed books; for throughout the Middle East (just as in much of Latin America) the librarian is held personally responsible for the security of the books on his shelves. Books are arranged by size and *numerus currens*, and catalogs are rudimentary author lists and crude classified indexes. Funds for new acquisitions, current periodicals, and equipment are extremely meager, in many cases nonexistent. Few of the librarians have any professional training whatsoever, many have never been to the university, and, except for a few prominent scholars who hold head librarianships, all rank low in terms of government classification schemes and public respect. Circulating collections attached to the national libraries in Cairo and Ankara are presenting a new facet of public library service that resembles American and western European popular library traditions. Even Israel offers a relatively blank picture of public library development outside Tel Aviv.[28]

Several forces are at work to improve this situation. The effective example of the USIS libraries, the increasing concern for the welfare of children and young people, incipient movements for library education, growing literacy, and increasing rates of publication are some of the important factors which will ultimately bring about a change. The unbelievable sight of a USIS library which lends books freely and allows readers to browse among open shelves is a radical concept for the peoples of the Middle East. The effort to make up-to-date books, especially in the applied sciences, freely available has stirred the imagination of many a young physician or engineer in Tehran, Ankara, or Cairo. Although the Universal Decimal Classification in French has been widely used in the Middle East for two decades as a device for classification of subject matter, the effective use of Dewey for systematic arrangement of books on the shelves of USIS libraries has given pause to many a reader. Librarians who have inspected the alphabetical author and subject catalogs and observed other aspects of the organization of USIS libraries have gone back to their offices full of ideas about more effective use of their own collections by adapting occidental methods to their peculiar situations.

Perhaps the most striking advances are being made in the field of library service for children and young people, for the peoples of the Middle East are thoroughly aware of the importance of training youth in the use and appreciation of institutions they wish to develop. It was my personal experience in Turkey that talks on library service for children and young people aroused more general interest than any other subject on which I touched. The remarkable success of the

[28] Wormann, *op. cit.*, pp. 9 ff.

children's rooms sponsored by the USIS libraries is still another symptom of this concern of Middle Eastern peoples for their youth.[29] In Turkey there is a popular children's library in the model school behind the National Library; and the Bayazıt Library can thank the aggressive zeal of its director, Muzaffer Gökmen, for a well-equipped children's room that is attracting widespread interest in the second largest city of the Middle East. In the spring of 1953 the Turkish Ministry of Education issued two bulletins on children's libraries, one a brief guide on organization and administration[30] and the other a catalog showing a surprisingly large number of children's books that are available in Turkish.[31] It has been stated with some propriety that awareness of modern library potentialities exists primarily in the minds of top authorities rather than among minor officials, and to some extent this is true even in the case of school libraries; but in the case of public library service to children, as we know it in western Europe and America, there is a broad basis of support in the conviction of nearly all educated men and women of the Middle East that the needs of youth have first priority in the distribution of their slender resources for supporting libraries and educational institutions.

Even a cursory inspection of Dagher will reveal an abundance of special libraries in the Middle East. They range from such well-organized and fairly well-stocked collections as the libraries of the medical faculty of the University of Tehran or the agricultural faculty in Ankara to miscellaneous collections not pertinent to the program of the agencies to which they are attached and supervised by a political appointee as a sinecure. Some collections, such as those of the Türk Dil Kurumu and the Türk Tarih Kurumu in Ankara, are superb and are well organized and serviced.[32] The former has a general linguistics collection comparable to the best in North America, and its collection on central Asiatic linguistics is the best outside the USSR. The Türk Tarih Kurumu is comparable within its sphere to our best historical society libraries. The libraries of the Technical University and Technical School in Istanbul are promising beginnings and might even be compared with engineering libraries in some of our smaller land-grant colleges; but there are few other reputable technical libraries anywhere in the Middle East.

The economic and social conditions of the Middle East make the need for improved special libraries, particularly in government agencies, fully as imperative as the need for public library service. In many instances there is a keen awareness of this need on the part of bureau chiefs who have been educated in western Europe and America, and there are encouraging signs of their interest in building useful government libraries. Unfortunately, there is a deplorable lack of men and women trained in library techniques as well as in the subject fields in which special libraries need to be developed. Any programs for library edu-

[29] The photographs of the children's room in Tehran in Gaver, *op. cit.*, p. 773, and of the exhibit of children's books in Ankara (Lawrence S. Thompson, "Book Week in Ankara," *Library Journal*, LXXVII [1952], 188) may be reproduced any day in the week in any of the children's libraries sponsored by American agencies in the Middle East.

[30] *Çocuk Kütüphaneleri Yönetmeliği* ("V. Millî Eğitim şurasi Dokumanlari," No. 15 [Istanbul: Millî Eğitim Basımevi, 1953]).

[31] *Çocuk Kitaplari Kataloğu* ("V. Millî Eğitim şurasi Dokumanlari," No. 24 [Istanbul: Millî Eğitim Basımevi, 1953]).

[32] Thompson, "The Libraries of Turkey," *op. cit.*, pp. 275–76, describes these and other special libraries in Turkey.

cation in the Middle East should include courses on the basic techniques of special librarianship.

Many of the handicaps under which library development must labor in the Middle East are the same conditions which effective library service is likely to relieve. In addition to general social and economic conditions, one of the serious immediate drawbacks is the lack of books written in a simple and direct language for laymen[33] and the generally unsatisfactory state of the publishing and bookselling businesses. Publishing is handicapped less by the fiction of the difficulty of the Arabic alphabet than by lack of capital and lack of a market. The same troubles afflict booksellers, who exist in comparative abundance,[34] but none on the scale of the great retail houses in our cities. The Middle East is still a happy hunting ground for the manuscript collector,[35] but there are no Olschkis, Goldschmidts, or Hauswedells. There are no large jobbers, and everything is published and sold on a small scale unsuitable for the acquisition needs of modern library service. The development of libraries, publishing firms, and the antiquarian and new-book trade must go hand in hand. At least one encouraging note is that figures on book production, when available, show a steady increase throughout the Middle East.

A particularly striking deficiency in our own field is the lack of library literature. Miss Gaver's report emphasizes the need for a glossary of library terms and a subject-heading list in Farsi. The fifteenth edition of Dewey, with appropriate modifications, might well be translated into the major languages of the Middle East, if only as an example of one useful and widely accepted occidental classification scheme, and so could our basic manuals on various types of libraries and aspects of library problems. But let us be forewarned not to set these texts up as immutable dogma, but only as the translation of immediately practical works on library practices that have evolved in conformity with our own needs. Who are we to set up the dictionary catalog as a gospel when many of our research libraries are making drastic changes in their subject cataloging policy? Who are we to condemn the classed catalog, which has often proved an admirable instrument when properly constructed? Can we really defend systematic arrangement of books on the shelves of research libraries as superior to arrangement by size and *numerus currens?* We should be particularly careful that any library literature which we foist on the Middle East emphasize the need for special treatment of special problems. In the Middle East the same approach to librarianship is likely to be found in all types of libraries, and it is even possible to point out a children's library that has been cataloged and is serviced in the same manner as the collection of Islamic manuscripts in the Süleymaniye.

There is the beginning of an indigenous professional literature. The *Proceedings* of the Cairo Library Association and the *Türk Kütüphanecilir Derneği Bülteni* are worth retaining in any large American library. The admirable two-volume *Handbuch* by Adnan Ötüken,

[33] Badr el Dib, "Report from Egypt," *Library Journal*, LXXVII (1952), 20–23. It is possible that this situation may be alleviated somewhat by the new program of Franklin Publications, Inc., to improve publishing conditions in the Arab world.

[34] Miss Gaver lists thirty-seven retail booksellers, of whom seventeen are also publishers, in her mimeographed "Directory of Libraries and Bookstores, Tehran, Iran" (January, 1953).

[35] See Lawrence S. Thompson, "Of Books in Istanbul," *Amateur Book Collector*, III, Nos. 5–6 (January-February, 1953), 1, 5–6.

Bibliyotekçinin elkitabi,[36] would be a credit to the author in any language. The development of professional library associations will further encourage publication. It is important, however, that future authors have the proper qualifications. Some library literature in Turkish and Arabic—much as in English—should never have been published.

Throughout this paper it has been suggested that professional training is perhaps the first and most important step in library development in the Middle East. For at least two decades occasional students from the Middle East have attended American and German library training courses, and a few have attended the London School of Librarianship and the École des Chartes.[37] Some of these men and women have been so discouraged upon their return that they have given up librarianship and entered more lucrative professions. Others have become the most devoted supporters of the library movement in their respective countries. While foreign study is always desirable in any field, it is imperative for library schools to be developed in the major metropolitan centers of the Middle East if proper attention is to be given to the peculiar problems of the area, both in instruction and in research.

Egypt has assumed definite leadership in professional education for librarianship. A law was passed by parliament in the early winter of 1950, establishing the Institute of Librarianship and Archives at the Fuad I (now Cairo) University. Since 1952 the institute has been under the direction of Dr. Mohamed Kafafi, who received his doctorate from the University of London and is a graduate of the London School of Librarianship. In addition to the institute, sporadic "short courses" have also been conducted by other agencies. While this program has been completely independent of USIS work, it has been strongly seconded and encouraged by American librarians in Egypt. As early as 1949 the regional librarian for United States libraries in the Middle East organized an institute with a series of lectures on librarianship; and from time to time the American Embassy in Cairo has offered its facilities to mimeograph or publish lectures presented by or for local librarians. Still it cannot be too strongly emphasized that the library education movement in Egypt is indigenous and that there is every likelihood that it will go forward without any foreign aid.

There is a lively interest in library education in Turkey, and there is strong reason to believe that it will soon crystallize into a formal institution. For over a decade Adnan Ötüken has been giving a two-year course in general librarianship in the faculty of languages, history, and geography of the University of Ankara, and the majority of librarians in Ankara as well as many in Istanbul have enjoyed the benefits of this course. The faculty is reluctant to authorize a regular department of librarianship, inasmuch as it fears vocational infiltration, a fear that could be confirmed in part from a study of the American experience. Efforts are still being made to overcome this block to the establishment of an academically sound library training program with a legitimate place in a humanities faculty. If the school is not established within the university, it will almost certainly be set up in the National Library. Turkish li-

[36] 2 vols.; Ankara: Millî Eğitim Basımevi, 1947–48.

[37] It is a sad commentary on the concept of the type of training actually needed that some graduates of the École des Chartes have been placed in academic or public libraries where their training has little application.

brary leaders and the Ministry of Education are determined to have a library school, and no academic prejudices or bureaucratic obstacles will stop them.

The American schools in the Middle East, notably those in Beirut and Cairo, have made contributions to library education; but, in the last analysis, it would seem the part of wisdom for library education to be in national institutions. American assistance should continue to be offered in any event, for a foreign leavening will always be beneficial.

Miss Gaver pointed out in her report on Iran that the establishment of a library school in Tehran would be unrealistic at present, and the same may be said of other Middle Eastern countries except Egypt, Turkey, and Israel. Wormann has advocated a formal library training agency for Israel,[38] and it has already been suggested in this paper that Jerusalem would be a logical place for a school for curators of oriental manuscript collections, if the proper political conditions existed. Outside Turkey, Egypt, and Israel it would seem to be most practical to concentrate on short courses and workshops. In the summer of 1952 the United States Information and Educational Exchange Agency in Tehran sponsored and subsidized heavily a very successful education workshop, and the same thing is feasible for librarians.

No paper on libraries of a nation or a region would be complete without a word on private collectors. Not only are their collections likely to form the basis for significant public research libraries, but they are also powerful agents for encouraging a broad interest in books. We need only to recall the magnificent Syllagos Collection of the Türk Tarih Kurumu, the Katanoff Collection of the Türkiyât Enstitüsü in Istanbul, or the basic Chasanowitz Collection in the Jewish National and University Library. There has been a long tradition of private collecting in the Middle East since the early centuries of Islam, and it has continued to the present day. In Turkey we find a priceless collection on Turkish history, literature, and folklore in the hands of the distinguished scholar-statesman Fuat Köprülü. Miss Gaver reported twenty-one important private libraries in Tehran, of which the most noteworthy is that of Haji Hassim Aga Malek, containing some 19,000 books and manuscripts. The bibliological tourist in Bagdad will find many significant private libraries in that city, including those of Dr. Fadil Jamali, speaker of the Iraqi Chamber of Deputies, who has brought together a fine collection of modern books on Iraq and on linguistics, and of Tawfiq Wahbah, a member of the Iraqi Senate, who has specialized in Iraqi history and Middle Eastern linguistics, with special emphasis on Iranian languages. In Egypt the tradition of French bibliophily has been strong, and several Egyptian aristocrats have collections which may some day create a flurry when and if they go under the hammer in Paris. All of this is extremely encouraging, for there seems to be an ineradicable strain of bibliomania in the Middle East. It will surely have a wholesome effect on library development.

