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PROFESSIONALISM IN NIGERIAN LIBRARIANSHIP:  
AN EVALUATION OF FACTORS IN ITS GROWTH  
SINCE 1948

by

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A Doctoral Thesis

Submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements  
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### DEDICATION

This work is dedicated (1) to my parents, Chief Olat. Lawal, a Lagos Councillor, and Mrs. Esther Adeola Lawal, a natural-born philosopher and loving mother; and, (2) to my family, relatives and friends.

Out of the night that covers me,  
Black as the Pit from pole to pole,  
I thank whatever gods may be  
For my unconquerable soul.

In the fell clutch of circumstance  
I have not winced nor cried aloud.  
Under the bludgeonings of chance  
My head is bloody, but unbowed.

Beyond this place of wrath and tears  
Looms but the Horror of the shade,  
And yet the menace of the years  
Finds, and shall find, me unafraid.

It matters not how strait the gate,  
How charged with punishments the scroll,  
I am the master of my fate:  
I am the captain of my soul.

SOURCE; William Ernest Henley: Poems.  
London: David Nutt, 1898:119

## ABSTRACT

The concept of professionalism implies a body of knowledge, skills and traditions derived from practical experience in an activity recognised and approved by society. This work is culture-specific because it focusses on determining the degree of professionalism attained in Nigerian librarianship since 1948 when library development and librarianship was established in the country.

The role of information and libraries is increasingly gaining national recognition and acceptance but its importance as a professional activity seems underrated in the country's development plans. It was considered that the factors of growth in the professionalisation of librarianship need to be demonstrated so as to enlighten the situation and influence future developments.

In order to determine the extent of professionalism, questionnaires were administered to a total of 210 professionals working in 46 libraries and documentation centres, out of which 170 were returned, representing a response rate of 80.9%. The results have been analysed under the major headings: Status concerns; Library and Information Work; characteristics; the Professional Association; and, Professional Education. In-depth concern about status in the academic libraries was investigated. With regards to characteristics of library and information work, the work-centred factors that give job satisfaction to professional librarians were examined as elements contributing to professional attitude; an assessment of the level of professional utilisation of librarians in the performance of library tasks was made using variables of age, sex, income/library rank, and qualifications as basis for assessment. A detailed evaluative study of the trend in professional education, from Nigerian and universal contexts, precedes the survey analysis on, for example, indigenisation issues of current concern to the library schools and the profession. A feedback was obtained from library practitioners concerning the relevance and importance of indigenised courses to their work and the work of their library organisations.

The general conclusion is that librarianship in Nigeria is a professional activity, but there exists varying degrees of attainment of professionalism. It was considered that the restructuring of the professional organisation in terms of legal recognition, certification, and general services to the membership is not only necessary but feasible. Plans for certification and new grades of membership have been proposed and the important role of the national and state governments stressed in terms of funding new radical library programmes which promote social and cultural awareness in Nigerians and provides the country with the most important national resource - information.

## PREFACE

The origin of the investigation into professionalism in Nigerian librarianship lay in a belief that this aspect of the field had virtually received insufficient study other than complementing of other works developed in the context of overseas situations; and, that some data concerning the actual world of librarian's work, his interests and concerns, was urgently required if appropriate public recognition was to be attained through inclusion of libraries in national development plans. A review of relevant literature and work already conducted was obviously an essential ingredient of the research and this precedes analysis in appropriate areas of the work. The minimum requirement of the research was to show the professional nature of library and librarians' activity in Nigeria within acceptable framework of the criteria on professionalism.

The professionalisation process of library education in Nigeria was founded by British, Australian and New Zealand experts in the likes of John Dean, Ronald Benge, F.A. Sharr, and John Harris, and its institutionalisation aided by philanthropic grants from American organisations such as the Carnegie Corporation of New York. The establishment of libraries and their further expansion was influenced by the valuable services of international organisations such as the British Council, United States Information Service and Unesco's pilot projects.

However, the seventies and eighties have witnessed further expansion both in services and professional education largely due to the energetic dynamism of indigenous experts such as, in the field of education, Professor Ogunshye, Professor Aboyade, Dr. Agnolu and Dr. Mohammed and in the professional ranks, Messrs. Kalu Okorie, S.B. Aje, E.B. Bankole and O.O. Ogundipe. The library profession has since waxed from strength to strength thereby providing the basis for its own evaluation of growth.

The summative effect of the activities of individuals and library organisations is that in general, it confers professional status on Nigerian librarianship. Extending beyond these parameters though is the need for information on the nature and performance of library tasks.

The pattern of library service, and the circumstances that mitigate work-centred factors which yield job satisfaction for the librarian need determination. The remuneration, qualification status and personality variables such as age/sex factors need to be quantified from the viewpoint of professional utilisation.

Briefly, a summary of the conclusions show that Nigerian librarians earn good salaries which are comparable to those of their colleagues elsewhere in the public service. Perhaps the only exception in this case is the current concern at the universities where librarians' gradings are one scale less than those of their teaching counterparts both in rank and income. The survey indicates too that most library professionals are graduates, a situation that was not so obvious a decade ago. With regards to status of the profession in the society, the evidence points to a general acceptance of librarians as integral parts of the "lettered community", thus the profession's claim to public recognition through seeking state legislation for its practice seems well-placed.

The survey results also reveal areas of weaknesses which may prove of potential strength in the future. For instance, librarians are professionally organised per se but the necessary bureaucratic structure for ensuring effectiveness in policy implementation is glaringly missing. Thus, the criterion that the professional association must be 'formal' and 'effective' seems lacking.

✕ Similarly, a disturbing trend exposed by the majority of respondents is that librarians are antisocial and that generally, the average Nigerian librarian is unappreciative of the social worth of his chosen field. From experience gained in other fields of professional activity, professional unity, work solidarity and dynamism (spirit) are factors which are basically essential to the solid foundation of any professional organisation. Nigerian librarians, it would seem, consider 'social relations' as a factor of very low significance in their professional ranks. In terms of effectively pursuing public policy, the balance needs to be redressed in this respect.

The work is presented in nine chapters, of which a major evaluative study of the trends in professional education is discussed in Chapter 7. Each chapter has its own references; tables, figures and charts for

ease of reference are contained in the companion volume two. The bibliography for the entire work is listed at the end of Chapter Nine with select annotation provided. Each unit of work is indexed under appropriate chapter headings and sub-headings so as to afford assimilation of the trend of thought.

Olu. Lawal

### ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Research work usually entails seeking assistance from various individuals and organisations connected with the theme of investigation. In accordance with the help received in the preparation of this thesis, I hereby profoundly express my appreciation to all those involved in the data gathering and provision of pertinent references.

Naturally, the staff of the Centre for Library and Information Management (CLAIM), and Department of Library and Information Studies, Loughborough University, have been most helpful. Especially, thanks to Professor Peter Havard-Williams, my director of research: for his vision and constant valuable advice, for imparting his extensive knowledge of the subject, and his tireless attention to detail in reading the draft of the manuscripts. At various stages of the research, I was indeed most fortunate to have had the helpful suggestions of Mrs. Helen Pain, Mrs. Ann Irving, Messrs. Michael Brittain and L. Durbidge, whose comments and criticisms worthily influenced the quality of the research. My thanks also to Mr. Max Hunt and Dr. Anne Mumford of the University's Computer Centre for their valuable contribution in providing the necessary tuition by seminars on the uses of Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) programme.

The assistance of various professionals in Nigerian librarianship deserves mention. My thanks therefore to the library educators and practitioners who assisted during fieldwork by granting interviews and providing important information and data otherwise unavailable from published sources; in particular to Miss Monica Greaves (Acting Head of Department of Library Studies, University of Ibadan, 1980); Dr. Wilson Aiyepoku; Dr. Briggs C. Nzotta and Mrs. Kathleen Okpako; Dr. A. Moid (Head of Department of Library Science, Bayero University, Kano); Dr. A. Mohammed (Dean Faculty of Education and Head of Department of Library Science, Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria); Dr. C.C. Aguolu (Dean Faculty of Education and Head of Department of Library Science, University of Maiduguri); for the kind assistance of Mr. A.O. Agboola (University of Lagos Library); Mrs. A.O. Ike (University Librarian, Federal University of Technology, Bauchi); and, Dr.S.E. Ifidon (University Librarian, Bendel State University, Ekpoma). My grateful

thanks to so many other librarians who availed themselves on job information requests.

I would also like to thank my colleagues and friends in Birmingham Central Library; the staff of the Library Association Library, London; Bordesley Centre Staff, City of Birmingham Education Department, for their support, encouragement, and kind generosity in attending to my seemingly incessant requests. My deep gratitude to two individuals, Dr. Max Pemberton for his advice on methodology, and Mr. Russell Bowden, Deputy Secretary-general of the Library Association, London for his enthusiastic help and advice.

Grateful thanks are extended to the Lagos State Government Scholarship Board for providing initial financial support, and the Federal Government of Nigeria Scholarship Board for later providing full sponsorship for the research. Realising that precious few research awards were made tenable abroad in the field of librarianship, the government's financial support is even more appreciated.

Last but not the least, I gratefully acknowledge the diligence of the typist Mrs. Elaine Kirby. Similar heartfelt gratitude to my wife Jumoke and my son and two daughters for their abiding patience, love, understanding and moral support during the inevitable difficult periods of the research.

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## CHAPTER ONE

### 1 GENERAL INTRODUCTION

#### 1.1 Background to the study

The concept of professionalism has been the subject of social investigation since the beginning of the twentieth century. From that time forward, explorations by different occupations of their own qualifications for professional standing looked to existing definitions, and then included elements of their own. Asheilm observes that "it is a standard format for articles and books about an occupation's professional status, not only in librarianship but in all fields, to begin with definitions already formulated by others and to examine the occupation for evidence that these requirements are being met".<sup>1</sup> The judgement of social scientists as to which occupation qualifies as a profession depended on intangible indicators such as qualifications and altruism, but other identifiable indicators which according to the investigators<sup>2-13</sup> contained the essential characteristics of professionalism include an assessment of whether the field of activity in question has a lengthy training programme, has an organization, and provides a full-time occupation for its practitioners.

However, the new trend in social change, more so influenced by economic indicators, has led to the need for a re-think on the emphasis that can be laid on any aspect of the sociological criteria of professionalism. Details of ascribed social class of entrants to the field of librarianship are no longer of urgent priorities as information about the work they do in the field. Other factors which contribute to the professional image that librarianship presents to the wider world and its immediate vicinity are of equal importance and therefore render obsolete the rhetorical debate as to whether librarianship is a profession or not. Such factors include valuable information concerning work ethics and the influence of the work environment on the librarian; the nature and content of his education and training and the value this holds for his practice; the social disposition of the librarian in terms of job satisfaction, main professional interests, and his public relations both within the main organisation and in the society at large.

The contributory factors are derived from the basic underlying assumption that in terms of professional status libraries have a

generic relationship with the world of learning. This supposition lends its weight to the following hypotheses governing this present work, that;

1. The study of professionalism in librarianship can be conducted in culture-specific terms i.e. relating purposely to local conditions influencing practice in a given society such as Nigeria;
2. That the 'old' sociological criteria on professionalism can be re-vitalised through fresh application of the elements to particular areas of professional activity such as education and training/professional association, without necessarily surrendering their occupational value if their measure is found to be inadequate. Thus, given that no one occupation could possibly fulfil all the criteria, it could be stated that in evaluating factors of professionalism, ideal values and norms are not made irrelevant by failure to achieve them;
3. That any detailed analysis of factors in the professionalisation process would need to be based upon the key premise that one is investigating the degree of professionalism such as determining level of professional utilisation in libraries, level of educational qualifications and a synthesis of the existing systematic body of theory, and not whether librarianship is a profession or not.
4. Certain variables, for example, age, sex, qualification status, are instructive in demonstrating the validity or otherwise of the stereotype of librarians;
5. A major part of Nigerian librarianship's claim to professional status rests on its education system which is formally established and portrays integration of indigenous courses in its curricula.

However, in presenting an objective view and possibly well-grounded analysis of the extent to which the activities of Nigerian librarians is professional, the overall failure of the profession to project its achievements and thus include itself in the nation's list of priorities, was the main impetus for this investigation. More than a decade ago, by which time certain records of achievement have been made by the library profession, Ogunshye wrote on librarians' apparent failure to project themselves as essential agency to development;

In spite of the record of achievement, the Nigerian Library Association has not succeeded in improving on our national image as a profession of secondary (sic) importance. We are still being told we are not on the list of priorities. How can the most effective medium for access to information and knowledge of all types be excluded from the list of priorities? <sup>14</sup>

The quotation reflects the present predicament of the library profession, hence, it is lamentable that many of its basic precepts of a decade ago, still need reiterating and acting upon. The extent of the problem is further defined by the obvious exclusion of libraries, in their own right, in the current national development plan,<sup>15</sup> when the planning for libraries and librarians for this decade has already been estimated and assessed by Unesco in terms of manpower requirements and library development. In 1971, Unesco<sup>16</sup>, on the basis of a low rate of development suggested that \$34,690 million dollars should be spent on library service to support Africa's education development needs by 1980. But as estimated in 1976 by Professor Ogunshye 114,000 librarians would be needed for the African continent by 1980.<sup>17</sup> However, if Nigeria is used as an example, by 1983 standards the existing figure of professionals (approximately 600) falls far short of expectations considering the size and stage of development of library services in the country when compared with other African countries.

One way forward to influence the authorities' appreciation of the profession in their development plans is to systematically evaluate the functions, service rationale and personnel of the profession of librarianship with a view to establishing their importance and possible contributions to social change, economic productivity, and improvement in communication among groups. The effective transmission of knowledge oral or written implies cultural illumination of a country with diverse tradition and social heritage. The professionalism of those involved with such transmission deserves recognition in the socio-economic development of the country.

Against this background, the investigation is set out in nine chapters with varying propensities. Chapter Two examines the whole concept of professionalism, the definition and criteria of a profession and librarianship's interpretation of the concept in relation to the field of activity. The work's methodology in Chapter Three precedes other elements of the analysis as set out in Chapters Four to Eight. Of particular significance is the evaluation of professional education within the concourse of the theme of enquiry. Thus, the work in Chapter Seven is presented in five units of detailed study of aspects of professional education. The last Chapter (Nine) analyses future implications of the study and suggests emerging aspects for further research in the light of current information obtained in evaluating factors of growth in library professionalism.

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CHAPTER TWO

PROFESSIONALISM :

"(Being mechanicall) ye ought not walke upon a  
labouring day without the signe of thy  
profession. Speake, what Trade art thou?"

- William Shakespeare's Julius Caesar  
(Scene set in 1601)

## 2.0 Introduction

According to Chambers's twentieth century dictionary, a profession is 'an employment not mechanical (unskilled labour) and requiring some degree of learning'; by virtue of this definition the dictionary considers professionalism as 'the status of professional: the outlook, aim or restriction of the mere professional'.<sup>1</sup> Two fundamental issues of unequivocal importance in the concept of professionalism are, 'learning' and 'status'. The degree of learning required differs from profession to profession; equally, the status concerns of the membership and the profession itself differ in magnitude from society's viewpoint. The problem of evaluating both elements has proved to be of perpetual concern to social investigators because of the varying structure of the existing professions, and factors of social development and change. Partly for this reason the professions have always occupied a marginal position in society in terms of safeguarding their own interests and service monopolies. They also occupy a marginal position in society because they are peripheral to the main divisions of class, status, power and interest. The professions have been susceptible to change in the society around them where, for example, the aristocracy's traditional claim to power and status has lapsed in favour of the utilitarian claims of the industrial, commercial and political elites.

Among such elites, the professions stand out as a group whose members share common socio-economic origins, educational experiences and life-styles and a common, if sometimes confused, ideology of professionalism. It is a characteristic of the professions to be distinctive among themselves by subject, tradition, service and status. Different types of training, association and employment situation are to be found between and within different professions.

At the beginning of the modern scientific era of the 17th century, Francis Bacon believed that the professional was one who had mastered certain specialised intellectual techniques, and it was the intellectual content which came to distinguish the profession from the medieval craft. By the mid-twentieth century further distinctions among the professions became apparent when Lieberman distinguished between "institutional" professions and those the author referred to as "scientific";

Some professions, notably the ministry and law, are based primarily upon the practitioner's understanding of certain religions or social institutions ... In contrast to the basically non-scientific professions such as law and the ministry, there is a large and growing number of professions which are primarily dependent upon the empirical sciences for their subject matter (such as) medicine and engineering. No profession is completely scientific or completely institutional, but most professions are chiefly one or the other.<sup>2</sup>

However, paradoxical consequences proliferate from the tension caused by emphatic categorisation of the professions in symbolic terms. For example, librarianship is a case in point, where one may perceive the library as a social institution or as deriving most of its principles from such institution, hence its possible categorisation as an "institutional" profession; on the other hand, some may argue that the main intellectual works of the librarian derive from application of scientific principles in organising, storing, retrieving and disseminating information, hence it could be categorised as a "scientific" discipline. The passions aroused by such categorisation are all too familiar.

With due reference to early texts on professionalism in the first sixty years of the twentieth century (for example: 3, 4, 5), one finds that, in general, some form of categorisation has persistently recurred. For instance, divinity, law, and medicine are usually regarded as substantive callings, but Carr-Saunders and Wilson in their survey omit religion on the grounds that, 'all those functions related to the ordinary business of life, education among them, which used to fall to the church, have been taken over by other vocations'.<sup>6</sup>

However, the clergy was widely reputed to be the bastion of "institutional" professions some of which are much older than the sciences - comparative newcomers to the professional scene. Increased specialisation of skills implies that the term profession is now used for certain occupations which enjoy a good deal of prestige and which give some esoteric service, often based on science. Architects, lawyers, surveyors, doctors, librarians and information scientists, engineers and accountants, in their own way, apply some rather esoteric skill to service in a modern society.

According to Parsons, the professions do not stand alone as typical or distinctive features of modern western civilization:

If asked what were the most distinctive features, relatively few social scientists or historians would mention the professions at all. Probably the majority would hesitatingly refer to the modern economic order, to "capitalism", "free enterprise", the "business economy", or however else it is denominated, as far more significant.<sup>7</sup>

The author's assumption seems to be that economic interests override the traditional value of the professions. Viewed from this perspective, growth in specialisation has, since the beginning of the nineteenth century, followed economic trend in the society hence the author's assumption seems correct. For example, engineers brought about large scale industry, and society required accountants, secretaries, bankers, insurance brokers, and librarians and information scientists for different professional services.

Against this background the chapter sets out to examine the criteria of a profession; what role, if any, the professions play in the developing countries; and in this context, librarianship's interpretation and practice of professionalism. The theme on professionalism is thus taken up in other chapters concerning professional education, status concerns, professional association and characteristics of library and information work. All the stated factors are examined and analysed in the light of survey results that emerged from the investigation on professionalism in Nigerian librarianship.

## 2.1 Criteria of a Profession

In much of traditional thought about human action, the most basic of all differences in types of human motivation has been held to be that between "egoistic" and "altruistic" motives. Both types of motives relate to different spheres of activity. For instance, in economic terms, the businessman is always thought of by the public as egoistically pursuing his own self-interest regardless of the interests of others. Sociological perspective however conceives of the professional man as altruistically serving the interests of others regardless of his own situation.

In this connection, a survey of the literature suggests that historically, a common core of criteria has existed for the purpose of assessing the attributes of a profession, as tested in criterion studies<sup>8-15</sup> on professionalisation.

According to the cited studies in sociological and humanities perspectives of professionalism, the criteria applied for evaluating circumstances of each profession have inevitably led to ultra vires judgements as to which occupation qualified to be regarded as a profession, given the attributes. Flexner<sup>16</sup>, popularly credited with professionalizing medical education, wrote in 1915 that a profession should be intellectual, learned, practical, expert in relevant technique, formally organised, and altruistic. He catalogued the characteristics of the professions in order to distinguish them from vocations and trades.

The intellectual characteristic of a profession, he argued, carried with it personal responsibility for the exercise of choice and judgement - it was learned because its exercise was based on a substantial body of knowledge which could be passed on from generation to generation (for example, from practitioners to students). It was practical in that its corpus of knowledge is put to practical use of benefit to others. Furthermore, professional practice involves a number of techniques by means of which the knowledge acquired could be applied to solve relevant problems. Flexner further hypothesised that a profession is characterized by an idealism which in theory puts the aims and practice of the profession above mere monetary rewards. He concluded his analysis by stating that medicine, law, engineering, literature, painting and music qualified, but that social work (of which he was writing) did not. It is hypothetical that such idealism as elevates the profession above monetary rewards, would be rigorously contested in post mid-twentieth century context of professional practice as influenced by rapid social and economic change in society.

Greenwood in his examination of social work, tested and found the consensus of distinguishing attributes of a profession to be:

- (1) systematic theory
- (2) authority (accorded by clients)
- (3) community sanction
- (4) ethical codes; and,
- (5) a formally sustained culture<sup>17</sup>

The author's criteria (derived eclectically) have formed the basis of other similar social investigations, which have sought definitions of a profession and the symbolic manifestations of professionalism. Cogan suggests that:

A profession is a vocation whose practice is founded upon an understanding of the theoretical structure of some department of learning or science, and upon the abilities accompanying such understanding. This understanding and these abilities are applied to the vital practical affairs of man. The practices of the profession are modified by knowledge of a generalized nature and by the accumulated wisdom and experience of mankind, which serve to correct the errors of specialism. The profession ... considers its first ethical imperative to be altruistic service to the client.<sup>18</sup>

Learning emerges yet again as one of the foremost symbols of professionalism but the criteria should extend beyond sole reliance on formalities of education, admission, certification or ordination, even though education is recognised as a central factor in any determination of professionalism.

#### 2.1.1 Criteria

1. The knowledge-base theory should be part of the core for assessing whether or not an occupation fulfils the requirements necessary for a calling. Knowledge is self-generating, per se, and it generally functions and expands on the basis of existing occupational techniques. Because of its self-generating process, knowledge becomes naturally continuous and normally should be kept under review by the occupation's practitioners. The organised body of theory relating to practical problems and advancement in a given occupation represents the knowledge-base criterion which any occupation aspiring to professional status must have. Furthermore, whether derived from empirical experience, experiment, comparative study, or recorded history, such knowledge must have been subjected to disciplined analysis to earn it the necessary foundation. In terms of expansion of the frontiers of knowledge, there should be in existence a system for extending further systematic research aimed at solving problems of the profession.

2. The skill factor: hypothetically, the practising professional has acquired skill while on the job. In enhancing his skill through theoretical knowledge, his competence must be demonstrated by passing a test; the test ensures that the practice of the profession is restricted only to those with dedication and flair for the job.

Skill can be acquired through a recognised system of professional training. Such training are normally structured by levels and are

organised and administered either by the profession or an institution of higher learning or both. As a corollary, the professional is expected to keep his knowledge up-to-date and perhaps extend it by means of participation in programmes of professional self-improvement, personal advancement and continuing education.

3. Existence of a professional organisation, is another important criterion which assesses an occupation's grounds for the interchange of ideas, self-control and benefit both for the membership and the practice as a whole. In order that this criterion may be met in full, it would be required that the organisation is "formal" and "effective".

'Formal', in the sense that it has adequate (e.g. full-time) secretarial representation for co-ordinating the association's activities (such as in public policy matters) and, in general, executing the functions of the organisation which are diverse but nevertheless essential for setting standards of conduct, influencing professional behaviour, disciplining poor performance, and maintaining a register of membership. 'Effective', from the viewpoint of being guaranteed recognition through government legislation or other constitutional instrument which will enhance the development of the profession; having active membership on its roll and encouraging its members to participate in the activities of the organisation at national and local levels, with a view to setting up dialogue and co-operation among librarians; being responsible for professional certification or alternatively possessing well-defined accreditation powers; developing a coherent policy for recruitment into the profession and regulating education and training of subprofessionals and others like them at the fringes of the profession. An effective organisation would overall seek, from its membership and other interested individuals, to extend the efficacy of the profession's activities through research and development.

4. Public recognition: an important criterion for a profession would be for it to receive society's sanction in recognition of its activities. The occupation aspiring to be professional must be accorded any of society's symbolic interpretation of it through attaining "status", "professional prestige", or "professional image" in community affairs. Society's interpretation of a profession usually derives from fulfillment (either in part or in whole) of the basic requirements of

knowledge, skill, professional organisation, and code of conduct - factors which enable individuals and segments of society served by a profession to accord its practitioners respect, authority, and freedom within which they pursue their practice.

5. A service orientation: this criterion implies that a profession provides a service for the public good or the good of society in general. This involves adhering strictly to a sense of social responsibility. Thus, an 'altruistic' approach towards the client and service is required of all practitioners in a profession. In ethical terms, the criterion seems to imply for some self-sacrifice on the part of practitioners. Normally, a profession is expected to maintain its own integrity through provision of a code of conduct which will check the excesses of practitioners. The society expects the profession's clients to be protected against personal idiosyncracies on the part of the practitioner. The society also expects the profession to discipline any of its members found to be guilty of malpractices while on service. Ironically, however, the question of discipline raises many issues that currently centre on the ideals of professionalism, especially where a practitioner who is adjudged by the society to have committed wrong is nevertheless protected by his own organisation against all odds. Recent cases in England concerning dental, medical and news media practitioners exemplify this viewpoint.

The criteria, as outlined above, offer varying degrees of possible attainment of professional status. Varying allowances could be made where for instance a profession fulfils one aspect of a requirement and is assessed to be strenuously seeking the attainment of the remaining aspect (e.g. where a formal organisation exists but as yet seeks legal recognition).

#### 2.1.2 Working definition of professionalism

The social and economic changes that characterise this decade, and the last, suggest a restructuring of the concept of professionalism mainly through an obliteration of the 'monetary' clause and its replacement with elements of the criteria outlined in section 2.1.1. The reason for obliterating the monetary clause is principally because it has become superfluous over the years, with the society becoming increasingly influenced by economic rather than social determinants of

ideology. Professional ideals have sometimes been put to severe test under the climate of economic uncertainty and closure or gradual waning of social service points which in the past formed the lofty ideals of professionalism. According to Elliott:

Cynics have suggested that no matter how lofty the ideals, given a choice between ideals and self-interest, the latter would prevail. The fact that many of the ideals of professionalism can be shown to bear little relation to the circumstances of ordinary professional practice seems to support their argument.<sup>19</sup>

The author's perception was kindled by twin spurs of professional ideals, notably the tradition of status professionalism and the historical circumstances in which occupational professionalism has emerged as a contrast to industrial and commercial values. A combination of the professional ideal has three important aspects - the notion of service; emphasis on professional judgement based on professional knowledge; and, belief in professional freedom and autonomy in the work situation. Given the state of librarianship which exhibits both elements of status and occupational professionalism, one finds it difficult to discount the self-interest notion advanced by the 'cynics'. Afterall, librarians negotiate their salary and by joining trade unions they are suitably disposed to withdraw their labour in cases of dispute regardless of any lofty ideals of service. Library educators who are members of academic staff unions are similarly disposed. Thus, the prevalence of academic debates on professional ideals in sociological and humanities literature in general, present a problem of definition, hence specific interpretation of the concept of professionalism,

Thus, in the context of this work and its survey instrument, a definition of the concept of professionalism is offered, based on stated criteria:

Professionalism implies a body of knowledge, skills and traditions derived from practical experience in an activity recognised and approved by society.

As can be observed from the definition, account is taken of the attributes of a profession but excepting the 'monetary' bond or any such moral latitude that binds the practitioner and thus prevents proper understanding of his work activity and possible improvement of characteristics of the activity he is involved in.

## 2.2 The role of professions in developing countries

In comparison with the 'developed' world, the study of professionalism in many economically termed 'developing' countries is a recent phenomenon despite the fact that some of the countries already had well-established professions since late nineteenth century.

As indicated in Appendix I, the main professions recorded by 1972 include: accountancy, architecture, dentistry, engineering, law, medicine, pharmacy, surveying, town planning and veterinary surgeons. The dates of their inception are recorded against each country of the Commonwealth listed. It seems curious that the Commonwealth Foundation Office (the compilers of the national professional societies' list) in London could leave out librarianship when by coincidence of dates the Commonwealth Library Association itself was being inaugurated in Lagos, Nigeria in the same year (1972) the list was prepared. At least the library profession in the United Kingdom should have been listed along with many of the contemporary professions established in late nineteenth century in the country.

If one follows the professions listed for Nigeria, it is clear that librarianship (1948) which is unlisted, ranks senior to all the other listed professions with the exception of medicine (1882); (quantity) surveying (1934); and veterinary surgeons (1940). No explanation is feasible for its omission. However, it is important not to over-react as the criteria for inclusion is not known. But the exclusion of librarianship from the list of professions in 'developing' countries that constitute the commonwealth is reflective of the public relations problem faced by the library profession in general. However, the professions, including librarianship, have an important role to play in assisting the developing countries to achieve their development objectives.

There are national variations of needs and resources as well as different national tradition and predilection, but these variations are not of fundamental importance so long as they are recognised and understood.

The professions require to apply their skills in promoting public health and welfare; in the fulfilment of national programmes or development plans for economic growth; in good government and

administration; and, in successful industrial, commercial, and business enterprises. The role expected of the professions is even more urgent and pertinent to the society in developing countries than in the industrialised nations of the world.

The professions in developing countries are capable of transforming the social and economic objectives of governments into reality. The need for lawyers, for example, is generally recognised for without them none but the most primitive of constitutions or legal systems could be made to work. Similarly, librarians are needed, without whom the information-conscious societies will be disadvantaged thereby effectively hindering progress in the world of scientific, technological, agricultural, and cultural interchange of ideas. Accountants are needed in almost all kinds of business activity and other institutions. Medical practitioners and paramedics are essential in the maintenance and improvement of health.

It is understandable too, why it was that the first professionals to move into any developing country was the land surveyor, since surveying and mapping were quintessential to the identification of natural resources and for planning and executing almost every form of development and construction projects. Surveyors and lawyers have been required to authenticate land titles, and to deal with a variety of land problems that lie at the heart of social, economic and even political progress. Doctors have contributed to the health of individuals and the nation as a whole; librarians and educationists make literacy programmes possible for the adult population as well as other intellectual functions that make the individual develop fully in comprehending the world about him. Engineers, architects, and town planners have served and still continue to contribute, in the harnessing or development of natural resources, to the construction of buildings and the quality of the built environment, and to the planning and execution of national development programmes in communications network.

However, the potential value of the professions is yet to be fully realised in the developing countries due partly to the lack of balance in the way in which they are being consulted and assisted. There is a marked concentration in the use of lawyers, engineers, doctors, town planners, surveyors, and accountants mainly to sustain the machinery of government and administration at local and national levels; but other

professions have not yet been utilized to the full.

The professions, if they are to play their part effectively in the advancement of nations in the developing world, could provide local education and training which will bar the 'brain-drain' of overseas-training professionals who decide to stay abroad to practice rather than return to his country to participate in the task of nation building. In this respect, the professions will need:

- (a) to accord appropriate status, responsibilities and conditions of indigenous practice in the profession;
- (b) to reduce to a minimum the dependence on expatriate professional skills (except on short-term consultancy basis) where adequate indigenous skills are available; and,
- (c) to ensure the provision of local educational facilities preferably set at university level.

While professional education facilities need to be provided locally, it is equally important to ensure parallel steady development of the professions themselves. Thus, to be effective each profession needs to develop a corporate spirit and to harness corporate effort for its advancement through appropriate research and development. The impact of such advancement is likely to result in an active public policy which will tender collective advice to governments, universities and other organisations.

### 2.3 Professionalism and librarianship: a literature survey

A survey of the library literature on professionalism reveals that librarians, especially from the United Kingdom and North America, have been examining and debating aspects of the attributes of a profession and enquiring whether or not librarianship qualifies as a profession.

It all began in 1876 when William Poole hypothesised the business of a librarian as a profession<sup>20</sup>, following Melvil Dewey's findings in a related study that librarianship is a 'learned profession'<sup>21</sup>. Dewey declared, 'the time has at last come when a librarian may, without assumption, speak of his occupation as a profession'<sup>22</sup>. But as Butler observed, the term 'profession', as it was used in the nineteenth century, did not relate to conditions in mid-twentieth century and that if librarianship was assessed by the usual criteria it could not be considered as a profession<sup>23</sup>. Butler argued, contrary to Dewey's

declaration, that there were no abstract principles behind library science, and pointed out the failure of the occupation to develop general theoretical guides to practice. Furthermore, he argued that the practice of librarianship was too quickly learned and that it lacked the special skills and understanding based on long training. But Butler's ideas were probably pertinent only to the time of writing, and surely should be regarded as utilitarian in value, i.e. fulfilling certain basic assumption that the line dividing professions from other occupations was a hard and fast one. Thus, by further assuming that an occupation could become a profession on its own simply by correcting its deficiencies on theory, learning/training period, and skills, Butler oversimplified the issue.

However, American librarians writing on library professionalism have always drawn a comparison that the parallel landmark title to Abraham Flexner's work was Williamson's 'Training for library service',<sup>24</sup> a publication which raised the same kinds of fundamental questions about library education as Flexner did about medical education, and influenced similar self-critical analysis in the field. Contributors to the analysis of librarianship and professional status focussed their attention mainly on the standard pattern of surveying definitions of a profession and assessing from the given criteria if librarianship fulfilled the requirements. Discrepancies were found to exist in areas such as education and training of librarians<sup>25</sup>.

At the twenty-sixth annual Chicago graduate library school conference, Ennis<sup>26</sup> addressed his paper to the theme: 'Seven questions about the profession of librarianship'.

Commenting on the 'continuing tension' between innovation and tradition, the author pointed out that the service orientation and sense of personal dedication represent the hallmark of tradition. In the case of librarianship seeking greater professional stature, he argued further, both tradition and innovation are necessary<sup>27</sup>. Ennis's observation summed up the mood of the conference; the need for unification of ideas both traditional and modern in the attainment of "full professional status". One paper in particular hit directly at the heart of the matter by stating that 'the boundaries of the professions are only apparently measured by tasks that people do',<sup>28</sup>.

Part of the problem of librarianship in the early sixties was its striving to preserve its role while at the same time letting its boundaries so shift as to make the organization work well in the light of service to the constantly shifting frontiers of other occupations within the larger system of which libraries are a part. Goode, in his own contribution, examined the range of librarians' activities and found that the occupation of librarianship 'will not become fully professionalised'<sup>29</sup>. Thus, according to library literature the sixties was a period of uncertainty concerning the status issues of professionalism as they affect librarians.

However, the seventies witnessed a slight shift in emphasis from the main status issues even though librarians were still haunted by the concern<sup>30,31</sup>. Hanks and Schmidt turned attention on the traditional model of professionalism itself and claimed it was elusive and ill-defined and the flaws are summed up by 'the notion that the model is not sufficiently dynamic to absorb the changes that are occurring both in the community as a whole and in the professions themselves'<sup>32</sup>. Given what the authors called the "unadaptability" of the traditional model, they concluded that the model would be dysfunctional for any occupational group whose environment is undergoing rapid and important changes, thereby suggesting a need for an alternative model of a profession for librarians. However, the authors' proposal of an 'open systems' theory of professionalism, exhibiting for instance, a primary commitment of librarians to users and a primary focus on the information materials librarians handle, seemed a dilution of some of the 'old' elements of traditional model. For example, through 'public recognition' and 'service orientation' criteria of the traditional model an openness was already in existence thereby reflecting the authors' proposed 'democratic professionalism'<sup>33</sup> as mere tautology.

Other ideas on values which librarianship should seek to attain professional status were forthcoming. According to Bengé:

With regard to librarianship, or any other profession, there are naturally several levels of reality. First, what the world says about the profession; second, what the profession says (officially) about itself; third, what librarians think about each other; and fourth, what they actually do<sup>34</sup> (my emphasis).

Reference to tasks performed by librarians in the assessment of professionalism, is of significance in the above quotation. Occupational

surveys are rarely conducted solely for this purpose because writers on library professionalism have always shown preference for comparing other professions with librarianship purely on sociological basis. It must be accepted that nothing is wrong with sociological analysis but information seems lacking about the work of librarians, and such analysis could prove valuable in reducing the level of concern about status.

Sometimes elements of library tasks are subject to academic theorisation. For instance, Edwards<sup>35</sup> in a study of library functions, perceived the task 'library management' as basically different from what could be regarded as professional library work. The author states:

Failure to clarify the differences between these (library) functions has hindered the development of a genuine profession of librarianship and continues to handicap effective library service ... What is called for is a broader vision of both the library profession and library management. The characteristics and the requirements of the profession must be defined and demonstrated by the profession itself<sup>36</sup>.

The writer, however, omits the fact that for librarians to attain management grades they must have acquired appropriate professional experience on the way up the status ladder. The work experience usually is most valuable in the performance of management tasks which will always relate to the work situation. Thus, it seems unjust not to regard such activity as 'library management' as professional library duty since the work environment and the nature of the occupation suggest otherwise.

Evans<sup>37</sup> added another dimension to the study of library professionalism by stating that 'in librarianship the concept is used to distinguish employees whose work requires special training in librarianship from those whose work does not'<sup>38</sup>. Librarians use the term professional to distinguish library school graduates from those who are not. The writer argued further that since one of the characteristics of the 'learned professions' is the planning function, those who are library professionals engage in planning to the extent that owners and users depend upon them for guidance, hence they could claim kinship with the learned professions. But the author did not relate the role of 'para-professional' (or non-graduate) library employee of whom he was writing. The contribution of non-graduate library professionals occupying important library positions is equally significant in any analysis of library professionalism as it relates to tasks performed. If, as Evans

believed, planning is an executive function performed by professionals<sup>39</sup> (bearing in mind his definition of a professional), then it follows that non-graduate library professionals in top management or kindred positions in smaller libraries, who are performing similar planning function could be regarded as professionals. The dichotomy between graduate and non-graduate library employees requires that in the assessment of professionalism, work characteristics of librarians should be taken into account.

Asheim<sup>40</sup>, in a comprehensive review of (mostly American) literature on library professionalism, assessed the attitude of librarians to status issues in a chronological fashion. He suggests that librarianship per se appeared not to have done too well on the question of attainment of 'full' professional status. The writer cited Lancour's assertion that of all the characteristics identified with professionalism which librarianship has been striving to attain, the one in which librarians have been least successful is that of 'sanction of the community',<sup>41</sup>. In this respect, Asheim argued on the library profession's ability to demonstrate its altruistic characteristic in terms of acceptance by the community:

Convinced that a particular occupational group does exhibit these (altruistic) qualities, the community acknowledges its sanction by according it the right to accredit, control admissions to the field, preserve the confidentiality of its relationship with its clients, and regulate and police itself. It is thus a demonstration of community trust, confidence and even awe in the face of the social value that the occupation preserves and delivers<sup>42</sup>.

Librarians, it would seem, have not convinced the community at large that its services are necessary in the same way that law and medicine have been able to do.

With regards to the British experience of professionalism in public libraries, Bowden considers public recognition as being influenced by the public image of librarians:

The librarian's image is encompassed within the buildings in which he works or is influenced by the products with which he is concerned, namely, books and documents ... with collection and acquisition, with storage and arrangement, with lending and retrieving. The public know little of the classification and cataloguing skills or the skills of acquisition and the skills of information retrieval, and more important, those required for active

information dissemination. It is the 'book-hooked' image that prevails with the public<sup>43</sup>.

The interaction between librarians and the public is thus impersonal as it would be for a doctor or lawyer and perhaps a clergyman in professional-client relationship.

Writing on British librarianship in general, Montgomery observes that;

Libraries and librarians provide services to the communities which they serve. Those services are, by and large used well, if not always to capacity. Many librarians are dedicated to the services they provide and to the occupation which they practise, but to a great number of them librarianship is just a job; they are neither committed nor dedicated to the extent that they will use their own time, either to continue helping clients or to back up their occupation in a professional manner by a willingness to attend meetings, write for the technical press, or to serve occupational associations.<sup>44</sup>

The attitude of professional librarians towards their clientele in the manner described by Montgomery also influences their disposition to the work they do and the profession in general. The general lukewarmness of librarians to local and national activities of the professional association requires some study if the profession is to continue to enjoy the privileges of community sanction. From such association activities, the librarian could learn more about himself, his work, and his clients. Attempts have been made by some writers to determine the source of antipathy amongst librarians. Schwartz<sup>45</sup> for example, suggests that senior and chief librarians who in American libraries describe themselves as 'professionals' to the exclusion of graduate library assistants, cause the existing deep antipathetic attitude among librarians in beginning positions. Burrell, in a recent research, adjudged the antipathy of librarians to their work and the profession as 'being prevalent especially among the younger generations'.<sup>46</sup> Several aspects of the foregoing discussion on the attitude of professional librarians in the United Kingdom and across the Atlantic, have salutary inferences for the Nigerian situation, which is analysed with supportive survey data in Chapter 4 of this work.

In addition to the above-mentioned in-sights into the attitude of professional librarians, Nelson<sup>47</sup> adds his own proposition to further enlighten the situation. He suggests that librarians may be chasing the chimera of professionalism if only from the viewpoint of sexuality.

Basing his reasoning on Bledstein's The culture of professionalism<sup>48</sup>,

Nelson states that:

The image of the professional is decidedly masculine. The professional is in authority, he commands respect, and he has control over a world of knowledge which the layman cannot enter. The librarian's image is feminine; willing to serve and anxious to give the client what he wants ... the librarian is dedicated to making available to the lay public that knowledge which the professional is anxious to control<sup>49</sup>.

The masculinity-femininity theory really does not apply in the absence of scientific reasoning. As yet there is no evidence indicating that professional status can be determined on the basis of sexuality, nor is public recognition wholly dependent on the variable. Thus, any physical interpretation of the nature of a professional in library and information field will at best remain of perceptive imagery.

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### CHAPTER THREE

#### 3.0 METHODOLOGY

##### 3.1 Survey procedure

The present study of professionalism in Nigerian librarianship involves the use of different methods of gathering information or data required for the assessment of the extent of attainment of professionalism in library and information activity. There is a dearth of existing records and knowledge of Nigerian librarian's work characteristics in terms of library tasks performed, job satisfaction derived, qualification possessed and its relationship with tasks performed and income. Similarly, there is a general lack of quantitative descriptions of the content of library education programmes and, in particular, lack of feedback from library employers and practitioners with regards to the importance of indigenised courses in librarianship and their relevance to current practice. It was therefore decided to partition the method of investigation into three main areas.

The first method was a descriptive literature survey of the growth of professionalism as a concept, its criteria and possible application to specific cultural location such as Nigeria. An evaluation of the processes and planning of professional education also provides a continuum considered to be essential to the survey.

The second method of investigation was by sample interviews<sup>1,2</sup> with library educators, employers, and practitioners. The interviews were conducted during the one-year fieldwork placement in Nigeria (Appendix 3.2) and were open-ended and unstructured. The objective of the interviews was to elicit more information otherwise unavailable in published form; to support data collected from departmental course materials, syllabuses, handbooks and other documents; to derive first-hand information on task performance of library staff and, as may be available, collect job information<sup>3,4</sup> from employers; and, in general, to provide respondents the freedom to make contributory comments on the survey (Appendix 3.3 to 3.5).

The third method was based on the use of questionnaires<sup>5,6</sup> to establish facts only. The mail questionnaire was used because of its considered advantages<sup>7,8,9,10,11</sup> in collecting information from people who are widely scattered geographically. The respondents fill the questionnaires in their own privacy and with adequate time to consult

records and other sources of information which may not have been readily available. The respondent's anonymity is not only assured but preserved, and he has an opportunity to transmit information on how the problem being investigated affects his work and social life,

As shown in Appendix 3.1, the questionnaire has five sections which deal with different aspects of the respondent's work attributes, professional attitude, and education. The first section is concerned with background information like the respondent's library organization, age and sex. The second section deals with the status of the respondent and his library organization as well as information about his work experience and salary grading. The third section is concerned with assessment of task performance by the respondent and a determination of the work-centred factors which give job satisfaction in his job; in addition, the long-term main interest of the respondent in library and information work constitutes the final part of the third section. The fourth section assesses the respondent's attitude to the professional association, his membership and participation in the association's activities. The fifth and final section relates to respondent's view of control of library education in Nigeria, the respondent's own qualification status and a ranking of the importance of indigenised courses in library schools' programmes.

The questionnaire was pre-tested by requesting fourteen professional colleagues to complete it and make suggestions as to its improvement. All of them readily co-operated and the new format for the final draft of the questionnaire was produced.

### 3.2 Sampling

From experience gained in other related studies<sup>12-15</sup>, it was clear that the investigation would have to be restricted to a manageable size in order to ensure that the data was representative of the view and actual performance of professionals. For instance, the principle of selection was based on the premise that the staffing capacity of the library or information establishment should constitute at least three or more professionals because only libraries with staffs of this size could display measurable evidence of a division of labour among employees. From this point of view, some small libraries such as in public or special categories could not be included due to the low level recorded number of professional employees<sup>16</sup>. However, the universities,

national/state libraries and quite a few public, government, special and school/college libraries provided the required sample despite the difficulties encountered in specifically locating some libraries and librarians (apart from the well-established university libraries and national and state libraries). In relative terms, the number of libraries and librarians is not large compared with the system in the developed countries. But the majority of professionals practise in university and state libraries<sup>17</sup>. Writing on academic libraries for instance, Nwafor states that:

... One would expect that the cream of libraries in the country would be found in (academic) libraries, librarians who are equipped educationally and otherwise to be sufficiently knowledgeable about their role and who possess the personality and wherewithal to command the respect of the academic community.<sup>18</sup>

It is obvious that academic libraries constitute the first choice of employment for most library schools' graduates hence the tendency for social studies on Nigerian libraries to cover as comprehensively as possible the staff of universities.<sup>19,20</sup> Thus, it may be stated that one had a fairly good knowledge of which libraries or institutions employed most of the professional personnel thereby facilitating selection of the sample.

### 3.3 Questionnaire administration

Having determined the source of the sample, it was easy to decide the participating libraries. To this end, 46 libraries and documentation centres were involved in the study including all library types although respondents from academic libraries seem to have a majority over other participants mainly due to the large number of professionals serving in academic institutions. However, this need not affect the results of the study since one is investigating professional activities of librarians more than organisational activity.

According to the current nominal list, 610 professional librarians are registered as practitioners in Nigeria<sup>21</sup> of whom 40% are British, American, Canadian, Indian, Pakistani, Trinidadian and Ghanaian. The questionnaire on professionalism in Nigerian librarianship was administered to 210 professional librarians from the indigenous population so as to have as near accurate an assessment as possible. This represented at least 58% of registered professionals not taking account of deaths, retirement, or resignation from the profession. Similarly, difficulties

arose in administering the questionnaire or at least achieving some response from those on study leaves, leave of absence, sabbaticals, sick leave and those who were generally said not to be "on seat" i.e. unavailable for no explainable reason.

Most, certainly not all, of the libraries and documentation centres in the sample were visited during fieldwork thereby enhancing what Forcese and Richer described as 'captive audience situation'<sup>22</sup>. This softened the ground for the subsequent mailing of most of the 210 questionnaires to five informed professional colleagues at Lagos, Ibadan, Jos, Bauchi and Port-Harcourt for immediate distribution to the stated libraries. Furthermore, the remaining questionnaires were posted to other areas of the country like the Mid-Western and Eastern States and other parts of the North not covered by Jos and Bauchi. Difficulty with the Nigerian postal system, which always incurs unreasonable delays, was amazingly minimal contrary to expectation. The result of the exercise was beyond expectation, due to the generally acknowledged tardiness of Nigeria's postal system, as 170 out of 210 (or 80.9%) fully completed questionnaires were received. Ten more questionnaires arrived with apologies for being sent late but these could not be included in the survey since the analysis was well-advanced at the time of receipt (For example: Appendices 3.6, 3.7).

In general, the successful outcome of administering the questionnaires derive partly from a demonstrable popularity of the library school at Loughborough University in the circle of professional librarians in Nigeria, and partly due to the topical theme of the investigation. The administration of questionnaires was deliberately left to the later stages of the research so as to obtain current factual account as possible. In this connection, Professor Havard-Williams provided a covering letter for the questionnaires in January 1983 and by May instant all the recorded response rate (80.9%) were received. It is interesting that some respondents commented that they too are Loughborough Library school graduates; probably this factor could have been a motivating force for their expressed support. Consequently, no follow-up letters were necessary except on one occasion when the writer had to follow-up on respondents from Maiduguri.

### 3.4 Analysis of data

All the data collected was fed into the university's ICL 1900 computer by the writer. The analysis followed the pattern of use recommended in the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS)<sup>23</sup>; analysing the coded responses with the SPSS programme's frequency distributions, cross-tabulations and condescriptive commands<sup>24</sup> all of which produced the tables and histograms on which the analysis of factors was based. The writer wishes to acknowledge the kind assistance of Mrs. Hilary Bateman, computing officer at the Department of Library and Information Studies, and Mr. Peter Webb of Department of Chemical Engineering, for provision of facilities.

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## CHAPTER FOUR

### 4.0 STATUS CONCERNS

The status issues examined in this chapter concern salary, qualifications, age and sex, and the problems of professional organization. The survey data employed in the various analysis arise from information supplied by respondents in the sample population. The results that emerged from the quantitative study of Nigerian librarians on the status questions provide a unique opportunity for assessing the degree of professionalism in library and information practice.

### 4.1 Definition

In the humanities' disciplines, 'status' means different things to different people, Carr-Saunders and Wilson, for instance, suggest that status is recognised by a high level of remuneration. The authors state that:

It becomes obvious that a high level of remuneration implies a public recognition of status and that the most certain way of attaining the latter is to press for the former.<sup>1</sup>

In Nigeria, many professionals in different areas of activity assume status attainment by earning comparable remuneration with their colleagues. It is generally believed that public recognition of the profession is implied in that salary earned by other professionals in government, industry, or universities are on the same scales as those of the profession concerned.

But status attainment extends beyond the remuneration realm; it is also feasible in the nature of support granted the profession by the national government, especially through a legislative instrument which will ensure maximum development of professional practice, stimulate standards and generally enable the professional organization to derive adequate authority in managing its affairs. In the study of professions, it is clear (especially so for professions in the developing countries) that without government support in terms of legislation, very little can be achieved in standardising professional practice, thus resulting in weak ineffective policies. This weakness has proven to be catastrophic in areas such as education and training of professionals. In the case of librarianship, Lancour observes that in the librarian's search for professional status and in relation to other professions, 'community sanction, certainly to the extent of legal backing, is our weakest point'.<sup>2</sup> Many organizations in the library profession have since improved

their positions since Lancour's observation was made. But in some parts of the developing countries, the observation is pertinent today.

Clearly then, 'status concerns' exhibit different stereotypes in all kinds of professional activity. For example, there are organisational types (i.e. the academic/administrative status dichotomy in libraries); salary (unionisation is one way of expressing professional solidarity thereby enhancing professional status); education (as typified by various qualification levels and length of study periods for qualifying<sup>3</sup>); and, sex stereotypes (professional image - 'male or female' dominated profession?). In principle, the status stereotypes are governed by the insatiable search of the professions for public 'image' and esteem. Financial reward and public esteem seem to have been the central concern of Nigerian librarians<sup>4</sup>.

Thus, Carr-Saunders's interpretation of status belies current thinking on the issue because by modern standards, status attainment is perceived not wholly in context of remuneration but as a totality of individual and group achievement of the stereotypes in the community served. Homans argues:

What determines a man's status include the type of reward he receives, his esteem and kinds of activities he emits.<sup>5</sup>

Similarly, the sociologist Krech and his colleagues place status concern beyond remuneration by asserting that it exhibits :

The rank or position of an individual in the prestige hierarchy of a group of community.<sup>6</sup>

Nwafor's definition of status is consistent with the reasoning of Krech and his colleagues as it encompasses the 'rank' characteristic; according to Nwafor:

(status) is essentially the end product of role: what one does or does not do determines who one is, and one's rank ... in relation to others derives from their assessment of that person's role.<sup>7</sup>

The author's definition of status is strongly elitist in content presumably creating a class structure within class. Nevertheless, status relates, to a significant extent, peer groups with one another in an organisation. Deweese in his study of the relationship between status concerns and professionalisation of individual university librarians found status to be an important 'socio-psychological determinant of professionalization'<sup>8</sup>. According to the author, occupation is a

determinant of status because a member's position within an occupation determines his status both within that occupation and outside it.<sup>9</sup>

Given that status involves elements of remuneration, organisational attachment, education, and image stereotypes be they age, sex, service institution or any other stereotype, a working definition of status in the context of this present work will be that,

'Status' refers to an accepted sociological terminology for describing the various external manifestations by which an individual's occupational value is revealed.

The overall assumption in deriving the definition is that libraries have a generic relationship with the world of learning thereby imbibing the socio-cultural values of a service institution which itself is an instrument of change in society. The assumption is fundamental in any consideration of a shift or change in occupational status. Thus, the hypothesis is offered that due to the relationship of libraries to the world of learning in universal terms, and the visible effects of this relationship both locally and nationally in Nigeria, libraries and librarians enjoy equivalent status with their colleagues in industrialised countries.

#### 4.2 Organisational symbol

One possible way of describing the status of libraries in organisations to which they belong is by reference to their role within the overall hierarchy. As shown in Table 4.1, 142 (or 83.5%) of respondents indicated that their libraries are main divisions in the organisation. As a main division, the library incurs certain prestige such as being accorded full departmental status with capacity to administer its own budget, employ staff and participate in the activities of the main organisation through membership of committees. The library's involvement with the organisation represents a symbolic demonstration of status attainment. But other libraries may not be enjoying such privileges.

For instance, as indicated in the same table 4.1, 28 (or 16.5%) respondents showed that their libraries were supportive units in the main organisation. 50% of libraries in this category are administered as 'general administration' unit and 50% as 'Research and Development'. A closer examination of the organisational status of libraries reveals that two main symbols are feasible - 'academic' and 'administrative' status.

TABLE 4.1      DIVISIONAL STATUS OF LIBRARY IN ORGANISATION

MAIN DIVISION				TOTAL	
YES		NO		No.	PCT
No.	%	No.	%		
142	(83.5)	28	(16.5)	170	100.0

As can be seen from Table 4.2 academic status is common to libraries at universities, college and special libraries. For instance, at the universities, 79.2% indicated the functional status of their libraries as 'academic'. But an appreciably high percentage of 17.2% was recorded for those who stated that their university libraries have 'administrative' status. The situation on functional status in Nigerian university libraries is rather confused with some librarians clearly designating the nature of their academic services as 'administrative'. Different interpretations are given to each university statute as it relates to the matter - i.e. where the library is designated as 'academic', 'administrative' or 'general services'. At least half of those whose libraries are categorised as 'administrative' dispute such placement, as respondents in the sample believed that the status of a library in a university environment should be nothing less than academic.

According to Table 4.3 on the current status of some university libraries sampled in the survey, the statutes of universities at Bendel State University; Benin University; Federal University of Technology at Abqokuta, Akure, and Bauchi; Ibadan, Ife, Jos, Lagos and Port-Harcourt Universities clearly regard library services as worthy of academic status with the accompanying conditions of service as for teaching staff. On the other hand, it is clear from the same table that statutes in other universities regard their library services as 'administrative' such as at Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria; Bayero University, Kano; Calabar University; Federal University of Technology, Owerri; Ilorin, Maiduguri, Obafemi Awolowo Universities, and University of Nigeria, Nsukka. The confused situation presents problems for library staff serving in 'administrative' capacities because they are not entitled to the attractive conditions of service being enjoyed by their teaching colleagues. In this respect, some university libraries' staff are

urgently seeking clarification on the matter. For example, the present writer was informed that Ahmadu Bello and Ilorin University libraries at present have their case for academic status before the Senate and the university librarian at Ilorin was particularly confident of approval for their 'academic' status.

As a further measure of the confusion on functional status University of Lagos Library is a case in point. The library has academic status and operates the same salary scale as lecturers in the institution, but the library staff still lack parity with their teaching counterparts in terms of conditions of service and gradings (rank). Table 4.4 illustrates the gradings disparity vividly. By contrast, Ibadan University library staff have the same problem of grading disparity but, unlike Lagos, still enjoy parity in conditions of service. The disparity derives from the adverse effects of two Public Service Review Commissions (Udoji and Williams) which effectively reduced and by a further review partially reinstated and in addition upgrade certain salary scales. There is a detailed analysis of this aspect of status in Section 4.3.

TABLE 4.4     SAMPLE RANK AND UNIVERSITY SYSTEM SCALE (USS): IBADAN AND LAGOS UNIVERSITIES

USS	TEACHING	LIBRARY RANK	SALARY (p.a.)*
15	Professor	University Librarian	N 14,280 - 15,000
14	Associate Professor	Deputy University Librarian	N 12,732 - 14,052
13(a)	Senior Lecturer	Principal Librarian	N 11,364 - 14,820
11	Lecturer I	Senior Librarian	N 9,000 - 10,080
09	Lecturer II	Librarian I	N 7,550 - 8,040
08	Assistant Lecturer	Librarian II	N 6,336 - 7,488
07	Graduate Assistant	Graduate Assistant	N 5,136 - 6,216

\* N 1.00 = £0.85 sterling.

Continuing analysis of Table 4.2, as expected under Special libraries 15 out of 17 (or 88.2%) are categorised as 'academic' while 60% of schools and colleges are 'academic' as well. Not surprisingly, the returns for National/State libraries indicated an overwhelming 30 out of 31 (or 96.8%) libraries which are 'administrative' in functional status. Similarly, 100% of sample libraries in public and government indicated their status as 'administrative'.

In order to redress the balance in the universities' gradings disparity, individual institutions initiated internal rank adjustments taking account of library position and salary. The views of respondents were tested as to the desirability of having fragmented internal rank adjustments in a similar service system. The data as represented in Table 4.5, showed that 78 (or 74.3%) of respondents agreed to the need for adjustments; 14 (or 13.3%) disagreed with a comparable response rate of 'don't know' with 13 (or 12.4%). The trend suggests that a majority of professionals in the sample were in favour of adjustments in rank and salary at individual universities. A closer examination of the data shows that from those respondents who agreed, 59.0% were males and 32 (41.0%) females, suggesting a fairly balanced opinion between the sexes. The gap widens further in the other categories. For instance, of those who disagreed 64.3% were males and 35.7% females; and 61.5% males and 38.5% females for the 'don't knows'. The overall pattern of 60.0% males and 40.0% females seems fairly balanced.

Since the adjustments are qually important in salary terms, it was considered illuminating to relate the views of respondents on the need for adjustments with their salary scales. As shown in Table 4.6 for those who agreed 37 out of 48 (or 77.0%) were in the beginning positions 07-09 in the salary scales N5,136 to N8,040 (Appendix IV). From the middle grades 10-12 earning between N8,148 and N11,352 per annum, 22 out of 31 (or 71.0%) agreed while only 7 (or 19.3%) disagreed. In the senior grades 13-14 with salary scales N11,364 to N14,052 per annum, 14 out of 19 (or 73.7%) agreed while 2 (or 10.5%) disagreed. As for top librarians in grade 15 N14,280 to N15,000, 5 out of 6 (or 83.3%) indicated their support without disagreement. The only dissenting voice indicated 'don't know'.

On the whole, although it could be said that librarians working in universities have managed to preserve their prestige by attaining their

Present positions and the accompanying salaries, there are clear signs that the disparity in position adjustments is increasingly a cause for concern in professional circles. Some writers<sup>10,11,12,13</sup> have identified the problem as being that of professional identity and hence called for "full" academic status for complete coverage of the conditions of service pledged by the institutions.

In a memorandum prepared by the senior library staff at Ahmadu Bello University and circulated to the university's administrators and Heads of Departments, the librarians argued that the professional librarian's function was 'purely academic' even though he engages in minimum (if any) teaching. According to the protesting librarians:

We professional librarians have always been acting as academic by nature of our functions, which are basically research and service ... We would continue to carry out our functions through research and service so as to produce the necessary data/information and materials for effective teaching and research work in the university. As the university has two basic categories, academic and administrative we professional librarians would not mind being placed under any of the categories as the university sees fit.<sup>14</sup>

Although it would seem that the professional librarians placed themselves at the mercy of the authorities, it was not without proviso. They demanded to 'enjoy the same career structure as for the teaching category, and asked for 'no discrepancy in remuneration'.<sup>15</sup> Unfortunately, the librarians themselves were not positive enough to identify with their function - a prima facie case of problem identity. Equating the grades of Librarian I to Lecturer I and Librarian II with Lecturer II, even senior librarian with senior lecturer as the librarians proposed in their memorandum will not solve the problem of functional status if they cannot convincingly identify the work they do in terms of knowledge and research.

With the problem encountered in positively identifying their work with the organisation served, Nigerian university librarians have faced a dilemma not only in terms of function but crucially that of placement within the organisation. Nwafor's satirical observation on the situation deserves mention; he states:

It seems to me that the snake which has bitten our colleagues in the public libraries has brushed their university counterparts with its tail (Nigerian

proverb). The latter remain uncertain as to their exact role. A clear manifestation of this confusion is that some of them are not sure, to date, whether their functions have an academic content or are largely administrative ... Until academic librarians seek, discover, and satisfy the needs of the community they serve, they cannot hope to have the status they think they merit.<sup>16</sup>

Clearly the hint is that academic librarians, duly influenced by their work environment, are out of balance in their social and educational objectives - for instance, how far should one go from the other in the search for status? Comparatively, many librarians in special libraries benefit from the salary scales and conditions of service accruing to the organisation and therefore do not operate in grade levels as their colleagues in public service but does this detract from their service objectives? University library staff similarly benefit from reasonably standard salaries and, by far, more generous service conditions than their counterparts working in public libraries, school or national library. Most library professionals have their salaries linked with those of their teaching colleagues though the former may not require high level publications for promotion as the latter would according to the university system. As Bengé observes, there are clear advantages and disadvantages of academic grading depending on circumstances and the level of posts.<sup>17</sup>

If the librarian in an academic environment is desirous of academic status, the present role uncertainty will have to be resolved and the librarian must then define his functions in relation to overall library objectives and, in particular, in recognition of the phenomenon of professionalisation which is present in library work by derivation from librarianship's generic relationship with the world of learning, thus strengthening its claim as a learned profession. In order to define their role effectively, and evaluate library work characteristics in the light of the definition, librarians in academic libraries need to face political realities<sup>18</sup> in their institutions as a means to achieving recognition in the claim to academic status.

A case in point of possible political action was spelled out by Salisu:

Librarians are eligible for membership in the Nigerian Association of University Teachers (NAUT). In addition, librarians at the university play an

important role in the Nigerian Library Association (NLA) and have held offices at the local and national levels.<sup>19</sup>

Unionisation and involvement with professional association activities thus seem an effective political avenue from which to strive for the required status.

Unionisation and political striving may be against Foskett's famous advocacy of 'no politics, religion, or morals',<sup>20</sup> for the librarian but such striving strikes at the root of the problem of recognition. According to Burrell:

Since librarians carry out no gubernatorial role in local government, academic institutions or industrial firms and since their service does not produce any significant revenue, they can earn respect from their peers in other departments only by sheer effort and force of character: superlative performance is usually quickly taken for granted.<sup>21</sup>

Librarians should therefore not only be seen but heard from the lofty positions they occupy; for example, a "University Librarian" with professorial rank and a "Director of Library Services" also with professorial rank, have degrees of manoeuvrability in influencing decisions in their various organisations. By involving their immediate professionals in decision matters relating to professional development and engaging them in the task of enhancing professional prestige, the status question would have been tackled with 'superlative performance'. However, not many library chiefs are wholly in support of unionisation nor any form of political striving, and ironically, these factors which greatly influence status attainment also contravene the altruistic principles of professionalism.

#### 4.3 Salary

The grading definition of librarians according to salary scales and library positions is one of the most significant factors of status concerns. In principle, gradings closely reflect job descriptions and specification of duties, responsibilities, skills, qualifications, and special expertise of the individuals serving the organisation. Usually the principles guiding any grading exercise are followed strictly in academic communities where the appropriate factors are taken into account. However, in the public and government sectors of librarianship, hybrid posts exist which place the salaries and posts of librarians in clerical and administrative categories rather than any professional

grading. Thus, a library staff may describe himself as "College Librarian" when indeed his skill and qualification are much less than that which qualifies him to be a professional. The librarian's salary is also closely related to the scales of clerical executive officers, senior and higher executive officers and other administrative scales.

The situation whereby professional librarians are placed in clerical grades is regarded universally as undesirable. For instance, in the United Kingdom, the Library Association's Manpower and Conditions of Service Committee in liaison with the Joint Negotiating Committee (NJC) have jointly conducted a national review of the existing grading prescription for librarians so as to determine whether it is relevant to the changing needs of the library service.<sup>22</sup> The obvious concern is with local authorities who seem to place librarians below the minimum scales recommended by the profession. Similar recommendations urging academic gradings for college library staff have also been initiated by the Library Association.<sup>23,24</sup> These efforts by the professional body are in direct response to the needs of the membership as well as providing a safeguard for the profession's status in public service. Similar safeguards could be provided to educate employers on gradings for the different category of library professionals in Nigeria.

Furthermore, the lack of uniformity in Nigerian university library gradings and salary scale is a potent factor in the current stream of mobility of librarians in the universities since professionals seek better pay and conditions of service elsewhere where such provision exists.

Thus, in terms of occupational status the sociological explanation is that remuneration is greatly influenced by other equally significant factors such as educational qualifications.<sup>25</sup>

#### 4.3.1 Background developments

It is necessary to trace developments in the remuneration of the librarian in Nigeria because this will throw some light on the present situation.

In terms of occupational status by remuneration, the first obstacle that militated against the professional development of librarianship in Nigeria occurred in 1956 when George Randall issued his report

in which librarianship was given a non-professional status.<sup>26</sup> As a result of this classification a disparity existed in their remuneration vis-à-vis other professionals. While the professional scale at the time was £624-£1,380 per annum, librarians were placed on the scale £564-£922 per annum. This unattractive remuneration repelled new entrants into the profession although after a protest by the professional association the anomaly was rectified.<sup>27</sup>

In 1974, the profession suffered another set-back in its quest for status through appropriate remuneration. The Udoji Public Service Review Commission<sup>28</sup> issued a report on unified salary scales in which librarians working in universities were downgraded by one level. Until then, they were at par with their academic colleagues.

With respect to librarians in public, government and national libraries, they received major improvements in their salaries (Appendix I). According to Oderinde;

Apart from the (Udoji) improved salary scales which compare favourably with those of other occupations and professions, the security of tenure of service of public officers was assured and generous gratuities and pensions were established for all officers who reached the voluntary retirement age of 45 years and have served for a total period of ten years.<sup>29</sup>

However jubilant the public librarians were, the report cast a shadow on academic librarianship and a storm of protest followed Udoji's directive that 'library staff should be regarded for this exercise as administrative, until re-grading by the Public Service Review Unit'<sup>30</sup>. The Review unit headed by Williams partially improved the gradings of librarians by raising the salary scale of senior librarians by one level while lowering the scale of intermediate staff such as Senior Library Assistants by one level (Appendices II and III).

In October 1980, the Federal Government was forced by strike action at the universities to set up a Presidential Commission on Salary and Conditions of Service of university staff. As librarians are members of the Academic Staff Union of Nigerian Universities, various representations were made on their behalf. Having heard similar representations by all categories of staff in the universities, the government appointed a Commission comprising Dr. S.J. Cookey (Chairman), Chief G. Akin-Deko, Alhaji S.U. Bakari, Alhaji H.R. Zayyard, Mr. G.C. Okogwu (Members), and Mr. C.B.A. Ench (Secretary) and mandated the Commission:

- (i) To undertake a comprehensive study of the conditions of service in the universities and carry out job evaluation of university staff, and having regard to the salaries of academics elsewhere in the world and the international needs for these academics, to recommend a relevant salary structure for all categories of staff (academics, senior administrative and supporting secretarial staff and technical staff and junior staff). Having regard to the recommended conditions in the universities vis-à-vis the rest of the public service benefits for all university staff ...
- (iv) To review the overall structure, method of payment and level of both capital and recurrent grants allocated to the universities and to recommend a financial arrangement which insulates the universities from the difficulties that could arise from unexpected drops in the levels of government grants.
- (v) To advise generally on other issues which might lead to a healthy working environment in the universities as well as a satisfied and committed university staff population.<sup>31</sup>

Following this mandate the Cookey Commission submitted its report in 1981. Part of the recommendations are reproduced here due to their importance:

- The Commission recommended that the University system should be de-harmonised from the unified public service.  
(Chapter 3 Rec.1);
- That the present grade level system 01 to 17 be abolished for the universities and a new University System Scale (USS) 01 to 15 introduced;  
(Chapter 3 Rec.2)
- That the National Universities Commission (NUC) should undertake the study of the structure of the university administration with a view to broadening the career prospects in the Registry, the Bursary, the Library, the Medical Services, and Works Departments and advise the university system accordingly;  
(Chapter 3 Rec.9)
- That the practice of aligning the salary scale of the administrative other professionals and technical staff with those of academic staff will continue;  
(Chapter 3 Rec.10)<sup>32</sup>

As indicated in the recommendations which were accepted by the government, librarians were effectively placed in the administrative

category although its adoption was left to the modalities of individual university institutions. But professional status was enhanced by considerable improvement in librarians' salaries when compared with previous Commission reports (Appendix IV). However, it should be pointed out that librarians suffered a reduction in parity gradings with their teaching colleagues as shown in Table 4.7. Individual universities duly adjusted their gradings in terms of salary and positions but in doing so have created the need for sampling the different gradings, so as to determine the extent of the differences (Tables 4.8 to 4.10). For instance if one compares the grade of Librarian II - USS 08 the disparity in salary and rank becomes obvious with Federal University of Technology, Abookuta and University of Nigeria, Nsukka offering lower ranks and lower salary compared with the others.

#### 4.3.2 Respondents' salary by qualifications

It is generally assumed that staff grading is usually dependent on external variable factors such as educational qualifications. Recent research on Nigerian librarianship suggests that salary is 'to some extent' related to librarians' qualifications<sup>33</sup>. Nzotta states:

... a higher percentage of those without a degree (A.L.A. (holders)) or with first degree only (B.L.S., other) than the rest are on level 08 or 09. However with regard to those with higher qualifications it does not follow in all cases that the higher the qualification, the higher the percentage of those receiving the highest salaries or vice versa. This suggests that while qualification may be a significant factor in the determination of an individual's salary there are other factors that are equally important.<sup>34</sup>

It has been possible to identify the other determinants of an individual's salary in this present work. Apart from qualifications, the individual's work experience is vitally important, and so too is the level of his task performance which could either improve his salary status or stagnate it depending on the nature of staff evaluation in the establishment.

In the sample survey, respondents qualifications were categorised under broad graduate/nongraduate dichotomy thus:

- With degree and qualified
- With degree but unqualified
- No degree but qualified
- No degree and unqualified.

'Qualified', for the purpose of the survey implies the respondent as being in possession of a recognised professional diploma or certificate in library and information studies. Those with degrees are assumed to possess anything from Bachelors, Masters to Doctorates; those with professional qualifications have ALA; PGDip. Lib., Dip.Lib., and Certificate in Librarianship. Appendices V and VI are used as basis for salary analysis.

As illustrated in Table 4.11, respondents qualifications compared with salary in academic libraries, a high percentage of 72.1% was recorded for those with degrees and who are qualified as against the 27.9% of those without degrees but who are qualified. The pattern that emerged clearly showed those with degrees are receiving the highest salaries and vice versa for those without. For instance, none of those without degrees are ranked in the senior USS scales 11, 13, 14 and 15 and only 2 (or 6.9%) of them are placed in USS 12.

At least 30.7% of graduates are placed in the beginning ranks of 07-09 on the salary scale N5,136 - 8,040 suggesting that qualification may not be the only factor determining their placement. By contrast, a large total of 79.3% of nongraduates are ranked in USS 07-09 earning the same salary as their graduate colleagues. 48.3% of this total are placed in USS 07 earning N5,136 - 6,216. If one compares this level of earning with those of the same rank and qualification status in national/state, public and ministry libraries (Appendix I), one would find that at their Grade Level 07 they currently earn N2,832 - 3,552 even though there is an overall salary review exercise at present being undertaken. How do both groups differ in their task performance?

A further analysis of the middle management grades of USS 10-12 reveals that a total of 34.7% of graduates are in this category earning N8,148 - 11,352 compared with 20.7% of nongraduates on the same salary scale. This suggests that those with degrees have brighter career prospects than those without, as USS 12 appears to be the bar for the nongraduates.

The widening gap in status between the two groups is further illustrated in the top USS scales of 13-15 (N11,364 - 15,000) where an overwhelming 96.3% of respondents in this rank are graduates in line with tradition in university library establishments. This implies that

the only way forward for the junior professionals without degrees is for them to upgrade their present qualifications to degree status, but there are severe restrictions along that route. For instance, the granting of study leaves and at times sponsorship is timed in rotation of say two or three employees a year and in some libraries none at all. The pattern of graduate/nongraduate distribution at top and middle level management in libraries surveyed is indicative of the general existing pattern in Nigerian libraries.

With regards to respondents from other libraries other than academic (Table 4.12), it is clear that the graduation trend is gradually making an important impact on staffing levels. 35.2% of graduates are placed in the beginning scales 07-09 (N2,832 - 5,640); 29.7% in levels 10-12 (N5,760 - 8,052); 21.6% in the top levels 13-14 (N8,064 - 9,024); and, 13.5% in the highest levels of 15-16 (N10,296 - 12,720).

However, the pattern of nongraduate distribution is remarkably similar to those of academic libraries which showed considerable low level participation of such staff in top management positions. 64.0% of nongraduates are placed in the beginning career grades of 07-09 earning N2,832 - 5,640. A further 32.0% are placed in grade levels 10-12 (the seemingly maximum middle-level position attained by this category of staff) earning N5,760 - 8,052. Perhaps it should be pointed out that a majority of those in this middle grade have the 'old' A.L.A. qualification and therefore have varying opportunities to upgrade their qualification to degree status in British or American schools affording such opportunities, since no Nigerian institution has at yet allowed for such flexibility. Only 1 (or 4.0%) of nongraduates is placed in grade levels 13-14 (N8,064 - N9,024).

Of significance, though minimum effect on overall results, is the incidence of statistics for a different category of nongraduates without degrees and unqualified. It was found that this category of staff, who would normally be below the ranks, are placed in professional scales: 1 (or 33.3%) in the beginning grade levels of 07-09 and 2 (or 66.7%) in grades 10-12. According to their library experience as indicated on the completed questionnaires, the respondents in this category average between them at least fourteen years library practice and have therefore been rewarded for their contribution as their rank and salary placement indicated.

When put into historical perspective, the graduatisation trends in public service librarianship could not have happened in the sixties and early seventies due to the small scale supply of professional librarians by the two existing library schools in Nigeria at the time. Evans, and others sharing her school of thought, argued that public libraries do not need graduate librarians<sup>35</sup>, but a recent relevant research has once again thrown the issue wide open from the finding that the majority of public librarians surveyed (69.3%) were graduate professionals, a factor which according to the author shows 'the overwhelming strength of the trend towards a graduate profession'<sup>36</sup>. But it has become even more pertinent to ask what professional librarians (graduate or non-graduate status) actually do. An occupational survey would show the level of staff utilization and this can in turn be related according to variables of work factors, qualifications and salary in the assessment of status attainment.

For instance, if as the argument goes, graduate librarians are not essential in public library services, why is there presently such a high level of graduate presence in the service sector who after all have the opportunity of seeking challenges elsewhere in the library and information services. The country is still considerably short of manpower for library services, why then it may be asked, are graduates involved in such numbers as Nzotta found in public service librarianship. A parallel soul-searching was evident in Jeffries's observation of the trend in the United Kingdom:

I have never understood why librarians are so proud of doing low-grade work. It is obviously some sort of puritanical work ethic, and I have met many (graduate) librarians who are overwhelmingly self-righteous about doing work which is not merely below the level of their qualifications (which is of no significance whatever) but also below the level of what they are being paid to do (which is very significant)<sup>37</sup>.

Prominent from the author's observation is the question of determining staff utilization on the basis of what professional librarians are paid to do. The element of pay may at present be clear but not what librarians do to earn that pay. It would seem that those who obtained their professional degrees especially through an upgrading course did so expressly for the purpose of improving, first their salary, and second, their ranks within the organisation. The third motivation

element which is not often in their list of priorities for attending an upgrading course, is a declared interest in aspects of their library and information work and how this could be sufficiently advanced and improved upon in order to meet the needs of the organisation. This attitude probably explains why so few are achieving the topmost grades and why there is an increasing number of graduate concentration in the beginning positions of library and information career. The situation has changed from the beginning of the eighties (1981/82) when very few librarians were noticeably achieving top grades, e.g. 15-16. From the survey results, 13 out of 37 (or 35.1%) respondents who are graduates have now attained top grades beginning from levels 13 to 16 in public service librarianship, thereby earning per annum (N8,064 - 12,720). 13.5% of these earn the topmost salary within the range N10,296 - 12,720.

Thus, the conclusion seems that to reach the top grade university librarian post which is equivalent to professor in universities, the professional would have to be a graduate and be socially, educationally, and politically influential as to effect organisational policy in favour of continually improving status for librarians. The intellectual requirement is nonetheless important but less essential in other service points of the profession such as national/state, public, government and perhaps, special libraries. In general, it would be beneficial to conduct, appraise and formulate essential theory as regards work factors and job characteristics of the librarian and how the environment influences professional attitude (c.f.: chapters 5 and 6).

#### 4.4 Sex Factor

Much has been written in the professional literature concerning the role of sex stereotypes in status concerns of the professions<sup>38-44</sup>. Certainly much of the concern and divergence of views seem to focus on the sex stereotype and public image of librarians, which as many argued, have been a major obstacle to full professionalization.

In terms of public image, Greenwood asserts that:

The laity also entertain a stereotypic image of the professional group. Needless to say, the layman's conception and the professional's self-conception diverge widely, because they are fabricated out of very different experiences. The layman's stereotype

is frequently a distortion of reality, being either an idealization or a caricature of the professional type.<sup>45</sup>

In less than ideal situations, librarians have found themselves struggling with their public image. This "struggle" for status derives from the public's feminine perception of library and information work. Thus sex stereotype, like other variable factors such as pay (salary), positions (career), and qualification (education), is a major factor of status concern.