In many respects the picture we have drawn of librarianship in the Middle East is discouraging. However, we must remember that it has been drawn by North American standards. Moreover, any picture of librarianship in Latin America or the Far East would show equally discouraging aspects. In general, the library scene in the Middle East is basically hopeful. There is an earnest and productive effort to develop public li-

[38] *Op. cit.*, pp. 13–14.

brary service, above all for young people, both inside and outside the school. Oriental scholars are coming to grips with the problem of administering the great manuscript libraries effectively, and there have been preliminary skirmishes with some of the more difficult issues. National libraries are developing to a point where they can serve as national depositories and bibliographic centers; and even in Israel the national library has made a determined and successful attempt to survive an almost mortal blow from the politicians. A satisfactory national bibliographical program exists only in Turkey and Israel, but the challenge of an Arab-language cumulative book index is something that may have to wait for years before it is realized. The universities, in general, are perhaps the most conservative elements in the broad movement to rationalize library service.

A direct importation of North American or western European librarianship would be no more desirable in the Middle East than it would be in Latin America or the Far East. It is the task of Middle Eastern librarians to study carefully the library systems of western Europe and America and to adapt the best elements in them to their peculiar needs. American librarians in particular must observe the utmost impartiality in presenting their national library traditions to the Middle East and not ascribe to them an automatic superiority over the western European practices. This includes the all-important field of education for librarianship.

The constructive development of librarianship in the Middle East is a crucial point in the evolution of this important segment of humanity. Given the proper external conditions, the appearance of some natural leaders, and a desire for library service both by practitioners and by citizens, the future of libraries in the Middle East is as hopeful as it was in North America in the years immediately following the Civil War.

LIBRARY DEVELOPMENT IN LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN: ACHIEVEMENTS AND HANDICAPS

CARLOS VÍCTOR PENNA

THOUGH Latin America may be considered as a single geographical entity, the economic, cultural, social, and political conditions vary so greatly throughout the area that it is impossible to judge or analyze the library development of the region as a single unit. The state of literacy, for example, obviously important in the study of library development, varies greatly from country to country. In *La Educación fundamental del adulto americano*, published by the Pan American Union in 1951,[1] the percentages of illiteracy are given, based on the population of the age of fifteen and beyond (Table 1). These

TABLE 1

Argentina	16.6
Cuba	22.0
Chile	27.0
Panama	37.9
Colombia	44.0
Mexico	53.9
Brazil	56.0
Peru	57.6
Venezuela	58.5
Honduras	65.7
El Salvador	72.4

variations show as clearly as anything can how conditions prevailing in Latin America affect the need for, or the possibility of, library development.

LIBRARY DEVELOPMENT IN LATIN AMERICA BEFORE THE TWENTIETH CENTURY

In Cuba, as early as 1793, Antonio Robredo founded a public library; this later served as the basis on which the Biblioteca de la Sociedad económica de Amigos del País was later developed. In general, however, library growth was hampered by book censorship and by the limitations in popular education. The first effective efforts to create public libraries were made during the movements for emancipation. Mariano Moreno used his own collection to establish a library which later became the National Library of Argentina; and General San Martín, in the course of liberating Chile and Peru, donated money of his own for the creation of libraries. He had great faith in popular education and wrote: "Enlightenment and the development of culture are the master key which opens doors to abundance and brings happiness to all peoples; I wish everyone to be enlightened on the sacred rights which are the science of free men." However, little progress was made during the latter part of the nineteenth century; wars and the subsequent problems of stabilization effectively prevented the organization of library services. Even the national libraries, which were practically the only libraries in existence, were not very active and bore little resemblance to their counterparts in England, the northern European countries, and the United States.

The national and public libraries founded in the larger cities during the nineteenth century and the earlier years

[1] Union Panamericana, División de Educación, *La Educación del adulto americano* (Washington, 1951), p. 33.

of the twentieth consisted mainly of book deposits, used little by students and scholars and not at all by the masses. Nevertheless, it was in this period that the public library in Latin America found its great promoter in the person of Domingo Faustino Sarmiento, creator of the system which embraces Argentina's 2,500 libraries today. Sarmiento, a close friend of Horace Mann, wrote movingly of the purpose and goal of public libraries. His faith in them was such that even while he was president of Argentina he personally wrote instructions for the better technical organization of the libraries which he himself had founded, and he sponsored legislation which is still in force in Argentina. Brazil, Uruguay, Chile, and other nations were strongly influenced by Sarmiento's ideas; it can truly be said that Sarmiento was the father of public libraries in South America.

Although the nineteenth century did not witness a significant public library movement, it was one in which special libraries and bibliographic works emerged. In a sense this was a reflection of European developments, for most Latin-American countries have been—and still are—strongly influenced by European cultural tendencies. Libraries came into being as they were needed by specific groups. In most cases the needs were dictated by academic research, and retrospective bibliography, in the compilation of which Toribio Medina played a prominent role, came into prominence. Current bibliography, however, was largely ignored.

In short, it may be said that until the end of the nineteenth century Latin-American libraries had rarely enjoyed the opportunity to influence the life of the people or to take a large part in the cultural development of Latin-American communities.

LATIN-AMERICAN LIBRARIANSHIP IN THE TWENTIETH CENTURY

The Latin-American countries today show considerable stability; with wars of independence and periods of anarchy behind them, the nations are headed in new directions. Industrial development and the advance of technical processes have made a strong impact. Some countries which hitherto had been simply producers of raw materials now have a varied economy and are taking giant strides to make up for the lack of development during periods of political uncertainty. Magnificent cities like Buenos Aires and São Paulo have been developed, national resources are being exploited, and industrial plants are converting raw materials into products of all kinds. Transportation difficulties are gradually being overcome, and the airplane has shortened distances and fundamentally changed the internal situation in many countries. Everywhere the fight against illiteracy and poor health goes on.

Another important cultural development has been the growth of the press. Although the first printing presses were established in Mexico in 1539, in Peru in 1584, and in Argentina in 1700, until the nineteenth century Latin America depended almost entirely on Europe for its printed materials. The twentieth century brought a wide expansion in press facilities in Argentina, Mexico, and Chile, and these countries, together with Spain, constituted the main sources of supply for Latin-American libraries. Today the press is highly productive in many Latin-American countries, and its products constitute an important part of library acquisitions.

I now propose to examine several aspects of library activity in the following order: (1) national and public libraries; (2) university libraries; (3) specialized

libraries; (4) school libraries; (5) children's libraries; (6) documentation centers, and (7) bibliographies.

National and public libraries.—All Latin-American countries maintain national libraries. In some, e.g., Argentina, Chile, Venezuela, and Brazil, these libraries interpret their functions somewhat conservatively, and, although their use is not, in fact, limited, they do not succeed in attracting many readers. In other countries, however, the national library plays a more active role; in Panama, for example, it has become the center of a public library system which penetrates the entire country. Panama was the first Latin-American country to give its national library the authority to supplement its specific functions with regulation of library activities throughout the republic. Its example was followed by Colombia. The national libraries of Guatemala, Costa Rica, and Salvador also maintain extensive and well-conceived programs.

While centralized public library systems do not generally exist in Latin America, it should be noted that Brazil and Argentina, under the auspices of the Comisión protectora de las Bibliotecas populares and of the Instituto nacional do Libro are placing increasing emphasis on public libraries for economic and technical assistance. Similar trends are evident in Uruguay, Chile, and other nations, in spite of the absence in many places of a well-defined plan to exploit available library resources.

Statistics of the various types of public libraries in Latin America may be found in *Desarrollo de las bibliotecas públicas en América Latina,*[2] recently published by UNESCO; even though the data cited are frequently only approximations, they permit a general conception of the current situation.

University libraries.—The university libraries contain the richest bibliographical material to be found in Latin America. Those of Buenos Aires, Mexico City, Havana, Lima, Montevideo, among others, have excellent, if somewhat unorganized, collections. Most universities have separate libraries for each faculty but lack centralized systems which would permit better administration of the library as a whole. Since it has only recently been possible, in any country, for librarians to receive a real professional education, each faculty library and each university library has tended to adopt its own method of organization, unco-ordinated with others. In general, the university libraries need considerable reorganization before they can be fully useful, but lack of funds frequently makes this impossible.

Specialized libraries.—Special libraries are perhaps the most efficient libraries in Latin America, responding to the specific needs of investigators, scientists, and industrialists. The library of the Banco nacional de Colombia is by far the most complete and efficient library, technically and otherwise, in the city of Bogotá. The library of the Unión industrial argentina is also a model of efficiency. These libraries are not handicapped by lack of funds and are organized and operated in accordance with the most modern principles of library administration.

School libraries.—With the exception of a few in the most important educational establishments, there are no libraries in Latin America which achieve the true objectives of this type of institution, although there has been some recent improvement in secondary-school libraries. In general, except for the few books which are found in the classrooms, school library services cannot be said to exist.

[2] (Paris: UNESCO, 1953), pp. 206–7; see also English and French editions.

The use of the textbook and of class notes is the custom in Latin-American countries, and libraries are not generally considered necessary. The absence of school libraries forces high-school students, at least in the major cities, to visit their national libraries, thus creating administrative problems for this type of library. High-school students have also come to university libraries in search of information which should more properly be supplied by school libraries.

Children's libraries.—Children's libraries have been very successful in Latin America. The success of the children's library of the Lyceum and of the Sociedad económica de Amigos del País—both in Havana—and of others which have been established in São Paulo and in Argentina and Chile attest to the usefulness of such institutions. These libraries should be increased in number and their services improved; one may hope that the audience reached through them will in time demand libraries for their own adult reading needs.

Documentation centers and centralized cataloging.—The Instituto bibliotecológico of the University of Buenos Aires was created to act as a documentation center, and just recently an Instituto nacional de Documentación has been established, also in Argentina. In co-operation with the Department of Education of Mexico, UNESCO has created an organization called Centro de Documentación científica y técnica, which can be considered as a model of efficiency in Latin America. UNESCO is at present negotiating with the governments of Brazil and Uruguay to create similar centers.

UNESCO also operates the Centro de Cooperación científica para la América Latina in Montevideo, and the Organization of American States maintains a scientific exchange service which is run by the Instituto Interamericano de Agricultura in Turrialba, Costa Rica. The Caribbean Commission formed by the governments of France, Holland, United States, and England, while not offering documentation services, has centralized research for this zone and has published much interesting information.

We may also cite as documentation centers restricted to specific subject areas the Museo de Historia natural de la Biblioteca nacional de Chile, the Facultad de Ciencias exactas físicas y naturales de la Universidad de Buenos Aires, and the Servicio de Información y Consulta de la Facultad de Medicina de Montevideo. All these institutions respond to domestic and, to a certain extent, foreign requests. Detailed information on science documentation may be found in Shaw, Gropp, and Samper's *Facilidades de intercomunicación científica en la América latina.*[3] The authors refer to the value of centralized cataloging services and tell of the interest in the development of such services by the Servicio de Divulgación bibliográfica of the Butanan Institute of São Paulo, the University of São Paulo, the Instituto bibliotecológico of the University of Buenos Aires, and the Servicio de Intercambio de Catalogaçao of the Departmento administrativo del Servicio publico del Brasil. Some minor cataloging projects have also been successful; for example, the *Catálogo de publicaciones científicas y técnicas*, compiled by the Comité de Bibliotecarios de Instituciones científicas y técnicas of Argentina.

Although the recommendations of the Assembly of Librarians of the Americas, of the São Paulo Conference, and of various national conferences point out the advisability of creating central cata-

[3] Turrialba, Costa Rica: Instituto interamericano de Ciencias agrícolas, 1953.

logs, financial limitations in most Latin-American countries militate against their construction. Furthermore, before the production of such catalogs can become a reality, there must be a high degree of library development and a high level of professional competence.

With regard to photoreproduction, much has been achieved in Latin America. Services are now offered by the Centro de Documentación científica y técnica in Mexico, the Servicio de Documentación de la Universidad de São Paulo, the Museo de Historia natural de Chile, the Sociedad económica de Amigos del País, and the Facultad de Ciencias exactas físicas y naturales de la Universidad de Buenos Aires; and the Biblioteca nacional de Colombia will soon inaugurate a laboratory dedicated exclusively to the reproduction of audio and visual materials.

Bibliography.—In most Latin-American countries bibliographical works have been published only sporadically, and the initial efforts have not always been sustained. However, there are certain publications deserving mention. In Cuba the *Anuario bibliográfico cubano* has been published for more than seventeen years, and Peru publishes a good bibliographical yearbook. In Argentina the *Anuario bibliográfico argentino*, published by the Comisión nacional de Cooperación intelectual, appears, but with considerable delay. Recently the *Indice bibliográfico guatemalteco, 1951* has appeared, as well as the *Anuario bibliográfico dominicano* and the *Anuario bibliográfico venezolano;* there are similar annuals of Colombian bibliography.

Unfortunately, Argentina, Chile, and Mexico, which virtually control the book industry in Latin America, do not issue current bibliographies. Thus the principal centers of book production do not announce their publications in a formal national bibliography, and librarians, who are the most interested parties, lack authoritative information and must depend on publishers' catalogs, which too often are inadequate.

FACTORS IN LATIN-AMERICAN LIBRARY PROGRESS

The foregoing constitutes a broad and general picture of library activities in Latin America today. It must be stressed, however, that the most important period of this activity has been the last twenty years. Let us, therefore, identify the factors responsible for recent developments, as a basis for predicting the future course of Latin-American librarianship. These factors may be classified in two majors groups. In the first are the *external* factors, representing economic, cultural, and social development; in the second are the *internal* factors, those peculiar to the profession of librarianship. For our purposes the second are the more important; they are: (1) scholarships granted to librarians; (2) schools for librarians; (3) congresses of librarians; (4) library associations; (5) library literature; and (6) international organizations.

Scholarships granted to librarians.—The changes now being experienced by Latin-American librarianship may be traced to the work of persons who have studied abroad. The majority of them traveled on scholarships, usually from American sources. These scholars, on their return to their countries, have brought about a change of perspective in library services, and it may be said that the use of Anglo-Saxon techniques is the direct result of their work, which, in spite of its limitations, has had a positive influence for good.

Schools for librarians.—With two ex-

ceptions, no fully established schools for the training of librarians existed in Latin America until 1940; one school was begun in 1911 in Rio de Janeiro, and another, in 1922, in the Facultad de Filosofía y Letras de la Universidad de Buenos Aires. Today the influence of scholars with foreign experience is being felt, and several new schools have recently been founded and existing ones reorganized. The "Guía de escuelas y cursos de bibliotecología en América Latina" lists all operating schools, and "Quién es quién en la enseñanza bibliotecológica Latinoamericana" presents biographical details of persons in this field. These schools have led to the recognition of librarianship as a profession, they have defined the goals of librarianship, and they have contributed to the unification of library practices.

Congresses of librarians.—The first Assembly of Librarians of the Americas[4] and the conference on the development of public library services in Latin America, held in São Paulo in 1951, have significantly influenced trends in Latin-American librarianship. Many of the recommendations adopted in these international meetings have helped the materialization of work programs of national or international character, and the friendships born out of the contacts made in these conferences have favorably linked Latin-American librarians. The Jornadas bibliotecológicas which have taken place in Argentina, Uruguay, Cuba, and Brazil reflect the professional spirit in Latin America today and the desire to seek better methods and procedures.

Library associations.—Virtually all Latin-American countries now have their library associations. In some cases they have been handicapped by the prevalence of personal over professional interests; but it is to be expected that, in time, such difficulties will be overcome. Although the associations should give the profession a great deal more help than they now do, their very existence is symptomatic of progress in library activities.

Library literature.—It might well be said that in Latin America library theory is more advanced than its practice, at least if library publication may be taken as a criterion of interest in librarianship. Since 1940, publications regarding the library profession have increased in number and improved in quality. Brazil, Cuba, and Panama are now issuing their national bibliographies in accordance with principles defined at the Assemblies of Librarians of the Americas. A résumé of what has been done and what must yet be achieved may be found in a paper entitled "Elementos de base y libros de consulta en español y portugues."[5]

Much more important, however, is the fact that there exist numerous manuals, monographs, reference books, etc., all written by Latin-American librarians. Many of these are solid works which give great help to librarians who cannot attend schools and who face the problems of professional librarianship in their everyday work. *Fénix: Boletín de la asociación cubana de bibliotecarios* and the *Circular mensual informativa* of the Centro de Estudios bibliotecológicos are periodical publications dedicated exclusively to the professional problems of librarians. Recently, other periodicals such as *Cuba bibliotecológica* have begun publication.

International organizations.—Among the forces which have contributed im-

[4] *Proceedings of the Assembly of Librarians of the Americas, May 12 to June 6, 1947* (Washington: Library of Congress, 1948). (Planographed.)

[5] Carlos Victor Penna, in *Desarrollo de las bibliotecas públicas en la América Latina*, pp. 156–68; English ed., pp. 141–53.

measurably to the improvement of Latin-American librarianship are the international organizations. UNESCO and the Organization of American States have work programs of tremendous importance for Latin-American library activities. UNESCO has created a scientific and technical documentation center in Mexico, and it is now establishing similar centers in Rio de Janeiro and Montevideo. It has organized bibliographical groups in every Latin-American country. The *UNESCO Bulletin for Libraries* (*Boletín de la UNESCO para las bibliotecas*) is now published in a Spanish edition, as are the five volumes in the series of manuals for public libraries, titled "Manuales de la UNESCO para las bibliotecas públicas." The film *El Camino hacia los libros* has been exhibited, and the Manifesto for Public Libraries, in Spanish, has been widely distributed. UNESCO has promoted the exchange of publications and stimulated library activities throughout Latin America in accordance with the plans elaborated by the Libraries Division of the Secretariat in Paris, and it is now planning a pilot public library project for Medellín, Colombia.

The Organization of American States has compiled and keeps up to date a record of the important Latin-American bibliographical material. It publishes the *Inter-American Review of Bibliography* and, through the Columbus Memorial Library, it distributes valuable information to all Latin-American librarians.

THE FUTURE OF LATIN-AMERICAN LIBRARIANSHIP

The future of Latin-American library development is dependent on a number of factors. Many of them have been listed in Málaga's paper entitled "Objeto y necesidad,"[6] and to them we may add several others. The balance of this paper is devoted to their consideration.

Professional training.—This is the key to the problem. Without properly trained librarians, no progress worthy of consideration can be made. Even though the schools now in existence are making their contribution, the education of librarians must be projected in relation to the conditions in each country. Only recently UNESCO and the Organization of American States, in a meeting held in Washington for the purpose of co-ordinating work programs for Latin America, decided to study the possibilities of opening in the city of Havana a regional center for the training of professional librarians and teachers of librarianship in Latin America. This project should have the highest possible importance. Latin-American librarians should be trained in Latin America, and scholarships for study abroad should be granted only to those who have completed preliminary studies in their respective countries. A Latin-American center of this nature, teaching from the standpoint of the economic, social, and cultural situation and conditions in each country, would certainly be most valuable to the profession if it could promote the education of teachers of librarianship, who would, in turn, convey their knowledge to librarians in every part of this continent. Assistance given toward the proper training of Latin-American librarians will prove the most productive investment for the rapid development of library services.

Legislation.—Such countries as Argentina, Brazil, and Cuba have library legislation which does not always take into consideration or fulfil all the requirements of the profession. It is highly important that legislation be enacted to

[6] *Desarrollo* . . . , pp. 21–27; English ed., pp. 21–26.

assure the incorporation of libraries and librarians in the national system of education, at the same time permitting freedom of action to individual libraries. It should also provide for a reasonable remuneration for library services, so that the librarians could devote all their time to the profession instead of having to undertake extraneous activities to supplement their income.

Book collections.—Contrary to general opinion, there are many excellent book collections in Latin America. The real problem lies in their faulty distribution; the books are frequently in places where they are not needed and cannot be used to best advantage. The exchange of surplus and duplicate materials, as has been advocated by both UNESCO and the Organization of American States, would ameliorate the situation to some extent. There is no reason why even more ambitious exchange arrangements cannot be worked out for redistribution of collections, so as to bring together largely specialized collections in places where they could best be used.

Library consciousness.—While it is true that the development of general awareness of the service rendered by a library is the direct result of the services actually rendered, the absence of general support militates against the provision of the services themselves. Nevertheless, it may be said that the job performed by Latin-American libraries in recent years has been responsible for a new spirit, and the efforts of international organizations have contributed to it. But in the last analysis the librarian must assume the responsibility. Library schools will be important in the fulfilment of this task, as well as library associations. Already the influence of the library associations has been felt in Latin America.

Textbooks and bibliography.—The work of Latin-American librarians in the publication of books on librarianship and bibliography must be stressed. While it is true that many such publications have been issued, there still remain various aspects of professional work which have not yet been dealt with. Since the practices of librarianship must be based on the realities in each Latin-American country, the translation of works from abroad is not enough: there must be original books on librarianship in Latin America, and books which are considered essential for translation must always be adapted to Latin-American needs.

We have noted that Argentina, Chile, and Mexico, which are the Latin-American countries producing the most books, do not possess national bibliographies, whereas this type of bibliography is being published at the present time in other countries where the publishing industry is less important. To know what is printed and where is a basic need of all librarians. The need for national bibliographies becomes daily more evident.

Support of international organizations.—The plans of UNESCO and the Organization of American States for library development must be supported by the various countries. Already these programs are assisting greatly in the development of public libraries, documentation centers, and exchange of publications; their direct results will depend upon the degree of help given by the governments and libraries in each country.

CONCLUSION

This general review of Latin-American librarianship cannot pretend to be exhaustive, yet it does indicate something of its achievement in spite of difficulties

and handicaps of many kinds. I believe we are correct in stating that the most significant development has taken place within the last twenty years and that the factors which have been most largely responsible, aside from the economic, political, and social conditions within each country, must be recognized and given further development. Though they are all important, those deserving immediate emphasis seem to be the creation of library schools, the strengthening of library associations, the production of technical books, and the support of international organizations in their library programs.

THE OVERSEAS BOOK PROGRAM OF THE UNITED STATES GOVERNMENT

DAN LACY

THE recent controversy over the State Department's overseas libraries has led to the publication of a spate of information about this previously little-known activity.[1] Public statements, congressional hearings, television programs, radio broadcasts, and press headlines have explored with much heat and with some light almost every phase of the program. In consequence, to undertake a descriptive review of the libraries and their operations would be a wasteful and tedious repetition. Instead, I should like to consider not the library program alone, but the more general question of the use of books by this government as a means toward attaining its foreign objectives, and to do so not descriptively but critically. I should like particularly to consider certain underlying concepts, inherited practices, and administrative patterns which it seems to me have hampered the effectiveness of the book program and to try to suggest more productive alternatives.

In doing so, we shall, of course, be discussing a program primarily in terms of its limitations and weaknesses and giving unconstrained consideration to what might be a more nearly ideal operation. As we do so, I hope you will not forget, as I cannot, that the hundreds of capable and devoted men and women who have made this program have had no such luxury of ideal choice. They have had to create a reality, with all the necessary imperfections of reality, and to do so hurriedly, in strange countries, among new and demanding problems, subject to inconsistent and changing administrative directions, provided with few resources, and harassed by ignorant attacks. Anyone who has been privileged, as I have been, to work for a time with the professional staff of the book program realizes that its success, remarkable in the circumstances, is the measure of their skill and devotion.

Suffice it to say, by way of description, that the United States Information Agency, as the recent inheritor of this function from the State Department, operates 196 libraries in 64 countries with total book holdings of over 2,000,000 volumes, with an annual circulation of more than 10,000,000, and with an annual attendance of more than 36,000,000.[2] It also contributes to the support of 34 binational cultural institutes, with incidental library activities. This program was built up by the State Department over the years 1946–52, largely from elements created by other agencies for other purposes. It took over the OWI libraries set up for wartime propaganda

[1] See especially the public statement issued in mimeographed form by Robert L. Johnson, administrator of the International Information Administration, on July 15, 1953, and printed in the *New York Times* for that date; Henry James, Jr., "The Role of the Information Library in the United States International Information Program," *Library Quarterly*, XXIII (April, 1953), 75–114; Dan Lacy, "Aid to National Policy," *Library Trends*, II (July, 1953), 146–70, in addition to the extensive press comment during the period February–July, 1953.