As Bowden observes;

To the ordinary man in the street the image of the public librarian is incapsulated ... in the words of children recently involved in a research project on user education in a deprived and run-down area of Eastern London as a lady wearing glasses and with her hair tied behind her head in a bun.<sup>46</sup>

Similar "feminist" image of librarianship exists in the United States of America as vividly portrayed in Garrison's characterisation of 'the still-prevailing concept of the timid, female librarian of yesteryear (often caricatured "wearing floor-length skirts and a bun")'.<sup>47</sup> Bengé adds his contribution;

... we should not ignore the fact that professional status is adversely affected by feminisation. It is possible (although a matter of conjecture) that the status of librarians in the U.S. is lower than in the U.K. because of the much higher proportion of women working in American libraries. From the status point of view this is undesirable, not because women make less capable librarians, but because in a world where women are still underprivileged and likely to abandon a career in favour of marriage, a profession which does not attract men in sufficient numbers inevitably suffers in public esteem. In Britain there has been a steady decline in the percentage of men joining the profession, a trend which seems likely to continue ...<sup>48</sup>

Ritchie's study on the career aspirations of women in British libraries supports Bengé's views on the domination of the library profession by women. For instance, Ritchie found that 73% of the library (staff) population are women with 60% working in public libraries. As to their achievements in library career, the author found that:

At Level 1 (the top-Chiefs, etc.) the ratio was 98 males to 2 females; at Level 2 (Deputy and Regional Librarians, etc.), it was 85 to 15, and at Level 3 (Branch and Assistant Librarian, etc.) it was 79 to 21. The major salary band for men overall was AP5; for women AP3/4 ... women predominated in part-time

work and as unqualified personnel.<sup>49</sup>

But as the data suggests, female domination is not much from professional viewpoint where their status attainment is low but in support services where the predomination occurs. Public image of the librarian is therefore probably influenced by the high level of contact between the public and the supportive staff who are largely nonprofessional and have large numbers of women in their ranks.

DeWeese has examined the role of "feminist" image in status concerns of male and female librarians and found that the effect of feminisation showed little impact on the status concerns level of both sexes. The level of association between sex and status concern was found to be low and statistically insignificant in his study.<sup>50</sup>

However, in contrast to Ritchie's assertion that there is no more than a minimal bias towards male superiority in terms of better qualifications, ambitions and length of service, Nzotta in a parallel study of Nigerian librarians found that:

Women are not adequately represented at the top level. Generally there is a much higher percentage of men than women at the higher levels. Thus 14% of the men and 6.8% of the women are on salary grade levels 13 and 14. Similarly, 7.8% of the men and 1.1% of the women occupy the topmost positions.<sup>51</sup>

The findings so far in studies examined do not lend weight to the view that the "feminist" image of the library profession has an adverse effect on achieving full professionalization. Rossi states that:

Any occupation in which there is a high proportion of women suffers a special disability ... women depress the status of an occupation because theirs is a depressed status in the society as a whole.<sup>52</sup>

In supporting this generalisation, Asheim was cautious in his own assessment by stating that his support for Rossi's views should not be seen as an attack on the abilities of women but on the stereotypic approach of the society on women's role - an approach that is so stereotyped in view of "feminine" characteristics 'that the criteria for professional status would seem not to be fulfilled in an occupation which women predominate'.<sup>53</sup>

Against this background investigation of sex stereotype and the public image of librarianship, the survey data on the sex factor in Nigeria's library professionalism will now be examined.

#### 4.4.1 Male/Female Pattern in Nigerian Librarianship

As shown in Table 4.13, there appears to be a clear male domination of the library profession in Nigeria with 62.4% of respondents being males and 37.6% females. The assessment made here does not take account of both sexes working in nonprofessional positions in the libraries, i.e. at grade levels below 07 which is the beginning scale for professionals.

When further examined by library types, one finds that 62.1% of respondents from academic libraries were males with 37.9% females. In national/state libraries, 61.3% were males and 38.7% females. Similar pattern recurred at public/government libraries with 64.7% males and 35.3% females. However, the pattern in special libraries showed a close correlation with only a slight margin of significance as the results indicated 52.9% males and 47.1% females, the only library type to have such close correlation. The pattern at school and college libraries surprisingly showed male domination with a large percentage of 80% and 20% for females. As part of the sex stereotype, undesirable though it may seem, women are usually more interested in children librarianship and services to schools and colleges in general, but such stereotype has been proved wrong in this context.

The survey findings suggest that the effect of feminisation is yet to be felt in Nigerian librarianship. This implies that it is not a factor that could adversely affect the professionalisation of librarianship in Nigeria. Similarly, although the data suggests, in addition, an upward trend in the number of males serving in all library types, females have also maintained their professional existence in steady rather than fast growth.

#### 4.4.2 Age and sex in status concerns

Age is of importance as a corollary to the sex factor in the study of status concerns. In the search for status, a profession should show evidence of a broad-based age grouping within its ranks. Fresh ideas induced by youthful enthusiasm is as good for the profession as old but wise-counselled ideas. For continuity purposes, it is essential to groom younger generations of professionals in preparation for future changes which may affect the circumstances of practice and possibly alter the basic traditions of the profession. A matured profession

will display willingness to absorb the broad-based principles of age grouping for the reasons stated.

In context of the survey, Table 4.14 shows that the highest concentration of male and female professionals occurred in age group 41-45 with 65.9% males and 34.1% females from a total of 41 respondents who placed their response under the age group.

Furthermore, in age group 36-40, 21 out of 38 respondents (55.3%) were males and 17 (or 44.7%) females. The correlation of the sex pattern in this age group is fairly close with 4 (or 10.6%) margin. Similar small differences were recorded for age group 21-25 with 66.7% males and 33.3% females. However, equal percentages of males (50.0%) and females (50.0%) professionals were recorded for age group 26-30.

There were poor returns for the age groups 46-50 and 50 plus respectively with 7 out of 11 (or 63.6%) for males 4 (or 36.4%) for females; and, with regards to 50 plus group, males outnumbered females by 3:1 with 75.0% for males and 25.0% for females.

The value of a stereotypic approach to the analysis of sex and age does not seem to have significance as the distribution pattern of both sexes suggests a fair grouping which is consistent with the male dominance pattern that evolved in the study of the sex factor in section 4.4.1.

In Table 4.15, the age group of respondents is analysed by library types. The results indicate that those with the highest percentages in the age groups work in academic libraries. For example, it is illuminating to find that respondents in age groups 46-50 and 50 plus all were from academic libraries without any other placement from other libraries. Overall, the status of the profession is greatly enhanced with the evidence shown to reflect equal distribution and close correlations of those in age groups 26-30, 31-35, 36-40 and 41-45. This suggests that no bias exists in factors of age and sex in the ranks of professionals.

#### 4.5 Professional organisation

In any evaluation of factors of professionalism in specific occupations, an analysis of the professional organisation is sine qua non.

Flexner<sup>54</sup> in his 1915 catalogue of characteristics of the professions provided an assumption that a profession was intellectual and carried with it personal responsibility for the exercise of choice and judgement; and, the professional practice include a number of techniques or skills by means of which the knowledge acquired could be applied to solve relevant problems. Flexner summed up by totalising the intellectual and practical functions of the profession under the direction and guide of an organised body of associations of practitioners.

Against the background of Flexner's study Carr-Saunders and Wilson investigated further the characteristics of the professions in terms of their organisation and place in society. While they concurred with the characteristics raised in Flexner's study, the authors failed to observe that:

the rise of the professions in the United Kingdom was undoubtedly strengthened by the conservatism of the universities, particularly Oxford and Cambridge. Professional associations were founded partly because there existed no possibility of training students in the new techniques required by the new professions other than in courses organised by the professional associations themselves.<sup>55</sup>

From this viewpoint it is clear that the growth of professional associations was stimulated by the education and training objectives of the professions. Hilliard suggests that there were other factors of motivation in the development of professional associations:

In considering the activities of any professional body it is helpful to visualise two main concerns:

(1) concern to provide a framework for the development of the individual professional; (2) concern to influence the creation of the social framework within which the profession as a whole can develop.<sup>56</sup>

Based upon individual and professional development concerns the educational interests and activities of the Association at the pre-qualifying level are directed towards the training of the individual, and simultaneously towards seeking the provision of an institutional framework which will ensure that entrants of 'the appropriate calibre' will continue to be attracted to the profession and be trained in a manner which will ensure the future development of the profession. Thus, a strong Association in collaboration with training institutions must act as a vortex for recruitment into the profession.

With regards to a 'strong Association', Havard-Williams in an

address to the Nigerian Library Association at their Kano Conference in 1980, gave the British example of professional development of the Association for library and information professionals. The author states:

... the national registration of librarians has made a contribution to the standards of the profession, and I think is now making a contribution to its unity, for the qualifications of association or of university or of the Council for National Academic Awards, which lead with appropriate experience, to the Award of Associate of the Library Association, are now expected by employing authorities.<sup>57</sup>

In addition to its educational responsibility, the British library profession has a profound effect on public policy with members of the Library Association representing the view of membership on important legislative matters before government committees directly concerned with library provision throughout England and Wales (Chronological and other descriptive details of the Library Association's activities are contained in: <sup>58,59,60 and 61</sup>).

However Haslam, in his own consideration of the British Library Association, drew a parallel of the immense contribution of the organisation towards the improvement of salaries and conditions of service:

The Association has been very active in this service to members since the mid-thirties, but particularly during the last twenty-five years. It can claim, without undue modesty, that the status and general level of librarianship in society is higher today than it has ever been, and that both the image of the profession in the outside world and the respect in which it is held now attracts a higher level of entrant.<sup>62</sup>

Thus, status concerns in terms of professional organization are reflected in education and training, professional development, salaries and conditions of service, and the legislative status of the professional association. These are worthy principles that greatly enhance librarianship's claim to professionalism. Section 4.6 deals with the role, problems and achievements of the professional association in Nigerian librarianship strictly within the country's context. The survey returns are analysed and related to existing principles on professional organisation and how the professional body in Nigeria meets with or is lacking in any particular area of activity.

#### 4.5.1. Summary

The rationale of a professional organization for people working

within any field of activity derives from certain basic needs;

- (a) To develop and maintain up-to-date their basic knowledge;
- (b) To have some way to check whether they are keeping in touch with important developments;
- (c) To be able to establish credentials of capability accepted by fellow workers, employers and others with whom professional contact is made;
- (d) To gain recognition from fellow professionals and from current and potential employers and others of their status in the field.

In the field of librarianship, the analyses have shown that a professional association per se provides opportunities for fulfilment of these needs; the association also seeks to raise the status of the profession by:

- (i) Establishing published codes of professional conduct;
- (ii) Actively promoting the spread of information concerning the role and significance of the profession through interdisciplinary seminars, group meetings and colloquia;
- (iii) Establishing a tier structure of certificated membership and/or possessing full accrediting status for professional schools;
- (iv) Presenting a united view to government concerning matters affecting professional librarians such as in public policy issues of library legislation, salaries, conditions of service, and manpower planning (in terms of supply and demand of librarians).

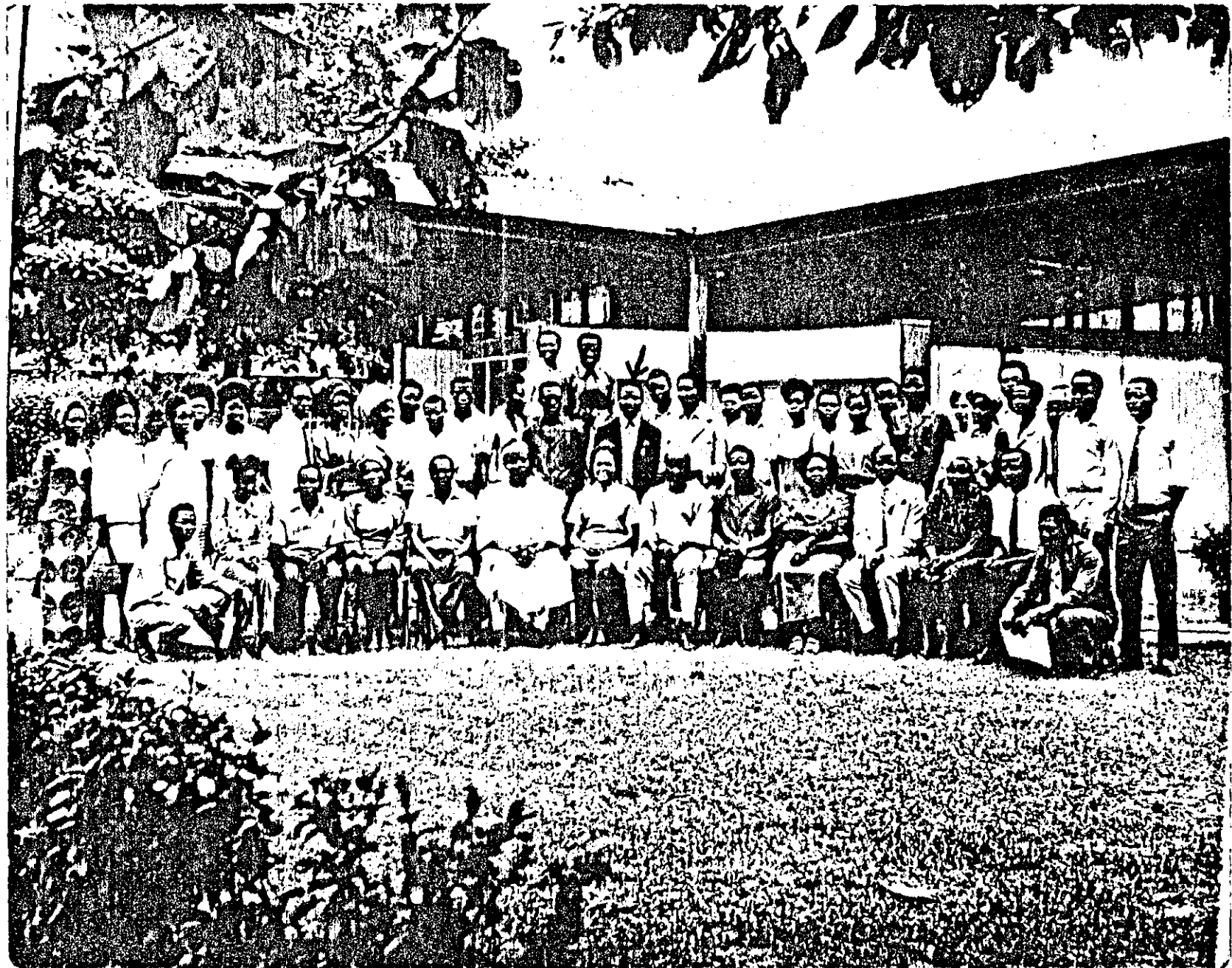
The above-enumerated principles have emerged from the collective study on the nature and role of professional organisations in the underlying concept of professionalism.

#### 4.6 Problems and role of professional organisation in Nigerian librarianship

The existing national professional association in Nigeria is the 'Nigerian Library Association' with headquarters in Lagos and Divisional Branches in most of the nineteen States in the Federation. The Nigerian Library Association (N.L.A.) is an offshoot of the defunct West African Library Association (WALA) which was initially organised on a regional basis by the Anglo-phone West African countries. Much has been written in the professional literature concerning the evolution of the Nigerian Association from historical perspective. <sup>63-66</sup>

From the available literature, one could assess the nature of the

MEMBERS OF THE NIGERIAN LIBRARY ASSOCIATION ( LAGOS DIVISION ) 1973\* :



\* Arrow points to the present writer.

problem librarians have had to face in their professional organization, such as: lack of government legislation to support the professional association; lack of a formal bureaucratic structure which will ensure the smooth-running of the organisation e.g. lack of secretarial infrastructure and staff, and above all, very loose control of registration of membership and professional education. These problems present a formidable barrier to the Association's attainment of full professionalization.

#### 4.6.1 Objectives of the N.L.A.

According to the constitution of the NLA the objectives of the Association are as follows:

- (a) To unite all persons interested in libraries and librarianship by holding conferences and meetings, by issuing publications and by any other means;
- (b) To safeguard and promote the professional interests of librarians and to promote the establishment of libraries;
- (c) To establish and maintain standards in the education and certification of librarians;
- (d) To watch any legislation affecting libraries and to assist in the promotion of such legislation as may be considered necessary for the regulation and management or extension of libraries within Nigeria;
- (e) To promote and encourage bibliographical study and research and library co-operation.<sup>67</sup>

The Association has consistently pursued most of the above objectives since its inception in 1948, but perhaps an obvious one where it has met with little or no success is objective (c) where, it was hoped, standards could be established and maintained in professional education. There are other areas which have drawn the attention of the Association's critics - those of 'legislation, continuing education, and library co-operation' elements<sup>68,69</sup>.

Thus, the objectives of the Association is clearly status-oriented. This being so, respondents' views were tested on the importance of professional associations and, in addition, the relative importance to library development in general. Would respondents for instance think that library development can unilaterally be sustained without the desired impetus of the professional association? These are searching questions of which library professionals themselves have not

had the opportunity to express their views.

As shown in Table 4.16, an overwhelming 160 (or 94.1%) of respondents in the sample indicated that professional associations are important for the library profession. Among those in this group were 102 (or 60.0%) males and 58 (34.1%) females. A statistically insignificant 6 (or 3.5%) respondents indicated professional associations as unimportant for the library profession and a similarly low response of 4 (or 2.4%) was recorded for those who were uncertain.

With regards to the importance of professional associations in relation to other aspects of library development (Table 4.17), the majority of respondents 106 (or 62.3%) disagreed that professional associations should be of more importance to the profession than other aspects of professional development such as library planning and legislation. In the category of those who disagreed 64 (or 37.7%) were males and 42 (or 24.7%) females. A comparatively lower response rate was recorded for those who agreed, with 40 (or 23.5%) returns. The sex distribution was closer in this category than any of the others with 23 (or 13.5%) males and 17 (or 10.0%) females. However, accelerated level of development of the country's library system could surely be facilitated by the existence of a strong and well-supported professional association. It may be argued further that despite the findings in this survey the importance of professional associations in respect of library development cannot be diminished since the organisation is the major link between the profession and public policy establishments in Federal and State governments, responsible for providing the development fund for libraries.

#### 4.6.2 Membership

From the survey results, 91.2% of respondents indicated that they are members of the Nigerian Library Association (NLA), while 15 (or 8.8%) are not (Table 4.18).

Further analysis by age group showed that those in the age group 41-45 scored the highest membership returns of 41 (or 97.6%). Similar active participation in the NLA by those in the age group 46-50 with 100% membership was reported. This is consistent with recent findings in a study of the career of leading librarians in Nigeria where those who were found to be most active in professional association

activities were in the age range 41 to 50<sup>70</sup>. As shown in Table 4.18, one may add that those over the age of 50 also scored 100% membership record suggesting a trend of support for the association by librarians in the senior age groups.

Surprisingly, younger librarians from age groups such as 26-35, and 36-40 also recorded high membership percentages. Consider, for example, 80.6% (26-30), 94.6% (31-35) and 89.5% (36-40). The findings contradict the general opinion of senior practitioners that the younger generation of librarians are neither interested in nor joining the membership of the NLA<sup>71</sup>.

The general trend at present points to most professionals being members of the professional association while very few are not. The highest recorded negative response to membership occurred in the age group 26-30 with 7 (or 19.4%) against. A similar low response was made in age group 36-40 with 4 (or 10.5%). Negative responses from the other age groups were found to be rather low to be of viable statistical significance. So, what are the reasons for non-membership on the part of respondents? All respondents with negative response on the question of membership were given an opportunity to use an open-ended space to explain in a few words the reason (or non-reason) for not being members of the NLA. Their comments are edited as follows (having regard to the key symbols G - graduate respondent; NG - nongraduate respondent):

No: Because it (NLA) is dormant, lacks the dynamism of a professional body and has done almost nothing to assist professional growth. (NG)

No active branch in my zone. (G)

Though member at one time, but not financial member at present because I am on leave of absence. (NG)

I do not feel there is a need for it. I am not satisfied with their performances. (NG)

Because there is no incentive towards own certification and professional career structure. (G)

NLA is at present more concerned with personalities and ethnic interests. (G)

It is a relief that some of the reasons are not as serious as they could be. For instance, in the case of the more serious ones, two were particularly outstanding: the issues raised on certification and professional career structure, and the question of personalities and the ethnic

interests' allegation. The Association must take cognisance of these issues if the objective of its existence is truly to serve the interests of individuals and enhance professional development. The vicissitudes of professional organisation commonly stem from membership problems as pronounced through lack of support.

As stated in its constitution, membership of the NLA is open not only to qualified librarians but also to all persons interested in libraries and librarianship. Dipeolu<sup>72</sup> and Oderinde<sup>73</sup> view this open-door policy as a sound and beneficial policy. But other writers tend to disagree. For instance, Nzotta has observed that the open-door policy 'tends to diminish the basic character and effectiveness of the NLA as a professional association'<sup>74</sup>. Furthermore, in an investigation of the American Library Association, Lundy<sup>75</sup> argues that:

Membership may be held in A.L.A., and hence in any of its divisions or member associations, according to its constitution, by "any person ... interested in library work ... upon payment of the dues provided for. Anyone with six dollars (1959) in his pocket and an inclination to spend this into the treasury of ALA, may thereafter produce his membership card as evidence of the fact that he is a librarian."<sup>76</sup>

In the context of the open-door policy as exemplified in the writers' work examined, librarians seem to have an evangelical approach to organization. Such evangelistic approach sometimes is reflected in the professional literature. For example, Oji states that:

By making its membership open to professionals as well as non-professionals, the NLA has gone a long way towards providing a large body of favourable public opinion for itself. This has been possible because every member undertakes to educate the general public about libraries and librarians.<sup>77</sup>

But one must view seriously the fact that large groups of ungraded and professionally unlettered membership adversely affect professional status. Oyemakinde views the open-door situation with dismay:

The criteria for membership must be clearly laid out and firmly enforced. Unlike the current practice of opening the gates of the profession to trained librarians as well as merely interested members, there should be no ambiguity over categories of participation.<sup>78</sup>

From this viewpoint, one may suggest that the open-door policy does not lend itself to esoteric sociological analysis on the professions, nor does it specifically add up to the status role of the professional associations. An enhanced registered membership duly certificated or

accredited by the professional association, with powers to enforce its code of conduct in check of any excesses of the membership, would go a long way in promoting professional status and improve the prestige of the profession as a whole.

#### 4.7 Areas requiring improvement in NLA activities

The strength and effectiveness of a professional association normally derives from the possession of any legal instrument by which powers and privileges are conferred by the state on a body of persons for a special object. As stated earlier in Section 4.6.1 the 'special object' of the Nigerian Library Association includes, among other things, the promotion of the establishment of libraries, the establishment and maintenance of professional education standards and, in the main, certification of librarians. These duties are most difficult to pursue in credible terms if the Association lacks the necessary state authority to do so. Besides, the lack of state authority also adversely affects the professionalization of the field of activity. Against this background, the NLA position could be examined.

##### 4.7.1 Legal recognition

The present status of the professional association (NLA) is currently undermined with its lack of state authority through legislation. As shown in Table 4.19, the worry of most members currently centres on this. Although multiple choice was allowed for respondents who are members of the NLA in answering the question on areas requiring improvement, a computation of the number of responses (in each area) with the total n figure for the question (154) showed the clear importance of legal recognition as an area where the NLA should seek urgent improvement. 126 responses (81.8%) were scored for the legal recognition factor. A closer examination by sex and salary variables showed, in the case of sex, that 84 (or 66.7%) of those who indicated legal recognition were males, and 42 (or 33.3%) females. A majority of them were in the USS Salary Scale conjointly with Public Service Unified Grade levels of 07-09 registering 53 (or 42.1%) scores. Those in other library ranks such as 10-12 scored 41 (or 32.5%), 13-14 with 22 (or 17.5%), and 15-16 with 10 (or 7.9%). A further analysis of their age groups revealed the dominance of the 41-45 group with 34 (or 27.0%) scored, followed by the 36-40 group with 28 (or 22.2%). Furthermore, it is clear that there was near-parity with those in the 31-35 group who ranked next to their immediate seniors with 27 (or 21.4%). Respondents

in the age group 26-30 also scored a high response with 21 (or 16.7%). The idea of legal recognition as an area of improvement for the NLA scored 100% each, from the two age groups 46-50 and 50 plus. It would seem that feelings are mutual on the issue of legal recognition. Some NLA members are sceptical of Nigerian government's lack of attention on the matter despite all overtures to it by the profession. One member quippishly refers to 'the Nigerian government's castration of the library profession through its lack of legal recognition for the pursuance of library objectives and public policy'<sup>79</sup>. The castrating effects are more than felt in the certification, education and training and public policies.

#### 4.7.2 Certification

The evaluation results under certification occur as a natural consequence of the unauthoritativeness of the professional association. In Nigeria, there is no official register of professionally qualified library and information personnel. The universities have shown the initiative in the certification of librarians and have thus dictated the pace and influenced the profession from their own advantageous position. Junior and beginning professionals obtain nongraduate diplomas and postgraduate diplomas (now M.L.S.) respectively, from the library schools. The cream of pioneer librarians obtained their valuably cherished A.L.A.'s and F.L.A.'s either from British institutions or by correspondence and thesis submission respectively. But change is in the air, and with the trend towards graduatisation the group of librarians with ALAs and FLAs are now largely discredited as possessing "irrelevant" and "defunct" certifications. The chapter on professional education has dealt with the value issues arising from such attitude from the viewpoint of curriculum content.

However, of significance in the question of certification is a test of whether or not the NLA's own certification is an improvement which its members will like to see initiated.

According to Table 4.19, the lowest response total was scored for certification as needing improvement. This is probably explained by the fact that many members are already qualified by obtaining degrees and diplomas from the library schools and therefore considered certification as an area of low priority with regards to improvement of NLA activities. The overall score for certification was 56 (or 36.4%), registered by 17

(or 30.4%) of those in the age-group 41-45; 13 (or 23.2%) by those in 36-40; 10 (or 17.8%) from 31-35 age group; and, 8 (or 14.3%) from age group 26-30. A high 70% of those in 46-50 scored (7 or 12.5%) on certification. As indicated in Table 4.20, the sex distribution showed male predominance with 35 (or 62.5%) males and 21 (or 37.5%) females. However, the trend that emerged from a further analysis of the scores on certification as compared with salary rank of respondents, showed that those in the middle and beginning grades favoured certification the most, with 21 (or 37.5%) recorded for rank 07-09; 16 (28.6%) for ranks 10-12; and, a fair level of support, though by no means resounding, in ranks 13-14 with 12 (or 21.4%).

#### 4.7.3 Education and training

In professional education, the raising of standards of qualifications for entry to the profession is another mark of a strong professional association<sup>80</sup>. In principle, concern with education and training should be one of the preferred priorities of a professional association; but in practice, the ideals are sometimes difficult to attain where for instance the association has no authority from government to control its education system or even influence the trends through the usual accreditation schemes. Thus, the normative can at times be vastly different from the positive application of rules in this respect.

Several of Nigeria's professions operate their own education and training schemes and further influence the universities in the academic and professional preparation of their practitioners. For example, the Nigerian Medical Association, operating through its General Council for Registration of Medical Practitioners, have influenced curriculum innovation in the medical schools attached to universities in the area of traditional medicine. The inclusion of traditional studies in the educational preparation of doctors (modern) and 'native doctors' (herbalists) presents a most interesting case for indigenisation of the curriculum which reflects local needs and suits traditional norms and standards. Although the issue of the education and training of 'native doctors' is by no means as yet conclusive due to the divergence of opinion and serious divisions that exist among the membership, it is clear that a progressive step has been taken by an association whose duty is to further the interests of the community as well as protect, advance and enhance the status of its members. Sadly, one cannot say the same for librarianship in relation to initiating bold steps in its

education and training activities.

Nigerian lawyers too have their own Law School similar in comparison to the Grays Inn, London. Lawyers hoping to be called to the Bar must excel in Nigerian traditional laws and customs and be quite conversant with contemporaneous issues of international law and Nigeria's place in it. The architects and engineers validate courses run at universities; in the case of engineers, COREN - the Council of Registered Engineers in Nigeria, overseas-trained engineers would not be registered until after two years practice in Nigeria, with the alternative that the professional excelled in his studies by obtaining first class or second class upper on a sandwich-based course. Furthermore, the Institute of Chartered Accountants of Nigeria (ICAN) also require those with overseas qualifications to pass examinations based on two papers on Nigerian Law and Nigerian Taxation, before they can proceed with registration. The Nigerian Institute of Management (NIM) initiate their own syllabus based on Nigerian business, economic and industrial experience but place great reliance in theory on esoteric principles generated from industrialised nations. The recent course validated by the body is the Master of Business Administration (MBA) degree course at Ibadan University, Nigeria. The above-mentioned professions openly display restrictive practices in controlling entry into the profession, but do librarians think that education and training provide the desired checks on entry into the profession?

Ogundipe argues that the NLA is looking at other directions:

Perhaps one of the most fundamental things that affect librarians and librarianship is professional training and education ... the profession can move more purposefully into areas of higher degree training and qualifications of librarians for subject specialist libraries and for special areas of documentation, archives, audio-visual, learning resources, school libraries, that are increasingly needing more librarians specially qualified in these areas.<sup>80</sup>

But surely the emphasis somehow seems misplaced if, as it is being conceived, to be a school librarian requires postgraduate qualification. As a concomitant to this expectation, a school librarian with undergraduate qualification may inadvertently be unable to fulfil professional registration requirements. This point begs the question of whether the association prefers to set levels of entry into the profession rather than influence control of the content of education, or is still

unprepared to assess the implications of a graduate entry in a country of uncomfortably low professional manpower supply in library and information services.

As illustrated in Table 4.19 education and training was regarded by respondents to be the next most important factor requiring improvement. The survey results showed that half the membership of NLA believed that it is an important area of possible improvement with 77 (or 50.0%) response rate. In this respect the lead was taken by those in the age group of 36-40 with 18 (or 23.8%), followed by those in 31-35 with 17 (or 22.1%). An equally close response of 16 (or 20.8%) was placed by those in the age group 41-45. A generous 80% of those in 46-50 age group placed their scores of 8 (or 10.4%) to add their approval of education and training as an area of NLA activity requiring improvement.

The sex pattern under responses for improvement in education and training (Table 4.20) showed a clear 51 (or 66.2%) male responses and 26 (or 33.8%) females. As indicated in Table 4.21, a clearer picture of salary rank than previously noted in other respects emerged with the bulk of responses firmly placed in the beginning and middle grades of 07-09 and 10-12 with 38 (or 49.3%) and 25 (or 32.5%) respectively.

Perhaps it is understandable for junior and middle-grade professionals to seek improvement in the profession's educational system. It augurs well for their status to be able to transfer from nongraduate to graduate status for example, a transfer is at present not possible under the present education system. Professor Havard-Williams<sup>81</sup> in his address to Nigerian library and information professionals threw some light on the situation by comparing United Kingdom achievements on the question of an education system which permits transfer of nongraduates to graduate status. He suggested that such educational system is a recent phenomenon designed to upgrade the qualifications of ALA holders, but stressed too that the achievement rests on years of work by the government department of Education and Science, and on a century of development of the LA - the professional association, which acted with the background of an already well-developed educational system in the country. The latter view of the author on an already well-developed educational system seems to be the key point of difference between the British achievement and the problems of their Nigerian counterparts. Certainly, as Ogundipe's statement indicates, the present low level of

achievement in this area is not for want of trying from the professional association's viewpoint;

The time has also come for us to re-examine and re-define for the present who is the professionally qualified librarian and what he is expected to be in terms of education, professional training and experience ... The NLA also should spell out who the para-professionals, the sub-professionals are ... But perhaps before doing this we must first consult our library schools to respond to a possible need for re-training our professional librarians where necessary. It should be possible for those with postgraduate Diplomas to convert to M.L.S. after a three to six month conversion course as was done in e.g. Sheffield in England and Western Ontario in Canada. Our library schools should also more positively think of conversion courses for non-graduates, so that our colleagues no longer have to trip off to London, Loughborough, Leeds, and other American Universities for university degrees.<sup>82</sup>

However, the professional association has been appealing the library schools since 1974 on the issue of conversion courses for nongraduates but all their recommendations and demands have since come to nothing, and the trend of nongraduate library staff travelling overseas to upgrade their qualifications in more flexible institutions is likely to continue for some years to come.

The professional association's (NLA) inability to influence change is thus exposed under education and training. But other factors still dominate the feelings of librarians.

#### 4.7.4 Public policy

The status of a professional association partly depends on the prestige of its members in the society at large, and the role they play within the society to effect the profession's policy. One of the many advantages of an open and democratic society with virtually unlimited resources is that evaluations of social progress come from a variety of sources. Government five-year plans may be useful for setting long-range goals; but in Nigeria as in other democratic countries, periodic reviews are conducted by commissions, journalists, and groups of scholars, who seldom parrot the preferences of an incumbent administration. It would seem that the great bulk of substantive problems before government are the result of the effects of human activity on the social and economic circumstances and change in the society.

One may argue further that the commencement of any study on policy must be the 'problem to government' stage. The number of public problems in the various service areas of the professions is so great as to be incalculable. Clearly, not all of these get on the agenda of government, particularly at the federal (national) level. The process by which some get there and others do not is extremely important because, as can be argued, problems are the inputs of the policy-making system, a system that is highly politicised.

In the sequence of this analysis, it can be assumed at this point that 'policy' exists, which, as can be further assumed, varies in form, intent and precision.

The kinds of public policy librarians get involved with are defined by legislation, remuneration and conditions of service, national commissions relating to libraries and library development, and ethical issues. Perhaps the most outstanding achievements of the NLA to date relate to the above public problems, and the effective way the Association seemed to have handled each situation.

The Udoji 1975 Report caused major divisions in the membership as some librarians working in universities had their salary scales reduced while those in public service enjoyed a unified rise with other service professions. Thus, there was no co-ordinated response to the government on the issue. The government works by Commissions which are usually composed of experts appointed to advise the government on new developments and, hence assess the current situation with as little prejudice as possible.

As discussed earlier in Section 4.3.1 the lessons of Udoji (1975), Williams (1976), and Cooke (1981) will remain indelible in the profession's history. The events exposed the disunity in the service ranks between public service librarians on one hand and university librarians on the other. But the library profession closed its ranks and the NLA fought the down-grading of librarians in the salary scale with considerable success. However, the degree of implementation of public policy still differs as observed by Odumosu in 1979:

In the present salary structure, a Library Officer starts on GL 08 (Grade Level 07) and ends in GL10 or 12 while a Librarian starts on GL 08 and can end in GL16. While this had been the postulation by the Federal Government on its White Paper on Udoji and Williams and Williams Reports that the professional should be able to attain GL16 at the end (of) his career this has not been so except in some States, public library services and in the universities. It is yet to be so in the Special or Research Libraries, Polytechnics and Colleges of Technology and Education sectors. In the post-military era one would like to see that the Head of a Special or Research Library is graded up to GL14 as Chief Librarian.<sup>83</sup>

While in 1983 it is true that implementation of the government's directive on an accelerated career structure for library professionals is local rather than national in its adoption, evidence has been produced in this survey indicating the increasing trend for those in special/research libraries towards attaining the topmost grades in their library establishments. As shown in Table 4.22, 25.0% of respondents were placed in GL13-14 in government and special libraries, while 20.0% were placed in the highest categories of GL15-16. Lower levels of achievement on the same scale can be noticed in the data for national/state and public libraries, with 9.7% and 3.2% respectively for GL 13-14 and 15-16 in national/state libraries, and 7.1% for GL13-14 in public. Appendices VII and VIII illustrate the improved grading system and designation of posts for librarians in the public service. It is clear from the designation of library posts and the salary scales that parity has been restored largely reflective of the professional association's representations to the government Commissions on the issues.

The status concern in university libraries was stirred by the down-grading of librarians one level below the scale of their teaching colleagues. Moreover, certain benefits, normally accruing from staff with academic status, were either withdrawn or stagnated in some universities. The professional association made representations, but it was with bodies such as the Academic Staff Union of Universities (ASUU) that librarians in those institutions made much impact. Several small though powerful associations were instrumental in providing the national association with a coherent response to the government Commissions thereby ultimately influencing the favourable policy that culminated in the restoration of parity for librarians in academic and public services (Williams, 1976; Cookey, 1981). The associations include: The National Association of University Librarians in Nigeria (NAUL); The National

Association of Agricultural Librarians and Documentalists (NAALD); Nigerian Association of Law Libraries (NALL); and, the Nigerian School Libraries Association (NSLA). The combined efforts of all the associations have assisted the NLA in fulfilling its public policy duties in the light of the above-mentioned events. It must be pointed out, however, that some elements of self-interests among and within the small associations almost marred a co-ordinated response to the government-appointed commissions on salaries and conditions of service.

Havard-Williams has warned on the dangers of policy fragmentation even though associations with sectional interests is a healthy development. Using Britain as an example, he states that:

We in Great Britain have ... particularly strong professional associations. What is not so good is that we have several of them. Hence, if lobbying is to be effective, there must be a certain co-ordination of effort in getting the views of the Library Association. For instance, reasonably consonant with those of SCONUL, ASLIB, the Institute of Information Scientists, the Society of Archivists and other groups, perhaps more specialised ... The difficulty is at once one of providing a united front on general policy, and yet, equally, providing for the development of specialist interests, and the representation of these several views in the formulation of overall policy.<sup>84</sup>

In order to aid its policy process and co-ordinate the views of its members, the NLA has called on the Nigerian government to establish a central policy body which will effect national information policy and, above all, create systematic channels of consultations between librarians and government and possibly other national agencies. Such a policy body would be called 'National Commission on Libraries'<sup>85</sup>, if the government responds positively.

Some librarians<sup>86,87</sup> in the United Kingdom have advocated 'political action' as against librarians' "usual passive neutrality" in using political action for easing the policy process. The writers argued that the library profession was not the first group to look at 'political action' within the role of a professional institution but they overlooked the sensitivity of librarian's position in his organisation which in most cases are public-funded. According to Carr-Saunders and Wilson:

There are certain broad issues of public policy concerning which, every citizen should be in a position to come to a decision ... Professional associations should not take sides on these issues, even if all members think alike; if they do so, they are inevitably suspected of being moved by political and not by professional motives ... and their influence with the public as experts is undermined.<sup>88</sup>

But if there is misunderstanding on the use of the term 'politics', Crawshaw<sup>89</sup> suggests that it rests on the "vulgarisation" of the term 'political' to mean activity connected with political parties when indeed it should be applied only to refer to situations where political action is required to resolve particular problems. If this view is accepted, it nullifies the concern Carr-Saunders and Wilson had on the subject.

However, with the reasonable degree of success by the NLA in pursuing its public policy role in professional development, it is not surprising to find that less than half of the membership (41.5%) indicated that an improvement is needed in this area of activity. As shown in Table 4.19 the highest score of 16 (or 25.0%) was placed by respondents in the age group of 41-45; this is followed by those of the age groups 26-30 and 36-40 both with 14 (or 21.8%) responses. Those in 31-35 group scored 20.3% responses, suggesting that overall, the concern on public policy was generally low. The sex distribution of returns as shown in Table 4.20, indicates that from the 64 total responses made under public policy, 38 (or 59.4%) were males and 26 (or 40.6%) were females. This shows a closer correlation than in the previous analyses. With regards to the salary rank (Table 4.21) 25 (or 39.0%) responses were made by those in the beginning grades 07-09. The downward trend continues as the library rank gets higher, for instance: those in ranks 10-12 scored 22 (or 34.4%); 13-14 scored 11 (or 17.2%) and the topmost librarians in levels 15-16 scored 6 (or 9.4%). In general, it would seem the majority of members (58.5%) are clearly satisfied with the NLA in its public policy role. The rest 41.5% who indicated that improvement is needed did so probably in anticipation of an increased political influence by the librarian on government policy makers. This position of power and influence is reflected in Thompson's Library Power:

The library has become a symbol of the freedom of thought and democratic ideas which have given power to the modern man ... the library profession does not in fact appreciate the true power in its interpretation of librarianship ... this is responsible for the lack of professional influence among librarians.<sup>90</sup>

The librarian is quite capable of being in a position of power and influence amongst his professional colleagues from other fields of activity. The NLA at present is making much effort to influence the government to confer on it a legal status which will enable the professional association to adequately fulfil its role in public policy matters and be able to enforce its own code of conduct and professional ethics for the practising librarian for the purpose of improving standards of practice and, consequently, improving services to all categories of clientele. To this end, the draft bill of the proposed legislation for librarians has been forwarded to the government for enactment into law. (The draft bill is attached as Appendix IX) The struggle for legislation, in effect public recognition, has been arduous. The present stage of affairs is a culmination of foundation work and restless efforts on the part of top professionals who are active and dedicated members of the Nigerian Library Association (such as: Professor John Harris, S.B. Aje, Kalu Okorie)<sup>91,92</sup>.