[2] All figures are as of July, 1953.

and reference purposes; the *Amerika Haeuser* created by OMGUS as a part of the occupation program in Germany; the similar institutions created by the United States forces in Austria; the libraries operated by the Army in Korea; the SCAP Information Centers in Japan; the cultural institutes created by the coordinator of inter-American affairs; and the libraries set up in Latin America by the American Library Association under government contract. To these it added from time to time institutions established under its own auspices.

In addition, the USIA presents about 1,250,000 books and periodicals a year to foreign institutions and individuals, stimulates the export of American books in a variety of ways, particularly through the Informational Media Guaranty Program, and fosters the translation of about 400 books a year, especially into Asian tongues, in which few American books are otherwise available. The Overseas Operations Administration, as the heir of the Technical Assistance Administration of the State Department, took over the scattered book and libraries activities carried on under that program.

These varied activities brought from their several origins staffs, policies, and operating practices, as well as actual facilities, developed to meet particular and diverse objectives. Their subsequent history has been shaped in turn by the administrative patterns, the policies, and the shifting emphases of the total information program of which they became a part. Governing that total program was a rather clear-cut conception of the basic problems to which it was addressed. At considerable risk of oversimplification, one can perhaps say that those problems were seen as threefold:

1. People abroad disliked and mistrusted the United States. This could only be, it was thought, because they were ignorant of this country or misunderstood its aims. Obviously, what was needed was to disseminate information about the United States—in the words of the Smith-Mundt Act, to "present a full and fair picture." This conception of the problem dominated the propaganda effort until 1950.

2. People abroad proved susceptible to Soviet propaganda. This could only be, it was thought, because they failed to penetrate Soviet deceit. The obvious remedy was to expose the falsehood of the Soviet pretensions—in official language, to wage a "campaign of truth." This concept has dominated subsequent thinking about the information program.

3. People abroad did not produce as efficiently as Americans. This must necessarily be in part at least, it was thought, because they did not know how. The obvious remedy, in the hackneyed phrase, was to export "know-how"—to provide technical knowledge and skills. It was this conception that underlay the Technical Assistance Program.

Now, as a matter of fact, all of these problems are real and important, and the proposed solutions are not unrealistic; but as I shall try to show hereafter, so limited a conception of the problem, one so exclusively concerned with symptoms rather than causes, involves a vast and potentially tragic oversimplification.

The programs addressed to the solution of these problems have been profoundly affected not only by the accepted definition of the problems themselves but also by certain administrative contexts and certain inherited attitudes which were frequently ill adapted to the actual situation. Among the most important and most damaging of these circumstances has been the relatively rigid and complex administration pattern

within which the program has operated. Time does not permit even a résumé of the administrative history of the information program and of the place of books in it. It must suffice to say that operational considerations have led to a distinct separation of the radio, press, films, educational exchange, and book programs and to a domination of both planning and execution by these media as such. Though this weakness had been recognized within the State Department and steps have long been in process to redress it, it remains the case that it is difficult to plan or to execute a project combining two or more media, and especially difficult to undertake one employing techniques other than these media. And for reasons that will appear, such projects are essential to the best use of books. Perhaps even more serious has been the almost complete administrative separation of the Technical Assistance Program from the information program, in spite of the essentially inseparable character of many of their instruments and objectives. Recent developments have aggravated these difficulties by transferring the Technical Assistance Program from the State Department to the Overseas Operations Administration and the book program to the United States Information Agency, while leaving in the State Department the Educational Exchange Program, with which the book program needs to be particularly intimately associated.

The most apparently relevant bodies of experience on which the State Department could draw in developing its informational policies and strategic techniques were those of psychological warfare and of advertising. The nucleus of the program's staff came to the State Department from the wartime activities of the OWI, and the most significant theoretical analysis in the field of international persuasion was developed by persons in the United States and in Europe engaged in direct psychological warfare. Advertising commanded respect as a body of skills in stimulating people to predetermined behavior which daily proved its efficacy. Both these fields had much to offer in the way of directly applicable techniques, but both suffered from a limitation, in that they were concerned with stimulating certain specific actions within a short time span and within an established framework of ideology and social pattern which could be accepted and utilized as a part of the process of persuasion. In so far as the State Department's information program was, or ought to have been, concerned with *altering* such basic ideological and social patterns over a long time span, the techniques of psychological warfare and of advertising were in some degree irrelevant or even contradictory.

To take a specific case in point, a psychological warfare team charged with damaging the morale of a body of German troops and encouraging their surrender could take cognizance of the authoritarian pattern of German life and utilize it by destroying confidence of the troops in their constituted leaders and substituting awe and respect for the power of the United States forces as a behavior-orienting pole of authority. A State Department information officer in postwar Germany concerned with contributing to the disruption of the authoritarian pattern itself and the encouragement of democratic social patterns faced a problem of almost infinitely greater complexity and difficulty. Similarly, to persuade a weary and broken Europe to draw its strength again together and, for the third time in a generation, to confront a threatened tyranny

with a bold hazard of life itself, and to do so under the leadership of an unfamiliar and mistrusted America—this is something different from selling cigarettes. By no cleverness shall we create the steadfast hope that is needed to outface the despair of this desperate age. The bodies of experience on which we need to draw are perhaps those of the great teachers and the great missionaries, but their skills are not ones that can be contrived to meet an occasion.

In drawing on familiar professional skills for its informational effort, it was, of course, natural that the State Department should also draw on familiar media and familiar patterns of their use. Radio networks, press services, illustrated news magazines, and documentary film series all afforded prototypes of information service activities. So did the public library, whose patterns of operation governing concepts were taken over initially with relatively little critical analysis or adaptation to the special circumstances of the information program. Certain additional patterns were later taken over from book publishing; but there was relatively little in the evolution of new techniques in the utilization of books—or, for that matter, of other media—to meet the peculiar needs that were confronted.

In part because of these inheritances, there was a preoccupation with quick, as opposed to lasting, results. The OWI background, with its pattern of short-term psychological warfare operations, and the prestige of the so-called "fast" media (radio and press) contributed to this preoccupation. So did the character of day-to-day operations themselves, which produced an almost overriding pressure to deal now with this issue, now with that, as they presented themselves in the daily news. Beyond this, the sober judgment of many over the past few years has not estimated that means of peaceful persuasion had time left for any but quick effects or that any program that could look only to a distant future for its achievement would have space for function.

Coupled with this preoccupation with speed was a similar preoccupation with a mass audience. Though concentration on "leaders" and "opinion molders" was a professed policy of the information program, in practice it was only in grants to foreign leaders by the Educational Exchange Service that it was actually achieved. Throughout the rest of the program there was a constant effort to reach the largest possible number of people and a tendency to measure the relative effectiveness of various activities by the comparative size of their audiences. In part this grew from a natural assumption that instruments of persuasion should persuade broadly and from a democratic conviction that it was the "grass-roots" opinion in foreign countries that really mattered and not that of any elite. The inheritance from psychological warfare had special importance in establishing this pattern of mass appeal. During the war the internal channels of communication in enemy countries were, of course, closed to foreign penetration; if one wished to influence the hostile population, he had to do so directly and through his own channels. Radio was the easiest means, and direct mass-audience broadcasts acquired a prestige that has been retained.

The Technical Assistance Program, like the information program proper, was shaped by factors of administrative context and inherited policies. From the old Interdepartmental Committee on Scientific and Cultural Cooperation, it had derived a decentralized pattern that di-

vided the actual responsibility for operations among many agencies of the government, each with a rather narrowly professional approach to its functions. This pattern afforded no means for attention to higher professional and technical education or to library services and books as means of technical assistance except in their relevance to one or more specific and immediate projects. Moreover, the State Department's over-all responsibilities on this program prior to its transfer to the Foreign Operations Administration were placed in the Bureau of Economic Affairs, administratively remote from the information program proper.

The Technical Assistance Program was particularly penetrated with the conviction that a "grass-roots" approach was essential. Medical programs, for example, were addressed to cleaning up specific sources of infection having a direct effect on the health of a locality rather than to building up medical schools and facilities for medical research. This almost passionate insistence on the direct approach to individuals doubtless grew out of a sound conviction that economic progress in the backward areas could come only with the attainment of higher productive skills by all their people. But there was an insufficient realization that the general dissemination of those skills could come only through a trained corps of experts and teachers in the country itself and that development of such a corps was usually the most urgent step toward reaching the masses.

These, far too summarily sketched, were certain of the elements of the administrative and policy context within which the book program operated, elements that have, in general, operated to limit the program's effectiveness. I think that one can particularly call attention to six important weaknesses that proceeded from these causes. (Let me here repeat that this article is by design concerned primarily with elements of weakness, not of strength. The evidence is abundant that the book program, in spite of these weaknesses, was remarkably effective, and it is obvious that other elements of the administrative and policy pattern within which it operated contributed to this effectiveness.)

One of these weaknesses was a too faithful reproduction abroad of the American public library. In many ways this was good. The freedom, the egalitarianism, the enthusiasm for service of the American public library, together with many of its technical features, such as open-shelf collections, were among the strongest assets of the American information centers overseas. On the other hand, the rather indiscriminate desire to please all possible users, which was one of their most attractive features, materially diffused their political effectiveness. Also, a relative uniformity made adaptation to local situations difficult. In Near Eastern or Southeast Asian countries in which literacy in English was very low, for example, a different type of institution with a greater emphasis on participating activities in the local vernaculars was perhaps more needed than a sizable library of English books. Only relatively late in the program did alternative means of using books receive emphasis comparable to that on the library program.

A second weakness has been a too exclusive and even strident emphasis on overt pro-American and anti-Russian propaganda in the translation program and in the large-scale distribution of individual titles. These are the two aspects of the book program in which there is a

specific selection of materials to reach a large audience, analogous to the radio and press programs. Like those programs, these book activities have been affected by the oversimple analysis of needs and the emphasis on direct approach. The results have been useful; but these aspects of the book program, in part also because they were simply too small to do so, have not really begun to deal with those central problems with respect to which they could be most useful.

A third weakness has been a carry-over into the book program of an emphasis on mass audiences, with which books were relatively ineffective. It is obvious that a few small and scattered American libraries, each with a collection of a few thousand books in English, can have no palpable effect on the generality of a foreign population. In India, for example, the ratio of libraries to people was as if one small-town library of less than 10,000 volumes served the whole population of the United States east of the Mississippi and north of the Ohio. In such a situation, to be concerned with the relatively indiscriminate enlargement of the clientele was absurd; it was obvious, indeed, that only the utmost concentration of effort on small "trigger" groups and individuals could hope to produce any perceptible effect. Yet statistics of attendance and circulation remained a basic criterion of effectiveness. Similarly, the tone and level of the translation program, though not its size, was pitched at a mass audience rather than at the intellectual leaders who might have more effectively transmitted its content of ideas into action and into the formation of a local opinion. This emphasis on a mass audience had its parallel in a neglect of indigenous channels of communication within the countries which it was sought to reach. It is true that there were occasional gifts of small collections of books to libraries of foreign universities, and such USIS libraries as that in London did an effective job of integrating themselves with the public library systems of the countries in which they were situated. But such occasional efforts were regarded as incidental to the primary programs, which sought to reach the foreign audience directly through American libraries and the distribution of American publications. One can see the relative result of such a technique if one imagines that, for example, the ideas of the great French thinkers were able to reach Americans only through a few small libraries maintained in this country by the French government, through the distribution of the original texts as published in France, and through occasional subsidized translations rather than through their contribution to the content of American writings in their several fields. A perhaps even more serious weakness was the impossibility of fusing book programs with closely related activities, particularly with the work of the Educational Exchange Service and of the Technical Cooperation Administration. If books had meaning and an effective role in international communication, it was as an integral part of a total effort to achieve communication in certain broad areas of thought and technical skill and in as intimate a relation with the total process of education as books have in the formal educational system and in the general intellectual life of this country. The really fruitful use of books was made most difficult by the very autonomy of the book program.

Finally, the greatest weakness of all was that the book program was always incomparably small in relation to the

task it needed to do. This failure to receive adequate support was, in turn, very closely related to the general policy context in which the program was carried on, with its emphasis on those elements of immediacy and mass audience in which books compared poorly with such media as radio and the press. Many of the uses of books which were most important and which we shall discuss a little later were simply impossible in terms of the kind of budget that was available for the use of books. Particularly was this true in the Technical Assistance Program, where a gigantic world-wide effort at the dissemination of technical knowledge involving the annual expenditure of dozens of millions of dollars had paradoxically made practically no provision whatever for the use of books as vehicles for that dissemination.

What, then, should have been the shape and character of the dominant policies of the book program? I think that any answer to this question must begin with some broader consideration of the character of the international problems to which the information activities of the United States government needed to be addressed. These problems were, indeed, of a very different character and of almost infinitely greater complexity than had been conceived in the earlier days of the information program.

If I were to undertake to characterize that problem in a phrase, I would describe it as the restoration of unity. It is perhaps trite to point out that the world order which had held most of the nations together in a loose political and economic community under western European and American hegemony had collapsed utterly in the last quarter-century. This was perhaps most obviously apparent in Asia. Here dwelt nearly half the world's population, bound to the rest of the human race both politically and economically by patterns of Western dominance. The people of Asia, with only occasional exceptions, lived either under direct western European political control or in an uneasy and partial independence like that of China, whose genuine freedom to act politically was sharply circumscribed. Even more closely were the people of Asia bound to the Western economy. The direction of their economic efforts beyond subsistence agriculture was determined by the needs of Western markets. Western capital owned, and Western management directed, their limited industries. These nations, moreover, had their being in a world in which the patterns of effective political and economic organization were Western patterns founded on a Western technology which grew from a science and ultimately from a metaphysics peculiarly Western. A people not equipped with mastery of these underlying bodies of knowledge was incapable of functioning with genuine independence, whatever its formal political status.

During the course of the second World War and the immediately succeeding years these patterns of Western political and economic control simply disintegrated for a variety of reasons unnecessary to recount here. Great nations with tens and hundreds of millions of people, such as India, Pakistan, Burma, the Philippines, and Indonesia, achieved their political freedom. Others, such as China, burst loose from the pattern of western European influence and became, indeed, under Russian tutelage violently hostile to that influence. An accompaniment of this political development was the expropriation of Western capital and the seizure of the managment of Western enterprises, as in the case of British in-

vestments in Iranian oil or the Dutch investments in Indonesian plantation agriculture or the British and American investments in the economy of China. The result has too often been a chaos in which an anachronistic relationship of metropolis to colony has justly disappeared but has not yet been replaced by a relation of equality.

The creation of a world order reuniting Asia and the West, this time on terms of voluntary participation, is perhaps the great imperative of contemporary statesmanship. The alternative is a hastening chaos and the probable absorption of the Asian powers into an order in which Communist totalitarianism provides the unifying ideas. But the creation of a voluntary world order requires the genuine willingness and, further, the genuine ability of the Asian nations to participate as equals in that order. This means the sort of understanding of Western civilization and its purposes that will inspire confidence. It requires, moreover, a degree of mastery of Western sciences and of Western economic and political organization that will enable the Asian powers to sustain an effectively functioning independent sovereignty.

In most of the western European countries, as well, the dominant characteristic of the postwar years has been the weakness of unifying concepts and the consequent inability to sustain a united political course. Hardly one of the major Western powers has been able to achieve a stable internal political settlement in which the major elements of its population could confidently unite. Not since the early postwar years has either political party in Great Britain been able to maintain a dominant majority; the internal disunity in France has produced repeated cabinet crises approaching anarchy. In Italy the current regime has no assured margin of support. It is noteworthy that even in the United States, though the national administration won a decisive victory in the 1952 election, the parties are divided with almost precise equality in the Congress, and there is every indication that, as the Eisenhower administration gives concrete reality to its program, the apparent near-unanimity of support which it enjoyed in the first session of Congress will prove to have been illusory and to have concealed a wide and very nearly irreconcilable divergence of opinion on specific issues. Even in the face of a Soviet menace so capable of overwhelming and indeed obliterating western European civilization, it has been impossible to achieve a truly effective unity of action in the free world.

It is not, I think, an oversimplification to say that the restoration to the free world of the ability to act with unity or purpose is the test by which our civilization will stand or fall. One may say that this restoration of unity, in turn, requires three things. First, it requires the possession of common attitudes. This was relatively easy when the world was dominated by a few Western powers with a common cultural history, a common philosophy, a common religion, a common set, in other worlds, of orienting beliefs, and when within each of those Western states actual political power tended to be concentrated within a relatively small class with an even higher degree of homogeneity of purpose. As the broadening and deepening of the free world has vastly broadened the circle of those whose independent and voluntary assent must be given to fundamental political and economic decisions, the attainment of unity of purpose has become correspondingly more difficult. It is not now merely a matter of Great Britain and the United

States, or of France and Belgium, or of Italy and Spain being able to act in concert. It is a matter of the United States and Thailand, of Germany and India, of Great Britain and Egypt. And within each of those powers a unity of political action now requires the voluntary participation not of thousands but of millions of persons—speaking in global terms, of hundreds of millions—of the most diverse cultural backgrounds, the most varied beliefs, the most conflicting economic interests. And yet, without the creation of a solid basis of common attitudes and common values, it is difficult to see how any community of purpose and action can be achieved.

In the second place, unity of action requires a common appreciation of what is going on contemporarily in the world. One must not only approach the day's news with a certain set of common attitudes. The news itself must be communicated in relatively common terms. By "news" I mean here, of course, not alone day-to-day flow of headlines but the whole flow of contemporary history and the whole conceptual character of the contemporary world. There can be no question that an underlying cause, for example, of the whole Iranian oil economy was the simple ignorance of the world oil economy under which the Iranian leaders suffered. Similarly, even though Indians and Americans have a strikingly similar humanitarian regard for human life, it is difficult for them to act in concert if they receive diametrically opposed pictures with regard to the charges of germ warfare in Korea. The achieving of any common and realistic understanding of contemporary events is, of course, made enormously more difficult by the internal and international tensions which distort reality at every turn.

The third requirement for unity of action among the free nations is the ability of the less advanced nations to participate effectively and freely in the world economy, an equality which, in turn, requires a gigantic and swift advance in the level of scientific and technical knowledge—in the social and political as well as in the natural sciences—in those countries. It requires something far vaster than any Point Four program of which we have yet conceived.

These are enormous demands, but they are inescapable. The only alternative to a free order is a totalitarian order, and the only basis of a free order is a community of knowledge and purpose. To meet these demands requires a very complex and extensive communication between cultures of precisely the sort of which books are an essential component. It is to the needs of that level and kind of communication that we should look in endeavoring to formulate the principal characteristics needed in the book program.

In the first place, the book program must be very much larger. The current level of expenditure is trifling in the face of the most gigantic and difficult task of conveying ideas and knowledge that history has ever encountered. Administratively, it is essential that the use of books be intimately associated with the educational exchange service and with the Technical Assistance Program. Its isolation from these two programs is a major obstacle to the possible success of all three.

Assuming adequate support and appropriate administrative context, the book program will need always to retain and somewhat, though not greatly, to expand the network of USIS libraries, utilizing them principally as high-level reference centers, staffed by professional American employees and intended pri-

marily to serve those who have important roles in the making of decisions or the dissemination of ideas. The need for institutions to afford general opportunities for face-to-face contact with local citizens should be met by more informal means.[3]

But the primary expansion of the book program should take place outside present institutional patterns. Such an expansion should distinguish clearly between those activities aimed at conveying knowledge and ideas *to* other countries and those aimed at disseminating them *within* those countries.

Book activities intended to bring information to another country must be aimed at those persons most apt as receptors. Books will, of course, be one of the instruments used directly by the mission staff in its direct dealings with those, like government officials, who can apply information from abroad directly in their daily activities. But in so far as the communication process is directed toward a general and enduring effect upon general attitudes, the most effective receptors are professional intellectuals. They are the ones with a sufficient interest in foreign ideas and books; the ones most competent to transmute and interpret ideas and knowledge to meet local needs; and the ones best situated to introduce novel elements into the general intellectual patterns of their countries.

Two sorts of things need to be done to reach these groups. One is a far larger program than any heretofore attempted, aimed at building up the holdings of American and other useful books in the libraries of the institutions in which they work. In western Europe this would consist largely in aid to the principal national and university libraries in their presently quite inadequate acquisitions of American books and journals—a relatively simple and a relatively inexpensive operation, but one inescapably necessary at a time when not even the British Museum can afford dollars for the comprehensive purchase of serious contemporary American works.

In Asia and the Middle East such a program would be more difficult, but it offers incalculable rewards. Here a whole new generation of leaders is being trained in a few universities, whose inadequacies are in part compensated for by their nationalistic fervor. They are the centers of the national awakening in those countries. In the nearly total absence of trained leaders, their present students will quickly come to dominant positions in the technology, the economy, and the government of their country. The thirst for Western competence in these universities is matched only by the hatred of Western dominance and the ill-informed suspicion of Western motives. The impress here made on the students of the next decade may well be a decisive influence on the history of a continent.

In many countries of this area—Pakistan, India, Ceylon, Burma, Malaya, and the Philippines, for example—English is the normally used language of higher instruction, and it is generally read with ease by advanced university students throughout the area. At the same time, the present poverty of the libraries of the region assures that American books would receive immediate and intensive use. Just as the rapidly growing programs of Asian studies in many American universities are helping thousands of students to be able to see the world through Asian eyes, an adequate program of presentation of American books to Asian and

[3] A more extended discussion of the complex question of the proper role of the libraries as specific part of the book program is contained in my article, "Aid to National Policy," *Library Trends*, II (July, 1953), esp. 161–65.

Middle Eastern universities could help this whole new generation of leaders to a fuller knowledge and appreciation of Western values and attitudes, a more accurate knowledge of the West, and the competence in Western skills essential to economic sovereignty.

This needs to be done, however, with intelligence and care. Indiscriminate gifts will be wasted and resented; gifts of books unrelated to a larger purpose will generally be useless. Every gift of books should be part of a specific undertaking: to create, for example, or to strengthen a medical school at one university; to create an advanced department of economics at another; to establish an institute of international relations at a third; to strengthen the research resources of a ministry of agriculture. Each such undertaking should be sought by, and in significant part supported by, local authorities. It should include the necessary loans and exchanges of professors, research personnel, and advanced students; the provision of adequate quarters and facilities; and the presentation of laboratory and other scientific equipment as well as books, all undertaken as a single integrated project.

Moreover, and of the utmost importance, the whole administration of such a project, and particularly the selection of books, must be with a single eye to its professional success. The intrusion of irrelevant political considerations—e.g., the screening of books to be presented to an Indian medical school to aid, let us say, its work in epidemiology, with a view to eliminating any by authors with a prior record of "listed" organizational affiliations—would be fatal to the ultimate political objectives of the program.

So far, the only funds available for even the limited pursuit of such a program derive from the acts applying Finnish war-debt payments and a part of the interest payments on the recent Indian wheat loan to cultural exchanges with those countries. These have been too small to have a major effect, and their administration has been seriously—in the case of India, almost fatally up to the present—hampered by division of authority and by the administrative difficulty in fusing a program embodying both books and professional exchanges. But they offer an opportunity under imaginative administration to indicate what could be done.

The other major use of books as a means of approach to foreign intellectuals should be as one element in a variety of projects in which American and foreign intellectual leaders can jointly participate. The possibilities of a sufficiently flexible and imaginative program of this sort are so many and diverse that they can be only suggested here. Hitherto work with foreign intellectual leaders has involved only bringing them here for a hurried three-month tour, paying travel costs for them to assume visiting professorships here, and sending American professors abroad to lecture. Most of these activities have been carried on under the Fulbright program, and the fear that that program might be prostituted to narrowly political ends led to its being hedged with legislative restrictions which make difficult its use for many broader ends. Among the things which ought to be done are the following:

1. Holding a number of conferences like the Colloquium on Islamic Civilization so successfully sponsored by the Library of Congress and Princeton University with State Department support. Conferences on Hindu and on Buddhist cultures are natural successors.

2. Making grants to American learned societies in such fields as philosophy, his-

tory, political science, and economics to enable them to carry on a variety of activities with their professional associates abroad. One can conceive, for example, of the American Political Science Association being host to an informal but high-level conference on such a subject as the forms of international organization of the free world; or the American Economics Association similarly sponsoring a conference on the economics of national development or the techniques of economic analysis developed over the last ten or fifteen years. Such conferences would afford an opportunity for selected foreign leaders to work congenially and entirely free from government control in association with their colleagues from the free world in trying to develop common points of view on the crucial issues of that world. The multiplying effect of the ideas engendered there and disseminated at home would be out of all proportion to cost. Such societies ought also to be aided in distributing their journals abroad without charge to a select list of their choosing and to aid foreign scholars in the acquisition of significant American books in their fields.