In terms of legislation in library development, the public policy role of the NLA has been active considering: the 1955 Act enacting the establishment of the "Eastern Regional Library Board and for purposes connected therewith"<sup>93</sup>; the 1964 National Library Act; the 1970 National Library Decree (which distinctly provided, inter alia, for the establishment of branches of the National Library throughout the country, whereas the earlier law (1964) had limited its activities to the Federal Capital Territory (Lagos) only) - the decree also provided for the publication of the 'National Bibliography of Nigeria'. Thus, the professional association had earned the right to seek its own legislation for librarians if only to improve upon its professionalization.

#### 4.7.5 Continuing education

Although the ultimate responsibility for continuing education rests with the individual, it is generally believed that the library profession has a corporate responsibility to society in providing opportunities easily available to all librarians who are motivated to a lifetime of learning. More pertinently, in the context of the role of the professional association (as opposed to that of the library school, an aspect already analysed in the chapter on professional education), there is pressure to bear in believing that the association has failed to satisfy the continuing education needs of all library types, especially the

public library, which has the brightest prospects for integrating new concepts of user behaviour and information needs both in oral and written forms.<sup>94</sup>

But as Klempner<sup>95</sup> found more than a decade ago, the lack of continuing education for librarians is a major factor in contributing to this inability to meet newly emerging user demands. On the part of individual librarians, relatively few have the opportunity, and perhaps the motivation, to attend short courses, seminars and workshops designed to improve their skills and up-date their knowledge in the field. Thus, with the present level of inadequacy of the NLA in vigorously supporting continuing education programmes, it is most disappointing to find that members surveyed did not consider that it was an area requiring much improvement.

As shown in Table 4.19, a rather low response of 63 (or 41%) was scored for continuing education. Of this category of respondents 19 (or 30.2%) - the highest recorded - are from 36-40 age group, closely followed by the 41-45 group, with 18 (or 28.6%) responses. Similar low scores were made by the age group 31-35 where a modest 11 (or 17.5%) of respondents indicated that improvement is now needed in the area of continuing education. According to Table 4.20, 35 (or 55.6%) of the total responses were made by males, and 28 (or 44.4%) by females. The salary rank Table 4.21 also presents a familiar picture with 32 (or 50.8%) scored in the grades 07-09 and 20 (or 31.7%) in 10-12. The low returns from the senior grade librarians suggest that those in the ranks 13-14 and 15-16 thought less of continuing education as an activity requiring improvement by the NLA. The findings are completely against expectations which have been based on an observation of the professional association activities as they relate to continuing education functions.

#### 4.7.6 Comments

In the short open space provided inviting comments on other areas for improvement not coded but which they would like fulfilled, respondents made the following comments:

The NLA should show greater leadership to the profession than it is doing now.

I recommend serious and sincere organization (i.e. structure and services) of the Association.

The establishment of library standards and professional ethics should be the priority of the professional association.

I will opt for the professional association's support for publishing vis-à-vis indigenous materials written in Nigerian language and, other books relevant to the Nigerian/African experience.

The NLA should seriously consider expediting a publishing programme solely for the profession and library schools.

Improvement required for presently inadequate policy for school library service.

Library co-operation policy, and, in general, unity among librarians.

Sustaining a professional journal of international repute.

Outreach - contact with non librarians.

The NLA should encourage rather than discourage groups formation within the parent body.

The above comments were made by professional librarians in all the ranks 07-16 and have been presented as a balanced selection of views on further areas requiring improvement in NLA activities.

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## CHAPTER FIVE

### 5. LIBRARY AND INFORMATION WORK: CHARACTERISTICS

#### 5.0 Background

The evaluation of factors of professionalism in Nigerian librarianship, as in any other field of activity, must include the analysis of work characteristics of librarians and the environment in which work is carried out. The underlying assumption is that both the work characteristics and the work environment greatly influence the attitude of the librarian towards his organisation and the profession as a whole.

In order to have as near accurate assessment as possible, the fieldwork was conducted in Nigeria. This provided an opportunity to sample different job descriptions available in all libraries visited; similarly, the fieldwork provided an opportunity to collect on-the-spot job information and determine which aspects of work and its environment present the major variables for evaluation. In this connection, the main descriptors for library tasks were found to be identical with those in use in libraries in 'developed' parts of the world such as the United Kingdom<sup>1</sup> and United States of America<sup>2</sup>.

Thus, the main objective of this chapter is to examine the level of professional utilization of library staff in the work they are assigned; the nature of the work itself; the environment, from which the work-centred factors that influence professional attitude can be assessed; and, the attendant long-term main interests of the survey respondents in library and information work. It is expected that the extent of professionalization can be determined as a result of the investigation. To this end, the essential task divisions and their performance by professional and non-professional library staff have been separately evaluated in Chapter 6 in view of the depth of information and analysis involved. This follows the supposition that 'professional service functions must be made clearly primary, and distinguished from non-professional, secondary institutional functions'.<sup>3</sup>

#### 5.1 Previous related work

In 1958, Mallaber<sup>4</sup> surveyed the professional and nonprofessional aspects of librarianship in a government library. The survey was concerned with services to civil servants and thus, the content on administrative duties was high. Mallaber found that professionally qualified staff were employed only to do professional duties and that the value of the work done 'more nearly approximated to the salary paid'.<sup>5</sup>

In relation to the public library, McClellan<sup>6</sup> based his studies on that by Dr. Savage who found that the jobs requiring a degree of professional training amounted to only one-third of the whole. In comparing Savage's findings with his own, the author concluded that there were similarities. He found that 'when the different categories of work are allocated over professional and nonprofessional staff, the most economic distribution of duties is less easy to assess and consequently less likely to be achieved'.<sup>7</sup> Although the studies by Mallaber and McClellan were purely descriptive and lacked the essential methodology by which they could be tested, their investigation and findings were pertinent to the stage of library development at the time of their study.

In 1971, Rotherberg<sup>8</sup> and her colleagues conducted an investigation into the work patterns of professional and nonprofessional library employees in the health sciences libraries in the United States of America. A 'job-task' index was designed to measure the extent of respondents' involvement in twenty-seven library related jobs. Four thousand professional and nonprofessional employees in two thousand one hundred health sciences library were surveyed using the job-task index developed to measure the professionalism of the respondents' involvement with work. The authors found that library personnel were often employed at jobs which were inconsistent with their professional status, income and age<sup>9</sup>. They also discovered that many chief librarians were involved to a large extent in nonprofessional tasks. This was explained by the fact that many of the chief librarians (39%) formed part of the numerous cases of one-person library operations in the libraries sampled.

In 1976, Sergeant<sup>10</sup> used job description derived from research covering the intellectual, social and physical demands of work and the work environment in libraries to determine factors which influence librarians professionally. Such factors reflect working conditions and what respondents considered to be the "best" and "worst" features of library and information work<sup>11</sup>. Job satisfaction among respondents was found to be low at 36% level of response.

40/ Part of the findings in Slater's study of 1980<sup>12</sup> concurred with those of Sergeant's. For instance, she too found that job satisfaction was low in the library and information field as 53% of the sample expressed dissatisfaction with their library jobs.

Nzotta<sup>13</sup>, in his recent research on the career and mobility of Nigerian librarians, has shown that significant gaps exist in the knowledge of job satisfaction levels of librarians:

... the resultant levels of job satisfaction derived from (librarians') professional careers and the factors determining the levels of job satisfaction attained have to be examined in providing better career prospects for, and deriving maximum output from librarians.<sup>14</sup>

The derivation of maximum output from librarians entails an understanding of the work elements as well as determining the librarian's own interests in professional activity. The two characteristics cannot be isolated if the professionalism of librarians is to be properly assessed in terms of their performance and attitude.

There is as yet a dearth of literature in the area of work characteristics of librarians, such as in job satisfaction, interests and motivations, and work analysis aspects. However, the few pertinent ones examined above are useful only to the extent that they highlighted the problem of low job satisfaction among librarians and in some cases point out low level utilization of professional staff, but are unspecific about the root cause in terms of librarians' own assessment of the work environment and their professional interests. These factors add up to the attitude of professional librarians and by implication the level of utilization in duties performed.

## 5.2 Work factor characteristics

Different work-centred factors influence librarians in their response to professionalism. Relationship with colleagues at work, contact with users and knowing them to the extent of being able to predict or anticipate their needs, inevitable dealing with books, journals, magazines, library cards, the catalogue, all forms of library equipment, and, opportunity for self-development through reading of light and serious texts, all contribute to the sense of fulfilment and job satisfaction in the individual librarian. Each working day brings the professional librarian into contact with some, certainly most, of the environmental factors outlined above; it is virtually impossible to work in a library as a professional and manage to avoid any of the functions of cataloguing and classification of books, indexing and abstracting information from journals, checking the catalogue for one information or the other, using one's knowledge of resources to solve on-the-spot

enquiries by users, and generally coping with the atmosphere of the work environment.

Against this background, the work in this chapter analyses respondents' years of experience of library work, relates factors of job satisfaction to age, gradings (salary rank), and considers respondents' long-term main interests in library and information work. The element that unifies is contained in the analysis of task performance in Chapter six.

#### 5.2.1 Respondents' years of experience

In determining the job satisfaction level and general attitude of a librarian to his work and profession, it is considered important to assess briefly the depth of his experience on the job. The information obtained serves to establish an insight into the problems and achievements of the individual librarian since he joined the service in terms of his place of work in the library, for example: in the Acquisitions or Serials or Bibliographical Services. The totality of years of experience of the respondents presents a formidable case for librarianship's claim to professional status.

As shown in Table 5.1, respondents indicated 105 (or 21.3%) of total multiple responses made, for acquisitions. 42 (or 40%) have served in the acquisitions for less than a year; 36 (or 34.3%) have spent from one to three years in the section; 18 (or 17.1%) have served between four to six years; 7 (or 6.7%) have been in acquisitions for between seven to ten years; while 2 (or 1.9%) respondents have been in acquisitions for more than eleven years.

Cataloguing and classification, as expected, proved to be a rather popular section of the library served by respondents, with 114 responses scored (23.1%). Those who have served less than a year in this section registered 39 (or 34.2%) scores. A further 45 (or 39.5%) have served from one to three years; as can be seen from the table this category of respondents recorded the highest response. For those who have spent between four to six years, 18 (or 15.8%) responses were made. However, the sharp decline from those with at least six years experience, to those with 7 to 10 years and above continues with 8 (or 7.0%) and 4 (or 3.5%) respectively. This suggests that very few actually stay on for more than six years before being moved to other sections of the library.

Clearly, repetitive routine and permanence in a section of the library, more so cataloguing, can be boring and at times tedious to relate to other work influences. For instance, it is characteristic for groups of librarians working in sections such as cataloguing and classification, to face possibilities of not integrating fully with professional activities occurring in other areas of the system. Surely, the restriction must have an impact on the outward disposition of the librarian to other peripherals of his work, which may not be essential to him personally but are nonetheless quintessential to the level of his professionalism.

One other high scoring section served by respondents was the 'Reference and reader services' with 105 (or 21.3%) of total multiple responses made. Again, this is not an unexpected feature in that this division of the library in many cases forms the core of services as well as act as a focal point of professional-clientele evaluation. The pattern of returns in the survey suggests that most professionals begin their library career in this section, with those having served under one year registering the highest score of 44 (or 42.0%) responses for the section. An equally high and representative response rate occurred for those who have served from one to three years with 34 (or 32.4%) scored; in addition, the 21 (or 20%) scored by those who have served from four to six years in the section represents the highest score for those in this category when compared with other sections of the library. Similar to other trends, those who have served from seven to ten years and eleven years and above are few and far between.

In the Serials section, many respondents tend not to serve for long periods. For instance, the section's total was considerably low at 68 (or 13.7%). Regardless, the trend in other sections still repeated itself except that in this case fewer librarians indicated their involvement with the section. 29 (or 42.6%) have served under one year; 19 (or 28.0%) served one to three years; and, 17 (or 25.0%) stayed for between four to six years. The returns for those who have served for seven to ten years indicate a very low 3 (or 4.4%) responses.

With respect to 'Administration/Management', one should point out that this section was exclusively designed for Chief Librarians or their immediate deputies whose main involvement with work is at administrative or management level and most of their duties transpire from their offices

or other special allotment in the libraries. It was considered that the Chief librarians' view of library administration and management was very heavily linked with their awareness of the importance of human resources, and the extent to which they based identification of what constitutes 'management', regarding it as a skill, or series of skills, that is applied in the same way as, for example, cataloguing or classification.

From this viewpoint, the response rate was expected to be low in numbers, reflecting the fact that library bosses who are in management positions are far fewer than the body of professionals who occupy various positions in the organisation. Thus, a total of 29 responses were made in this section, representing 5.8% of the total. The trend, as shown in Table 5.1 indicates that 4 (or 13.8%) of respondents were involved in administration for under one year. It is clear that those who have indicated from under one year to six years are most likely to be Deputy Heads. 7 (or 24.1%) have served for one to three years; 6 (or 20.7%) served for four to six years. Those with seven to ten and eleven years plus experience registered 6 (or 20.7%) each. If extrapolated beyond eleven years, the trend of the top librarians' experience is likely to accumulate further years in the same category of work and this is likely to be stable than would be other experiences in other sections of the library. For instance, at the eleven plus stage, administration and management currently score higher than any of the other sections.

The open-ended category 'other' proved to be quite informative than was otherwise expected. New sections in which professionals work in library and information services emerged from the responses given by the sample population. These sections, as outlined below, have been grouped together in Table 5.1:

- Training Section
- Outreach
- Computer/Library automation
- Gifts and Exchanges
- Research and Bibliographic Services (e.g. National Serial Data Centre)
- Archives/Manuscripts Section
- Collection Development (African)
- Media (audio-visual, etc.)

The response rate of experience based on service in the above sections was reasonably high at 73 (or 14.8%) of the total sample. The highest placed response of 51 (or 69.9%) occurred for those who served one to

three years; this was followed by those with four to six years' experience, with 12 (or 16.4%). The least recorded response was by those who have served under one year, indicating 10 (or 13.7%). Overall, none of the respondents have spent more than six years in the sections probably because of their new creation in the library system.

#### 5.2.2 Work-centred factors

In Question 15 of the questionnaire, factors associated with working conditions were sought. The respondents were asked:

Which work-centred\* factor(s) give job satisfaction in your present job?

(\*i.e. relating to your library/or information unit atmosphere)

Coded-responses were provided, allowing for multiple choice by respondents; these included - variety; involvement with users/service; social worth; intellectually satisfying; books and library materials; colleagues/teamwork; responsibility; status; personal development; and salary. A satisfactory 100% response was made by respondents against whom there was no statistically missing value recorded on the question. In all, 742 responses were registered against the coded factors (Table 5.2). The responses are discussed as follows in seriatim of highest to lowest recorded factors.

##### 5.2.2.1 Responsibility

As shown in Table 5.2, the most popular factor with respondents was 'responsibility' with 116 (or 68.2% of sample population, n = 170). Further analysis by library types revealed that 61 (or 52.6%) highest response was placed by those working in academic libraries, followed by respondents from national/state libraries with 27 (or 23.3%) scored. Those in special libraries registered 11 (or 9.5%) of responses as against the 8 (or 6.8%) responses indicated by school librarians.

The choice of 'responsibility' as a source of job satisfaction in academic libraries for instance, ranks third in their list of total responses. In assessing the position of librarians with their choice of 'responsibility' as a factor (Table 5.3), one could observe that those in rank 11 - Senior Librarians - recorded the highest response with 13 (or 21.3%); respondents at the beginning scale of 07 scored 10 (or 16.4%), a generally lower response than they scored for other factors. It is hardly surprising that those who ranked next were on U.S.S. 09 and 13,

with 8 (or 13.1%) responses each. These two positions are important for the delegation of authority in the organisation. Likewise, the Deputy University Librarians on USS 14 scored 7 (or 11.5%) for responsibility. As the individual librarian attaches himself to the tenets of his work ethics, he gradually imbibes a sense of responsibility especially in the context of user demands and the need to preserve the 'image of the library' in fulfilling users' requests. The professional librarian thus becomes personally responsible for his own actions and service rendered on behalf of the library organization.

As the category of clients varies, so does the sophistication and depth of responsibility conferred on the individual professional by the status of the organisation itself. Burrell<sup>15</sup>, in terms of professionalism, suggests that library clientele could be either a single individual or possibly a single private corporate body such as an industrial or commercial firm, a school or learned association. Similarly, Stenhouse<sup>16</sup> argues of the existence of a dichotomy in the person (individual or corporate) of the single client, which serves to make a distinction between the professions themselves. He states;

A profession may counsel or minister to the "whole person" in some matter which affects his whole life; this is the province of the "higher" or primary professions, the "life-and-death" professions of the priest, lawyer or doctor. Other professions minister to only part of a person, the "part" being either figuratively something like his reading and information needs or literally his liver or feet. These are the provinces of the "lower" or secondary professions such as those of the librarian, pharmacist or chiropodist respectively.<sup>17</sup>

It should be pointed out that the author's partitioning of the professions into two extreme variables is not amenable to research nor can it be valid if comparisons are drawn amongst the professions without due recourse to the nature of work in the areas of activity. The nature of professional duties differs in content hence professional responsibility rests not only on what the professional does but his own outlook as influenced by the work environment. The theory of "the lower or secondary professions" of which the librarian was said to be one, does not seem to hold in the circumstances.

The librarian must be relied upon for efficient service, on the basis of his training. His overall responsibility for the body, soul, mind, fortune, and legal standing of his clientele are of fundamental

importance to the organisation. At the British Library Association's Sheffield Joint Conference in 1980, Douglas Foskett called for development of "true" professionalism among all involved in 'manning the mines of information':

Librarians must also develop their professional facility for ensuring that the right books were available to the right readers at the right time, through harmonious co-operation with other media specialists and the organisation of material ... (Librarians require) a determination to unite still further and to prove that professionalism means more to us than even the most expert service within the narrow range of our own institutions; that we now have wider responsibilities.<sup>18</sup>

Thus, a new dimension to a librarian's perceived responsibility is the extension of same to the society as a whole. This viewpoint is consistent with those of other writers<sup>19,20,21</sup> who suggest that librarians could identify with social change by constant awareness of their responsibility in the context of such changes. In referring to British librarians, Montgomery adds:

Many librarians are dedicated to the services they provide and to a great number of them librarianship is just a job; they are neither committed nor dedicated to the extent that they will use their own time, either to continue helping clients or to back up their occupation in a professional manner by a willingness to attend meetings, write for the technical press, or to serve occupational associations.<sup>22</sup>

Montgomery's views on the librarian's responsibility further extends beyond the horizon of immediate professional function and services. However, when related to status concerns, Nigerian librarians have been self-critical of their own appraisal of responsibility:

... some librarians ask, can the Acquisitions Librarian fulfil his obligation by working for two hours at his desk while he is free to divide the balance of the day between research, seminar or even teaching? ... Librarianship has not been seen as an academic activity. Much of this is due to the approach that librarians have taken to their responsibilities. By concentrating efforts on the more routine activities, by emphasizing institutional goals, and by adopting bureaucratic organisational patterns, university librarians in Nigeria have voluntarily grouped themselves with the non-academic segment of the university community.<sup>23</sup>

The survey result in this work suggests that in terms of responsibility, librarians are very much aware that it is the most important factor of job satisfaction and thus they have broadened their perception of the concept from organisational and community viewpoint.

According to Table 5.4, 'responsibility' in conjunction with other factors, was assessed in terms of respondents' age groupings. Characteristically, those in age group 41-45 scored the highest response of 29 (or 25.0%) because as expected they form the core of senior ranked librarians. A similar view could be stated for those in age group 36-40 who returned 27 (or 23.3%) responses; many of the respondents in this group are ranked in grade 11 as senior librarians with staff and duty responsibilities. The responsibility of the library organisation in terms of its policy with the community served is taken up traditionally by those who occupy top positions and are located in age groups 46-50 and 50 plus. The survey result indicated that few but modest number of professionals were thus involved, with 7 (or 6.0%) and 3 (or 2.6%) respectively.

Respondents who were more concerned with the responsibility of their position in libraries but could not interpret such responsibility beyond fulfilling task functions, were found to be those in age groups 26-30 and 31-35, with 23 (or 19.8%) and 25 (or 21.6%) respectively.

'Responsibility' may have been broadly identifiable and interpreted by reference to positions and age, but the important, perhaps fundamental, conclusion must be that it formed the highest scoring source of job satisfaction for 68.2% of the sample population and thereby rates high in the work-centred factors.

#### 5.2.2.2 Involvement with users/service

In general, it is clear that involvement of librarians with users at service points usually forms the basis of professional-client interaction. For instance, the librarian's professionalism is tested in sensitive areas such as circulation, reference and reader services, information points, outreach services, and in public relations function of library administration. Librarians do not as yet involve in serious psychological analysis of use of library and information materials beyond the usual evaluation of user satisfaction in terms of materials they have consulted or could not consult for various reasons. The need for such analysis varies from library to library.

However, in the context of the survey, it was found that 59.4% of respondents in the sample population (n=170) considered involvement with users as their second highest work-centred factor yielding job satisfaction (Table 5.2). As shown in Table 5.2, 63 (or 62.4%) of

responses were made by academic librarians; 16 (or 15.8%) by national/state libraries; 6 (or 5.9%) for public; 12 (or 11.9%) for special; and, 4 (or 4.0%) for school.

According to Table 5.3, which relates the work-centred factors with the USS ranks, the highest placed response was from the commencing grade of 07 with 13 (or 20.6%) responses. This category of staff usually work either in circulation or reference and reader services, or any other service point which frequently brings them into contact with users. Identical scores of 10 (or 15.9%) were made by those in ranks 08, 09, 11 respectively. Those in top grades of 12 to 15 showed far less involvement with users as the percentages indicate in the table.


A closer examination of the results on 'involvement with users' revealed similar high level involvement in the age groups 36-40 and 41-45 with 26 (or 25.7%) and 29 (or 28.7%); this was closely followed by those in the 26-30 age group with 25 (or 24.8%) responses. This suggests that age is a factor which does not radically affect the professional librarian's involvement with users since, as can be interpreted from the returns, both old and young librarians seemed to have derived their job satisfaction from having contact with users.

#### 5.2.2.3 Intellectually satisfying/personal development

As indicated in Table 5.2, librarians derived intellectual satisfaction from their jobs, and also found personal development to be equally important. 58.2% of respondents in the sample population placed 99 responses for the two job factors: 'intellectually satisfying' and 'personal development'. In the case of the former, 65 (or 65.6%) was recorded by academic librarians and 16 (or 16.2%) by those in national/state libraries. For the latter factor, respondents from academic libraries placed 58 (or 58.6%) and those from national/state libraries, 20 (or 20.2%). A closer examination of the returns from academic librarians showed that the majority of those who found their jobs intellectually satisfying were senior librarians in USS 11; they registered 15 (or 23.1%) responses while those in the beginning scale of 07 scored 11 (or 17.0%). Similarly, the two highest responses for personal development came from the two age groups with those in USS 11 recording 12 (or 20.7%) and USS 07 with 12 (or 20.7%). One could observe too that the responses of those ranked in USS 08 and 09 were higher under personal development compared with the relatively low

scores for intellectual satisfaction by the same groups.

In addition, evidence was also produced in Table 5.3 to show that the Deputy university librarians in USS 14 fully (100% of total sample in the category) supported the view that they derived their job satisfaction from the intellectual nature of their work. This compares with the 42.8% support from them for the 'personal development' factor.

 The individual librarian enjoys independence to develop his personal fulfilment in reading, further education, or professional development. However, the degree to which such independence is allowed varies from library to library. For instance, at least 70.6% of those in special and school/college libraries found personal development as a source of job satisfaction. But in academic libraries, as the scores for those in USS 10, 12 and 13 (Table 5.3) suggest, personal development is least on their scale of priorities of job satisfaction. According to Onyechi, this is partly due to the 'bureaucratic organisational pattern which conceives of strict, vertical and unilateral authority, with little or no professional independence allowed'.<sup>24</sup>

When related to age groups, Table 5.4, it was found that 41.7% of those in age group 26-30 considered their jobs as intellectually satisfying but a higher percentage of 63.9% in the same group found personal development as an important source of job satisfaction. The result is understandable because a majority of those in the age group usually nurse personal ambitions to improve on their professional status.

On the other hand, respondents in the age group of 50 and above found their jobs intellectually satisfying having recorded 100% participation on the factor. But of considered interest is the score distribution for those in the age groups 31-35, 36-40 and 41-45 with 20 (or 20.2%) 22 (or 22.2%) and 30 (or 30.3%) responses made. The scores are identical to those for personal development thus suggesting that, in general, those in the stated age groups derive job satisfaction from the two work-centred factors under consideration.

#### 5.2.2.4 Other factors

As can be seen from Table 5.2, other work-centred factors attracted minimum or at best medium response from the sample. In terms of the medium responses, factors such as 'Books, and library materials' scored

highest with 81 (or 11.0%) responses representing 47.6% rate of participation by the sample population. Similar medium responses of 69 and 67 were made for 'colleagues/teamwork' and 'variety' factors respectively. The low responses featured 'salary' with 45 scored, 'status' with 37, and 'social worth' with 28 scored.

The pattern of the work-centred factors thus comprise two describable elements:

1. Variety (as represented by the variables of variety in work and regularity and predictability of work).
2. Books, and library materials (as represented by the physical environment of libraries and the working tools, for example, bibliographies, indexes, physical catalogues and databases, and journals).

Variety in any work circumstance is an important factor of job satisfaction. Certain library tasks can be boring and repetitive, e.g. cataloguing and bibliographical work, but other tasks can be varied and interesting such as in reference and reader services or a mixture of public relations and other functions. Variety of job occurs in different ways; either through transfer of services in the system, for example being transferred from one section of the library to another thereby gaining varied experience, or through 'situational uniqueness',<sup>25</sup> i.e. reflecting a range of organisational settings in which library staff operate, the range of services offered, and subjects involved. The librarian's work becomes varied when these elements are combined within their diverse nature and the unexpectedness which contact with people brings.

According to the survey returns, those in academic libraries registered 45 (or 67.2%) the largest response in the group for variety as being a source of job satisfaction. The figures that emerged from other library types were comparatively low suggesting that little change occurs in their library routine. Most of the responses for the academic libraries were lodged by those in USS 07-09 with 21 (or 46.7%) of the total. When related to age those in age groups 41-45 and 26-30 found variety to be an important factor of job satisfaction, with 19 (or 28.4%) and 15 (or 22.4%) respectively.

With regards to 'Books and library materials', with 81 (or 47.6%) of total responses, it was found that 58.0% was scored by academic librarians, 14 (or 17.3%) by national/state librarians, with the highest

public librarians' score of 8 (or 9.9%). The choice of the factor seems to be common to all the library ranks as Table 5.3 illustrates. However, the senior librarians on USS 11 scored the highest response with 10 (or 21.3%) and the lowest response by those in USS 12 with 1 (or 2.1%). Further analysis by age revealed that the two variables are non-correlative as all the age groups appeared to derive some sort of job satisfaction from contact with books and library materials. It would seem, however, that those in age group 41-45 found this factor to be of particular interest by scoring 24 (or 29.6%) being the highest score recorded for the factor.

The work-centred factors could in general be regarded as fundamental stimulants to professionalism in library and information work since they enable librarians to function satisfactorily in their work environment thereby enhancing their professional utilization, derived appropriately from job satisfaction.

### 5.3 Respondents Long-term main interest in library and information work

Based on the tasks he performs, his response to the work environment, and his professional standing, the librarian consciously or unconsciously involves himself in attitude formation towards his profession. In most cases, professional attitude is reflected in the practitioner's own interest in his chosen field. In order to determine the long-term main interest of respondents in the profession, coded responses were provided for the respondents to choose from and allowance was made for those who may wish to express other interests not coded but of equal importance to them. It was also considered to relate the interests to age of respondents so as to allow assessment of their position to be fairly inferred. It was found that 100% of the sample population, n=170, responded to the question. Table 5.5 represents the data obtained, on which the analysis that follows is based.

#### 5.3.1 Internationalism

'Internationalism' describes co-operative activities between nations or their representatives in the pursuit of common goals. In the context of this work, the international perspectives of library and information practice is focussed. The term internationalism was thus used to describe respondents' long term interest in the library profession as being international in character or spirit and that this implies that their professional contribution will relate to this condition.

According to Oji, every national professional organisation has in mind its connection with world development as a whole by involving its members with international life, and itself with library work on an international scale<sup>26</sup>. For instance, the Nigerian Library Association (NLA) is a member of various international organisations such as IFLA; COMLA (which was inaugurated in Lagos, Nigeria) - Commonwealth Library Association; SCAUL - Standing Conference on African University Libraries; and, prominent members of the NLA have risen to positions of power and influence in international organisations, such as, for example being Vice-President of IFLA and chairman of various international congresses on problems of library practice. Members of NLA also participate actively in the work of specialist international organisations, related to their own practice; for example, in the work of Unesco/Unisist on information network system proposed for the West African region, IFLA's international office for universal bibliographic control and the adoption of some of the new developments for Nigeria library practice, and, in the area of collection development, Standing Conference on Library Materials on Africa (SCOLMA); in professional education, Unesco has sponsored regional meetings organised in conjunction with the Standing Conference of African Library Schools of which Nigeria is a prominent member. Professional "image" is greatly enhanced through the various activities in which Nigerian librarians take part internationally.

Against this background, the survey data was analysed. As shown in Table 5.5, 49 out of the 263 responses (18.6%) was placed for internationalism. This figure represents the views of 28.8% of the sample population. Given the situation whereby it is logical to assume that few practitioners would indicate their preference for international rather than national issues, the result was not particularly surprising. When related to age, 15 (or 30.6%) responses were made by those in the age group 41-45, followed closely by those in age group 26-30 with 12 or (24.5%). Apart from those in 36-40 whose interests follow closely that of their immediate younger colleagues with 11 or 22.5%, the other age groups showed relatively little interest.

### 5.3.2 Technological innovation and libraries

The wave of technological innovations in developed countries have gradually permeated the Nigerian library system. Traditional librarianship at present copes with the new demands of information technology.

For instance, libraries in Nigerian academic and special services are continuing to apply technology in areas such as house-keeping routines in circulation work, union lists and trade bibliographies, serials data, and acquisition records.

In view of the emphasis and current concern on the role of libraries in collecting, preserving and disseminating information on oral tradition and history, it was expected that medium response will be placed under this category of interest. In effect, this is what happened as 49 (or 18.6%) responses were made. It was shown that younger librarians were more in favour of technological innovation than those who are middle-aged. For instance, the high scores were concentrated in the age groups: 26-30, 31-35 and 36-40, with 11 (or 22.5%) for the first two groups, and 12 (or 24.5%) for the latter. The low response reflects the slow acceptance of the importance of technology in the functioning of the library system in general.

#### 5.3.3 Social relations

This is the worst considered long term interest by respondents. A rather low response of 26 (or 10.0%) was recorded, indicating that Nigerian librarians are not sufficiently motivated to organise functions of a social nature, or perhaps express an interest to do so. In almost all kinds of professional organisation, social relations has proved to be a unifying force in drawing together all shades of opinion and personalities in the membership. Professional co-operation can only be enhanced by organising social functions which may or may not bear on the peripheral of librarianship such as annual dinners, religious fellowships, and various local events which are arranged to unite all librarians and provide an informal forum for socialisation. The only high response achieved was made by those in the age group 36-40 who scored 12 (or 46.2%). Overall, the clear picture is that librarians do not want to engage each other socially but ironically, other professional bodies have taken advantage of social interaction to expand their public relations duty and thus enhance the prestige of their professions.

#### 5.3.4 Research and development

Clearly, this was the best rated long term interest of all, with 111 (or 42.2%) responses, representing 65.3% of the sample population who chose this factor.

As shown in Table 5.5, those in the age group 41-45 scored the highest response of 27 (or 24.3%); followed by the younger librarians in age groups 26-30 and 31-35 with 25 (or 22.5%) scores each. Of particular interest was the response from age groups 46-50 and 50 plus because they registered 91% and 100% participation, by scoring 10 (or 9.0%) and 4 (or 3.6%) respectively. The objective of respondents in choosing research and development may be two-fold:

1. The factor was probably considered from the viewpoint of the genuine need for continuous research in the fields.
2. The factor was considered largely from the educational viewpoint, with interest in research degrees probably uppermost in the minds of respondents.

Whichever way one views respondents' response under this factor, it seems clear that individual rather than organisational need was expressed.

*C. D. Loin*

#### 5.3.5 Teaching

As indicated in Table 5.5, this is yet another area of considerably low response with 28 (or 10.6%) responses, representing 16.5% of sample population. Teaching is not too well-favoured in practitioners circle in Nigerian librarianship partly because of the academic discipline involved and the insatiable requirement to publish, and in part, due to the slow process of promotion and consequent effect on status of individual in the profession. Salary is no longer a factor as it used to be until recently, because the salaries of teaching and practising librarians are now comparable (at academic libraries' level only but not for public, national/state or special libraries). Nigerian professional librarians are generally well-qualified but they are reluctant to devote most of their time to teaching, some principally because of their inexperience in library and information work before qualifying. By the time such practitioners have acquired suitable experience at the appropriate level in libraries, they become either "too old" or emotionally attached to their work environment and outside factors such as domestic and family commitment that it becomes virtually impossible for them to take up teaching. For instance, respondents aged between 36-40 placed the highest response with 9 (or 32.1%) considering teaching as their 'long-term main interest'. Disappointingly those in the younger age groups placed rather low responses, e.g. 5 (or 17.9%) for those aged 26-30 and 7 (or 25.0%) for the 31-35 age group. One could have expected a much higher percentage from the younger librarians in terms of 'teaching' as their long term professional interest.

Nzotta states:

... the current situation in the job market does not encourage practising librarians to come forward to accept teaching appointments in library schools. Promotion, which is based mainly on experience, is quite rapid for the practising librarian. Even in academic libraries, where librarians claim academic status, not as much publication is required of the practising librarian for promotion, as it is of the teachers.<sup>27</sup>

The author's views confirm the assumption that salary has now ceased to be a factor due to the recent rationalisation of salaries in the university system and its unification in public service, but that general career advancement is affected, sometimes adversely, when a professional chooses to teach.

(5.3.6 Other

*suggest*

Respondents were offered the opportunity to suggest any other interest they might have in library and information work and as a result, many valuable comments were made in the open space provided:

Development of effective library services throughout Nigeria for an enlightened citizenry capable of life long learning and self development.

Setting up a private Pan-African reference library.

To be engaged in improved service to the professionals, e.g. law.

Development of national biomedical information network.

Information network (agriculture).

Full development of learning resources in schools.

Information gathering, storage, retrieval and dissemination in native medicine.

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CHAPTER SIX

RESPONDENTS' TASK PERFORMANCE IN LIBRARY & INFORMATION WORK :

More might be learned ... if we were to take a different perspective and view the state of librarianship ... in the light of new social science information about the world of work, and in the confrontation of that knowledge with the increasingly self-conscious thinking of librarians themselves.\*

\* ENNIS, P.H.

Seven questions about the profession of librarianship: introduction, Library Quarterly, 31 (4), 1961:300.

## 6.1 Introduction

The study of professionals and paraprofessionals in library and information work in Nigeria involved two distinct parts:

- (1) identifying who the professionals were, both by their graduate status and the library tasks they perform;
- (2) estimating through survey the respondents' degree of involvement in the work they do and relating such utilization to factors such as income and qualifications.

"Tasks" represent the amount of work set in particular job components in libraries. Thus, each item on the inventory of library tasks carries a value reflective of its degree of professionalism. For instance, Question 14 on the questionnaire gives an inventory of library tasks against which a degree of involvement is recorded i.e. as 'primary' and 'secondary', these are operationally defined as indicating an approximation of time spent in the performance of each task, signifying that 'primary' implies more time was spent on the task than 'secondary'. Respondents' task performances were scored against their library ranks (as indicated by salary scales). In addition, the degree of involvement of respondents on each task was evaluated on the basis of their qualification status so as to determine level of professional utilization, a factor of critical importance in evaluating the adequacy of the current manpower force to the needs of the system.

## 6.2 Survey procedure

The main method of enquiry was by the administration of a questionnaire following job information visits to library and information establishments in Nigeria. 210 librarians working in 46 libraries and documentation centres were sampled out of which 170 (or 81%) returned their completed questionnaires. Ten more questionnaires were later received but arrived too late to be included in the analysis. Table 6.1 illustrates the scale as it appeared in the questionnaire mailed to the survey population. Items were listed alphabetically with no indication of professional/nonprofessional rating. Respondents were free to check as many, or as few, items as were applicable to themselves.

However, one obvious limitation of the scale is that it involved a self-assessment procedure which, as anticipated, probably encouraged the possibility of respondents tending to overrate themselves in their reported involvement of professional tasks as being greater than actually is recognised and the extent to which this occurred is difficult to

determine. In any case, the limitation and any likely effects were not evident in the distribution of the results.

In order to measure the professionalism of a respondent's work involvement the library tasks in Table 6.1 were classified into index items (Table 6.2). The index represents an abbreviated inventory of library tasks and is combined with a scale for recording the degree of involvement reported by respondents (Table 6.3).

Professionalism ratings for each group of library tasks are categorised into four levels: high/low professional library tasks and high/low nonprofessional library tasks. The scoring for each item, according to the categorised levels, were assigned in accordance with qualification status on the index scale, *i.e.* professionals with degrees and sub-professionals who are qualified but without degrees. The weighted values were assigned as follows:

For example, a respondent reporting a primary involvement with a group 1 - professional library task, received a score of +4 for that item; a secondary involvement in a group 1 - professional library task rated a score of +3, etc. Thus a nine-point scale was developed, occurring in the +4 to -4 range of task levels.

The index served as a basic tool for assessing manpower utilization in the libraries of the survey population.

In presenting a perspective for the study, statistical histograms and charts were used to illustrate trends in the performance of tasks. This involves using a known auxiliary variable to calculate estimates, for example: tasks performed by library rank, and tasks performed by qualification status.

### 6.3 Survey results: analysis

#### 6.3.1 Summary

The results of the index scores show: in the case of level 1 (High professional library tasks), that the tasks performance of graduate respondents was consistent with their educational attainment while non-graduate professional participation was considerably low at -3.3. However, some graduate professionals also attained low ratings of -1.5, as did some non-graduate professionals with a slight positive rating of +1.5 indicating cases where respondents with low levels of educational attainment are performing highly professional jobs. Thus, the conclusion would seem to be that professional staff utilization has been

optimised.