3. The sponsoring of institutes, like that at Salzburg, in foreign universities as a means of assuring the continuing association of intellectual leaders from many free countries in the consideration of the major common problems of free society.

These are but three possibilities out of many. The point is to utilize the existing scholarly organizations, taking advantage of their own imaginative approaches, and aiding rather than dictating their efforts toward creating common understanding in the areas of their respective disciplines. In all these, the use of books is an indispensable auxiliary whose exact character will be determined by the circumstance in each case.

In western Europe and the more advanced countries of Latin America, such endeavors to convey ideas to a small seminal group should definitely take precedence over activities aimed at reaching the general population directly with American books. The internal means of disseminating throughout those countries ideas formulated or received in their intellectual groups are excellent and far more effective than any direct means. It is not only that Frenchmen will, of course, always rely on French authors, French books, French libraries, rather than on American or other importations; it is that an imported idea can become effective only after it has found its place in the whole fabric of thought of the country to which it comes. An American idea will have force in France only as it becomes a French idea fully incorporated in a French system of thought. The idea of passive resistance through civil disobedience could never have reached the people of India directly through the writings of Thoreau; it was meaningful to them only as embodied, along with ideas from many other sources, in the philosophy of Gandhi.

In the less advanced areas, however, especially in Asia and the Near East, aid in developing the means of disseminating ideas within those countries is needed. This involves two general areas of operation: technical assistance to libraries and the development of facilities for publishing and distributing both translations and original works.

Under the various exchange-of-persons programs a number of foreign librarians have been brought to the United States for experience or training, and a number of American librarians have been sent abroad to teach or conduct

demonstration projects; and the USIS librarians overseas have frequently been able to be helpful to their professional colleagues in meeting technical problems. But nothing done to date has been on such a scale as to have meaningful results. Technical assistance and material aid to university libraries and to the research libraries of government ministries in the Middle East and Asia are essential if they are to be effective in the exploitation of their holdings, and are being given by UNESCO in such countries as Iran. This ought to be one of the basic components in the American Technical Assistance Program.

Similar efforts at the present development in Asian countries of a public library system on the American pattern seem to me, however, premature. I think there is neither the economic base, the volume of material, nor the literate clientele that could yet support such a system. What is needed first is a network of fundamental education centers with limited holdings of simple vernacular reading materials, with a few public libraries in the major cities capable of serving as the nuclei of a later general system.

Perhaps even more essential is aid in the development of a publishing and book-distribution system capable of meeting the internal needs of Middle Eastern and Asian countries. There is simply not the means, in terms of either editorial and translating staff, printing plants, or distribution systems, to produce more than a trickle of books in the vernacular languages. The appalling significance of this can hardly be stated for the half or more of the world's people imprisoned in tongues in which almost no part of the whole body of modern knowledge has appeared. Little beginnings have been made. Franklin Publications, Inc., brings some of the best skills in the American publishing world to the production of Arabic books and may extend its activities to other Eastern countries. The Burmese Translation Society has been aided in acquiring a modern printing plant. The translation program of USIS has given help to many publishers abroad seeking to bring out translations of useful American books. But, again, nothing has yet been of a magnitude capable of changing the situation fundamentally. Here is one of the most challenging of all fields for statesmanship and professional skill.

In trying to suggest some of the variety of ways in which it seems to me books and book skills ought to be used abroad by our government, I am less concerned about this or that particular project than about two fundamental imperatives. One is that the book program ought not to be bound by a slavish reproduction of methods and institutions we use at home or by inherited and, it seems to me, often mistaken policy concepts derived from irrelevant circumstances. It ought to be based on the broadest and most thoughtful appraisal of need, on the freest and most flexible association with other activities, and on the fullest awareness of the rich and varied competences of books as instruments of extended and significant discourse.

The other imperative is that the book program, like all our international information activities, should grow from a modest sense of our own part in a united free world. It is not so important to the preservation of the free world we inhabit that the ideas that unite it be American ideas as that they be valid ideas. Indeed, to the extent that ideas are peculiarly American, they are the less competent to serve as the basis of that unity of purpose which is our first need. The peculiar vir-

tues of books are ineffective in contrived propaganda; the freest of the vehicles of human thought, they achieve their potency in the free and earnest exchange of ideas. The whole underlying purpose of a sound book program should be to contribute to the means by which all the free peoples may be associated in beliefs to which they can all give assent.

To create and maintain such a book program will, of course, require responsible executive support, capable of sustaining those who administer it under the sort of uninformed and irresponsible criticism that has always plagued our overseas information effort. If the United States is going to make any mature and meaningful contributions to the unity of the free world's purposes, it must, as the simplest beginning, show a sense of mature and responsible purpose in its own informational efforts.

And those efforts must continue. For good or ill, foreign policy cannot today free itself from the responsibilities of public persuasion. As I tried to say in another place:

> The difficulty in obtaining ratification of the European Defense Community treaty by the very European powers which had planned and drawn it—a difficulty which threatened the whole basis of American foreign policy in Europe—showed with painful clarity how fruitless is an agreement between governments to which their respective peoples have not been persuaded. . . . [It was also clear] that no day-to-day efforts at producing conviction could be successful unless they could rely on the existence of a substratum of common understanding and values. The achievement of this in turn could be hoped for only from a program which sought not to manipulate the minds of friendly nations toward American ends, but which, out of "a decent respect to the opinions of mankind," aimed to hold clearly before the world principles of universal validity, deserving the assent of other nations and their full association in seeking common goals.
>
> The truths on which such a structure of universal belief and purpose could be erected were no longer so few or so self-evident as they were in 1776, and successful persuasion of lasting kind today required extensive and candid communication between peoples on very complex questions of ideology. It was also obvious that books were one of the few competent vehicles for this necessary commerce of ideas, and that any successful program would require their wise and skillful use.[4]

[4] *Ibid.*, p. 168.

THE AMERICAN CONTRIBUTION TO FOREIGN LIBRARY ESTABLISHMENT AND REHABILITATION

FLORA B. LUDINGTON

The materials in most libraries disregard time and national boundaries. The old may well be more valuable than the new. An obscure pamphlet printed in Indonesia or Kenya, London or Chicago, may influence the thinking of one or more individuals and in due time great masses of the world's citizens. A conference such as this at the University of Chicago can serve not only to clarify the thinking of librarians but also to call attention of others to the basic internationalism of our profession.

American libraries and librarianship from their very inception have owed a great debt to their colleagues overseas and especially to those in Europe. Whether it be a Harvard, a Franklin, or a Jefferson who assembled the early collections of books in our libraries, the country of origin of the bulk of the volumes was not what is now the continental United States. Throughout the years the users of our libraries have very properly expected us as librarians to assemble suitable materials regardless of the provenance of the book. In turn, the products of our presses have found their way to other countries, to be used by scholars and others seeking an understanding of our attitudes, our failures, or our accomplishments. As keepers of the intellectual book, librarians can play an important role in furthering world scholarship and world understanding.

American contributions to foreign library development fall into fairly definite categories. From 1876 up to World War I our contribution was largely one of example; then came a period of rehabilitation and establishment of libraries; and we may now be entering into a period of closer collaboration with our colleagues of other countries in regard to library development and bibliographical undertakings.

The American concept of libraries for the public at large as distinct from libraries for the intellectually elite has had an impact which persists to this day. The free public library, as expounded so effectively in speech and print by the early leaders of the American library movement, was based on the premise that every man is capable of acquiring an education and that liberal access to library materials would contribute to his continued education. American and British libraries were taken as models by Krupp, the Iron King of Germany, who opened a library for his workers in 1898. The leaders of mass-education movements of the current day stress the need for availability of printed materials, often seeking books with adult content but simple language, just as American librarians have done for over a century.

Closely allied to the concept of libraries for the use of every class of reader is that of freedom of access to the library's holdings. Open-shelf collections where the user could choose for himself, the abolition of fees for readers and borrowers, bringing the book to the reader by multiplication of branches in urban communities or by bookmobile in rural

areas—these have been noted and copied in many parts of the world. By 1886 the American librarian was characterized as taking delight in cutting red tape, in contributing to the accommodation of readers, in devising shorter paths to sources of information and better methods in arrangements of books, catalogs, and indexes.[1] In 1903 a Danish librarian observed that American libraries are people's libraries and that "the public library in America is the favorite child of the people, here and there perhaps a little spoiled."[2]

Service to readers has included not only direct access to books but also expert help in their use. Critics of American library practice wondered if we did not tend to give too much in the way of advisory service and reference assistance. In the case of children and young people, American librarians believed they had a responsibility to direct the reading of these groups. At international library conferences, outstanding children's librarians took occasion to call attention to this special type of librarianship. Work with schools, first through service to teachers and later to the students in school library or classroom, claimed the talents of many gifted librarians. As urban centers and library collections grew in size, special services multiplied. European observers commented on the fact that in the United States public libraries were becoming centers of information for varying groups in the community, regardless of the age or intellectual competence or interests of the user. Library service for everyone, regardless of social position or age, is a fundamental concept of librarianship which has developed here in spite of the fact that large numbers of our people still do not have access to adequate libraries.

The role of philanthropy in helping to further library development was dramatically exemplified by Andrew Carnegie's gifts of $56,000,000 for library buildings and caused countries not receiving his gifts to lament that they did not have an Andrew Carnegie. The Carnegie gifts were carefully conceived to call attention to the public's responsibility to help finance the institution designed for their own enjoyment and education. They aided also in setting standards for financial support. Local tax support rather than centralized state control has given people an interest and pride in their local library, as well as control of the purse strings. With public libraries supported mainly by taxes, they have tended to respond more readily to local needs and reading interests. German writers, in advocating state control of libraries, comment on the far-reaching opportunities to use the public library as a means to a directed form of public education. The American librarian and library trustee are inclined to resist a *directed* form of public instruction and are more likely to be receptive to state or federal aid on a matching basis, which will assure that control will remain in local hands. If the public library is to serve as an agency of democracy, it must be cognizant of the needs of the public it serves while striving to further the general good of its own large or small community.

Another early development in America relates to training for librarianship. As libraries increased in number and complexity, it soon became apparent that the apprentice system would not meet the needs. The library school established by Melvil Dewey at Columbia University in

[1] *Library Journal*, XI (1886), 202.

[2] A. S. Steenberg, "Some Impressions of a Visit to American Libraries," *Library Journal*, XXVIII (August, 1903), 606–7.

1887 admitted women as well as men, for by this time a number of women had risen far enough in the library ranks to be taking a professional interest in their work. This first school was followed by others. Of the sixty-seven foreign students graduated from the old Albany library school, thirty-eight were Norwegians. The total number of foreign librarians trained here is not known, but it is substantial in terms of influence on world-wide library development. Library-school instruction has tended to emphasize public library service, and many of these students have returned to their own countries to work in public libraries. European training for the profession has often developed along other lines, although the training courses established by Miss Valfrid Palmgren in Stockholm in 1908 and Mme Haffkin Hamburger in Russia, following visits to the United States, admittedly copied American training methods. A notable contribution to American library literature is to be found in *American Librarianship from a European Angle*, written by Wilhelm Munthe, director of the University of Oslo Library and past president of the International Federation of Library Associations. This study reveals many ways in which our principles and practices have been followed in Scandinavia.

In the fields of cataloging and classification our contributions have been many. The Anglo-American cataloging rules are a direct result of co-operative work between American and British experts. Although differences of opinion were many, substantial agreement was achieved. Card catalogs, rather than sheaf or book-form catalogs, have won slow acceptance in many areas of the world. By adopting centimeter-sized cards, American librarians gave evidence of their hope for international exchange of catalog cards. Shortly after the Library of Congress started issuing printed cards, Italian librarians began to write and talk about union card catalogs.

Open access to books makes necessary their arrangement in a usable and understandable order. Classification as developed in the United States early claimed the attention of European librarians accustomed to fixed location of books. The Dewey and Cutter systems, as expounded by their founders at the London conference in 1877, provoked much interest. The Universal Decimal Classification, based on the Dewey system, has many advocates. Relative location is now accepted as desirable for open-shelf collections.