With regards to level 2 (low professional library tasks), the range scores reported by both groups - graduate/nongraduate professionals - were remarkably similar. The tasks performance of graduate professionals correlates, to a significant extent (+2.0), with their educational attainment, but the -0.5 score showed that some were not optimising their positions through low performance.

In levels 3 (High nonprofessional tasks) and 4 (low nonprofessional tasks), there is overwhelming evidence that at -2.0 and -4.0 respectively, large numbers of graduate professionals are performing jobs inconsistent with their educational attainment. Overall, non-graduate professionals seemed to have optimised their positions (at +2.0 and +3.1 respectively). However, the index scores interpretation especially in level 4 must be viewed from the fact that the large majority of graduate professionals registered secondary involvement, that is, indicating that though they performed the high/low nonprofessional library tasks, less time was spent on doing so.

Figures 6.1 to 6.38 are histograms and other statistical graphs designed to illustrate the several issues raised by the index scores and tasks performance in general. As regards the graduate/nongraduate professionals dichotomy (Figures 6.39-6.40), in those cases where graduate professionals could be observed as having been predominantly engaged in nonprofessional tasks (albeit by secondary level involvement), the results can be interpreted as showing that graduate professional utilisation was less than optimal. This suggests that individuals qualified to perform at a professional level have been uneconomically drifted into nonprofessional positions with great consequences to job satisfaction and loss of professional prestige. According to Herzberg's two factor theory<sup>1</sup> of separation between job satisfiers and job dissatisfiers, two of the dissatisfiers (hygiene factors) include 'Organisation policies (i.e.) administration', and 'status'. However, it is clear that the low importance Herzberg's theory attaches to the dissatisfiers in context of workers in 'developed' countries is not valid when applied to the Nigerian situation where administrative policies are significant enough to hinder job satisfaction and result in loss of status in the individual<sup>2</sup>. This implies that graduate professional staff underutilization by those in charge of policy may lead to unfulfilment of individual

job needs and status. For instance, a Nigerian university librarian observes that status is one of the factors that plague Nigerian librarianship and perhaps 'probably strongly responsible for more people leaving librarianship for other professions'.<sup>3</sup>

However, one cannot discount the influence of Herzberg's two factor theory, based on a rejection of the belief that people work primarily for money and, by substitution, placed human needs in management where improvements such as job enrichment lead to increased production, efficiency and satisfaction through provision of more interesting and varied work (c.f. Chapter 5 Section 5.2.2.: 'Work-centred factors').

The correlation patterns of library tasks performed with library rank (or income) indicate in the case of top-ranked librarians (for example, in the rank 13-16) a stable equilibrium of remuneration for tasks performed. On the other hand, in the case of beginning and middle-level professionals (for example, in the rank 07-12) the results showed that library tasks performed by this group of professionals exceed their remuneration. This trend strengthens current thinking that this category of library staff are the core of manpower utilization in library systems;<sup>4,5,6</sup> thus, in the personnel planning process they should be encouraged to further improve their professionalism, through proper disposition and incentives.

#### 6.3.2 Library tasks and how performed by respondents

Work is an essential determinant of professionalism. In the pursuit of service, the extent of involvement with work by professional people requires evaluation, based on cost-effectiveness and manpower planning objectives. Such evaluation could form the nucleus of any interpretation of professional utilization of staff.

According to Bartholomew, manpower planning is partly concerned with:

... all aspects of the recruitment, training and use of manpower resources. Not only does it involve trying to ensure that the right number of people with the right skills are available at the right time and place; it is equally concerned with providing the environment and opportunity for individuals to realise their full potential.<sup>8</sup>

In library and information service, interest in various aspects of

manpower planning has developed both at international<sup>9,10,11,12</sup> and national<sup>13,14</sup> levels, although comparative analysis of what library work entails both in context of the job and the jobholder is still very much lacking.

The present survey attempts, in culture-specific terms (*i.e.* by concentrating the investigation on Nigerian librarians working in their own environment), to bridge the knowledge gap in respect of characteristics of task performance in libraries. The investigation covered two main variables with their own sub-features: tasks performed related with income, and qualifications of respondents.

### 6.3.3 Income

With regards to income, respondents were grouped into four: (a) beginning professionals in the gradings 07-09 earning anything from N2,832 to N8,040 (Tables 6.4 and 6.5) per annum; (b) middle-grade professionals in the scale 10-12 earning N5,760 to N11,352 (Tables 6.4 and 6.5); (c) senior professionals in the grades 13-14 earning N8,064 to N14,052; and, (d) top grade professionals in the scale 15-16 earning N10,296 to N15,000. The salary scales hitherto quoted are inclusive of all library types in the sample.

Table 6.4 illustrates library tasks performed with primary involvement. As can be observed from the table, the highest response occurred in 'Selection, acquisition and withdrawal of material' with 40 (or 45.0%) from the beginning grades 07-09, followed by the middle-grades 10-12 with 27 (or 30.3%). Obviously, the results confirmed the writer's observation during fieldwork, that librarians in these two grades were much more involved in acquisition and withdrawal work with most of the task being administratively oriented in terms of dealings with booksellers and publishers, and the physical processing of new and old library materials. The extent of time spent on this task by those in the beginning and middle grades was shown to be much more than the corresponding secondary involvement (Figure 6.18). However, an important factor needs to be borne in mind concerning those placed in grades 11 and 12 in the university libraries. This category of library staff have more responsibility for selection than otherwise would be the case for their colleagues elsewhere in State, College or public libraries. In certain cases such as at Universities of Ibadan and Lagos with centralised system of collection development, respondents in this grade were known to superintend material

needs of divisional libraries allocated to them.

Furthermore, most final decisions on selection are made either by Heads of library organizations or their deputies. Thus, it is not altogether surprising to find that 14 (or 15.7%) of responses in grades 13-14 were primary involvement in the selection task. This represents a total of 46.7% of those in this grade inclusive of all libraries. At the 15-16 top grade 8 (or 9.0%) were primarily involved in selection with no record of secondary involvement, suggesting higher level of responsibility. This figure represents an overall 72.7% of respondents in grades 15-16 whose main primary library task was 'selection'.

Further significant involvement with library tasks at the primary and secondary levels were reported by respondents. This includes cataloguing, classification and indexing, information work and assistance to readers; public relations; bibliography; general administration; and, formal library instruction.

With regards to cataloguing, it was found that primary involvement on the task was more pronounced at the beginning and middle-level grades of 07-09 and 10-12 respectively. Perhaps it could be argued that the high occurrence of primary involvement with cataloguing at these grades should be an expected phenomenon, given bureaucratic organization in libraries. However, considerable work is involved in cataloguing tasks such as descriptive cataloguing, subject headings, efficient use of codes both for cataloguing and classification, and union catalogue responsibilities. In addition, all the elements of work cover non-book materials as well, with each attendant problem either in subject classification or description. It is also clear that the automated processes of cataloguing, as prevalent in developed countries, are yet to replace the traditional functions of the librarian in respect of processing books and other resources for efficient use and retrieval by the library clientele. Thus, professionals performing this library task are in a position to justify their remuneration. Table 6.4 shows that slightly more than half (50.6%) of those with primary involvement in cataloguing are in the beginning grades 07-09. Others who are either equally involved in performing similar task or engaged in its supervisory aspects, are placed in grades 10-12 with 37.7%. Both groups also recorded high responses in terms of secondary involvement (50.0% and 32.2% respectively) when compared with other groups reporting on the same task, although

as Figure 6.4 shows that the performance ratings between primary and secondary differ significantly.

Many of the respondents in grades 13-14 for instance, emphasised 'indexing' as their main primary task, with comparatively low responses for secondary involvement. A closer examination of the returns revealed that the majority (62.5%) were attached to Special libraries. The results therefore showed a healthy performance in respect of indexing.

As for respondents in 15-16 grades, their returns on primary involvement with cataloguing was rather low at 1.3% and therefore statistically insignificant. A further examination of the secondary allocation of their time on the same task only showed a slight improvement with 3 (or 10.7%) responses. When compared with other task factors perhaps adequately reflecting the administrative nature of the tasks performed by this category of professionals, then the results under cataloguing are not particularly surprising.

'Information work and assistance to readers' is an important service point in which the librarian's expertise can be easily demonstrated. Akinyotu contends that 'very few libraries place sufficient emphasis' on this aspect of library and information work<sup>15</sup>. By virtue of his education and training, the librarian should be able to assist, through formal and informal means, in all levels of enquiry. The main point of contention here is that the librarian's knowledge expertise and ordinary ability to interact smoothly with users, should be the central point of focus in the performance of information task. Results of the survey showed that in the nineteen tasks set out in the inventory of 'library tasks', information work and assistance to readers ranked third as a primary involvement (Table 6.4). Significantly, 38 (or 52.1%) responses were made by those in the 07-09 gradings; being the highest response rate in the task group, it would seem that the service point was staffed with fresh graduates or experienced diploma holders.

However, even though those in the lower library ranks managed information in libraries, the pattern reflected in the survey suggests that deployment of staff in information work has not been wholly restricted to junior professionals. The survey results showed that respondents placed in the middle ranks of 10-12 reported 24 (or 32.9%)

primary involvement in information work. This is an encouraging trend of positive staff utilization in libraries. Traditionally, the location of information, both in the library and elsewhere, requires a wide knowledge of sources of information, and familiarity with reference techniques. Thus, it follows that professionals performing information work should be versed in their specialisation as well as techniques of information search and dissemination. Both groups of respondents in ranks 07-09 and 10-12 shared identical scores in their secondary time allocation, to information work (41.8% and 39.6% respectively), thereby creating very little concern on staff deployment.

Matters of policy for providing reader and information services in libraries, and periodic appraisal of users' interests, are part of the work requirements of senior professionals. The task of informing readers of information by providing materials relevant to their special interests, is performed in most libraries, but is given greater prominence and undertaken more systematically in many special and academic libraries. Usually top-ranked librarians are responsible for providing such effective dissemination of information to suit varied users' interests. In this case, the survey results indicated a poor performance by librarians in categories 13-14 and 15-16 in organising information work. For instance, in the former, 9 (or 12.3%) reported primary involvement while in the latter group, 2 (or 2.7%) did the same. The secondary involvement of both groups was lower at 4 (or 9.3%) each. Positive utilization of staff in this respect was rather low.

According to Boodson, full professional utilisation of the librarian derives from knowledge and judgement in the efficient exploitation of information, thus ensuring that the parent organisation receives maximum benefit from its library resources. He argues further that the librarian should be,

... continually concerned with decisions on the overall relevance of information before him, with the particular relevance of a unit of information, the originality of the work, its level of significance, the competence of the authors and the veracity of the findings and deductions.<sup>16</sup>

However, while it is generally agreed that the librarian should normatively carry out the duties suggested by Boodson, the vital constraint usually relates to time. The time factor is a fundamental problem facing the librarian in his reference duties, as information demands (such as in the

medical library establishments) are sometimes urgent in nature and can also make the difference between life and death. Many writers ignore this constraint or are unaware of it when making ex cathedra statements with regards to the duties of the Reference Librarian, who as one writer expects, 'should spend most of his time in critical evaluation, selective and analytical literature assessments, the screening of enquiry information, the extraction of information from all sources ...'.<sup>17</sup>

Ranking next to the previous tasks in terms of performance is 'public relations'. Although to the present writer's knowledge no Nigerian libraries customarily employ a public relations specialist, in practice the work has for some time devolved on the professional staff. In the survey, the moderately high response rate 64 or 37.6% of sample population, on performance of 'public relations' tasks is indicative of its growing importance in the Nigerian library profession (Table 6.4).

The professional and non-professional duties assigned to public relations in the (British) Library Association's descriptive list of library duties are outlined in detail in the book<sup>18</sup>. However, despite the applicability of some of the concepts of service in public relations as described in the list and tenuously argued in subsequent publications<sup>19,20,21</sup>, the extent of its practice by library professionals remains elusive in evaluative terms.

Libraries and librarians in Nigeria for example, require public relations not only to enhance the profession's status but also to acquaint the public with an understanding of their functions and services. By contrast, British librarians are deemed to have revived their interests in library public relations for different reasons, as observed by Usherwood:

Librarians who are having to withstand populist campaigns for cuts in public expenditure, while at the same time meeting the challenge of the new technology, now realise that they must take positive steps to increase the nature and capabilities of librarians and library organisations.<sup>22</sup>

The common objective of developing a relationship with the public, based on mutual understanding both of users' needs, and collaterally the library services available, would seem an overriding factor in determining the nature and extent of the librarian's professionalism.

According to Table 6.4, the performance of public relations was

common to all groups in the sample: those in 07-09 registered 27 (or 42.2%) responses; grades 10-12, 17 (or 26.6%); grades 13-14, 12 (or 18.7%) and, 15-16, 8 (or 12.5%). While in the lower and middle grades the task performance was consistent with the pattern in other tasks, it is significant to observe that for the top two grades (13-14 and 15-16) the response rate for public relations was the second highest when compared with other primary tasks performed. However, in the secondary involvement of both groups the response rate was rather low, for groups 13-14 with 4 (or 14.8%) and none at all for groups 15-16 (Table 6.5). This is indicative of the lack of balance in time allocation to a task with wide-ranging work component. The general trend showing participation of all library ranks could be considered satisfactory efforts at professional persuasion from the viewpoint of being 'positive', 'publicising' the library, improving library and staff 'image', relating the library to 'communities', and perhaps more important, 'influencing local support' for library services<sup>23</sup>.

In 'Bibliography' as library task performed, it is essential to delineate the diverse nature of its work components before proceeding with analysing the survey returns. The task involves bibliographical information work, compilation of bibliographies and their physical production. This implies that duties performed encompassed: the selection, evaluation and annotation of entries for reading lists, bibliographies, and other current awareness function; locating simple bibliographical information through the checking of the catalogue, book catalogue, periodical indexes for publication data (for example, author, title, publisher, date) and similar information needed for bibliographies and reading lists; and, deciding physical form and reproduction methods.

From the evidence provided in Table 6.4 all categories of library staff were involved in performing the task of bibliography. For instance, from primary time allocation by respondents 29 (or 47.5%) responses were made by junior professionals in 07-09; 18 (or 29.5%) responses by those in grades 10-12; in the 13-14 grades of senior professionals 11 (or 18.0%) responses were registered, showing an appreciably high participation of at least 50% of the sample population in that group. A modest return from those in grades 15-16 indicated 3 (or 5.0%) responses for primary and 7.0% for secondary involvement (Table 6.5). The participation of other library ranks as measured by their secondary involvement showed a stable performance (Table 6.5),

indicating productive staff utilisation in this area.

With regards to 'general administration', the expected response rate here was for high participation by those in the middle and senior grades. This is because the Nigerian librarian has built up a stereotype for himself as an administrator by arguing that administration is a central task librarians should perform to rest their claim to high status and prestige.<sup>24,25</sup> According to Onyechi, one of the few authors to state the adverse effects of over-reliance on administrative tasks:

Much of the disenchanted picture (image) of the university librarians stems from the approach that they themselves have adopted towards their responsibilities. For one thing they allow themselves to be saddled with much of the routine and clerical duties which could conveniently be left to juniors.<sup>26</sup>

Library administration, as in any other field of professional activity, is a necessity when it comes to managing resources both effectively and productively, but the time devoted to it needs to be rationalised with the time devoted to professional services. In Nigerian library literature, 'administration' is often substituted for the concept of management. Most Nigerian writers when referring to administrative duties in libraries use the description "scientific management" to describe manpower planning, staff deployment, management of library resources both in human and equipment terms, and administrative processing of library materials. For instance, Ike states:

... in Nigerian university libraries, one will expect the librarians to be trained administrators. University libraries, starting with the Chief University Librarians but including all other professional librarians are in charge of huge university resources, both men and materials. A university library usually represents a large investment on the part of the university, both capital and recurrent, at times accounting for as much as 4% of the institution's annual recurrent expenditure. Thus, it is incumbent on university librarians to be conscious of proper planning and effective management of all library resources, funds, physical facilities and staff. They should learn to use all available resources, men and material, maximally through scientific management techniques.<sup>27</sup>

In addition to performing administrative tasks in the nature suggested by Ike, professional librarians find themselves concerned with the translation of policies into action. In order to adequately fulfil this need many professionals participate in Committee meetings, are involved with specific projects designed to improve or extend services, and generally

meet with individuals or groups with whom they wish to discuss specific questions concerned with library objectives. Thus, in formulating policy and organising its implementation for the library service, the professional librarian performs his administrative tasks although the extent of his involvement in terms of time allocation ought to be determined.

From this viewpoint, the primary and secondary time involvement of respondents who performed administrative tasks in their libraries was assessed in the survey. The results (from Table 6.4) showed that librarians in ranks 10-12 (i.e. earning N5,760 - N11,352 per annum) were the foremost group that spent more time on general administration with 20 (or 35.1%) responses. This group of respondents are middle manager or executives with the task of translating policy into action. Closely following the library executives were the junior professionals in the ranks 07-09 with primary involvement showing 17 (or 29.8%) responses. When both groups were compared on the basis of their secondary time allocation for the same task, the result indicated a reversal of the earlier trend with those in 10-12 registering 20 (or 39.2%) responses while respondents in 07-09 had more responses of 22 (or 43.1%). These results suggest a close correlation in levels of performance by both the beginning professionals and their senior counterparts. Utilization of staff in this sphere of activity could therefore not be faulted.

Concerning the top librarians, there was a high response rate from those in the ranks 13-14 who, for instance, gave 12 (or 21.1%) responses indicating that more time was spent on general administration when compared with those who spared little time for it, 8 (15.7%). A majority of those in ranks 15-16 naturally indicated primary involvement with general administration with 8 (or 14.0%) while only 1 (or 2.0%) spent little time on administrative duties.

The results illustrate a perceptible movement away from the general tendency among librarians to devote most, if not all, of their time on general administration, to one of judicious allocation of time spent on the task. As the demands of library administration become even more complicated so will level of performance improve in terms of the specialist knowledge and expertise of the professional librarian, aided no doubt by experience acquired from performing other library tasks.

Perhaps one of the most current issues, for instance in academic

librarianship, is the development of library instruction programmes.

'Library instruction' is either formal or informal. The former involves an organised teaching of the students by librarians, usually those of the Reference Department or the Reader Services Department. The courses taught are normally credit earning, compulsory or optional, and are at times inculcated into the general academic programmes of the institution. A case in point is the General Studies Programme of University of Nigeria, Nsukka in which the library instruction course is a credit-earning and compulsory element in 'the use of English',<sup>28</sup>.

Informal library instruction, however, is one of the basic responsibilities of the reference librarians; it consists of a teaching and interpretative function of the academic library. Instruction at this level is personalised and considered most effective if the librarian is understanding and willing enough to help the reader.

Different work components constitute the formal/informal library instruction tasks. For instance, in the formal, performance of task usually involves:

- designing a programme of series of lectures, seminars and project works for students (e.g. in the use of reference and bibliographic tools applicable to students' subject fields;
- interacting with course tutors to determine students' needs and, perhaps more important, the needs of the appropriate Departments concerned;
- teaching and assessment of course work and other projects;
- preparing evaluation reports to be sent to the appropriate Departments in respect of their students;
- continuous review of trends in professional practice and general awareness of state-of-the-art.

The informal task mostly involves the ability of the professional librarian to use his initiative and drive to encourage maximum use of facilities as much as possible by showing, directing and demonstrating to the user the available library resources and means of their exploitation for fulfilling individual needs.

Thus, as expected from the survey, formal library instruction proved to be another area of busy activity for the professional librarian. The analysis from Table 6.4 showed that middle-grade librarians in ranks 10-12 were the most involved personnel in formal library instruction,

recording the highest figure for the group, 21 (or 38.8%) responses indicated for primary involvement. An equally high response rate was recorded in ranks 07-09 with 19 (or 35.2%) engaged primarily in formal library instruction. When compared with those from the same ranks but who reported less time involvement in secondary terms the trend was brought into perspective as the secondary figures were comparatively higher at 24 (or 51.1%). This suggests that their performance was at both levels of involvement supportive rather than a leadership role which would normally be the preserve of their senior colleagues in ranks 10-12 and possibly above (Table 6.5). Students are more likely to be given direct assistance on projects (designed as part of the library instruction course) by professionals in the beginning grades while the role of the tutor-librarian in middle-grades would be that of advice and supervision.

The top librarians in grades 13-14 showed more interest, and hence primary involvement, in formal library instruction more than the Chief Executives in grades 15-16. For instance, 11 (or 20.4%) of responses were made by senior librarians involved with policy-making aspects of formal library instruction.

With regards to secondary time allocation by those in grades 13-14, the returns indicated moderate involvement with 6 (or 12.7%) responses; respondents in the 15-16 ranks obtained slightly lower responses of 2 (or 4.2%) when compared with their primary involvement of 3 (or 5.6%). These low returns in grades 15-16 are not altogether surprising, as it was expected that most librarians in those grades delegate their authority to other senior professionals.

Overall, the task performance of all categories of library staff concerned with formal library instruction was found to be consistent with optimum staff utilisation. Figure 6.7 illustrates, by comparative histogram, the degree of professional utilization of staff by library rank of respondents. Figure 6.9 shows the time allocation of informal library instruction in respondents' work.

#### 6.3.4 Qualifications

In the second variable of work pattern of graduate and non-graduate professionals, certain interesting features emerged from the analysis.

Tables 6.6 and 6.7 are the results of the survey based on the inventory of nineteen library tasks testing how educational attainment relates to level of task performance.

In general, Tables 6.8 to 6.23 are placed at the end of the chapter (pp. 183 to 198 inclusive) for ease of reference. This is because the analysis of library tasks from this point on becomes interrelated and cannot appropriately be discussed in isolation. The tasks are categorised according to four levels of classified index items i.e. showing features of: (1) High status professional library tasks by qualifications; (2) Low status professional library tasks by qualifications; (3) High status nonprofessional library tasks by qualifications; (4) Low status nonprofessional library tasks by qualifications. The objective of showing the relationship between educational attainment and professional staff utilization seems paramount at this stage.

#### 6.3.4.1 Features of high status professional tasks

The analysis in this subsection of index items follows the pattern of examining both time allocations of primary and secondary involvement on the tasks performed. In this case, it is clear from Table 6.10 that an overwhelming majority of respondents considered themselves as primarily involved in 'Selection' with graduates registering 65 (or 73.9%). A comparison with secondary involvement in the same task by respondents showed that only a few respondents spent less time on 'Selection' with graduates scoring 21 (or 70.0%) and nongraduates 9 (or 30.0%) of responses made.

The next task of importance to respondents in terms of performance was 'public relations', which if based on the premise of the aforementioned theoretical supposition on the issue (Section 4.3.3) could be regarded as indicative of the current positive approach by library professionals who recognised its growing importance in the field of librarianship and have thus stepped up professional persuasion of the Nigerian library community and the society as a whole.

From the survey data, 50 (or 75.8%) graduate responses indicated primary involvement with the public relations task, as against the 16 (or 24.2%) nongraduate responses. Relatively fewer respondents on both sides spent less time on the task as shown in the secondary results table of 17 (or 60.7%) responses by graduate professionals and 11 (or 39.9%)

by nongraduates. In interpreting the data, one could report that libraries seemed to have achieved the maximum potential and other expectations of their professionals involved with the public relations task.

In the performance of 'Bibliography', the results also showed graduate dominance although the performance of nongraduates was no less significant. 42 (or 68.9%) responses were made by graduate professionals in terms of primary time allocation as against the 18 (or 29.5%) of nongraduate professionals and 1 (or 1.3%) for those without degrees and unqualified. However, the results in the secondary time allocation (table 6.11) showed that many graduate professionals spent less time on bibliography with response rate of 32 (or 72.7%); this is a worrying development considering the high status of the task and its importance to the professionalism of librarians in general. The balance needs to be redressed here if staff utilization of graduate professionals is to be maximised. By contrast, the performance of nongraduates in terms of secondary involvement in bibliography was as could be expected with 11 (or 25.0%) for nongraduates and 1 (2.3%) for those without degrees and unqualified. Staff utilization in this respect was maximised.

Furthermore, as expected, 'formal library instruction' was performed mostly by graduate professionals who recorded 39 (or 72.2%) primary time allocation to the task (Table 6.10). But the reported involvement of nongraduate professionals at 14 (or 26.0%) belies current thinking on professional and nonprofessional duties in libraries with regards to this task. It seems that nongraduate professionals have been utilized in positions above their educational attainment and the consequences of this deployment both to the user and service require monitoring on the basis of various specialised needs of library clientele. If the results for secondary time allocation are examined more closely (Table 6.11) it is clear that little difference occurred in the stated figures of 36 (or 73.5%) responses for graduate professionals, and 12 (or 24.5%) for nongraduates. The statistical significance between these figures and those of primary involvement is considerably low.

It was pertinent to observe that two high status professional library tasks were outstandingly unique to graduate professional staff in the sample. For instance, in 'budget preparation', 24 (or 88.9%) of responses were made by graduate professionals who indicated that their

primary time was spent on the task (Table 6.10). The nongraduates could only manage a small response rate of 3 (or 11.1%). This result seems consistent with the hypothesis that certain tasks are unique to senior professionals with graduate status. However, even though the primary participation of nongraduate staff in budget preparation was small, their secondary involvement returns of 10 (or 32.3%) of responses (Table 6.11) begs the question of who overrated what task performed. If, as it seems likely, the respondents involved were intermediate-rank librarians such as Higher Library Officer/Assistant Librarian or Senior Library Assistant, placed in charge of branches of main libraries, then they would have perceived their obligatory quarterly estimates of funds required as 'budget preparation', whereas such task has wider connotations than this narrow interpretation. It would seem appropriate for Heads of libraries or their immediate deputies to handle budget tasks since they are in a position to do so. If one compares the figures in Table 6.8 in which the performance of budget preparation as a high status task was related to salary, it is immediately obvious that while the primary involvement responses represent the predicted situation, the secondary results (Table 6.9) remain largely unclear with those in the beginning grades recording a comfortable 12 (or 41.4%) when indeed this should not be the case if staff deployment on such task were to be strictly professional.

The second of the 'unique' high status tasks that draws attention is 'policy determination'. If this task is taken literally, then one would expect very little nongraduate participation in that the educational attainment required by the bureaucratic system stresses the need for a graduate status. Usually, the performance of 'policy determination' thus rests squarely on the disposition of librarians in the top echelon of service. The results of both primary and secondary involvement of respondents in the policy task are indicative of the arguments hitherto advanced, with 32 (or 86.5%) graduate professionals who reported primary time allocation, as against the 5 (or 13.5%) of nongraduate (Table 6.10). Similarly, the response rate for secondary involvement showed that 24 (or 72.7%) responses were made by graduate professionals while 9 (or 27.3%) were made by nongraduates (Table 6.11).

A further analysis of those who responded to policy determination showed a concentration of participation in the work activity by those in grades 10-12 (middle-management) and 13-14 (senior librarians), with

primary involvement by the former registered as 13 (or 36.1%) and 10 (or 27.8%) responses for the latter (Table 6.8). However, a surprising feature of the secondary results in Table 6.9 was the unduly large response rate of the junior professionals in grade 07-09 with 17 (or 48.6%) responses. This implies that the bulk of senior and middle level librarians were primarily involved in policy determination while the secondary results in favour of beginning librarians could be interpreted as the end-product of the formulation of policy i.e. involvement in the mechanics of implementing policy at service points - both elements are categorically separate despite being under 'policy determination' as a whole.

#### 6.3.4.2 Features of low status professional tasks

Some of the tasks in this category of library activity are generally regarded in the profession as the core of the service. For instance, respondents clearly indicated 'Cataloguing, classification and indexing' as their top library activity. Of the 77 responses made, 50 (or 64.9%) were placed by graduate professionals representing almost half the total sample (44.6%) of those with degree and qualified. Nongraduate professionals made 25 (or 32.5%) responses indicating their primary time allocation to cataloguing. Only 2 (or 2.6%) responses were made by the small number of those without degrees and unqualified (Table 6.14). If these figures are compared with the secondary returns (Table 6.15) which showed graduate returns of 20 (or 71.4%) and nongraduate 8 (or 28.6%), the conclusion seems to be that graduate professionals were positively utilized in the task of cataloguing. However, there is considerable scope for further improvement of the deployment of nongraduate staff who at present seem to be performing less than would be expected of such trained manpower.

Ranking next in importance to cataloguing by a narrow margin was the library task, 'Information work and assistance to readers' with 76 total responses. The results showed that 53 (or 69.7%) responses were made by graduate professionals as indicative of their primary involvement, while 23 (or 30.3%) responses came from nongraduates (Table 6.14). A comparison with the secondary returns by respondents showed little difference from the percentages of primary task performance (Table 6.15) with 28 (or 63.6%) responses by graduate professionals and 16 (or 36.4%) by nongraduates. The returns are reflective of graduate utilization in the task of information work and an equally positive deployment of

nongraduate staff in the professional task.

A cursory look at the response rate for 'informal library instruction' suggests a similar pattern of utilization of graduate professionals as preferred to nongraduates. For example, 31 (or 83.8%) responses were made by graduate professionals while 6 (or 16.2%) responses were from nongraduates (Table 6.14). However, the secondary returns (Table 6.15) showed an improvement in performance by the two groups with 45 (or 63.4%) responses by graduates and 25 (or 35.2%) by nongraduates, although it must be borne in mind that the respondents' performance here merely indicated that less time was spent on the task than reported in primary involvement.

On reflection with Tables 6.12 and 6.13, it is clear that a greater percentage of those who performed cataloguing, either as graduates or nongraduates, were in the junior grades of 07-09 with 39 (or 50.6%) as primary and 14 (or 50.0%) as secondary. Similarly, those in the junior grades 07-09 were the largest group to perform information work, with 38 (or 52.1%) as primary and 18 (or 41.8%) as secondary. However, as regards informal library instruction, the middle-grade librarians in 10-12 recorded the highest performance with 13 (or 36.1%) for primary involvement while the trend was again reversed in secondary as the junior-grade librarians (07-09) made the highest response with 37 (or 50.7%) responses. These results suggest that task performance, especially by those in the beginning grades of 07-09, was not commensurate with remuneration.

#### 6.3.4.3 High status nonprofessional tasks

It is expected in this section and the next that task performance by graduate professionals should naturally be low otherwise it would be assumed that libraries are not achieving the potentials of their graduate employees.

According to classification of tasks' index items, the following tasks are grouped under high status nonprofessional tasks: Bindery preparation and records; Data processing; General administration; Inter library loans; and, Periodical checking. As Tables 6.18 and 6.19 illustrate, graduate professionals spent a greater part of their time on all of the above nonprofessional tasks by wide margins from their nongraduate colleagues. For example, in general administration 47 (or 82.5%)

responses were made by graduate professionals as indicative of their primary time allocation to the task, while nongraduates scored 10 (or 17.5%) (Table 6.18). The same pattern was repeated in their secondary involvement with graduate responses of 36 (or 70.6%) and nongraduates 13 (or 25.5%) (Table 6.19).

The same trend of graduate dominance in the performance of non-professional library tasks was repeated in Bindery 77.8%, Data processing 71.4%, Inter library loan 74.0%, and Periodical checking 65.6%. Curiously, however, no clear pattern emerged concerning the salary of respondents who performed the nonprofessional library tasks. For instance, from the data in Tables 6.16 and 6.17 the pattern of responses relating to salary scales showed identical sequences among the ranks 07-09, 10-12 and 13-14 in both primary and secondary involvements. Those in the beginning and middle-grades generally displayed greater participation in the high status nonprofessional tasks. The tasks are themselves clerical in content except for Bindery preparation which unfortunately many professionals spent less time on as indicated in Table 6.17 for secondary involvement where for those in grades 07-09, 14 (or 41.2%) highest responses were made, and, similarly in grades 10-12 with 14 (or 41.2%) responses. The implication is that professional expertise is not needed nor is it essential for those above grades 10-12 to spend most of their time on nonprofessional duties.

#### 6.3.4.4 Low Status nonprofessional tasks

The library tasks that are grouped for analysis in this section include: Filing cards; Lending function; Photocopying; Repairing and mending books; Shelving and stock maintenance. According to Tables 6.22 and 6.23, nongraduate professionals spent more time on filing cards than did their senior colleagues whose responsibilities in this respect would also include the supervision of each set of cards just filed in order to enhance orderly retrieval of information based on catalogue entries. 17 (or 43.6%) of responses in the primary involvement were made by graduate professionals while a higher response rate of 22 (or 56.4%) was scored by nongraduates (Table 6.22). A closer analysis of the secondary time allocation showed an interesting feature which could be seen as consistent with the supervisory role of graduate professionals. From Table 6.23 showing secondary features, the highest response rate of 24 (or 55.8%) was recorded by graduate professionals, with the nongraduates responses being 16 (or 37.2%). This trend continued throughout the tasks

performed in the secondary group Table with more graduate professionals reporting less time spent on the tasks than they did in primary involvement.

Graduate performance was also noticeable in the Lending function, with 12 (or 63.2%) of responses compared with nongraduate placement of 7 (36.8%). By contrast, a majority of graduate professionals 24 (or 66.7%) indicated that less time was spent on the Lending task while the nongraduate secondary returns 12 (or 33.3%) were comparatively higher than their primary scores.

The returns on photocopying was generally low with only a total of 10 responses. However, an unexpected two-fifths, 4 (or 40.0%) of the responses were scored by graduate professionals, while the secondary time allocation of this group of professionals was even more surprising at the high response rate of 24 (or 70.6%).

Photocopying of documents range from journal articles requested by other libraries on inter library requests or as a direct user demand, to copying of official and private documents. In whatever category the task might have been performed, it certainly did not justify graduate handling. The situation becomes more contentious when the returns of non-graduate personnel are taken into account, with 6 (or 60.0%) responses for primary involvement and a rather low 9 (or 26.5%) secondary time allocation. When projected further with salary of respondents, the task performance was shared by both respondents in 07-09 (Table 6.20) with 5 (or 50.0%) and 10-12 with 5 (or 50.0%) i.e. librarians in the beginning and middle grades. However, the secondary scores (Table 6.21) showed a more even distribution through all the grades including senior professionals, e.g. those in ranks 13-14 scoring 4 (or 11.7%) and ranks 15-16, with 2 (or 5.9%) responses indicating that less time was spent on photocopying.

Under 'Shelving and stock maintenance' some graduate professionals in completing the questionnaire emphasised their duties as stock maintenance while presumably most of the nongraduate professionals were involved with both aspects of the task, i.e. shelving and stock maintenance. The results as shown in Tables 6.22 and 6.23 indicated a high response rate; for example, 22 (or 56.4%) responses were scored by graduate professionals, representing their primary involvement with the task. Nongraduate respondents scored 17 (or 43.6%) showing their primary

involvement with shelving and stock maintenance.

When projected further into their secondary time allocation, even more graduate personnel reported performance with 37 (or 72.5%) indicating that less time was spent on the task. However, a reduced response rate occurred in the nongraduate group with 14 (or 27.5%) responses on secondary involvement (Table 6.23).

From the analysis in Tables 6.20 and 6.21 where the tasks were related to income, it became obvious that senior professionals in grades 13-14 and 15-16 indicated their task clearly as stock maintenance rather than shelving, scoring 8 (or 21.1%) and 1 (or 2.6%) respectively. For the two cadres of senior professionals, less responses were scored for secondary involvement, with 5 (or 9.6%) and 1 (or 1.9%) respectively.

In addition, it could be observed from Tables 6.20 and 6.21 that those in grades 07-09 responded highly with 21 (or 55.2%) as primary and 25 (or 48.1%) as secondary involvement. Few middle-grade professionals, however, spent more time on the task, with 8 (or 21.1%) responses compared with those from the same group with a higher response rate for secondary involvement at 21 (or 40.4%) responses.

Thus, in general, it would seem that graduate professionals were utilized in nonprofessional library tasks in greater depth than would otherwise be expected while the training and expertise of nongraduate professionals on the same aspects of library tasks were either being under-utilized or ineffectively deployed. The various correlation of the nineteen tasks in terms of the graduate/nongraduate dichotomy of library personnel appear in Figures 6.20 to 6.38 to further enhance their visual interpretation.

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CHAPTER SEVEN: PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION;  
an evaluation of curriculum processes, planning  
and innovation and how it relates to library  
and information studies especially in the  
Nigerian context.

## 7.0 INTRODUCTION

In comparison with older established library schools and institutions in countries such as Britain, Canada, Germany, India, the U.S.A. and Russia, the professionalisation of education for librarianship in Nigeria is a recent phenomenon. While this present investigation is not concerned solely with reviewing past efforts that have achieved the present stage of development in Nigerian librarianship, it also examines in detail the important factors which, in the process of professionalisation, have either aided or impeded the development of the library and information profession in Nigeria.

The general aim of this study is to attempt to delineate those factors which have contributed to this process by surveying aspects of library development and library education provision.

Special emphasis will be placed on the post-independence period, 1960-1980, since it was during that period that visible expansion in library and information services occurred, and library schools emerged offering courses at graduate and non-graduate levels in Universities, comparable to provisions made by other schools educating workers for other professions.

Different writers have in the past made significant contributions to the study of library education in Nigeria. The works of Dean<sup>1</sup>, Harris<sup>2</sup>, Akinyotu<sup>3</sup>, Obi<sup>4</sup>, and Ogunsheye<sup>5</sup> have inter alia focussed on events leading up to, and immediately following, the establishment of formal library education in Nigeria. While they have been concerned with the historical developments in library education provision, very little attempt has been made at a thorough evaluation of the content and objectives of courses in order to show their relative importance to professional objectives.

Library education must concern itself profoundly with changes in the character of the library profession and in so doing, it is important to recognise and formulate objectives which are not only likely to reflect present library problems but also relate to future professional needs. It is the objective of this work to identify the main curricula provisions for the academic preparation of the librarian as well as the vocational contents needed for learning library skills. Thus, one of the features of concern in this chapter is the educational setting in

which the aspirant professional prepares for formal involvement in the library and information work force.

In this chapter the investigation will probe the theoretical basis of curriculum development, and how this is reflected in librarianship's definition and practice of the concept in providing the kind of education that will equip its practitioners to perform their various assignments. It is essential to this study to consider the curriculum development concept if only as a prognostic for determining those educational developments which will emerge in response to local needs in Nigerian librarianship.

Two trends of thought seem to have characterised the development of library education in Nigeria since 1960: (i) the desire and search for a theoretically-based education - which would provide the initiate with the principles and philosophy of the profession and leave the technical aspects of training to his employer, i.e. graduate education to provide 'leaders' for the profession; (ii) the insistence on providing vocational-type training - which is rich in technical skills and would provide the profession with the urgently required level of staffing needs in libraries, i.e. non-graduate education to provide paraprofessionals.

The various factors influencing the development of education for librarianship in respect of the above two schools of thought will be examined to enhance better understanding in the evaluation of library schools' programmes.

According to one of the sociological criteria on professionalism, as considered in another chapter of this work, a profession is based on a substantial body of knowledge which can be transmitted to students. It follows that attention needs to be paid to the divergent definitions of what that knowledge should consist of. In particular, it will be illuminating to consider how these divergent definitions either inhibit or promote the development of an educational system which could be termed professional.

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## 7.1 A CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK FOR CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT

### Introduction

In the field of education, an analysis of curriculum development seems to yield categories and relationships which can be arranged and studied in a 'conceptual framework'. This has been considered as a prerequisite for any theoretically sound curriculum work as stressed in the studies of contemporary curriculum scholars like: Hoyle, Hooper, Banks, Musgrave, Lawton and others (United Kingdom); Vergil Herrick, Ralph Tyler, Hilda Taba and others (American). The general task of a systematic approach to curriculum development seems to be based on the formation of hypotheses on three classes of curriculum variables, and on the relationship between them;

- (a) that it is the purpose of education to enable the individual to deal with various situations in life;
- (b) that the individual gains this ability through acquiring certain qualifications and dispositions; and,
- (c) that since it is through the various elements of the curriculum that such qualifications are to be generated, a rationally planned curriculum should be developed on the basis of an identification of these situations, qualifications, and curriculum elements to an optimal degree of correctness and objectivity.

Given the above hypotheses, one could identify 'situations' by (i) deducing and applying criteria for such identifications, for example: through combining reasoned value statements, analytic appraisals of objective (present and future) needs, evidence on the effects of learning and instruction, elements of cultural tradition and other variables. 'Situations' in this context, may be defined as consisting of personal, social, political and vocational life of the individual, and needed 'qualifications' may be defined through an analysis of these situations, thereby enabling a distinction to be made between cognitive and affective structures required to develop the structures of the disciplines. The scheme as outlined above, will enhance differentiation of the levels of curriculum development too often confused in practice, namely: the identification of aims; the definition of specific objectives into which aims must be translated; the selection of content; and, organization of teaching methodology. These points may seem obvious enough but it must be stressed that it is important to develop a logic within which curriculum development in the librarianship discipline can be objectively considered.

Furthermore, it seems logical to assume that any hypothesis on the effect of the content of the curriculum (consisting of all the elements) in generating behaviour has to be explicitly stated and, in principle, verified. Nor can there be generalisations on the value of disciplines in building a universe of 'meaning' for the learner. Such 'philosophic realism' as Phenix<sup>2</sup> calls it, needs to be checked in detail. Robinsohn<sup>3</sup> considers that it is largely through the established system of arts and sciences, through their substance, principles and methods that curriculum developers undertake to observe, appreciate and interpret reality and are thus enabled to deal with it.

The potent motives for curriculum change are shared by all countries: (a) the 'explosion of knowledge', so called especially in English speaking countries, termed the 'progress of sciences' in Eastern Europe, has evolved as a motive concept which may be defined as a vastly extended body of information and rapidly changing concepts and methods, all of which require new programmes and rationalized ways of planning curricula and teaching methodology; (b) the extension of the scope and instruments of the sciences, natural and social, has challenged the curriculum in a more profound manner; (c) changes in the structure of society, in the share of its members in economic and political responsibilities and in individual aspirations have brought about considerable quantitative and qualitative expansion of the school population.

One may submit that since curriculum development therefore is in the form of a continuum, it is the task of those responsible for changes to articulate value systems and have rational insight into social and individual needs prevailing in a society, to translate the value systems and insight into detailed educational objectives, and to integrate with them reflected practical experience and empirical evidence on the effect of learning and teaching, and thereby attempt to draw forth a consensus on the curriculum. In practical terms, however, the attainment of a consensus on the curriculum seems to be a utopian ideal as evidenced in the literature of education.

Within the conceptual framework of the curriculum it is possible to review theory with current practice in the field especially as it relates to library and information studies.

### 7.1.1 Defining the curriculum

In all human societies, children are initiated into particular modes of making sense of their experience and the world about them. This socialisation process continues into adulthood in which experience is transformed into a set of norms, knowledge and skills which the society requires for its continuance. In most societies most of the time, this 'curriculum' of initiation is not questioned; frequently it is enshrined in myths, rituals and immemorial practices, which have absolute authority. In the sociology of education, one condition of pluralism is the conflict and argument about what this curriculum of initiation should contain. This argument is, however, not the feature of concern here, but the emphasis must be that today, such conflicts and arguments are even more profound and tend to undermine rational discussion of what the curriculum should contain in the educational context.

Some clarity is needed over what is generally understood by the term 'curriculum'. A survey of the literature suggests several meanings being attached to the use of the term. In the meantime it may be helpful to distinguish the use of the word to denote the content of a particular subject or area of study from the use of it to refer to the total programme of an educational institution. Often, conflicts do arise as attempts are made to reconcile the competing demands of these two aspects of curriculum planning. Inadequacies of previous attempts at curriculum planning can be attributed to the fact that they have tended to proceed in a rather piecemeal fashion within subjects rather than according to some overall rationale, so that the curriculum is seen as 'the amorphous product of generations of tinkering'<sup>4</sup>.

Kelly considers that the term curriculum concerns 'the overall rationale for the educational programme of the institution'.<sup>5</sup> This definition may be acceptable in the context of planning but surely it is lacking in meaning for considering problems relevant to individual subject content. There are four basic elements of the curriculum: objectives, content, methods and evaluation - these do not constitute neat, discrete categories but at least they help to streamline the search for a definition. They are closely interrelated and each element is influenced by, and influences, the others. The curriculum therefore constitutes a 'system' and curriculum development (or 'change' as some writers prefer to call it) is in one sense a form of

'systems analysis'. This view is consistent with system theories proposed by Kerr<sup>6</sup>, Taba<sup>7</sup>, Taylor<sup>8</sup>, Merritt<sup>9</sup> and Hirst<sup>10</sup>.

A curriculum may be externally or internally justified based on assumptions regarding the nature of the environment, student and institutional needs. The curriculum is the nerve centre for relating the various facets of change in the environment. It incorporates an understanding of (i) the nature of the student; meaning of his life, his self perception, his needs as person and librarian, how he learns, and his previous learnings; (ii) the nature of librarianship; the objectives, the tasks, the certification system, and expert opinion on problems; (iii) the state of education; the teaching profession, the educational institution, organization of education in national, state and other parastatal institutions; and (iv) the political, social and economic climate.

In addition to defining the curriculum its educational role could be put into greater perspective through an understanding of the evolution of the concept. Historically, 'curriculum' is a Latin word carried directly over into English. Its first Latin meaning was "a running", "a race", "a course", "a career". By picking out just two of Cicero's uses of the word it is possible to trace the direction in which the term has developed. Defending Rabivius, Cicero stated: 'Exiguum nobis vitae curriculum natura circumscipsit, immensum gloriae' (Nature has confined our lives within a short space, but that for our glory is infinite)<sup>11</sup>. 'Curriculum' is used here to refer to the temporal space in which we live, to the confines within which things may happen, to the container as opposed to the contents.

Conversely, while writing the scripts for the seventh volume of the Antiquities, Cicero described the work - involving the study of law and Greek literature - as 'Hae sunt exercitationes ingenii, haec curricula mentis' (These are the spurs of my intellect, the course of my mind runs on)<sup>12</sup>. 'Curriculum' here refers to the things he is studying - the content. This metaphorical extension, firstly from the race-course and running to intellectual pursuits, and then from the reference to the temporal constraints within which things happen, to reference to the things that happen within the constraints, prefigures the general movement of the term through the ancient and modern world. One may wish to enquire about the length and obstacles of a race-course.

In particular, one may wish to relate this kind of enquiry to the intellectual curriculum. These considerations remained the important curriculum questions throughout the medieval world.

The term curriculum apparently did not find its way into the vernacular in England until the nineteenth century. In 1643, the Munimenta of Glasgow University referred to the 'curriculum quinquae annorum' (curriculum of five years), maintaining the ancient Latin ambiguity of the container and the contained; that is, reference is made to the content of the curriculum in terms of its temporal constraints. Questions asked by curriculum designers changed little during this period, though the common seventeenth century opinion assumed that all the faculties of the mind, both active and passive are 'mightily heightened and improved by exercise'. In this respect, Rymer argues that there were profound disagreements about what content should be used to exercise the mind<sup>13</sup>.

The use of the term curriculum in England, following the German lead, still had some way to go along the metaphorical extension from indicating the container - period of study - to indicating the contained - course content. For example, item 39 of Glasgow University's calendar for 1829 states: 'The curriculum of students who mean to take a degree in surgery (is) to be three years'. However, by the end of the nineteenth century, the term had changed very rapidly, and typical uses seem to have lost any lingering sense of the container or temporal constraints, and mean simply the content. One aspect of development in curriculum studies during this century is the emphasis placed upon the question of how, as distinct from what should constitute the curriculum. This has led to focussing on the individual learner as an important variable.

Thus, in recent years the meaning of curriculum has widened to include detailed plans of student activities, a variety of study materials, suggestions for learning strategies, and arrangements for putting the programme into use<sup>14</sup>. Decisions about the content of the curriculum are now being based on an analysis of the nature of society. A survey of the literature suggests differing views as to what is to be taught in schools and whether this should be decided by reference to the culture of the society the schools have been created to serve. A leaning towards this interpretation of the curriculum even when the

problems of definition are recognised, is likely to lead to a view of two or more cultures. This is not necessarily disadvantageous to educational practice as some writers seem to indicate. For example, Elliot<sup>15</sup> and Bantock<sup>16,17</sup> have argued that having a view of two or more cultures could have serious implications for curriculum planning and educational practice in general. However, it seems impossible to isolate wholly the ideal elements in culture without incurring grave falsifications. According to Bengt<sup>18</sup>, those who try to understand imaginative literature or art without reference to its social context are guilty of 'intellectual triviality'. The important point is to enable connections to be made among the elements of culture and it does not seem that the problem is what the connections are but how they should be established especially in the planning of curricula.

The curriculum may therefore be viewed as comprising several interrelated components: precise statement of objectives for each area of study, the knowledge and learning experiences most likely to achieve the stated objectives, and the means of deciding the degree to which the objectives are being achieved (evaluation).

#### 7.1.2 The core: purpose and function

A characteristic example of controversy generated in the literature of curriculum studies is the purpose and function of the common core concept. The controversy in this area centres on whether or not there is in fact a core of knowledge central to the study of all disciplines. Librarians with keen interest in professional education, as well as professional library educators seem to have joined in the questioning of the importance and significance of the core concept as it applies to library education practice.

A basic assumption that underlies any core programme, for example in library and information studies, should be: is there a body of knowledge that is central to all librarianship, sufficiently central that all prospective librarians should be required to master it, no matter what their library types or specialization may be? Any answer may not be perfect since the knowledge considered to be 'sufficiently central' cannot be precisely defined. On this basis, the assumption itself may not be universally acceptable since librarians and educators have differing views with regards to the fundamental reasoning of a body of knowledge considered central to all librarianship.

#### 7.1.2.1 Brief history of the common core in British librarianship

The question of a common core in British library and information studies dates back to the 1882 Library Association Syllabus and 1906 six sectional certificates which in addition to English and European literature had 'the principles of classification, the elements of bibliography and cataloguing, library administration, and a cataloguing knowledge of at least two languages besides English'.<sup>19</sup> The Library Association's Annual Report for 1929-30 reported a drastic restructuring of the entire syllabus. The six sectional certificates were discontinued and replaced by a three-tier examination structure: elementary, intermediate and final. According to Bramley:

... the new syllabus represented a bold attempt to emulate the work of other professional bodies and make the examinations of the LA a true test of competence to practise as a librarian.<sup>20</sup>

A case in point of the core elements was the inclusion in the final examination of compulsory papers such as General Bibliography and Book Selection, with a somewhat unusual choice in the further papers between historical bibliography, paleography, and archives, or indexing and abstracting. The compulsory paper had five main areas: the essentials of good book production; the collation and description of books; the materials of bibliographic compilation of bibliographies; and, book selection. The Advanced library administration consisted of two compulsory papers: part (a) Fundamental and General, covering all types of library; and part (b) giving a specialized alternative - either (i) public, or (ii) university and special libraries.<sup>21</sup> Thus, professional librarians were required to have a grasp of the basic techniques of classification and cataloguing and a knowledge of other subjects in the elementary examination.

With regards to the final examination, Bramley argues that the objectives of testing and revealing the candidates' advanced knowledge of library practice could not have been realised because the core was rigid in the Library Association's new syllabus and did not reflect advances in library practice.<sup>22</sup>

Between 1930 and 1970, the core was persistently the focus of argument in the library profession with questions raised as to its inflexibility. In the late seventies, a curriculum workshop considered demands for increased specialization in the profession.<sup>23</sup> Similarly in 1980 a curriculum development project<sup>24</sup> seminar critically examined the

common core concept, with most participants acknowledging existing changes in library schools curricula most of which are unrecorded outside the official documents of the schools.<sup>25</sup> The old troika inherited from the Library Association syllabuses: cataloguing and classification, management and bibliographical organization, was still seen substantively in many teaching syllabuses. But it was now overlaid with many new elements and not simply the teaching of library operations.

Following the British Library report on computer teaching in schools of librarianship and information science (1979)<sup>26</sup>, one could understand why it was that the seminar concerned itself on the role of the computer in library and information work and how this affects courses. The Library Association's Working Party on the new technologies currently stresses the need for post-qualification re-training in this field but educators found that the Working Party discussions had little regard to the impact of technology on library school courses other than the request that the courses should cover the effective management of the new technologies, while in terms of methodology the bulk was shifted to the library schools to respond in some way with regard to the curricula<sup>27</sup>. The findings of the seminar can be summarised as follows:

...management courses still exhibit a wide variety of approaches and levels. Librarians, not unexpectedly, lay great stress on skills in so-called 'interpersonal relations' and the need for 'self-management'. Cataloguing skills seem to have acquired a new lustre in schools, with some reflected light from AACR2 and the burgeoning databases. The links with bibliographical skills are in some schools being more clearly established.<sup>28</sup>

It can be observed that the core in the United Kingdom has so far displayed a remarkable resilience in the process of curriculum reform. For example, an element of a common core which for long was submerged beneath the traditional three elements was the use of books and information, and the needs and problems of the user. This central professional concern is now so evident in practice and teaching that participants at the seminar felt it has become part of a common core.

In the view of Edward Dudley, the structure of a common core which stipulate the extent and level of treatment of commonly identified subjects can no longer be spelt out in British teaching syllabuses. A quantitative approach, along the three traditional lines, which was

attempted in the sixties by the Library Association when it was asked to approve the rapidly growing number of internally organized and examined courses, was considered by the seminar as no longer valid.<sup>29</sup>

Furthermore, emphasis is now being placed upon 'a more effective assessment' of the relevance of the core to professional practice of the future. Such assessment, it was argued, could be achieved through examining the objectives of courses and teaching syllabuses and the relationship between them. The new function of the core, as may seem likely, would require to make an impact on practice but as one library school Head remarked, "the common core may be a valuable unifying myth, but it will be difficult to find that much common ground between the core teaching of all courses in all seventeen schools".<sup>30</sup>

#### 7.1.2.2 American library schools and the common core

A survey of the professional literature reveals that even among those who support the idea of a core, library educators in the United States seem to be moving decidedly in the direction of reducing as much as possible the amount of compulsory elements in the content of library schools' curricula, thereby increasing the number of different optional courses from which the student may freely choose. Asheim states that in almost all cases where syllabuses have been examined there is some kind of requirement or compulsory course elements, i.e. if not a single requirement for all students, then separate requirements for all students in each specialty: 'a bunch of little cores'.<sup>31</sup> The author suggests that the common core which is presented in separate forms usually consists of two or three courses that turn up in every core, thus incorporating the general core concept sub rosa.<sup>32</sup>

British writers on library education have sometimes implied developments in the field as being predetermined by events in the American library education scene. For example Bramley, an accomplished library education historian, while commenting on the LA three-tier examination syllabus, writes: "the optional papers which had been introduced at the final level were but pale copies of the elective subjects which were being offered by the schools of librarianship in the U.S."<sup>33</sup> The literature of library education is replete with traces of developments in the field in both countries. However, the approach to the core concept in American library schools is slightly different from that of British schools as shall be explained in detail later.

The core concept in American education for librarianship can be traced to the beginnings of formal library training in the U.S.A. Melvil Dewey's school, starting as a required programme of a few months' duration, was essentially all core - based on a kind of task analysis of what desk workers do in libraries. As schools began to expand, the basic general information began to be supplemented by elective courses as well, and by the time of the 1923 Williamson Report, the programme was about one-half required courses (which may be one way of defining the core), and one-half electives. The required courses continued to consist essentially of the content of Dewey's early programme: cataloguing and classification, reference and bibliography, book selection, and administration of libraries. The emphasis was highly practical even though the one concession to a more humanistic and less obviously-practical content was the history of books and libraries.

In 1923, Williamson surveyed library schools' programmes and suggested that book selection, reference work, and classification were the 'heart of the curriculum'.<sup>34</sup>

The term 'core' gradually came into use when in 1936 Reece in his book, The curriculum in library schools, refers to 'a common core', but as a descriptor not a generic name<sup>35</sup>. In the post-war period of the 1940s when a shortage of trained personnel began to focus attention on the need to train a large number of persons in the basic skills, a more formal identification of basic content began to take shape, and the term 'core' began to be used for a specific component of the curriculum. In the same period, despite the influence of Williamson's call for a more professionally-oriented education rather than just technical training, there was a reversion toward the Dewey-programme in American library education. The basic skills were to a great extent taught at the undergraduate level, and consisted of the kind of training which now typifies the present Library Technical Assistants' curricula. Increasingly, such 'core' content was seen as a prerequisite for the professional education that led to the fifth-year degree with the continuing pressure from the profession to condense such core content to as short a period as possible. Many librarians and library educators in the U.S. were concerned that the introduction of core content into the college curriculum would dilute the librarian's background of general education, and the consensus began to be in favour of placement of both core and elective courses at the post-bachelor's level as part of the master's degree

programme. By the time of the 1951 revision of the Standards for Accreditation, the master's had become the official level of the first professional degree, despite the large number of undergraduate programmes that were producing candidates for library positions which carried professional status. And in both the undergraduate and the fifth-year programmes, the core idea persisted.

Several important educational conferences were held in the 1940s and in the period immediately after, but perhaps the most memorable in the early 1950s was the University of Chicago Workshop on The core of education for librarianship, which in 1953 reaffirmed the core idea but did suggest that some of the library content could be taught at the undergraduate level concurrently with the general courses without reducing the amount of general education in the total programme<sup>36</sup>. Elsewhere in the literature Asheim reports that this recommendation did not find wide acceptance in practice, but that the idea of the core continued to characterize library education even though in its application there does not seem to be necessarily an agreement on its content or structure.<sup>37</sup> This suggests the elusive nature of the core curriculum.

The core has since then been variously modified as shown on the programmes of American library schools: to the old Dewey basics, certain new areas of attention were added: The library in society, for example, and in the Chicago Workshop - Research. In the intervening years after that 'Materials selection' has replaced 'Book selection'; 'documentation' showed up for a while then changed its title, thus: 'School libraries' became 'Media Centers', 'information science', 'library automation' and multi-media approaches became almost unanimously part of the required content. Attention has been focussed on the effects on the curriculum in regards of change of titles. Marco for example observes that:

A serious level-error in library training is found in the United States, in the approach to preparation of librarians for elementary schools. (These librarians are now more often referred to as media specialists, and their libraries are known as media centers.) While librarians in public and university libraries are expected to have Master's degrees, media specialists are normally employed with only Bachelor's degrees. It seems that the function of the media specialist has not been correctly assessed; such a person does in fact require a knowledge base

of great complexity, and an educational experience no less complete than that of colleagues in other types of libraries.<sup>38</sup>

This idea of changing titles can distort the function of the core especially in a changing profession such as librarianship even though it is recognised that the required content of courses is perhaps defined by areas of need in library practice.

Horrocks<sup>39</sup> in examining the concept of the core, suggests that the idea in modified form, dates back to the initiative at the University of Pittsburgh in 1964 when the university introduced a new orientation course taken by all students in their first month of study. Students were introduced to the literature of librarianship, library history and the current professional situation, to the teaching methodology, i.e. its being team-taught by a number of professors and visiting speakers within and outside the faculty. Team-teaching is the significant element in this new approach by Pittsburgh.

Reed<sup>40</sup> in 1971 published a report of a survey of American library schools in the context of the core. Nine out of the fifty library schools surveyed still required Library history course (one of the core components); thirty-two schools demanded a course in Book selection; forty-two required Cataloguing; forty-two required Reference. But the fundamental Library in society course showed that twenty-six schools required it. Reed also discovered that the information science course offered by most schools earlier, had by 1970 dwindled to just eight schools. The implication of Reed's findings is that the core idea was falling out of favour with many schools in key areas of study. In an apparent attempt to revitalise the concept, the American Library Association's Standards for accreditation expressed continued support for the belief that library education should include 'the study of principles and procedures common to all types of libraries and library services'.<sup>41</sup> But the Standards do not specify these principles and procedures, leaving it to each school to identify and justify its own set of basic essentials. Because of this general reluctance to be specific, there are those who hold the belief that librarians and library educators really do not have any idea what the essentials of librarianship are. If there is no common agreement on what the core should be then it follows that there is no such thing as the core, they submit. Rees, for example, argues that a library school that has a

core programme is dedicated to turning out generalists and is therefore indifferent to the needs of specialists.<sup>42</sup> Asheim expands on this argument by stating that the schools with a core programme normally are dedicated to turning out both generalists and specialists and also desire their specialists to have a thorough grounding in general principles.<sup>43</sup> Each library school has its own set of required content and each one when it comes up with its (presumably unique) definition of the common core turns out to be where everyone else is; advocating the premise that anyone holding a degree from the particular school should know something about materials that carry information, the needs and interests of the users of those materials, and the means, devices, processes, and mechanisms that will bring the user and information together. Usually, the disagreement about details of courses and the comparative amount of attention given to the different areas of study is seldom about the study areas themselves.

Marco<sup>44</sup> conducted a survey of library schools showing recent trends in respect of the core curriculum in graduate education. The study was limited to courses offered at the Master's degree level which have been accredited by the A.L.A. The findings of the survey suggest that there is a 'threat' to the core although what constitutes this threat remain undefined. Marco's findings expose an emerging attitude which he proposed in four new axioms:

- (1) While basic principles and professional concerns are central to the programme, they do not necessarily remain constant. Changes of emphasis are to be expected.
- (2) Basic principles and professional concerns do not necessarily have to be shaped into particular courses such as those which have been found in the traditional core curriculum.
- (3) A convenient approach to the teaching of basic principles and basic professional concerns is through the device of a single 'integrated' course.
- (4) Whatever curricula structure is employed, the educational objectives must be clear and specific, and the measurement of success - for the curriculum and for the student - is the extent to which educational objectives are attained. These educational objectives are based upon the tasks which librarians will be expected to perform.<sup>45</sup>

Of the four axioms outlined, axiom three seems to present a new approach to the core - an integrated approach to the organization of contents especially in the core areas. The theme of an integrated

approach to the core was carried further in the Workshop on the integrated core curriculum: alternative approaches<sup>46</sup>, held in March 6-8, 1977 at the University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill. The Workshop was organized by the library schools of the University of South Carolina, Drexel University and the University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill. Seventy-one library educators from forty schools were in attendance. The findings of the workshop indicate that the integrated core curriculum concept did not receive universal enthusiasm. For example, when asked in a survey if an integrated core curriculum might be considered for their school, 32% of the participants said 'yes'; 16% - maybe, and 45% 'no'. When asked why not: tradition, faculty resistance, financial considerations and the presence of part-time students in the programme were some of the reasons given. Thus, the results of the survey show that some library educators were dissatisfied with their programmes as they now exist, but such educators remain unconvinced that an integrated core curriculum is the solution<sup>47</sup>.

This attitude, as exemplified in above results, does not detract from the major arguments in favour of providing a core programme: i.e. it is wasteful to duplicate the teaching of basics in multiple contexts; that librarianship loses its integrity and identity as a result of a fragmentation of the profession which impedes the ability of librarians to communicate with each other<sup>48</sup>; and, that the existence of a core strengthens the specialist courses which follow, by sparing them the necessity of repeating over and over again the core content at the expense of the more intensive specialist study which can be built upon the assurance that all students in the class have already been exposed to the principles on which the specialist operations rest or from which they depart for specialist reasons<sup>49</sup>. This seems to be the present situation of the American core curriculum.

#### 7.1.2.3 Implications of the common core for developing countries

The 'curriculum' as a whole is the instrument by which the objectives of a programme (or body of programmes) are translated through a series of lectures, seminars and tutorials, into Knowledge (i.e. learning) skills that are required to cause affective and behavioural changes in the recruit for the profession. Within this broad definition of the curriculum one may argue that a core programme is sine qua non in the planning of basic professional courses in the library school. The function of the core could be defined as 'that part of the total

curriculum which requires to be learned, no matter what specialization the student aims for, or at what level the student is taught.<sup>50</sup> Whatever modifications there are to the core concept the function remains the same. The purpose of the core is to contain 'those features of the educational programme which have common application to all librarians whether they work in a small public library or large university library, a high school or college library, or a special library in a technical organization. The link between the 'purpose' and 'function' of the core is the educational preparation of both the generalist and specialist in all spheres of library and information work.

There are implications, in the adoption of the core concept, for curriculum planning in the developing countries. According to Dean,

For various reasons the idea of a core curriculum is favoured in the developing countries, since the demand for flexibility and mobility requires every librarian to have an overall mastery of the essential elements of librarianship as they apply in any library situation. Where professionals are often few and far between the necessity of producing people who are, for example, adaptable enough to move from a special library to a public library or from a cataloguing department to a reference department is paramount. The argument in favour of the acceptance of a core idea is really an argument for the production of the generalist or Johannes fac totum at the basic professional level and for training in depth in specialist fields at the post-professional level.<sup>51</sup>

It is clear that the author considered the core concept in situ by revealing the relative importance of the concept to the developing countries based on the urgent needs of libraries and library schools in those countries. The situation is often more confused especially when with economic boom as experienced by Nigeria in the seventies, sudden expansion in library services occurs with the attendant urgent staffing needs to meet the demands of a rapidly changing society. The argument put forward by Dean in the above quotation is very pertinent today in the 1980s as when it was made in the early seventies. Provision for the educational preparation of librarians in Africa is still inadequate, bearing in mind that in the U.K. alone there are seventeen library schools which is equivalent to the whole of library schools in Africa. The responsibility lies with curriculum planners in the profession to ensure that the common core concept is used to good effect in preparing professionals for work in the expanding library and information services.

It is recognised that the emphasis on each constituent subject varies according to local needs of the country in which the library school is situated, and this is likely to affect the functioning of the core. The effects of modifications to the core are considered in detail with reference to Nigerian library schools, in chapter 7.5.

Thus, in the case of developing countries, Dean states that the professional course is normally structured to cover core subjects and ancillary electives, the latter giving students an opportunity of pursuing individual interests without detracting from the general appreciation and comprehension of the essential aspects of librarianship.<sup>52</sup> Elsewhere in the literature Professor Peter Havard-Williams refers to the importance of the core concept for the developing countries, stating that the idea of a core programme is a useful one if only to set educators thinking of the possibility of using resources economically, and more important, to initiate, where this is necessary, a more unified approach to the education and training of library, information and archive staffs<sup>53</sup>. The extent to which this objective has been achieved in the planning of library education programmes in Nigeria is evaluated in chapter 7.5. However, the objective of a unified approach to the core seems to have taken off quite well in Nigerian educational programmes, and this study presents an opportunity for reviewing and reporting progress that has been made. Emphasis in the objectives of library and information studies programmes seem to have moved from training for narrow special areas to training of library and information personnel for information studies based on a harmonised structure of the common core curriculum. For example, Professor Ogunsheye<sup>54</sup> of the Ibadan Library School has demonstrated the application of the harmonised core in the curricula of two library schools in Nigeria, based on the seminal work of Havard-Williams and Franz on Planning Information Manpower (Conference document Com 74/NATIS/REF 5).

In the past decade, various contributory factors have emerged to stimulate curriculum reform in library and information studies. One could consider the development of information systems and resource sharing, information network systems, planning of national information agencies, and international efforts directed at planning information manpower through seeking standardization in educational practice in librarianship for developed and developing countries alike. In particular, one could consider the role of NATIS concerning its discernible

efforts in the provision of qualified manpower for information services bearing in mind universal technological innovations and the impact on libraries and library education - the Intergovernmental Conference of Unesco in September 1974 is an example of such efforts: to ensure a minimum supply of suitably qualified manpower for NATIS attention was paid to the programme for professional education and training of information personnel in its Objective 13. Objective 13 states inter alia that "... basic elements of this programme are; (1) the harmonization of curricula for documentalists, librarians and archivists ..."<sup>55</sup>. The common core concept has incurred added significance and importance through this unified approach to the curriculum.

The varied patterns of educational systems in different countries, it is recognized, often incur varied structures which tend to relate to the relevant needs of the local community. The common core programme as proposed in the NATIS document has a broad framework from which it would be possible for individual countries to interpret its adoption according to needs: the needs of students, staff and institution. According to the Objective 8 of NATIS, Unesco states its course of action as follows:

A core subject area, in harmony with equivalent programmes and objectives at national, regional and international levels, should be adopted as a guide for preparing basic professional curricula for information specialists, librarians and archivists at a level consistent with that<sup>56</sup> of other university programmes of graduate standing.

It is not always possible to follow up an objective which is as international in character as in the above quotation. It is therefore to the credit of Unesco that recent developments indicate a continuity of action as envisaged in the framework of NATIS and UNISIST programmes. For example, a second Inter-governmental Conference on scientific and technological information for development (UNISIST 11) was held in Paris 28 May - 1 June 1979 where support was reaffirmed for the harmonization and co-ordination of programmes in the education and training of information personnel. Unesco also convened a meeting at its headquarters in Paris from 26 to 30 November 1979, with the aim: "to examine the possible measures to be taken for the harmonization of archival training programmes and the co-ordination of these programmes with those designed for the training of librarians and information specialists"<sup>57</sup>. This follow-up conference is a positive sign of progress being made in the attempt to harmonize the structure of the

common core programme. Examples of individual library school's implementation stages are few in published form although Beraquet in a recent study provides a survey of schools offering combined training programmes for information studies:

At the 'Ecole des Charters', Paris, archivists and librarians are trained together since its foundation in 1821; documentalists are added to these two (groups) in the U.K. at the School of Archive, Library and Information Studies at University College, London, and at the Department of Library and Information Studies at Loughborough University of Technology; in Africa at the well-known school at Accra and in Senegal at the School of Librarians, Archivists and Documentalists at the University of Dakar; and in Spain, at the 'Escuela de Documentalistas, Archiveros y Bibliotecarios' in Madrid where they have a post-university programme for archivists and librarians, and a common programme on the sub-professional level for assistant archivists, documentalists and librarians.<sup>58</sup>

A significant omission is a mention of other effort at a combined training, as currently being done at the Ibadan Library School, even though evidence has been made available in this respect in the professional literature, since 1977.<sup>59,60</sup>

In general, the post-World War II decades have brought into being new social, economic, political, scientific and technological changes which have re-shaped the traditional elements of library provision and practice and have therefore left their mark on the content of library and information studies.

The growth of literature and world literacy have complemented educational expansion. This has led to increased specialization and the emergence of new subject matter especially in the sciences and technology; introduced new materials and equipment; and also brought about the increasingly large and literate user population in libraries. These new elements call for complex skills and a specialized knowledge that could be most systematically conveyed in library schools.

With library and information studies still faced with the challenge of providing principles and guidelines for these new library situations, the notion of a core programme is invaluable in curriculum planning. One cannot propose that the mastering of detailed knowledge and skills in certain areas of library work, once essential and highly valued, is any longer a substantial part of library education. The important

aspect of education for librarianship in terms of organizing the curricula of library schools is to recognise the new function of the common core element in order to achieve the desired result of producing a professional capable of handling situations in library and information work.

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THE BRITISH LIBRARY BOARD.

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#### 7.1.3.1 Objective and scope of review

As in any other profession, librarianship responds to change in the society in which it exists. The changes which affect librarianship, especially in the last few decades, have been phenomenal - the expanding frontiers of knowledge, the improvement in, and application of, modern technology and hardware, and the increased awareness and complexity in demands for information by the society the library exists to serve. Education for librarianship is essentially concerned with transmitting knowledge and skills which are necessary for successful performance in the profession of librarianship. This function places library schools at the vortex of the profession, and whatever change is necessary naturally originates from curriculum renewal. The objective of the literature review, in this section, is to trace developments in education for librarianship concerning aspects of curricula change in response to the changing nature and practice of librarianship as viewed mainly from British, American, Nigerian and other countries' perspectives - such as Australia and India.

No particular date limit is set, although, more attention is paid to events in the past two decades of curriculum development in librarianship. Matters of historical detail and other non-essentials have been left out in preference for an in-depth analysis of curriculum development activity in and outside the library schools. In essence, the coverage of the review provides suitable background from which to assess the extent of "professionalism" in Nigerian librarianship from a professional education viewpoint.

#### 7.1.3.2 Introduction

In the field of educational studies, curriculum development is a rather broad area of activity which encompasses the orientation of institutional objectives and the forms of knowledge required to bring about learning experiences in students. There exists various kinds of institutions each with its own objectives, teaching strategies, and approach to selection of curriculum content - based mostly on historical, sociological, philosophical, and psychological perspectives. One fundamental point seems to emerge from a consideration of the literature on curriculum development, that, it is generally accepted that students have many and complex needs, and that the curriculum should be sufficiently broad and varied to provide for as many of these as possible. But what kind of needs are they, and in what ways can the

curriculum provide for them? The concept of 'need' is a difficult one. In almost all kinds of professional organisation, few people would doubt that human beings have need of warmth, nourishment and security, without which they would perish.

But what, in the educational context, are a person's intellectual, social, psychological, aesthetic, emotional and physical needs? How are objectives determined and by whom? Too often in the educational literature needs are assumed and prescribed rather than explained and justified, and curiously, library educators seem to follow this trend in their interpretation of educational needs of the librarian.

One explanation that may be advanced in respect of a determination of 'needs' is that, the primary educational need is for various kinds of knowledge and understanding. All human knowledge, according to this view, is the product of refined and systematic thought. The dimension of thought will vary from institution to institution as symbolised in the cadres of professions. For example, this school of thought justifies the differences that exist in the structure of the curriculum of professional schools be it medicine, clergy, social work, management, library and other "professional" bodies. The ability of professionals to work upon, and make sense of experience in any recorded form, results ultimately in a body of knowledge essential for growth and maturity in that profession. Thus, this fund of organised and refined experience has been classified into a number of public traditions of knowledge, modes of inquiry or what the educationists refer to as 'cognitive structures'.

<sup>King</sup>  
Hirst offers one possible list of logically distinct kinds of knowledge: mathematics, the physical sciences, the human sciences, including history, literature, the fine arts, morals, religion and philosophy. Elsewhere in the literature, Hirst and Peters add that:

To educate a person significantly in some of these (forms of knowledge) only is to limit the forms of his development which we are prepared systematically to pursue. The issue of breadth in education, as opposed to narrow specialization, is, if faced properly, surely the issue of whether or not a person is being significantly introduced to each of the fundamentally different types of objective experience and knowledge that are open to men.<sup>2</sup>

Reading through the literature, it is interesting to observe the varied influences of the authors' view on some library educators' work.

In a similar manner, Phenix offers the possibility of an alternative way of classifying experience for the purpose of education. In his Realms of meaning<sup>3</sup> he argues that man makes sense of his world in six fairly distinct spheres:

- Symbolics (verbal and non-verbal communication);
- Empirics (the controlled testing of hypotheses);
- Aesthetics (the exploration of form, as in the visual and plastic arts, music and drama;
- Synnoetics (insights into human identity and personal relationships);
- Ethics and Morality (involving standards and values which legitimise human conduct);
- Synoptics (the study of Man in some holistic or integrated fashion).

Phenix's approach to knowledge, as summarised above by the present writer, can be observed to provide a less clear curriculum blueprint than does Hirst's cognitive structures, which are somewhat closer to familiar subjects in the curriculum. Hirst, for example, calls specifically for religion and history whereas Phenix's realms, though not excluding either in the curriculum, appear to permit their incorporation within broader categories of experience. But, it is important not to exaggerate these differences since the elements of study in the disciplines tend to overlap, say in history and sociology, where one has the option of choosing either a simple classification or a complex one.

However, other schools of thought need to be taken into account. For instance, Pring argues that educators are centrally (but by no means exclusively) concerned with the development of knowledge and understanding.<sup>4</sup> According to Pring, it is important not to lose sight of practical knowledge partly because it is valuable in itself, and partly because practical knowledge is so often what theoretical knowledge is theorizing about.<sup>5</sup> In spite of this assertion, Pring admits that there are many different kinds of knowledge, developed into various disciplined modes of inquiry, but he provides a counter-view that the major problem lies in the selection of particular subject matters from the vast range of possible ones especially with the limited amount of time allowed on the time-table. Although Pring's argument is child-centred in the context of the school curriculum, nevertheless it is generally agreed in the literature that the author's viewpoint bears relevance for practice in the higher education system. On balance, his argument would seem difficult to ignore in relation to those of Hirst and Phenix. Pring's submission that the principles of selection are many and thus any curriculum must be a compromise seems valid since it is difficult to

prescribe in detail what such content should be. That would have to be debated in particular schools, or school systems, in the light of principles which a teacher or school or authority finds defensible.

It is against the foregoing background of the basic tenets of educational theory that we now examine the concept of Curriculum Development and its interpretation and practice in librarianship.

#### 7.1.3.3 Definition of curriculum development (CD)

The view of the curriculum, which is presented in the introduction and in the previous sub-sections of the chapter on professional education in this present work, suggests that effective policies for an overall curriculum should embrace all of the following elements;

- (a) the aims, purposes or principles of the school;
- (b) the selection and arrangement of studies and activities;
- (c) the methods by which these studies and activities are to be mediated;
- (d) the availability of the curriculum to students and the principles governing availability;
- (e) methods of curriculum planning and strategies for curriculum development;
- (f) methods of assessment and evaluation in the school;
- (g) local factors and, in particular, the claims of the community.

These elements (a-g) are co-ordinated into policies for the curriculum. Given such framework for an overall policy, the curriculum is always subject to debate because of its intimate relationship to social and political values.

The norm of socio-economic changes dictate a constant need to clarify and up-date teaching objectives and procedures.<sup>6,7</sup> Changes in the society are more or less reflected in a reappraisal of values and change in student attitudes.

In the literature on sociology of education, sociologists accept and view education as inevitably adaptive to economic and technological change, whereas educationists argue that education itself generates change in these areas. Both arguments have had a prodigious influence on the planning of curricula as a continuing process. The sequence of the theorist's planning, i.e. identifying the aims and objectives, selecting content, methods and organisation, and finally evaluating,

may not represent the exact sequence the practitioner follows, but at some stage in the planning process, it can only be assumed that objectives need to be identified.