The development of libraries in America would have been slower and possibly less effective if librarians had not joined together to discuss their common problems. They first met in 1853 in New York, and, although it took twenty-three years and a centennial exposition in Philadelphia to bring a sizable group together again, for a century the librarians of America have found it mutually advantageous to belong to professional associations. In 1877, less than a year after the American Library Association was formed, sixteen Americans journeyed to London to help form the Library Association of the United Kingdom. This meeting offered an opportunity to measure public library development against that in the British provinces. The travelers received at least as much as they gave, perhaps even more. British librarians volunteered to help with Poole's *Index to Periodical Literature*. The *American Library Journal* became the *Library Journal* and for some years was the official publication of the two associations. The 1877 meeting is a

landmark in international library co-operation in spite of the complaint of a German librarian, who objected to terming it an "international" conference, since many great libraries were not represented and only English was spoken. He inferred that American views and plans would not bear transplanting.[3] I suspect that the American librarians Justin Winsor, Melvil Dewey, Charles A. Cutter, and others would have been quick to admit that methods suited to their libraries should not be copied too slavishly but rather that the services of libraries are essentially the same wherever they may be located and that professional co-operation can and should disregard national boundaries.

The first so-called "World Congress of Librarians" was not held until 1893, in connection with the Chicago conference and the Columbian Exposition. Although the government of the United States invited foreign governments to send library delegates, the five foreign representatives were greatly outnumbered by two hundred American librarians. Several papers by Europeans were presented *in absentia*. There was some talk of international exchange of documents and duplicate volumes, a subject which had been introduced by Vattemare's memorandum to the 1853 conference. The need for printed catalogs of rarities was pointed out, as was the need for systematic reports and comparative statistics.

An international catalog conference was held in London in 1896, with forty-two delegates representing many of the leading societies of the world. John Shaw Billings, then of the New York Public Library, represented the American Library Association and assisted in the planning of the *International Catalogue of Scientific Literature*. The next year brought a bibliographical conference in Brussels and the second international library conference in London. Although a delegation of three hundred Americans had been hoped for, costs were higher than expected, an estimated $365 for two months. This and possibly other factors resulted in the attendance of only ninety-three Americans, including relatives, out of more than six hundred delegates from twenty-one countries. The conference was criticized as lacking a central theme, and disagreements arose as to language. Among the A.L.A. speakers were Justin Winsor, Melvil Dewey, Charles C. Cutter, R. R. Bowker, C. W. Andrews, John Cotton Dana, Caroline Hewins, Herbert Putnam, and H. H. Langton, of the University of Toronto. Dewey characterized the library of the present not as a reservoir but as a fountain, an attitude that may have justified the comment of a French observer that American libraries and librarians were not without their faults, the gravest being an exaggeration of their excellence. Nevertheless, horizons were lifted and in his A.L.A. presidential address in 1898, Herbert Putnam was prompted to say: "The community that we each serve may be local; but the work that we do for this community inevitably takes us abroad. . . . This service discountenances geographical and political barriers. It is necessarily international. We are inconceivable in isolation."[4] He added that the Library of Congress should be a leader in co-operative effort between nations. His subsequent appointment as Librarian of Congress gave him the opportunity to carry out many of his ideas for national and international library co-operation.

In 1904 St. Louis was the scene of another international library conference,

[3] *Library Journal*, III (1878), 120.

[4] *A.L.A. Proceedings* (1898), p. 4; published in *Library Journal*, Vol. XXIII (1898).

when a number of professional groups met there in connection with the Louisiana Purchase Exposition. This time sixteen countries were represented, some by diplomatic rather than library delegates. Guido Biagi of Italy appears to have stirred his audience by an address on "The Library: A Plea for its Recognition."[5] He stated: "Internationalism and co-operation will save the future library from the danger of losing altogether its true character by becoming, as it were, a deposit of memories or of embalmed residua of life, among which the librarian must walk like a bearer of the dead." Although a resolution was passed at the conclusion of the conference urging more international meetings, formal organization of the International Federation of Library Associations was delayed for many years.

Prior to World War I international library co-operation was most apparent in the bibliographical fields. American support of such undertakings as the *International Catalogue of Scientific Literature*, the *Concilium bibliographicum* in Zurich, and the Universal Bibliographical Catalogue (*Répertoire bibliographique universel*) in Brussels was less effective than that of our European colleagues. Delegates to the 1910 Congress of Archivists and Librarians in Brussels admitted confusion regarding the use of the word "documentation." (The photographs of this conference show the delegates arranged by countries according to the Decimal classification!) Papers prepared preliminary to the conference were designed to reduce time for presentation and allow more time for discussion. Of special interest to the fifty-nine Americans were the sessions on popular libraries and accounts of Europeans on how to bring the book and the reader together. C. W. Andrews, of the John Crerar Library, was named as a vice-president of the conference and spoke on the A.L.A. and Library of Congress cards. Meetings were devoted to training of librarians, international interlibrary loans, international exchanges, library architecture, libraries for the blind, centralized libraries and special collections, and the Decimal classification. Questions were raised regarding the relationship of this group to the Pan American Congress in Buenos Aires, indicating an awareness of the importance of library co-operation with Latin America, a matter that had concerned the A.L.A. International Relations Committee for some years.

In the summer of 1914 international feeling throughout the library world was described as never stronger. At least two groups of American librarians were in Europe when war broke out. They had hoped to visit the Leipzig Book Fair, where the A.L.A. had a substantial exhibition, in spite of the disapproval of the Committee on International Relations on the grounds that the fair was an industrial and commercial enterprise. Some $4,275 had been donated by 131 persons to finance the exhibit, prepared under the direction of John Cotton Dana and Beatrice Winser. According to Theodore Wesley Koch, who acted for the A.L.A. as its Leipzig representative, there was great interest in the American exhibit, which showed a typical branch or small library. The Library of Congress display attracted attention. With considerable difficulty these materials were returned to the United States in time to be shown at the Pan Pacific Exposition in San Francisco in 1915. The travelers got back to the United States, although some of them did not get to Leipzig.

Prior to World War I the principal

[5] *A.L.A. Proceedings* (1904), pp. 8–15; published in *Library Journal*, Vol. XXIX (1904).

American contribution to foreign library establishment came as a result of our democratic way of life. We as a people believed that books were an important tool of learning, to be made available to everyone on an equal basis. To do the job properly, easy access to library materials was essential. As collections grew in size, an orderly arrangement was needed, and classification and cataloging systems emerged, as did specialization within the profession. Schools were established to serve as training centers, in order to supply the larger number of library workers needed. Books on principles and practices were written. The first substantial grant to the A.L.A. was for publishing. The early associations were mutual-benefit societies, in that they offered an opportunity to exchange practical experience. In time the broader aspects of the profession became more apparent to its practitioners. By the end of the war we were better prepared to look ahead.

During the war years American librarians were deeply concerned about the fate of their European colleagues as well as their own files of European journals. At the 1916 conference the Committee on International Relations reported correspondence with French and Belgian groups regarding reconstruction plans after the war and the possible establishment of a model American library in Paris. R. R. Bowker declared: "The American Library Association ought not to be backward in holding up the hands of any of our friends across the sea, of whatever nation, in doing the kind of work we did at the beginning."[6] Herbert Putnam, chairman of the International Relations Committee, cautioned against giving the impression that the A.L.A. would be able to do a great deal. Nevertheless, a special committee was authorized to offer its best help in promoting the extension of library development among the people after the war and began its work under the chairmanship of E. H. Anderson. Committees on the importation of books and on promotion and co-operation in the development of printed catalog cards in relation with international agreements dealt with other facets of the international relations picture, and concern was expressed over the lack of good lists of South American literature. By the time the Louisville conference convened in 1917 we, too, were at war. W. T. Swingle spoke on Chinese books and libraries, and a memorandum prepared by Dr. C. T. Hagberg Wright, of the London Library, outlining the need for books for Russian prisoners of war in Germany, was presented *in absentia*. Thirty-five years later, it seems ironic that a long message was sent through diplomatic channels "to those in the new republic of Russia who, having held true to the democratic faith, are now beginning to realize their hopes for the future of their great country."[7] The chief concern, however, was the problem of providing suitable reading matter to our own troops in camp, trench, and hospital. The A.L.A. War Service Committee, with James I. Wyer as chairman and Herbert Putnam as general director, performed valiant service. The story of raising funds, recruiting personnel, and assembling books is too long to tell here. But for the first time the A.L.A. administered large amounts of money and sent librarians overseas to administer sizable collections of books. Public recognition of the service rendered was gratifying. Librarians grasped the opportunity to demonstrate peacetime activities on a

[6] American Library Association, *Bulletin*, X (July, 1916), 393.

[7] American Library Association, *Bulletin*, XI (July, 1917), 328–29.

national and international scale. Those who served abroad made friends wherever they went. They observed the need to improve service to children and were gratified when funds were made available for this purpose. The hoped-for library in Paris was made possible with books and funds left over from wartime activities, and the American Library in Paris was established with Burton E. Stevenson, the former A.L.A. representative in Europe, as its director. It is now the largest English-language library on the Continent.

Thirty years ago the intellectual isolation in Germany, Austria, Hungary, Czechoslovakia, Poland, the Baltic States, and Russia distressed American librarians. This, they believed, "if permitted long to continue, is fraught with more danger to the peace of the world than any other single factor in the situation."[8] At the same time, they were aware of needs for library development in Latin America and the Middle and Far East and of the plight of Europeans who were trying to restock their collections and rebuild their libraries. The Paris Library School was started with Mary Parsons as director, and a number of Americans joined the teaching staff for long or short periods. The American Committee for Devastated France gave $50,000 for the Paris school, and A.L.A. war service funds and contributions from such organizations as the Indiana Library Association made possible a few scholarships for students. Meanwhile, under the chairmanship of Harry M. Lydenberg, a Books for Europe Committee solicited funds from foundations and individuals to help restock libraries. Librarians helped to raise funds for the rebuilding of several European libraries including that of the University of Louvain, and helped out when an earthquake destroyed the University of Tokyo library. On the invitation of the Chinese National Association for the Advancement of Education, the A.L.A. sent a delegate in the person of Arthur E. Bostwick to advise on library development in China. In reporting his activities, he wrote: "The country appeared to me to be in a transition state, marked by a desire to adopt new things, not always well-considered, increased sensitiveness, and above all the awakening of a national feeling, showing itself largely in jealousy of foreign influence and prestige."[9] Many of his recommendations were carried out, and Chinese librarianship benefited from his findings.

The semicentennial of the founding of the A.L.A. brought sixty-three delegates from thirteen countries to Atlantic City. Carl H. Milam's attendance at an international meeting in Prague had awakened interest in the conference, and financial assistance from foundations and other groups helped with expenses. Some twenty-five papers by foreign librarians made the meeting truly international in character. Americans had an opportunity to learn about libraries in other countries from such distinguished persons as Lord Elgin, president of the British Library Association, and Henry Guppy, of the John Rylands Library. Mme Haffkin Hamburger told about her use of American library literature in her training course for Russian librarians; Benjamin Cohen, of Chile, spoke of the need for more trained librarians; and the A.L.A. was referred to as the overseas mother of the Japanese library movement. Before the group broke up to visit libraries as far west as Chicago, they urged the A.L.A.

[8] American Library Association, *Bulletin*, XVII (March, 1923), 65–66.

[9] American Library Association, *Bulletin*, XX (February, 1926), 35–48.

to take the initiative in forming an International Library Committee, since they were desirous to see continued the spirit of co-operation they had so thoroughly experienced.

The following year, in Edinburgh, about seventy Americans assisted in the formation of what was to become the International Federation of Library Associations, and William Warner Bishop became its first vice-president. In reporting to the A.L.A., Dr. Bishop pointed out the difficulty in financing the International Federation, mentioning, however, the high trust and confidence placed in the United States and the fact that our responsibility for international library development could not be escaped. The original *Statutes* of the International Federation of Library Associations, drafted at the Rome Congress of 1929, provided for annual meetings of the so-called "committee," which serves as a governing council, and a congress to be held every five years. Forty Americans joined 450 representatives from twenty-five countries for the Madrid Congress of 1935. The United States has always been represented on the governing board of IFLA, notably by William Warner Bishop, who served as president for the Madrid Congress and is now honorary president; by Milton Lord as first vice-president; and more recently by Douglas W. Bryant. Since the International Federation has maintained a European headquarters, responsibility for its direction has mostly been in European hands. In 1933 the IFLA Council met in Chicago. Shortly after the founding of IFLA the documentalists formed the Federation international de Documentation, an organization that has often met at the same time. The work of the FID has been of special interest to those serving in scholarly and special libraries. American librarians have often expressed a desire for a Congress meeting, as distinct from a Council meeting, in North or South America, but World War II and subsequent financial difficulties have not made this possible. Let us hope that the time will come when American library associations can be hosts to these international groups.