Consequently, in view of existing influences that may mitigate against successful implementation of any curriculum design, it is important to seek a working definition of curriculum development to aid in the application of the concept in planning library education programmes. Hirst's definition, as quoted by Ghuman in a recent paper, states that curriculum development is:

A programme of activities designed so that pupils (students) will attain, as far as possible, certain educational ends or objectives.<sup>8</sup> (my emphasis)

The objectives theme is taken up by Lawton who explains that the need for curriculum 'change' (or 'development' as the term is interchangeably used) seems firmly rooted in the objectives model. For example, what are to be the objectives of a given course? Who is responsible for enunciating these objectives? Usually for 'objectives' to be objective in the real sense, it must be the product of an agreed consensus among the curriculum development project team in the educational establishment. In this context, objectives have to be specific, unlike "aims" which can be very broad and general, thereby representing a main focus for clarifying fundamental questions of relevance, logics, and contradictions as often occur in curriculum development processes. However, in its educational context the varying use of the objectives model is borne out in studies by Bloom<sup>9</sup>, Kratwohl<sup>10</sup>, Musgrove<sup>11</sup>, Stake<sup>12</sup>, Gribble<sup>13</sup>, Kratwohl et al<sup>14</sup>, Harlen<sup>15</sup>, and Hogben<sup>16</sup> among others. These educational writers focussed their attention almost exclusively on primary and secondary education with no appreciable implications for individual course development at the higher education sector. It can also be observed that, until recently, very little attention was paid to the problems arising from pre-specification of curriculum objectives. For example, Tyler<sup>17</sup> had earlier in 1949, offered a model of curriculum planning which commenced with the specification of objectives, but like the later work of Bloom in 1956 it failed to make an immediate impact on either the theory or practice of curriculum development. The situation changed in 1965 when in Kratwohl's work it was suggested that three or more levels of specificity be recognised, i.e.:

- general statements of goals that will guide the planning of the curriculum as a whole;
- behavioural objectives derived from these (statements) which will guide the planning of individual units or courses;

- a third level of objectives appropriate in some cases to guide the planning of specific subjects.

In retrospect, it is important to consider Bloom's offer of three clear domains in the range of objectives - the cognitive, the affective, and the psychomotor - the first two of which are fully worked out in the two volumes of the taxonomy. Bloom seems to suggest that in framing objectives it is important for educators to be clear not only about the sequential nature of the activity but also about the different categories of behaviour that are of concern. The 'cognitive domain' is defined as comprising 'objectives which emphasize remembering or reproducing something' which has presumably been learnt; it also comprises objectives which involve the solving of some intellectual task for which the individual has to determine the essential problem and combine it with ideas, methods or procedures previously learned.<sup>18</sup> Questionably, Bloom offers no criteria for the evaluation of objectives, i.e. no basis upon which a choice can be made concerning specific objectives in a given educational context.

Perhaps more important is the clear omission in the taxonomy of any account of the nature of knowledge - the premise on which the work is supposedly based. Furthermore, educational philosophers like Pring have noticed that the taxonomy has no clearly worked-out epistemological foundation. Pring<sup>19</sup> argues the need for such a foundation as being an essential prerequisite for any taxonomy of educational objectives, since whatever else education is concerned with, it is certainly concerned with cognitive development of many kinds, and with the acquisition of knowledge of many forms. But, in whatever perspective that curriculum development is viewed: as a 'process', 'system', or 'activity' by its practitioners, the problem of finding a parameter for its definition within the context of professional education, still persists.

In general, those responsible for professional development in all fields, have indirectly contributed towards providing a sound knowledge base relating to practice in the different spheres of professional activity in which they are engaged. The process through which such a base is achieved is largely dependent on factors such as: attendance at many meetings over the years; Group seminars; writing; and a good deal of exchange of views about content and relative weighting of courses, not to mention the effects of the "invisible college" on exchange of information and material. With the tenets of practice

clearly developed, every profession depends upon its system of education to be the primary entry point for new professionals. It is in this vital role that professional schools are expected to sort out the aspirants and to decide which of those who are admitted to professional training qualify for graduation. Curriculum development as an area of activity in the library school is therefore a vital element in the furtherance of aims and objectives, and content through learning experiences based on change in the circumstances of practice. Thus, for the purpose of this present study, a working definition of curriculum development would be:

The continuous review of course content and relationships undertaken as needed: such as, when the employment market, or professional thinking, or manpower forecasts, or the trend of research interests dictates that change is due.

This definition is all-embracing, including the elements of educational objectives as cited in the quotation on p.163. Curriculum development may thus be regarded as a cyclic process represented in two simple but effective models:

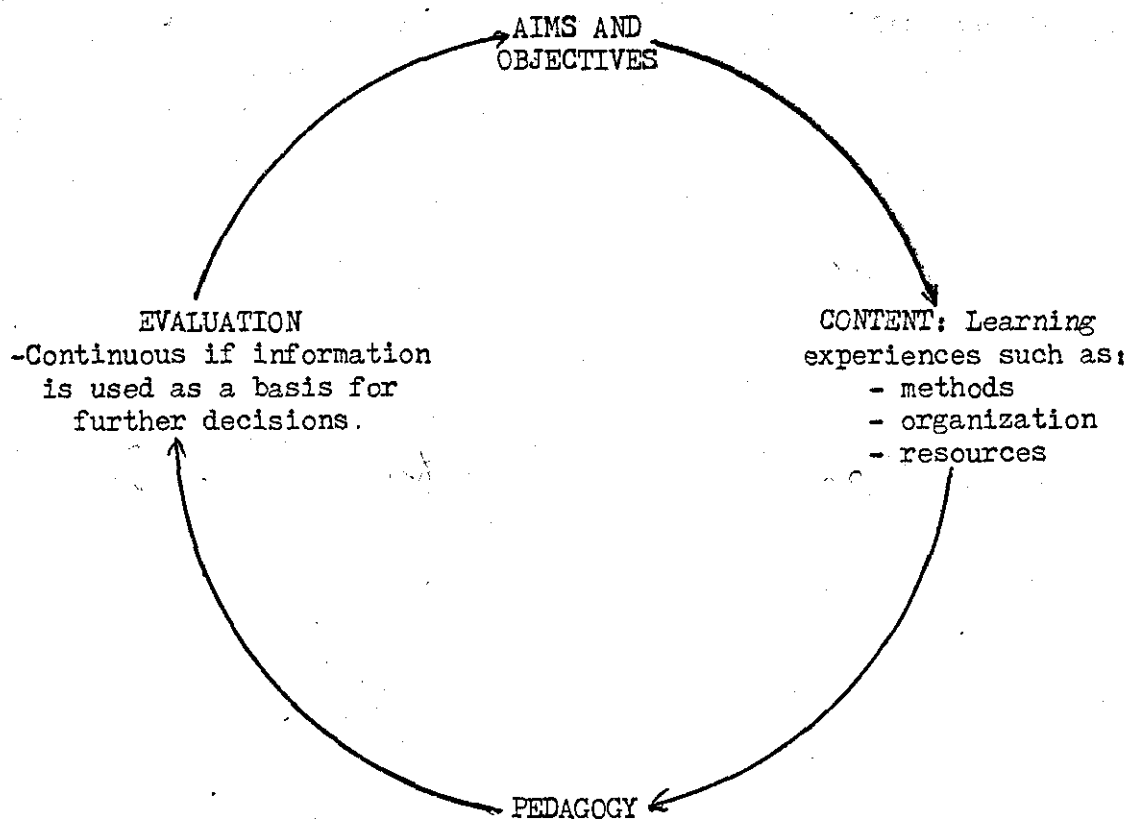


CHART 7.1: Curriculum development as a cyclic process

When applied to library education practice in Africa, the present writer views the cyclic process as follows:

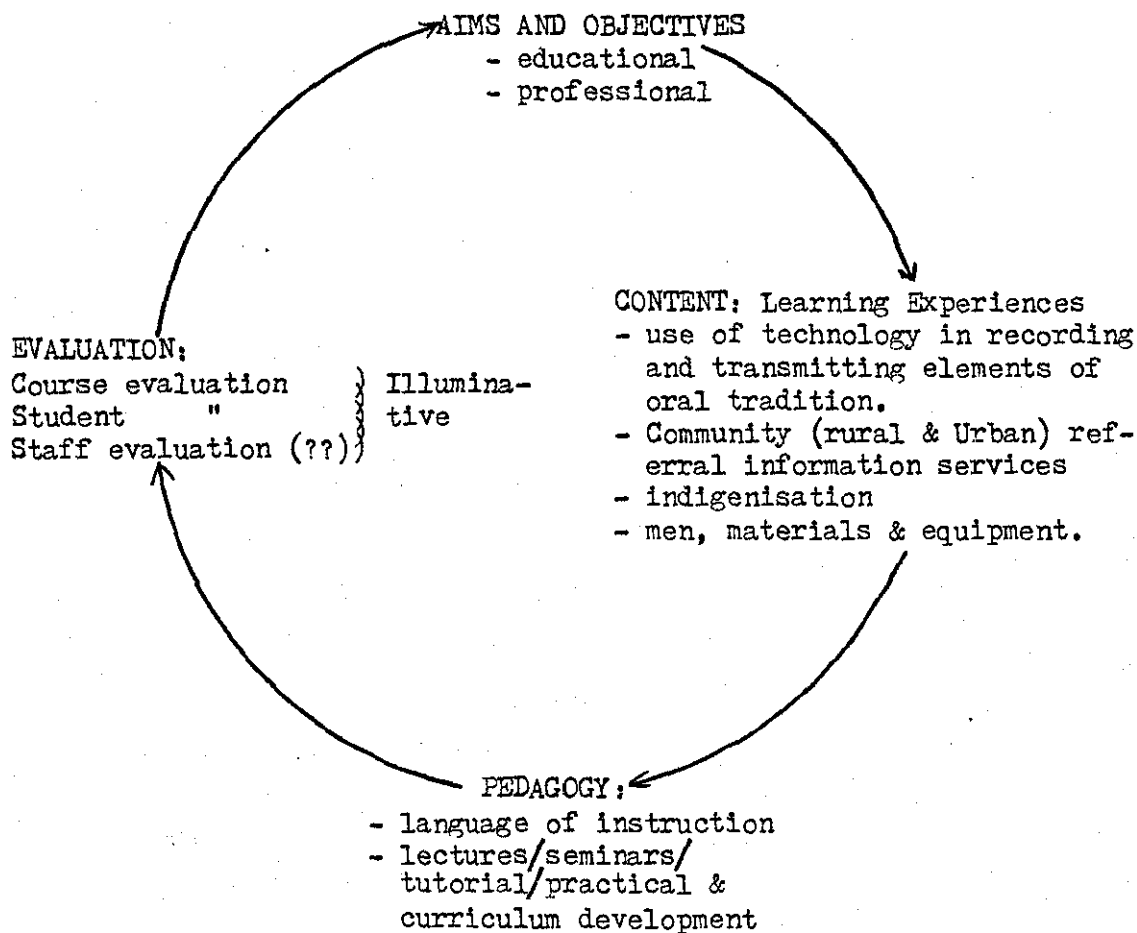


CHART 7.2: Curriculum development as cyclic process in African library education

The implications of the process in Chart 2 are reflected and commented upon in the literature review that follows in Section 7.1.6/1/2. However, it is immediately noticeable that the need for change seems firmly rooted in the objectives model since it serves as a focus for clarifying fundamental questions of relevance, logics and contradictions as often occur in curriculum development processes. Basically, any approach to curriculum development in professional education should follow the model as set out in Chart 7.1. In order to be satisfactorily related to changing circumstances in the profession, the pattern as set out in Chart 7.2 is likely to emerge although priorities will need to be determined in the subsections of each main heading.

In examining the literature on curriculum development it becomes apparent much work remains to be done in relating the values pervading

professional activity to the values pervading other parts of society, such as; economic, political, and religious. This is essentially because the core of the generally-accepted criteria on professionalism is itself under constant stress of change since the Industrial Revolution through the nineteenth and now twentieth century. The implications are quite enormous for educational practice in the professions which is already having more than its fair share of splinter group and elements. In this respect, one can understand the present confusion as to the undoubted distinction between those subjects which are considered as purely 'academic' and those (like library studies in the 50s and early 60s) which are considered as 'vocational'. In the case of the latter, there exists a peculiar problem arising from the need to work out, for educational purposes, a satisfactory relationship between theory and practice. Consequently, most of the professions include elements of academic study in the curriculum either to enhance their status or improve the theoretical foundation of the intellectual content of professional practice.

The educational activities of library schools and establishments concerned with library education are examined in the following review of curriculum development literature in library and information studies. For convenience of thought, the review is conducted in seriatim, indicating British, American, Nigerian and other studies mainly from Australia and India.

#### 7.1.4 British Studies

Contributions to the curriculum development literature in library and information studies in the United Kingdom have accumulated over the years in a rather unique fashion. Unique, in the sense that by the end of the eighteenth century the education of professional "men" (unisex term) was almost entirely by the apprenticeship method but it was only in Britain that, by the end of the nineteenth century, a professional qualification granting chartered status was well-established. The holder of the (British) Library Association (LA) Diploma have had chartered status as distinct, for example, from the American pre-Dui (Dewey) years of apprenticeship and in-service library training classes designed to improve local services.

##### 7.1.4.1 The "professional" element

In the United Kingdom, an historical overview of the development

trends in the library education scene is covered in detail in Gerald Bramley's 'A history of library education',<sup>20</sup>. Perhaps more significant in this context is the author's latest work 'Apprentice to graduate',<sup>21</sup>, which not only sets out to complement the earlier work but also examined, (a) "the results of the decision taken by the Library Association to assume the role of an examining and a qualifying body; and (b) the responses of the Association to changing educational and social influences (my emphasis) to the point where the Library Association relinquished its direct responsibility for the conduct of examinations in librarianship".<sup>22</sup>

Bramley chronicles the pattern of the changing educational and social influences by tracing the metamorphosis of librarianship from a mechanistic function to a fully-fledged profession, i.e. from the introduction of competitive examinations in the nineteenth century to the predominantly graduate emphasis of modern times. He also showed the conflict of interests which occurred within the profession, the arguments about status, and what he uncharitably referred to as the "withering" of the Library Association's examining function as independent library schools grew and began to flourish. In terms of content of courses, the Library Association used its monopoly of the register of chartered librarians to impose restrictions on the schools. For instance, the Library Association's policy at the time was that if academic subjects were introduced as stiffening elements at the expense of library study, then it might well refuse to recognise such courses as suitable preparation for admission to its register of professional librarians. The courses which were eventually introduced under CNAAL auspices, at undergraduate level in librarianship, represented a compromise. Bramley submits that;

The curriculum of the librarianship content, for the most part, closely followed the pattern of the syllabus introduced by the Library Association in 1964. The students were usually required to study the core subjects in their first year, covering library administration, cataloguing and classification and reference work.<sup>23</sup>

Apart from the specialised options made available in the second and third years, each library school had introduced one or more other subjects into the curriculum which would usually bear some relevance to the study and practice of librarianship. Davinson<sup>24</sup>, for example, reflects that languages were often accorded an important place in the curriculum, as well as sociology and economics. These subjects were

usually taught by other departments in the college, sometimes quite independently of the study programmes in librarianship.

Despite the historical details contained in Bramley's work, it still provides a good background from which to have an in-depth view and understanding of curriculum development in British librarianship. The importance of the Library Association as a valuable contributor to what constitutes the professional content of the curriculum, cannot be ignored. The Library Association has for several years provided the syllabus for professional examinations for the chartered status both at the Associate and Fellowship levels in Britain and many overseas countries. By mid-seventies the educational trend in British librarianship was towards a graduate entry into the profession. Therefore, pressure naturally came to bear on the profession to restructure its system of education and pattern of recruitment. Most library schools were increasingly attached to higher education establishments at universities and polytechnics and their consequent expansion within the higher education system made curriculum renewal an absolute necessity. Besides this point, other professional bodies in U.K. were already re-examining and restructuring their system of education in view of changes in the field. There may appear on the surface little in common between, for example, accountants, civil engineers, medical practitioners, and librarians, but professional bodies in the U.K. all have Royal Charters and are therefore all under the general supervision of the Privy Council. Thus, the Library Association Council in 1975, appointed a working party to investigate 'The future of professional qualifications' with the following terms of reference;

1. To determine appropriate levels of registration and certification in relation to the present and future needs of the profession;
2. To consider and define the nature of, and to identify the principles underlying professional education and registration and how these should be attained and regulated, in the light of available evidence;
3. To assess the resources required from employers, training boards, educational institutions, and the Association and to determine priorities;
4. To make recommendations.

The ensuing Report<sup>25</sup> took cognisance of developments in other Chartered professional bodies and found that they too were reappraising their education and training policy. Perhaps of significance in the case of the Library Association is the fact that the working party worked in

consultation with the influential Professional development and education Committee of the Library Association an executive body through which the recommendations were forwarded to the Council.

In all, seventeen recommendations were made, three of which are pertinent to mention here:

- That all students entering schools of librarianship in and after 1981 should be required to achieve graduate status before being admitted to professional membership of the Association;
- That a new membership structure be introduced with effect from 1981 as follows:  
Chartered Librarian { FLA - Fellow, after at least 5 years as Associate Librarian  
                          ALA - Associate, after 3 years as Licentiate and completion of a professional report and interview;  
                          LLA - Licentiate, after one year of approved service following a first qualification in librarianship at graduate or postgraduate level.
- That the Library Association should take the initiative in establishing a standing committee with representatives of the Library Association Professional Education and Development Committee, Association of British Library and Information Studies Schools, and other interested organisations to act as a focal point for communication between the schools and the rest of the profession, particularly in regard to content of courses (my emphasis).

Clearly, the implementation of the report is at present in progress with considerable scope for optimism as indicated in current trends. The proposed structure, Chart 3 (p.286) can be observed to establish a solid base for the "professional element" in curriculum development as it places professional qualifications firmly at graduate level. Furthermore, attempts to widen the route to FLA status through professional contribution such as PhD in library and information studies, have been restricted perhaps understandably in view of the fact that the Fellowship is the highest accolade that can be conferred on a 'professional', and if it is not to lose that status, it ought to be awarded selectively and, more important, on presentation of professional contribution based on practical rather than theoretical experience. However, for the Associates under the new regulations it will be 1986 before any new-style associate can be elected. (Details of professional courses are discussed in Section 7.1.2 of this work.)

#### 7.1.4.2 The academic element

With the advent of university and C.N.A.A. degrees in library and information science, considerable attention has been focussed on their development at both undergraduate and postgraduate levels. It would seem that contributors to the literature on curriculum development in the U.K. chose specific areas of practice in the disciplines. For example, in the international scene, Franz and Havard-Williams<sup>26,27</sup> have proposed the harmonisation of the core curriculum for the educational preparation of the librarian, archivist and documentalists. The paper came out fairly strongly on the notion of a 'harmonized' core curriculum for the three disciplines or as they put it, 'three aspects of a basic discipline', based on a general division of the curriculum into - Foundations, materials, methods, management, mechanization and men. Another strand in the document is that of different levels of performance and therefore of training similar to the division identified in earlier works by Schur on the Education and training of information scientists in the '70's<sup>28</sup>, and the survey done by the British Government Department of Education and Science.

Elsewhere in the literature, Havard-Williams<sup>29</sup> argues that the connection between a core curriculum and the different levels of education and training were insufficiently worked out in the Unesco paper, as each kind of professional should be thought of in three distinct ways in the curriculum:

- (a) general education
- (b) professional education
- (c) supervised training before/during and after the period of education.<sup>30</sup>

In expanding on the notion of training, the author cited the example of practice in the United Kingdom where the usual practice is to complete a three or four year degree in a subject other than librarianship, information science, or archives study, to undertake a year's practice in a library, a documentation centre or an archive repository. The candidate then takes a year's master's or diploma course, and for librarianship or information science needs a year's practice under (chartered) supervision before being admitted to full professional membership of the Library Association. It is this link, between curriculum development activity and professional manpower planning, which formed the basis of thought for curriculum renewal in the late seventies yet in almost all the professional literature on the concept of library professionalism this fact seems to have been largely

ignored.

More fundamentally, those concerned with professional education have been pressurised into taking increasing account of the changing nature and needs of library and information work, and the consequent implications for professional education. The Council for National Academic Awards (CNAA) library and information studies degree curriculum owe immense debt to the Library Association syllabus (cf. Sections 7.1.2/7.1.4.1) but then began to break out in other directions so that innovation in the curriculum became a significant feature of the periodic five-year CNAA submissions. The freedom enjoyed by individual institutions in preparing its own programmes led to a concern on the structure and content of degree courses in library and information studies. Technological change has invariably implied a change in professional and education objectives.

In terms of structure, a change which has been of considerable significance is that when the Bachelors degrees in librarianship were started, the general opinion in the profession was that the library subjects had to be shored up by more respectable academic subjects which would give the degree its respectability. But as time went by, more articles and books have been written and more research done, and as Havard-Williams has observed, "library studies has become a subject sufficiently respectable to stand on its own".<sup>31</sup> However, this situation far from 'shoring' up library studies as a subject, changed the direction from which pressure came to bear, i.e. the question as to whether postgraduate librarianship is effectively taught in the short space of nine months (PG Dip); and whether strictly as librarians, candidates with a BA degree are not better prepared than those with a postgraduate qualification in librarianship after taking a degree in another subject. Next to experience change is the content, as the climate of education qualification and professional practice became dominated by the whirlwind of the new technological age with which, in the future, librarianship is most likely to be associated. Again, it has been predicted on paper that curriculum development would take an effective account of technological innovations by providing in the curriculum similar schemes 'to professional education schemes found in other spheres of social and scientific activity' (mainly engineering, computer sciences, and accoustics).<sup>32</sup>

Another unique proposition relating to structure and content of library studies is that an integrated master's degree of five years' duration might be a future alternative, on the model of the five-year degree in architecture.<sup>33</sup> A typical two-year postgraduate master's course as an example, is set out in Table 7.1 and the possible scheme advocated for PhD course is as set out in the example in Table 7.2 (Volume Two). In proposing that these developments in the professional education of the future "librarian" be incorporated in curriculum development, Professor Havard-Williams admits that it is 'not so easy to forecast the orientation of new objectives as the general emphasis on information, computer studies, community librarianship, and services to education is likely to continue'.<sup>34</sup> The feasibility of a two-year Master's programme and doctoral by coursework as proposed by Havard-Williams (Tables 7.1 and 7.2) is already being explored by library schools in the developing countries of Africa (cf. 7.1.6.2).

Other British writers in contributing to the analysis of curriculum development in specific areas of library and information studies, have concentrated on comparable elements of the curriculum. For instance, Grogan<sup>35</sup> has examined in detail, the non-librarianship elements of degree courses in librarianship, and thus provided a valuable insight into their development; Wilson<sup>36</sup> has investigated the influence of research on the processes of design and development of librarianship curricula and found that the literature on curriculum development which indicates theoretical or descriptive models illustrating the influence of research, was almost non-existent. The available literature, according to Wilson, is chiefly American and concerned almost exclusively with primary and secondary education<sup>37</sup>. The author then examined the semantic difficulties usually associated with attempts to provide a working definition of curriculum development both in an educational context and in specific applications of usage. Although Wilson's contribution to curriculum development literature is a welcome addition in a field already starved of documentary evidence of practice, the scope of the paper was strictly limited to the writer's experience of the design of CNAA proposals, contribution to the design of the MA in Information Studies at Sheffield and earlier contributions to discussion on the Library Association syllabus. His conclusions show that research has only a marginal influence on curriculum development.

With regards to weighting and assessment, Holroyd<sup>38</sup>, Kay and Wood<sup>39</sup> have related their findings to a general application of the assessment procedure in library and information studies, and specific application in terms of coursework, using the basic principles of educational theory and practice.

The development of thought on educational trends in the field of information studies (and "science") have also poliferated. For instance, Foskett<sup>40</sup> has provided an in-depth review of the intellectual foundation of information "science" as a discipline and argued the case for its development within the curriculum, based on the 'real needs of users'. Saunders<sup>41</sup> has conducted a review of the whole field of education for science information work with emphasis on the unity and the interrelated nature of librarianship and information work. In a UNESCO/UNISIST Report, Saunders<sup>42</sup> proposed guidelines for curriculum development in information; although it is apparent that the work is not original it still provides a useful confirmation of the status quo for the developing countries as it serves as a focus for standardisation in the provision of information studies programme in the library schools. The opportunities and problems encountered in the process of developing the information science curriculum have been discussed in the work of Maguire<sup>43</sup>. In all these studies, the language and methodology of curriculum studies have been related practically to the formal processes of the library and information field, although such application of educational theory have not altogether escaped from criticism in the library profession. For example, Dudley observes, that the trend in curriculum development processes for undergraduate courses is not without its flaws:

... These (curriculum development language and methodology) seem little understood by many practitioners - not altogether surprising because the BA, BSc, BLib qualified librarian is still the exception, accounting for no more than one in ten of working qualified librarians.<sup>44</sup>

Despite this criticism, it is important to this study to closely consider contributions to the curriculum development literature as experienced in the process of design by British library educators.

Needham<sup>45</sup> refers to the undergraduate curricula of library schools in the U.K. as collective representations - 'images of reality' as perceived by planners. He points out that these "images" are most clearly

to be perceived in the structure of the curriculum i.e. in the general plan and sequence of study; the designation of core areas (and hence peripheral ones); the kinds of approach adopted, such as the relative degree of priority given to types of libraries as against processes and operations; the weighting of parts and the balance between theory and practice; and, the span of internal relations between elements<sup>46</sup>. The 'images' are reflected in three core areas; management, indexing, and bibliography. Arguably, this identification of the core areas cannot be generalised due to different interpretation in terminology, e.g. "management" or library administration, and "indexing" or cataloguing and classification. Whatever terminology is used the framework remains the same. For instance, the writer suggests that librarianship subjects can be studied in context of their intellectual environment. The curriculum elements emerging from such contextual description is as represented in Chart 4 (p.294). Notable in the chart is the element of academic subject study inextricably attached to community studies, yet Needham does not see any justification in their inclusion in the curriculum. He concludes by proposing an integrated approach for developing elements in the curriculum as exemplified in the chart, but 'integration' is not mainly the basis for planning teaching strategy for the interdisciplinary parts of the curriculum.

Wilson<sup>47</sup>, in a related study identifies three categories of factors influencing curriculum development (as set out in Chart 7.5):

- (a) Preconditional factors - i.e. those factors that create the need for curriculum development, e.g. the creation of polytechnics and the establishment of the CNA.
- (b) External or 'environmental' factors, such as the needs of the market, the quality and backgrounds of potential students, general professional opinion, research trends, and overall time constraints.
- (c) Intra-organisational or internal factors, such as available teaching skills, internal competition for time and associated 'power' struggles, general knowledge of the field and trends within it, and research.

Clearly, an interaction of both the external and internal factors indicates a reliance on the objectives model in view of the stated preconditional and environmental factors - this vital link with the necessary statement of objectives is missing in Wilson's analysis, but the paper cannot be faulted on the value of its contribution to the understanding of the curriculum development process. In other instances, articles and theses have been written in aspects of curriculum

development activity.

Davinson<sup>48</sup> has traced the influence of computer and telecommunications technology on curriculum development in librarianship and found that the rate of change "has transformed the face of librarianship in Britain", and the consequences for traditional forms of librarianship are, that this rate of change will accumulate at an increasing pace until, within ten years or so, considerable amounts of the present range of tasks carried out by librarians will be 'virtually dead' (sic). While this assertion may be true, for example, in the area of co-operative cataloguing services with the consequences for teaching, (as librarians may no longer require a high standard of competence as cataloguers), it is nevertheless unlikely that library traditional system will be "virtually dead" either now or in the immediate future. Such exaggerations can be rather startling and counter-productive in the recruitment of new professionals.

In a comparative study of degree courses in librarianship and information science in the U.K., Lawal<sup>49</sup> submits that:

1. There are different elements constituting degree programmes offered in British library schools, in terms of: varying structure and course content. For example, different regulations govern course weightings and assessments thereby leading to obvious differences such as in the area of degree classification, supervised projects and dissertations, and, fieldwork; the nature and period of library placements for students and the degree of success or failure thus achieved.
2. There is a common ground in the specialised options for the postgraduate Diploma course content. For example, in area studies, each institution specialises in studies relevant to their locality, e.g. Wales (CLW); Welsh area studies in Bibliography; London; UCL's Palaeography and Archives; Polytechnic of North London (PNL) - music course combined with librarianship studies.
3. The separate institutional development of information science courses has led to no discernible pattern as regards what level the course ought to operate. The unique features of existing information science curriculum are analysed to show their comparability in the light of programmes being run at Leeds; City University, London; Sheffield; Loughborough; and Wales.<sup>50</sup>

The study presents a wide variety of evidence as regards curriculum development activity in the sixteen library schools examined.

Burrell<sup>51</sup> in a comprehensive two-volume work, has investigated the systematic foundation for professional education and training in

British librarianship and information 'service'. Burrell states that the systems approach to curriculum development process consists of six phases:

1. The initial selection of aims, goals and objectives at successive levels of specificity, expressed in terms of desired behaviours.
2. The selection of such learning experiences as are likely to help students to attain the chosen aims, goals and objectives.
3. The selection of suitable subject-matter content as a vehicle for the chosen learning experiences ...
4. The organisation and integration of learning experiences and subject matter content to sustain the learning and teaching processes in the classroom, i.e. in all learning environments.
5. The planning of certain other elements of the educational process, i.e. (a) learning and teaching methods; (b) assessment of student achievement; (c) selection or adaptation of plant and facilities; (d) preparation, deployment and continuing education of staff; (e) recruitment of students; (f) the follow-up of ex-students.
6. The planning and implementation of the continuous evaluation and modification of the whole system.<sup>52</sup>

Based on the above-mentioned system orientation of curriculum development as a process, the author hypothesised that current unsystematic methods of constructing and delivering programmes in education for librarianship in the U.K. lack simplicity, predictability, and flexibility of structure; ease and economy of administration; relevance to professional life; and a basis of sound educational theory for teaching, learning and assessment. Because of these deficiencies, students and teachers tend to be confused about the nature of the aims and goals of programmes, about the level, direction, pace and desirable content of studies and about the efficacy and relevance of the procedures. Burrell suggests that there is a common conviction that a curriculum is merely the sum of its content. For the same reasons, librarians in the field, as potential employers of the young people concerned, are unable to evaluate, influence or complement the programmes to the full. It was further suggested by the writer that there may well be a significant degree of under-achievement in all quarters as a further consequence of these deficiencies. In Burrell's study, the conclusions show that:

1. A vocational curriculum must be designed to produce, not a practitioner who merely retains a given body of knowledge, but one who is the right kind of person for the activity, possessing appropriate attitudes, behaviours and complex intellectual

skills of a high order and who is eager to perform effectively as a librarian in any context.

2. that these attributes may be educed, enhanced and orientated, but not necessarily inculcated ab initio, by exposing the student to a carefully chosen set of experiences, presented through the medium of an appropriately integrated and smoothly unfolding body of subject content which is, itself, suitably structured and weighted and presented in an appropriate sequence.
3. that librarianship and information service do not constitute a traditional profession however, primarily because they lack any distinctive central philosophy, theory or principle and because their practitioners, are, for the most part, salaried employees of large organisations whose main service is not to individual clients but to the population of a given catchment area. Librarianship excludes the study and practice of "information science" and "information technology" which latter are concerned with the theoretical design and the construction and testing of information systems. Apart from this proviso, librarianship and information service are regarded as constituting a unified area of activity.
4. the curriculum should not be confined, metaphorically or in reality, to the four walls of a library but should explore many aspects of the practical and intellectual life of the community, its institutions and records, with academic vigour.
5. Because the curriculum is based upon a close analysis of the tasks to be performed and upon the implications of these tasks for the "life" of the society, particularly for its documentary and information needs, the curriculum is thus assured of "relevance", a basic criterion of validity for any educational endeavour.
6. That library schools should teach "what could and should be", not merely "what is", the state of affairs of librarianship ... The curriculum is in effect a bridge reaching out towards "what should be" but firmly anchored to "what is". The proposed curriculum is not a bland placebo but a prescription for basic professional skills, attitudes and knowledge, interpreted and delivered in a more realistic, systematic and flexible manner than has been attempted before, and thereby rendered adaptable to change so long as the profession regards changes in services as opportunities and new technologies as tools with which to exploit the opportunities.<sup>53</sup>

Burrell's recommendations reflect the growing trend towards relating the curriculum of library schools to the tasks and functions of professional library and information services, but the curriculum development process should also take cognisance of the manpower implications for all categories of library staff. This requires that quantitative data will be required on the "work characteristics" of library and information professionals in order to accurately determine

the task analysis and relative educational innovation needed to bring about the desired factor of 'relevance' in the curriculum. Some of Burrell's conclusions along this line could not be tested nor evaluated since the work lacks the essential methodology for achieving any such objective. In this present work, this element of evaluating specific task items in library and information is examined in detail in the chapter on "methodology". However, this point should not detract from the rather high qualities of Burrell's work. The work is certainly the most substantial literature on U.K. curriculum development process for some time, using appropriate educational theory to illumine the systems approach to modes of education for librarianship and information service through in-depth analysis of: "objectives", content, learning and teaching modes, plant and facilities, deployment of staff, recruitment of students, and follow-up of students (including career counselling and placement).

Recently, the British Library Research and Development Department's Curriculum Development Project was commissioned (1st May, 1978) to:<sup>54</sup>

- (a) Study the development of the professional curriculum, particularly the nature of the "common core", its relevance to other and newer aspects of the curriculum and to the changing activities of libraries and information units.
- (b) attempt to identify lines of needed and fruitful development.
- (c) to give some consideration to the nature of constraints on curriculum change.
- (d) generate discussion of the topic among teachers in the Schools and practising librarians.
- (e) Organise a workshop on the subject.

A main focus of the enquiry would be the so-called 'common core' of the professional curriculum, seen both as a foundation of the curriculum and as preparation for professional work. There is little doubt that indexing, bibliography and management are, however labelled, regarded as the three basic areas of study in most, if not all, British schools. It is also fairly certain that this core, based as it is on a traditional view of librarianship, is increasingly the subject of criticism. It would be widely accepted that as a structure, it leads to disintegration; relationships between the elements of the common core necessary to adequate study and professional practice are not visible. Moreover, given this core, professional concerns tend to be reduced to technicalities because context is secondary. Nevertheless, most schools have introduced

a wide range of contextual studies during the last ten years; again they tend to remain isolated. It would be fruitful therefore, to enquire into the internal core relationships and the relationships between the core and contextual studies.

(For "context", c.f. Chart 4 p.194)

The scope of the enquiry would be primarily but not exclusively concerned with first professional qualification courses; undergraduate, postgraduate diploma and Master's degree.

Methods. The nature of curriculum development and innovation does not easily lend itself to statistical analysis and easily quantifiable data. Questionnaires will have a small and useful part, but only discussions and interviews are likely to reveal information and important shades of opinion and the motivation of teachers and students. Accordingly, the approach will be by means of visits to schools and to some libraries and will employ what educationists sometimes term 'illuminative evaluation'...

It was decided not to make a close survey of the current curricula at the various schools in the hope that they might be reduced to some comparative evaluation, nor to send detailed questionnaires to each institution but rather to visit employers of librarians and information workers as well as schools of librarianship and information studies and by personal discussion attempt to obtain more significant information ... we are hoping to focus attention on new developments in the belief that many of them would turn out to be stimulated by some major dissatisfaction with a previously existing state of affairs ... Consideration has also been given to an evaluation of students' opinions of the curriculum.

The summaries of interviews were analyzed under headings which give some idea of the scope of the work, i.e.:

- changes in the curriculum; the common core; computer studies; the future; the gap between the teaching and practising profession; joint honours degrees; librarians and information officers; the over-production of librarians; the (fieldwork) placement of students; postgraduate courses; the role of the curriculum; the selection of students; the teaching of management; user studies; and some additional topics such as the education of the specialist and generalist; over-high expectations of students; community information; teaching of bibliography; post-qualification courses; job opportunities; the teaching library; the teaching of statistics; speaking and report writing; research; training; school librarianship; job descriptions; short courses; audio-visual materials; commercial and technical information. (These are presumably reduced to order in the Final Report.)

From the foregoing quotations on the scope methods and purpose of the Curriculum Development Project, it becomes clear that the "common" core in British library schools is found to be traditionally composed of three areas of study (which have been identified in an earlier paper by Needham<sup>55</sup> at the Wales Workshop on curriculum development in 1977): "bibliography", "indexing" and "management". In another paper delivered at the Cumberland Lodge Seminar on the Curriculum Development Project in 1980, Needham has again examined 'The common core'<sup>56</sup>, and in an observation of the core trivium - "bibliography", "indexing" and "management", he comments that:

Continuing espousal of this trinity prevents the proper recognition of people and requirements. Inevitably the needs of those served by the systems of indexing, bibliography and management are viewed obliquely (in so far as they are viewed at all). Professional education thus fails to promote a sense of service - a fact too often attested when service is sought.<sup>57</sup>

This view seems to reflect an "anti-core" stance in favour of an integrated approach to the curriculum. When evaluated in context of the curriculum, "bibliography" contains two elements that are of minor consequence, i.e. the physical bibliography of printing and book-binding, and the physical attributes of tape and film are fascinating concepts broadly refined by experience, but need they be allowed to further side-track potential librarians since they can display ability to talk intelligently with the trade and draw up sensible specifications? Historical bibliography though of considerable value has limited opportunities for application by potential librarians taking up their first duties in libraries, how then can it justify its time allocation on a tightly scheduled programme? These questions have wider connotations in that they invoke curious examination of the other parts (subjects) constituting the curriculum in order to determine the range of priorities.

"Indexing", in its broadest sense, may very well include traditional classification and cataloguing, but in the narrower interpretation of the concept, one may argue that it has little in the way of a direct "public service" content and its products are not understood or used by the public to the extent that its practitioners would wish. This observation is backed up in the findings of numerous "catalogue use surveys"<sup>58</sup>, but even more significant is the probability that practitioners lack initiative in educating or training their clients

in the use of classification schemes, catalogues, indexes and databases.

"Management" is more inherently accepted as a component of the 'core', as it is usually envisaged and sometimes extended to include a substantial element of the social context of librarianship with which there may be little in common. This pragmatism lends itself to the theory that "management" is utilitarian in a subject-departmentalised school organisation. One may relate this to Needham's suggestion about the common core:

Three steps seem to be called for. First, people and their requirements must somehow be made real to students. Second, means must be found for ensuring that students undertake the creation and analysis of systems in the light of that reality. Third, existing systems must be presented not as the absolutes they so often become when they themselves are the core, but, on the contrary, as human responses to particular and often complex situations, always bound to their historical context and therefore provisional.<sup>59</sup>

The core therefore becomes a matter of aim and method rather than of content; thus, it is susceptible to change. Dudley observes that where the common core is concerned, there has been 'the most extensive change in our (British) courses, most of it unrecorded outside the official documents of each school'<sup>60</sup>. Dudley also reveals, in relation to management for example, that discussions during the curriculum development Project indicate that an area where courses can possibly be in advance of practice (as some were with the computer in the 1960s) is indeed the "management" of the new technologies if that is taken to mean the possible changes in the nature of library and information work, of library staffing and the use of libraries and information which technology will bring about - changes often not planned.<sup>61</sup> This implies that while traditional library skills and practices will in future still be required, areas of certain growth lie outside them and this has wide implications for curriculum development in library and information studies. The British curriculum development scene in librarianship and information science may from the foregoing, be observed to be actively in the forefront of world trends in the field. In terms of the impact of computer and its role in the curriculum for library and information studies, Eyre<sup>62</sup> has reported recently under the aegis of the British Library, thus, developments in this area are closely followed. Similarly, the Library Association has instituted a Working Party on

the new technologies. The prediction, with regards to professional education in this respect, is that emphasis will be placed upon the need for post-qualification retraining in this field but the impact on courses and curriculum development as a whole still remains obscure in terms of the response needed by the library schools to meet the new challenge.