Prior to World War II the A.L.A. had a variety of regular and special committees, directing the policy and planning of international library activities. As early as 1900 a Committee on International Co-operation was established, and Ernest Cushing Richardson served as its chairman for many years. It was he who promoted many bibliographical projects of international importance. A roster of the Americans who have made substantial contributions to the international aspects of librarianship prior to 1940 would begin with Justin Winsor, Melvil Dewey, Charles A. Cutter, W. F. Poole, R. R. Bowker, and others for the early period; E. H. Anderson, Herbert Putnam, Harry M. Lydenberg, W. W. Bishop, Sarah Bogle, and others for what might be called the "middle" period; of these, Dr. Bishop and Dr. Lydenberg are still interested and active. With the advent of another war the sympathy and concern of librarians for their foreign counterparts was again intensified, just as it was in 1914 prior to World War I. In an attempt to meet an obvious need, a Special Committee on International Cultural Relations was established by the A.L.A. Executive Board in December, 1941. With William Warner Bishop as member and consultant, this committee studied the problem of library participation in international cultural co-operation and recommended ways in which libraries and library organizations may best do their part. Their report, approved by the

Executive Board, attempted to outline steps which should be taken to improve and strengthen the A.L.A.'s international activities.[10] These included the establishment of a board on international relations to assume the responsibility for all international relations activities not specifically referred by the Executive Board or its officers to other boards and committees and the establishment of a central office devoted to the international activities of the association and the continuance of several projects then being carried on by special committees. In looking to the future, the Special Committee found "general realization that the United States must now and for a long time to come assume a large share of world leadership in cultural fields as well as in economics, politics and military affairs." As chairman of the special committee and later of the International Relations Board, I wish to pay a special tribute to Carl H. Milam, formerly executive secretary of the American Library Association. His interest in international library relations and knowledge of the association helped us through many long hours of deliberations and in securing funds to carry out some of the special projects which were recommended.

Although this later period of international library relations falls short of the goals set in 1942, a possible future pattern is beginning to emerge. The activities of publishers and booksellers involving millions of books and readers have their counterpart in every country of the world. The export of books has, however, gained recognition as a desirable means of making American points of view understood throughout the world. Modest funds have been made available to underwrite the translation and publishing costs of important works of American origin. By using UNESCO book coupons, foreign libraries have been able to purchase books and place subscriptions for our journals. The exchange of publications has been greatly accelerated by the establishment of the American Book Center and its successor, the United States Book Exchange. The center, sponsored by several library associations, owes its initial financing to the Rockefeller Foundation. The USBE is beginning to be self-financed by handling fees paid by recipient institutions here and abroad. While the American Book Center, in sending more than three and a half million items overseas, tried to suit the gift to the supposed needs of the recipient, USBE aims very specifically to fill the expressed needs of the receiving institution. Under this system the actual value of each publication is likely to be greater than was possible under ABC's bulk shipments. All its 148 foreign members are now paying fees and new foreign members are joining at the rate of three a week.

Direct aid to foreign libraries during and after World War II benefited by the experience of Harry M. Lydenberg, who had been chairman of the Books for Europe project of the 1920's and was the director of the A.L.A. International Relations Office from 1943 to 1946. His genius for organization and his imaginative approach to the solution of the problems of others made him peculiarly well fitted for this important work. From 1942 through 1947 this office purchased over a million and a half dollars worth of books and journals. The major financing of the office and the money for about half its purchases came from the Rockefeller Foundation. Government funds amounting to $987,989 expended by the A.L.A. came from grants arranged

[10] American Library Association, *Bulletin*, XXXVI (October 15, 1942), 748–59.

through the office of the co-ordinator of inter-American affairs and the Department of State.[11] The value of publications sent by the American Book Center for war-devastated libraries has been estimated at another million and a half dollars. The work of these two library-sponsored agencies represents known gifts; to them should be added the individual and institutional gifts of many hundreds of thousands of items which were and still are being sent directly to institutions throughout the world.

The interests of librarians in the free interchange of cultural, scientific, and educational information as distinct from relief and rehabilitation activities, were discussed at a Princeton conference in 1946, sponsored by the A.L.A. Board on Resources of American Libraries and the International Relations Board. Mindful of the need for extension and improvement of the channels of communication between libraries and scholars of all nations, the conference drafted a set of twenty-four resolutions. They enumerate bibliographical needs, urge the acceleration of exchange of materials, recommend copyright legislation, lament customs barriers, approve the extension of translations, and consider other related matters.[12] A study by Laurence J. Kipp for the Interdepartmental Committee on Scientific and Cultural Cooperation raises additional questions and offers comparable recommendations.[13] The precise volume of exchanges, direct and through the Smithsonian Institution, is not known, but a considerable percentage of the accessions of scholarly libraries here and abroad result from exchange agreements and encompass documents, serial publications, and monographic works. They serve as an important cultural link between this and other countries.

The first library association–sponsored library in a foreign country was established after World War I in Paris. Some twenty years later the A.L.A. was asked to assume responsibility for a library to be established in Mexico City with funds provided by the Office of the Coordinator of Inter-American Affairs. The Biblioteca Benjamin Franklin, opened in April, 1942, was the first American government-financed library outside the United States. Libraries in Managua, Nicaragua, and Montevideo, Uruguay, followed. Then came information libraries in six cities in the British Empire established by the Office of War Information. Boards and committees of the A.L.A. and other library associations, as well as individual librarians, consulted with government representatives regarding the nature of the collections, the method of operation, and the recruitment of personnel. Although the American Library Association is no longer officially responsible for any of these libraries, as members of the profession most intimately concerned we have a moral responsibility for their well-being, the quality of their service, and their effectiveness.

Aid to education for librarianship in Latin America was recommended by the Special Committee on International Cultural Relations. During the summer of 1942 a school was conducted in Bogotá, Colombia, under A.L.A. auspices with Rockefeller Foundation funds. Later a smaller grant helped to finance short

[11] Ralph R. Shaw, "International Activities of the American Library Association," American Library Association, *Bulletin*, XLI (June, 1947), 197–238.

[12] Edwin E. Williams, *Conference on International Cultural and Scientific Exchanges, Princeton University, November 25–26, 1946* (Chicago: American Library Association, 1947).

[13] Laurence J. Kipp, *International Exchange of Publications* (Wakefield, Mass.: Murray Printing Co., n.d.).

courses at Quito, Ecuador, and Lima, Peru. The most recent A.L.A.-sponsored school was established in 1951 at Keio University in Tokyo, with funds supplied by the Department of the Army as part of its re-education program. This school is now partly financed by a grant to Keio from the Rockefeller Foundation. Under Fulbright and other grants librarians now have an opportunity to participate in programs of library education in many countries of the world. For areas not covered in the Fulbright program a need continues to exist for library-school instruction by American librarians. The contribution that able persons can make to library development in other countries lies in showing how our libraries have progressed over a period of seventy-five years and in demonstrating principles and techniques of more than national significance. The teachers profit as do the students when they face new problems for which there is no ready answer. They can only offer suggestions based on their own professional experience and observation.

While American instructors have gone abroad to teach in a few library schools, foreign librarians continue to study here. In 1939 Munthe reported that about 150 of his Norwegian countrymen had attended American library schools, while still others had taken subordinate positions in American libraries. It is my personal view that foreign students profit more if they have had experience before studying here, as they are then better prepared to evaluate what they learn and on their return are more likely to make applications that are better adapted to local conditions. Exchanges of librarians, though hampered by linguistic and other restrictions, are mutually beneficial. During recent years the Library of Congress has been notably successful in using foreign experts in the evaluation of special collections. The American-Scandinavian Foundation, the Rockefeller Foundation, the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace, the Carnegie United Kingdom Trust, and other independent agencies have awarded a modest number of study or travel grants to librarians. For the mature and experienced librarian a travel grant is often more likely to permit flexibility of program and to suit personal interests and needs than a study grant. During recent years the Department of State and other government agencies have enabled a number of librarians, some of them local nationals serving in information centers, to visit libraries in the United States. Upon their return to their own countries they are much better prepared to interpret American library principles and methods and to use American books and periodicals more effectively. Speaking with personal knowledge of the United States, these librarians make a genuine contribution to better understanding of and appreciation for the United States. It is of importance to all of us to urge the continuance of these programs.

From time to time American librarians have served as library consultants abroad. The results of the work of William A. Borden in Baroda and Asa Don Dickinson in Lahore were still apparent after thirty years when I visited libraries in India. William Warner Bishop's service to the Vatican and the League of Nations libraries, Arthur Bostwick's survey of Chinese libraries, Ralph Munn's survey in New Zealand, Milton Ferguson's work in South Africa, have all had far-reaching consequences. More recently surveys in Japan by Charles Harvey Brown, Verner W. Clapp, Robert B. Downs, and others have brought about reorganization on modern lines of the

National Diet Library. American librarians working in overseas libraries invariably seek out their professional colleagues in the countries in which they serve and have a quiet but important influence on local library development. If the information libraries are so organized and administered as to be model American libraries, serving all ages and classes of users, they become demonstration centers. This I believe to be one of the most persuasive arguments for the appointment of trained and experienced librarians in our overseas libraries and institutes.

Intergovernmental agencies, such as the Pan American Union, the Organization of American States, the Institute for Intellectual Cooperation, and the United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization have all recognized the importance of library development in furthering education along international lines. It is only natural that Americans should have been especially interested in their neighbors to the south. When a fire destroyed the National Library of Peru in 1943, the first thought of many of us was how we could help with the job of reconstruction and the replenishment of the book stock. Inter-American bibliographical and library conferences have aided in establishing and maintaining friendly professional relations. The 1947 Assembly of Librarians of the Americas met at the Library of Congress, and later the delegates toured the United States to visit libraries. Out of the fifty-one foreigners at the San Francisco conference, thirty-seven were from Latin America. The organization which resulted and the carrying-out of resolutions approved give promise of future co-operation.[14]

[14] "Resolutions Adopted by the Assembly of Librarians of the Americas," *Library of Congress Information Bulletin*, June 10–16, 1947, Appendix.

UNESCO activities in the field of library development are just beginning. Public libraries are unevenly developed throughout the world, and UNESCO has a sense of responsibility for furthering educational development through libraries. Its series of "Public Library Manuals" are of practical help in guiding and inspiring librarians wherever they may be. The bibliographical interests of UNESCO are real and great and promise to be of much assistance, especially to librarians of scholarly libraries. The development of national and subject bibliographies, as encouraged by UNESCO and its member nations, is important to all librarians.

The library associations of America have a serious responsibility for future library development. The American Library Association, the Special Libraries Association, the Medical Library Association, the Canadian Library Association, and others are made up of individuals, some with a genuine interest in library progress on a world-wide scale. Through their organizations or as individuals they can help to steer the course for the future. Some of the associations are so organized as to be in a position to accept and administer large or small grants. All can serve in an advisory capacity. Their publications in the field of librarianship can have a world-wide influence. Too few American librarians follow the professional literature emanating from abroad. More translations of library literature need to be made available. Recruitment and training for service overseas is a professional responsibility. American librarians with competence in special subject fields, such as medical librarianship, have been and are active. Co-ordination of the efforts of many organizations, boards, and committees and individuals is needed.

Certain areas of the world are particularly deserving of attention and help, notably the Middle East, Asia, Africa, and Latin America. The rehabilitation and establishment of Korean libraries, now desperately needed, illustrate another type of activity. Cultural ties with Europe are numerous and strong. The future of the Youth Library in Munich, the Library of the Free University of Berlin, the Library of the International Christian University in Tokyo, is more assured if we stand ready to assist. In many instances we as librarians may need to take the initiative in pointing out ways in which our special competence should be utilized. Domestically our work is often taken for granted. The same is true on an international scale. Intellectual isolationism which worried librarians thirty years ago should and does worry us today. In time the boundaries of the free world may be extended. Our present planning should look to possible future developments.

The foregoing has dealt largely with organized work in the field of international library relations. Of equal or perhaps greater importance is the work of individuals, librarians, friends of libraries, and friends of learning. Personal ties are often strong and lasting. Our scholars have made use of library materials in all areas of the world. We are indebted to the librarians who have served them. In our own self-interest we are attempting to stock our libraries with printed materials and with photographic reproductions from the entire world. We should stand ready to help librarians elsewhere to improve their services and their collections and to meet emergencies when and wherever they may arise. For the long pull, libraries can and should be identified as centers for democratic action. We can be a potent influence in the educational job to be done. The contents of our libraries are international in scope. We, too, must be international in our thinking.

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