#### 7.1.5 American studies

##### 7.1.5.1 The "apprenticeship" approach

In the United States of America as well as in other parts of the American continent, vast amounts of literature have emerged on curriculum development in the form of articles, papers, reports, monographs and theses. In the field of librarianship, the earliest publication that is of pertinence to this present study is Churchwell's<sup>63</sup> doctoral thesis of 1966, 'Education for librarianship in the United States; some factors which influenced its development between 1919 and 1939'. The study itself is full of stodgy details which contributed to knowledge only in the historical sense. In the study, the author accords incidental treatment to curricula issues 'not because they are unimportant aspects of the development of library education, but rather because of the necessity to limit the study, and because they have already been the subjects of several studies'.<sup>64</sup> However, if one considers the relative importance of library education development trends in the period under study by Churchwell then clearly his omission of curriculum issues creates a serious gap indeed in the understanding of the curriculum development process.

As historical studies show, learning how to do the job ("apprenticeship") gave way to learning the elements of each operation, e.g., courses in 'reference', 'bibliography', and the 'selection of books' were well lodged in the curriculum shortly after 1900. Reed, in a background paper focussing on a historical overview of curriculum development, gives a brief summary of the history of American library education - vide the pre-Dewey (Dewey) years; "apprenticeship" and in-service library training classes designed to improve local services; 1887 - Dewey and his rationalization leading to a common avenue of library training and his Columbia School of Library Economy; 1923 - Williamson, the ALA Board of Education for Librarianship, and initial accreditation of professional library education; and, the 1933

standards.<sup>65</sup> Reed emphasised that in the early schools the curricula stressed cataloguing, classification (according to Dewey), library techniques including the "library hand", and an extensive practicum frequently reported to have been of more benefit to the library served than to the student. In the Dewey years (1887-1920) the "proper professional preparation" (still apprentice in outlook) are as follows:

1. a college course;
2. the three months' course as designed for the Columbia College School of Library Economy;
3. the completion of one or two years' actual experience in various kinds of library work;
4. a return to the Columbia College School for the three months' course taken again in review.<sup>66</sup>

Faithful though they were, no record exists to indicate that any of Dewey's proteges returned after two years to repeat the initial course.

Elsewhere in the literature, White lends weight to the "apprenticeship approach" when as a result of observation of the 1887 programme at Columbia, it was found that the programme consisted of lectures late in the afternoon twice a week followed by discussions of what students were doing in their various libraries.<sup>67</sup> By 1923 the waning of the apprenticeship method was becoming obvious as revealed in Williamson's report of library schools:

1. There is little agreement among the schools as to the relative importance of the different subjects in the curriculum. About half the student's time is devoted to four subjects - cataloguing, book selection, reference work, and classification ...
2. ... The content of the curriculum ... should be determined by first-hand acquaintance with the most progressive library service rather than by tradition and imitation ...
3. A composite statement of the scope and content of the twenty-five or more distinct subjects included in the curricula of the library schools reveals ... (b) the necessity of a broad, general education of collegiate grade as a basis for library school instruction.<sup>68</sup>

The first twenty-five years of this century have therefore witnessed the character of library school curricula in the USA substantially influenced by the pragmatic approaches of practitioners. Many library schools originated in libraries, and even those located in universities existed in splendid isolation rather than entering into the mainstream of university life. Besides, many courses were taught on a part-time basis by retired librarians, and a large share of the student's time was spent in field work, often never evaluated by librarian or library educator, hence the status quo syndrome prevailed. This then was the nature of

"the apprenticeship approach" to curriculum development at that time.

During the 1940s, at least four important surveys of library education were made. One of them of pertinence here is the survey by Metcalf, Osborn and Russell<sup>69</sup>, who in 1942 pointed out the inadequate educational qualifications of many library school instructors, the elementary nature of much of the curriculum, and the fact that there was no philosophy of librarianship to give point and depth to the programme. They found that, for the most part, Dewey's idea of apprenticeship had largely disappeared from the programme, but that despite this, the topics studied remained close to the practical matter of running a library. A frank and reasonable approach to the report earned them a measure of authority and acceptability among library educators, and the survey can be said to have a decisive effect on the direction library education (in particular curriculum development) was to take in the nineteen fifties.

#### 7.1.5.2 "Graduatisation"

Taken literally, "graduatisation" in the context of this present work, is taken to mean a decisive trend, in professional education, towards graduate level of entry, teaching and research in an educational establishment and/or professional organisation.

In the USA, following the apprenticeship period, there was a perceptible movement towards graduatisation in the American library scene. Specialised schools emerged to prepare students for various library types, with each school identifying itself with: cataloguing; library administration; public; university and special libraries. But this was short-lived as in 1951, the Standards for Accreditation was published stating that schools were free to specialize but only after meeting the basic requirements of preparing general librarians through a 'study of professional principles and methods common to the several kinds of libraries and of library service'<sup>69</sup>. This move practically halted an era of specialised library schools because as a result of the Standards, the Committee on Accreditation has consistently refused to accredit schools specialising in specific types or levels of librarianship.

However, by mid-sixties the need arose for an additional degree, between the master's degree and the doctorate, which would make it possible to qualify as a specialist in school libraries, e.g. or public or

university libraries. The library schools' response to this need was to establish Advanced Certificate courses in library science to cater for the experienced professional who already has a Master's degree but does not require a doctorate as a further advanced degree. A study of such specialist programmes has been made by Danton<sup>70</sup> under the auspices of the American Library Association. Again, Swank<sup>71</sup> observes that there are four important roles for such an intermediate curriculum: a sixth-year specialised curriculum; an internship; an opportunity for continuing education; and, an alternative curriculum in information science. Fryden<sup>72</sup>, in a survey of the so-called "post-masters" programmes, found that they now exist in a number of schools accredited by the A.L.A. with at least eleven schools offering such courses. Three main course objectives were identified in Fryden's survey, i.e.:

1. To prepare teachers in (my emphasis) under-graduate or graduate library school;
2. To prepare practising librarians to advance into administrative or specialized positions; and,
3. To provide additional knowledge and training that would permit practising librarians to improve their performance in their existing positions.

In most of the schools, the degree is terminal, although in three it was the first step toward the doctorate and one would like to think that objective (1) above would be aptly suited to those wishing to obtain the doctorate since they have to be highly qualified to teach in the library schools.

Computers and the technologies have also had their impact on curriculum development in U.S. library and information studies. In particular, the influence of the technologies on information education and the consequent future role of the library has been examined in studies by Licklider<sup>73</sup>, Becker<sup>74</sup>, Goehlert and Snowdon<sup>75</sup>. In the related field of information science the impact on the curriculum development process has been marked.

Rees and Riccio<sup>76</sup> in their (1967) survey showed that twenty-five of the A.L.A.-accredited library schools offered one or more courses in information science. Two years after the survey (1969), thirty-five of the forty-four accredited schools offered at least one course in information science, indicating an increase in the number of schools offering more than one course in the subject.

In another article, Rees<sup>77</sup> reported the difficulty existing in correlating course titles with course content. According to Rees, this difficulty arises due to the lack of common agreement as to the definition of documentation, information retrieval, information science and library automation - titles commonly in use in U.S. librarianship curriculum. Rees submits, in the article, that analysis of course descriptions and outlines reveals three major areas of emphasis as follows:

Area I    Library automation:

- Systems analysis, computer and allied hardware, theory and application of automation to library processes and procedures such as acquisition, serials, circulation control, catalogue production.

Area II    Documentation and information storage and retrieval systems:

- Design of retrieval systems, subject analysis, abstracting and indexing, structure of index languages, file organization, question analysis, search strategy, dissemination, translation, testing and evaluation.

Area III    Information science research methodology

- Basic principles and tools of mathematics, logic, linguistics, statistics, psychology and other disciplines, and their application to the investigation of library-based and communication-related phenomena.<sup>78</sup>

In the 1967 study, seventeen schools offered twenty-five courses in Area I; nineteen schools offered thirty-nine courses in Area II; six schools offered thirteen courses in Area III.<sup>79</sup> According to the three areas as set out above, Area I (Library automation) represents the application of computers and related hardware to the task of improving the efficiency of library housekeeping functions such as acquisitions, serials, catalogue production and circulation control. These are processes and procedures which Rees regards as comparatively easy to formalize, structure and control by computer routines. Furthermore, it can be observed from the given areas that the distinction between Areas II and III reflects the relationship between a science and its related technologies, both of which Hayes<sup>80</sup> in his study, found to be unidentical and therefore different in application.

Based on the three "Area" classifications, Rees offers a definition of "information science" as,

a theoretical discipline concerned with the application of scientific research methodology to the

investigation of communication and to the properties of systems of communication. It is concerned with the behaviour, properties and transfer of information; the processes involved in communication; and the tools involved in the design, implementation and evaluation of communication systems.<sup>81</sup>

The differentiation of "information science" from "information technology", i.e. documentation as opposed to information storage and retrieval systems, is not new. For instance Borko<sup>82</sup> notes that information science has "both a basic science component which inquires into the subject without regard to its application, and an applied science component, which develops services and products". However, Hayes<sup>83</sup> states that "information science is a theoretical discipline ... concerned with information technology but is in no sense identical with it ... the tendency to identify the two is an unfortunate one". Given the foregoing reasoning, the response of library schools, in the U.S., to the growth of communication technology has been to add courses in information science, information retrieval, documentation and library automation. In assessing this situation in library schools, Rees suggests that although the schools are educating persons able to understand the rudiments of computer technology and their application to library procedures, library education is not producing persons capable of undertaking formalised analysis of library systems.

In an apparent appeal for a unified approach to curriculum development in the field of librarianship, Harlow<sup>85</sup> suggests four sub-systems within the scope and activity of librarianship in the curriculum development process:

1. Acquisitions - organization
2. Interface between record-user
3. Retrieval - transmission
4. Evaluation-feedback.

Each of the sub-systems impinges upon the others, and all of the other influences and systems have reciprocal effects, such as exemplified in the "literature" of the subject areas (which vary in their organisation as well as in form and content, some being cumulative and others additive with varying amounts of access built in). Harlow therefore contends that the actions and functions of librarianship will be ineffectual if carried on in isolation, hence, the need for a unified approach to curriculum development.<sup>86</sup>

In September 1970, the University of Illinois Graduate School of

library science hosted a conference on the design of the curriculum of library schools. The papers presented at the conference were published as a monograph a year later.<sup>87</sup>

Reed reported on a study of the most recent bulletins available from 50 of 52 A.L.A. accredited library schools, so as to determine the general pattern of curricula, core courses, and elective offerings.<sup>88</sup> Reed found that the distribution of core courses by number and percentage of schools shows a maximisation of points, with four courses scoring 100% among the 10 examined. The subject areas offered and the distribution of the core and elective courses and content, are as set out in Table 3 (p310). As indicated in the table, the subject areas scoring a complete 100% include: Reference and bibliography; cataloguing and classification; administration, management and systems analysis; and, information science. History of Books and Libraries and Selection and acquisition came a close second and third scoring 96% and 92% respectively. Reed notes that in spite of the tendency to retain a core of introductory professional courses, Williamson's comments of some fifty years back at the time, still held true by 1971. Of course there are marked differences among the schools as to the relative amount of time devoted to the different major areas of the curriculum, with the persistent problem of how to provide thorough teaching in one year in the entire field of library and information work.

Similarly, Asheim in a survey of the current trends in library school curricula, observes that there is an in-depth activity relating to curriculum structure and content in the library schools. His findings show that much of this activity was dictated by considerations other than that of providing the most desirable learning experiences<sup>89</sup>. It was also observed that there was a growing trend towards extending the length of MLS degrees from one to two years.

Another important observation by Asheim is the relation of the curriculum content to information science and the "new technology" in forming traditional courses as well as introducing new ones. In the demand for change in curriculum provision, the challenge to traditional values usually is based on the claim that they do not have current relevance. The attacks on education in general, and library education in particular, often feel obliged to make no more specific indictment than that. Asheim, as do many of his peer, regards the new relevance

as frequently utilitarian in its aims; i.e. learning only that which one needs to know to handle the specific task confronting him. If Asheim's proposition is accepted that changes in relation to traditional values also reflect the concern with relevance, then the proposition has wide implications for current concerns in library education. (For a full development of thought in this sphere of the present work, see Section 7.3 on 'the search for relevance'.)

A classic work of favourite in most library schools is the text by Shera<sup>90</sup> in which he explored the role of the library as a contributor to the total communication system in society, and the meaning of that role for the library profession. Having determined the requirements of that role the author proceeds to identify those (requirements) which are "appropriately" (sic) met by graduate professional education. Thus, Shera suggests that there are four objectives by which the professional programme of study is to be judged:

1. It must represent a well-developed theory of the social function of the library;
2. it must extract from the totality of the librarian's knowledge and skills those which are professional;
3. it must represent librarianship as a unified cluster of specializations as opposed to the earlier concept of a 'universal' librarian; and,
4. it must be directed toward the training of the intellect.<sup>91</sup>

Based on these four cardinal points, Shera argues that the criteria for preparing the student professional to undertake graduate professional study, rest on the following:

1. A fundamental understanding of the role of the library in the communication process of society together with the historical development of the library and of library materials as social instrumentalities shaped by and responding to their coeval culture.
2. A comprehension of the basic theory and the appropriate system for the organization and interpretation of library materials, and especially the intellectual content of those materials, together with the necessary skill to deal practically with the techniques and routines relating to library organisation and use.
3. A knowledge of the principles and methods of research as applied to the investigation of library problems, together with the ability to evaluate research results, especially research in librarianship, in terms of the appropriateness and reliability of the methods used and the validity of the results obtained.

4. An understanding of the basic principles of administration and their application to libraries as organizations of people working together to achieve specific goals, with special emphasis upon the administration of libraries serving the field of the student's special interests.
5. A mastery of the basic elements of a library specialty, or cluster of specialties (e.g. children's work, school libraries and educational media).
6. Exposure to practical library experience, when the student has not previously had such experience, as exemplified by a well-supervised work-study program or internship which makes possible controlled experience ...
7. Contact with the professional field of librarianship through lectures, discussions and other special events which will bring the student into contact with a variety of librarians outside the academic setting.
8. Encouragement of contacts, either formal or informal, of the student with other departments and schools of the university to ensure that he does not lead his academic life in a sterile library vacuum.<sup>92</sup>

Shera suggests that if these criteria are to be fully and successfully met there must be a continuous review of the curriculum both with respect to keeping it up-to-date with current developments and trends in librarianship and related areas of knowledge, and to utilize new methods of instruction. However, it should be borne in mind that a total fulfillment of Shera's criteria as outlined above would incur a "world of perfection" but this hardly occurs in the process of curriculum development. In addition to the disequilibrium effects of a "world of imperfection", there is a limited time available to both faculty and students in satisfactorily fulfilling, e.g. criteria 4, 6, 7 and 8 and above all, the nature of the duration of courses which in most cases are still one-year oriented for post-graduate study. However, despite these difficulties in the planning of educational programmes for graduate professional study, the key element to future success in planning an effective curriculum lies in an extension of the duration of study for the Master's degree programme, say a two-year duration.

Another contribution to the analysis of curriculum development in American librarianship was made when in 1973 a collection of studies was published, edited by Harold Borko<sup>93</sup>. For example Jahoda<sup>94</sup> wrote a review on the literature on teaching library automation and information science. The author found that although to a 'certain extent' (sic) approaches become mixed in order to make teaching responsive to the

interests of the student in the classroom, governing attitudes do prevail, Jahoda argues that these should be isolated in order to perceive their implications. If, as it seems likely, graduates of the library school programme (on information science) are being prepared for beginning positions, then the beginning librarian will be a practitioner rather than a theoretician. Thus, the emphasis in teaching the topics on information science should be on applications, i.e. equipment, abstracting, indexing and systems studies, as users of such tools and techniques rather than producers thereof. Such topics are embraced in specific subjects that might be included in the curriculum: library automation, systems studies techniques, information storage and retrieval systems, and information science research methodology. The selection of the topics itself is theoretical in approach and the extent of their coverage will have to depend upon the state of the art of both the technology and librarianship fields at the time. In this respect, Jahoda's contribution seems consistent with similar findings from previous studies<sup>95,96,97,98,99</sup> - the results of which show and confirm the integration of information science subjects in the librarianship curriculum.

'Integration' of courses in the curriculum development process in library and information studies is always a radical departure from the status quo. A workshop<sup>100</sup> on 'the integrated core curriculum' was held at Chapel Hill, University of North Carolina March 6-8, 1977 in which attempts were made to sample professional library educators' view on the subject. Detail of the proceedings relevant to this present work is discussed in Section 7.4.2. However it is important to point out here the results of the survey conducted on the views of participants at the workshop, regarding the concept of the "integrated core" as it is practised in their various institutions. The Workshop proved that there was universal enthusiasm in the acceptance of "integrated core". However, the results of the survey conducted show the following variables; for instance, when asked if an "integrated" core curriculum might be considered for their school, 32% (of the 71 participants) said YES; 16% MAYBE, and 45% NO<sup>101</sup>. The percentage of rejection seems rather high compared with others. This may very well be for reasons of tradition, faculty resistance, financial considerations and the presence of part-time students in the schools' programmes. Some of the library educators participating in the workshop were dissatisfied with their programmes as existing at the time, but they were not convinced that an

integrated core curriculum was the solution.

The importance and role of an integrated approach to the core has been stressed in Asheim's paper. In it, he observes that;

... that the instructor of the elective courses can build upon the assumption that all of his or her students do have a commonly shared background in the basic substance of librarianship. The key characteristic of the integrated core is that it attempts to put into practice a long-standing tenet of good educational theory; that learning is an accretive process, and that it is most effective when the student proceeds in a logical fashion from basic ideas to their expansion and adaptation to increasingly complex situations. The integrated core tries to identify what aspects of the total learning process should come first, and then arranges that they indeed do so.<sup>102</sup>

However, as the author himself admits, a great weakness in many core programmes of the traditional types is the looseness of their sequencing. Prerequisites are identified and then ignored in their priority order, so that the students frequently find themselves in an introductory course after they have had the content to which it is meant to be an introduction. Thus, there is a great need to demonstrate logic in the structure of the curriculum, since an important aspect of professional education is firmly rooted in the objective of stimulating logical thinking in students. Therefore, it may not altogether be surprising to find that a majority of the participants at the Chapel Hill Workshop chose not to consider the application of the concept of an "integrated core" in their library schools. In expressing influential views along this line, Garrison has cautioned that experiments with format and with packaging core courses have really to date integrated the courses, not the content.

Garrison submits that it is not enough to integrate the format unless the content is right. He adds;

I am more convinced now than in 1970, when we began our integrated core course at Drexel, that the future lies in breaking out of this institutional mold. Already, 20% of our graduates at Drexel do not find employment in libraries as such but in the broader information profession. I do not feel that this is merely a reflection of a tight job market in traditional libraries, but rather of a major shift in our field.<sup>103</sup>

Perhaps a most pungent observation yet by Garrison is in relation to joint degree programmes - a reflection of experimentation in the

integrated approach. He notes that:

Despite these and other experiments at broadening the curriculum there are other less positive signs of stress all around us. I am particularly alarmed at the hasty marriages evident in the proliferation of joint degree programs. These sound like a good thing until you look closely at the structure and realize that, in many cases, the library science content is sacrificed and the programs seem more directed at finding jobs for surplus humanities and social science graduates than toward preparing information specialists.<sup>104</sup>

In an interdisciplinary discipline such as librarianship, there can be no more indictment than that contained in the above quotation as regards the selection of content in the curriculum development process. For example, in terms of current trends in the employment situation, the library schools need to (but do not have to) respond in some measure to the need for science information specialists by integrating documentation plus other information science content into their curricula to a degree that makes them credible and thereby attract people with technical backgrounds to meet market demands.

A general observation that could be made about the whole exercise of "integration" at the workshop resides in the fact that there was a lack of cohesiveness in the pattern of approach to the core as reported by the library schools. This point is further buttressed by the fact that curriculum revision seems to continue to be handled as strictly a local matter, adjusting to local needs rather than coming as part of any generally planned change. The schools are still dominated by independent programme revision without any binding professional education guidelines. It remains to be seen if current thinking amongst the participants at the 1977 Workshop reflects their earlier views.

Another aspect of the literature on curriculum development in librarianship in the U.S. is its reflection of the role and significance of foreign language study as an element in library education. That foreign language study should be one of the librarian's tools of the trade was repeatedly stressed by early educators in the field. Dewey in 1887, prepared a proposal which suggests, that the "better" (sic) library and information science students should spend almost three years on their professional preparation. The latter would include in addition to the library-oriented courses "considerable work in languages and comparative literature"<sup>105</sup>. Also among the recommendations

made in Williamson (1923) Report is the Statement "languages and general information are of fundamental importance for all professional library work"<sup>106</sup>. Theoretically these two citations (Dewey/Williamson) reflect age-long tradition in academics whereas it was not quite the fashion of insistence in areas of professional education except in Law where the study of Latin is sine qua non.

Thus, the foreign language requirement becomes slightly more complex at the undergraduate level, since it is inextricably tied to the tradition of general education and to the question of whether or not students should be allowed complete freedom of choice in planning their coursework. The main principle behind general education, like the defence of foreign language study because of its cultural values, tend to be slated in rather broad, general and vague terms. It becomes increasingly difficult to defend such principles in this era of pragmatism and professionalism in education. Indeed, the literature in this respect reveals that various authors identify the main goal of both general education and foreign language study - that of "producing the truly educated man" - as being the same.<sup>107,108,109,110</sup>

Similarly, as McGrath has shown, no particular curricula pattern exists any longer that can be exclusively identified as liberal education.<sup>111</sup> McGlothlin<sup>112</sup> too argues that the resultant effect of a changing pattern in the form of liberal education is a loss of a definite educational objective, which to many educators means that most of the purposes of a general arts education can be just as well met by professional education. Questionably this implies that the professional school by focussing on competence to practice, will produce "trained robots who can perform set tasks with skill, but who will have little understanding of the significance or relationships of their efforts to human welfare"<sup>113</sup>.

Recently, however, Fisher and Beck<sup>114</sup> have reported that despite the emphasis on a liberal arts background, including foreign languages, most library schools have, in fact, eliminated the language requirement for either admission to, or graduation from, their programmes. The 1972 "Statistics of the Library Education Division of A.L.A." also showed that approximately 53% (27 out of 51) of the accredited programmes had a foreign language requirement. Of the 27, only 16 or 31% of the total number of schools included in the survey, required two years or twelve

credit hours of language study at the college level. Nine of the remaining eleven required one year or six credit hours, and two did not specify the number of credits.<sup>115</sup>

Another examination of the most recent library school "Catalogs" (brochures) indicates that there is a tendency for schools which once had a requirement to drop it. Only 16 of the 36 schools (44%) whose brochures were examined have retained a foreign language requirement. One school had an option of twelve credit hours of either a foreign language, statistics, computer science or educational media. 8 of the 16 schools required two years of college level study, one required nine semester hours, four required one year, and three did not give a specified number of credit hours needed<sup>116</sup>. In the sixties, some writers had argued the case for language proficiency being one of the skills (along with subject knowledge) which is required at various stages in the securing, processing and maintaining of library resources<sup>117,118</sup>. Such laudable views would now seem to run contrary to current trends in library education as the foregoing evidence has shown. However, the importance of foreign language study in librarianship cannot be underestimated even by current standards in library education practice. One would, therefore, tend to agree with the conclusion of Fisher and Beck, that:

... foreign language will continue to be needed and used by large numbers of individuals in the profession. Libraries will always acquire foreign language materials, and most indications are that the amount of non-English material is actually increasing. Consequently, research libraries will be requiring the services of individuals with linguistic skills as well as training in librarianship.<sup>119</sup>

The aspect of specialised subject study in curriculum development in library and information studies is another area which has drawn the attention of American writers. The Americans regard subject specialisation as an essential factor in the needs of both the faculty and services. In the library schools the courses with subject specialisations are designed to link library and information science courses of graduates with specific professions such as law, arts and medicine. Library educators believe that these developments contribute to a higher calibre of graduates, and to a widening of the career spectrum especially in view of competition for job places after graduation<sup>120-124</sup>.

In a recent fascinating study, Lemke<sup>125</sup> has examined in detail the form of subject specialisations in library education, and categorised the findings under the heading 'alternative specialties'. In order to obtain information on the current situation of subject study in the library schools, Lemke administered a brief questionnaire and a request for bulletins of all 59 accredited library schools in the U.S. 54 replied and the data, as analysed in the article, was based on all these schools listed in the October 1977 ALA roster of accredited programmes. The term 'alternative specialties' was defined as follows:

- Includes:
- (1) courses designed for specific information needs outside of the immediate library/information/communication professions, e.g. music, art.
  - (2) fields within the broader library/information/communication professions, for which no formal academic programme exists, e.g. archives, publishing.
  - (3) Courses related to current social concerns, for which formal programs are emerging, and where ... teaching, research and library information service programs develop in many instances in close exchange, e.g. garoutology, and new urban service programs.<sup>126</sup>

Excluded from the definition are:

- (1) Courses on special librarianship because they are considered "type of library" courses, as those dealing with public or school librarianship. They may include but do not focus on, discrete subjects or professions.<sup>127</sup>
- (2) Media courses (film, T.V., etc.) because this constitutes part of a librarian's basic education.
- (3) Management and computer courses, because they too constitute part of the librarian's basic education.

Table 4 shows the number of library schools offering subject specialties (n = 54). In the schools' bulletins, it was noted that programmes in co-operation with academic disciplines are also on the increase, such as in the fields of history and English. Clearly, there seems to be some inherent factors influencing curriculum development along these lines. Lemke suggests that such factors may be identified as:

- (a) The university, i.e. strong (well-established) departments, special programs, campus and museum are essential in any consideration of alternative specialties;
- (b) The community, i.e. in larger communities, other academic institutions, governmental and private agencies often provide ideal partners for co-operative programs, e.g. the Washington and New York City library schools have the unique opportunity to project this partnership in courses opened e.g. "Federal Library Administration".

TABLE 7.4    NO. OF LIBRARY SCHOOLS OFFERING SUBJECT SPECIALTIES  
(Lemke, 1978)

Specialties	No. of Schools
Medicine (including health services & pharmacology)	36
Law	31
Archives	23
Rare books	22
Music	11
Art	10
Publishing	7
Area Programmes (including Latin American, South-East Asian and African Area bibliography courses)	5
Ethnic Studies	5

- (c) Interest of faculty members and deans, is a strong factor in the decision to implement new courses, and the professional background and motivation of those in charge are essential to the quality of the program.<sup>128</sup>

The work of Lemke, in respect of the above, is a valuable contribution to the literature of curriculum development in American library and information studies since it is very informative on the trend showing the schools' response to the stimuli of change in the community. In a related study, Dresang<sup>129</sup> provides further application of the study to the specialised course on Library Service to the Handicapped, although according to Lemke's classification this would rank as a "library type course".

There have also been recent developments in the cognitive approach to curriculum development in librarianship. For instance, in a project at the University of Maryland, researchers have been actively involved in determining the cognitive styles of information professionals, and relating cognitive style to task performance. The report, written by Johnson and White<sup>130</sup> indicates the usefulness of cognitive style as a means of analyzing problem-solving or decision-making behaviour. Practically, the report discusses some cognitive style dimensions and models which are pertinent to the analyses of information science professionals within the context of their training needs in a field as wide and varied as library and information science. The report posits that the idea of matching cognitive styles and learning situations, assumes the ability to recognise "cognitive styles" and the ability to

structure the learning or task environment to create specific conditions. Even by modern day standards, the effective implementation of such a tall order seems questionable in a busy library school's programme schedule, as the variables surrounding such concept dictate and, perhaps more important, emphasize the existing basic differences and variety of courses in each library school, i.e. the number of "required" courses is usually limited even if the lecturer's cognitive style introduces another variable. On the face value, a course's subject matter is not monolithic, as within it students may still have to address problems and tasks which are incompatible with their cognitive style. At best, in the present writer's view, such proposition seems impractical and may prove too empirical and expensive in terms of valuable administrative time of the library educator.

Another element, perhaps of more practical application in curriculum development literature is the influence of "field experience" on curriculum planning. Monroe<sup>131</sup> has surveyed the literature on library education's use of the concept as an element in the Master's degree curriculum. Monroe focussed on the use of "field experience" in its contribution to the learning situation. The professional fields of medicine, public administration, education and social work have regularly relied upon field experience as an essential ingredient in preparing practitioners and their rationales are available to library educators. According to Sexton and Ungerer, the other professions have looked to field experience and its alternatives in experiential learning for fulfilment of needs;

1. skills development;
2. developing a "feel" for the situation and seeing how people behave;
3. socialization into the profession in terms of values, behaviours with colleagues and with those served;
4. problem identification, analysis and solution; and
5. facilitating social change in the profession.<sup>132</sup>

Based on the experiential needs as outlined above, Monroe points to the limitations and problems of the learning theory in relation to course-work, analysis of tasks for learning, assessment of individual students' needs and interests and suitable host library situations which need to be identified for their (students') placement. Clearly, these are not new premises on which to base a "revolutionary" innovation to the

existing pattern of student placement (by library schools) in libraries, although one must acknowledge Monroe's hypothesis that 'graduate school acceptance of field experience for academic credits has by no means become general'. The conclusion seems inevitable, that it will be difficult to institute field experience programmes in librarianship comparable to those in medicine, law, social work, and education.<sup>133</sup>

In general, the structure of library schools' programmes in the U.S. has also come under close scrutiny recently. An evaluation of library education was initiated by the Advisory Committee to the Office for Library Education of the American Library Association (A.L.A.) with fieldwork starting in 1972 and the project finally getting published as the Conant Report in 1980.<sup>134</sup> Pertinent to this present study is the recognition of the need to re-structure the duration of the Master's degree to two years instead of one. Dr. Conant submits that:

Librarianship is one of the last of the demanding professions to require only one year of professional training. It is the only one to discourage basic or introductory courses at the undergraduate level. The one year programs have come to crowd graduate training with elementary material, to limit the opportunity for specialization, to preclude in most schools an internship or work-study program, to limit the influence of the faculty on their students, and, not the least, to provide for a "quickie" professional degree that reflects badly on the reputation of the profession.<sup>135</sup>

In the literature on curriculum development many educators recognise the need to re-structure the present one-year master's degree programme in library schools. Examples of educators' thinking in this respect have already been cited in this present work (Section 7.1.4.2). However, elsewhere in the Report, Dr. Conant seems a little more realistic as he observes, that:

The faculty of the graduate library schools are ... faced with the practical consideration that a change in the length of the programs might reduce enrollments below a level that their institutions could tolerate. The uncertainty of the effect on enrollments has caused library educators to be wary of a shift to longer programs, even though many of them recognize that there would be educational advantages in doing so.<sup>136</sup>

In a one-year programme, there is hardly time to put across the basics of librarianship and at the same time bring students to the point in their knowledge, where they can understand the complexities of theoretical problems of libraries and library resources. In a sample of

opinion amongst faculty members in library schools, the question was put on the adequacy of the one-year programme: Of the 84 respondents 26 (31%) said that one year was sufficient for professional education in librarianship; 46 (55%) said that the programme should be longer than one year; and 12 (14%) gave answers that indicated indecision. "Most" students interviewed on the question expressed their reluctance to invest more than a year in librarianship training considering the low salaried status of the profession. However, one would have wished that such respondents were quantified as the others.

As regards content of courses, Conant provides what he terms 'a comprehensive curriculum' model, derived from an examination and analysis of the curricula of the 60 accredited programmes in the U.S. Table 7.5 shows the composite course listings as proposed, according to subject categories. This is the range of topics presently covered in the one-year master's degree programmes. It was found that none of the accredited programmes offered all of the topics listed. Conant therefore proposed a scope for a comprehensive curriculum, as indicated in Table 7.6. According to the Report under discussion, none of the accredited programmes was found to reach the scope of the curriculum as provided. Conant relates some of his findings on professional education to the overall concept of professionalism thereby bearing a semblance to the objectives of this present work. For example his conclusions show that the library profession needs to develop a coherent basis for its claim to professionalism. He suggests that one way of achieving such coherence is to separate professional from non-professional "training" (sic) in its system of education and to improve the quality and content of the master's programmes, although how this could be done was not stipulated. It was further suggested that there is an inherent need:

- (a) to establish a common educational format (a curriculum) for the first professional degree (the Master's programs). The format should be comprehensive as set out (in Table 6, p. ), and should define what knowledge and training is deemed the appropriate basis of professional competence in the field.
- (b) to provide additional opportunities for specialization and career education that are clearly articulated with the master's programs.
- (c) for library educators to make every practical effort to liaise with working librarians and thereby close the gap between them. Experienced professionals should be invited to teach in greater numbers in the library schools and the educators should utilize libraries as training laboratories and as research sites. Joint research projects between library

educators and librarians should be a regular activity of the profession.<sup>137</sup>

There was an understandable reaction of severe criticisms of the Report by library educators who argued that the Report has been based on 'uncritical selection of the opinions of faculty, students, alumni, and practitioners, as gathered from interviews and questionnaires'.<sup>138</sup> Whatever may be the justification for these criticisms, it would seem that the Conant Report is a substantial contribution to the literature on American professional education in library and information studies.

#### 7.1.6 Nigerian Studies

##### 7.1.6.1 Scope of the problem of literature output

Unlike other aspects of professional education and training which have drawn the attention of librarians and library educators over the years, curriculum studies is still burgeoning when compared with world trends on the subject. This is due, in part, to the considerable foreign influence on the library schools' curricula (mainly British and American), and to the lack of documented literature on the subject from indigenous writers. As a result, the literature on curriculum development in Nigerian librarianship exists in a sparse form - mostly as unpublished papers; documents originating from the library schools and therefore privately restricted in distribution; conference papers; and theses work both in foreign and local universities but with topics based on Nigerian library education practice.

It becomes clear that one element of disadvantage in the situation as described above, is the handicap suffered in promoting indigenous publishing. Consequently, both the library schools and the profession at large are starved of valuable record of professional thinking, latest trends arising from intra- and extra-mural teaching, and the dissemination of ideas relating to new techniques and developments in library and information studies.

The kind of material which emanates from the library school includes research reports, statistical tabulations on library education, surveys, observations on the current library scene and practice, conference (including seminars, workshops and colloquia) proceedings, textbooks (although this is rarely the case in Nigerian library schools), annual reports and prospectuses, and the usual promotional literature. The publications that emerge from these quoted format appear as mono-

graphs, pamphlets or articles, depending on their depth and coverage, and, are published under a variety of imprints including the library school's own.

However, the lack of vital publications in curriculum development in library and information studies has undoubtedly caused great difficulties in the efficient implementation of curriculum design as a survey of the literature would seem to indicate. Indeed, many writers on the subject agree that the lack of promptness in issuing situation reports on conferences, seminars, colloquia and other similar proceedings lead to events being overtaken by new off-shoot problems. The result is often 'chaos and mistrust' among educators and professionals rather than mutual understanding of the different practicalities in the curriculum development process. For example, textbooks on librarianship and library education in particular, are virtually non-existent from African perspective. Similarly, materials that are African-oriented are merely incorporated in foreign-sponsored texts and are therefore lacking in in-depth analysis of African problems and the necessity for a strictly traditional approach to conventional library methods as viable alternatives to the European models. This leads to the element of 'bias' in foreign texts and the 'relevance' of using such texts in library schools in preparing professionals for local community services in the library and information field.

One should not be under the pretext of displaying ingratitude for the valuable contributions foreigners have made to Nigerian librarianship - especially the influence of British, American, New Zealand, Australian, Canada, and recently Asian library experts and educators. But the cogent point is that despite these contributions by foreigners, Nigerian librarians and educators seem to retain many aspects of conventional library provision including its system of education and training without reference to the urgent need of making professional education and services relevant to national objectives and development. The over-worked professors and lecturers in the library schools are not to be blamed, but then attention needs to be drawn to present initiatives in the field of indigenous publishing and how the library profession in general could benefit from its participation. For example, indigenous publishing did not achieve its present rate of success in a vacuum, it had its teething problems as indicated in recent surveys by Barrett<sup>139</sup>

and Hans Zell<sup>140</sup>. They suggest that the development of indigenous publishing on a scale that can handle internal distribution effectively is still in the primary stages; that the trend must be seen and interpreted against a background of several social and infrastructural elements, such as: a small per-capita income, a diversity of languages, a low rate of literacy, an emphasis on achievement rather than enjoyment reading, an insufficient number of retail outlets, frequently high customs tariffs on essential printing equipment and supplies, and many other obstacles, some of near impossible dimensions. However, despite all the stated 'obstacles', Zell reckons that the total output of indigenous literature has actually increased as much as 50% annually<sup>141</sup>. The library profession and library schools in particular can take advantage of this latest trend especially in scholarly output, for it is in the exchange of knowledge and information can there be real progress in formally establishing the foundation of library and information practice for the next half century. The signs are there in Europe and America of the changing nature of the library profession in an information conscious society, but the theoretical foundation is constantly reinforced through an active publications programme. In terms of curriculum development an active publications programme is sine qua non to knowledge dissemination and information gathering about curriculum development activities such as course renewals, innovations, and evaluation of programmes. Researchers in the field are at present having to supplement the limited published sources with private documentations by institutions and individuals hence the need for objectivity not only in their selection but also in the analysis of the materials available for use.

#### 7.1.6.2 Structure and Content of Courses: historical and current review

One of the earliest articles to be written on the structure and content of library education in Nigeria was published in Nigerian Libraries in 1972. In the article, Akinyotu<sup>142</sup> examined the objectives and content of library education at all levels in Nigeria. In terms of structure, he observed that the establishment of library schools has been preceded by an urgent need to fill the dearth of indigenous "professional" librarians needed in response to national development and growth. He also noted that as there was no time to study critically the special needs of Nigerian librarianship with a view to drawing up an 'appropriate' (sic) local syllabus, it was expedient to adopt the syllabus of the (British) Library Association and to prepare candidates

for the American Library Association at least for the first three years (1960-1963). In this way library education developed at an unspecified level. In the 1963/64 session a new syllabus was introduced and the local Diploma (set at postgraduate level) of the University of Ibadan replaced the American Library Association. The objective of the change was to bring about a shift of emphasis to the 'special requirements of African readers, on the problems peculiar to libraries in the tropics and on the techniques required to organise collection ...' As events later proved, the change over to the Diploma was more of nomenclature rather than substance as the stated objectives did not seem to be realised. According to Akinyotu, there was considerable doubt as to whether the philosophy of librarianship on which the syllabus was based and implemented for almost ten years, was sufficient board to make provision for both the immediate and future roles of libraries in Nigeria. The validity of the author's statement becomes clear as one examines the content of "sub-professional" and "professional" courses at both Ibadan and Zaria in 1972 (Table 7.7 and Table 7.8). Akinyotu's observation is pertinent in that even though Ibadan was offering its one-year course at the Certificate level while Zaria's is the two-year Diploma, the course structure of both courses is basically the same (Table 7). Although not included in Akinyotu's outline, Ibadan students are also required to write an assessed long essay - typewritten, bound and submitted at the end of the year in duplicate. The 'research method' or a form of it as it exists on the Ibadan course is missing from the Zaria course. Thus, the long essay is the only element of difference in the structure of the "sub-professional's" courses.

The "professional" courses as tabulated (Table 7.8) identifies "professional" as being degree and postgraduate courses. Here, Akinyotu also observed that there are no significant features of content distinguishing the courses from one another. In terms of academic subject study on the B.L.S. course, Akinyotu noted that the two subjects required are only taken in Parts 1 and 2 and can even be dropped entirely at the end of the second year. This, he regarded as a weakening in the position of advocates for specialised knowledge being provided through academic options. The weightings allotted to the subsidiary subjects are as tabulated below (Table 7.9):

TABLE 7.9    B.L.S. SUBSIDIARY WEIGHTINGS, 1972

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PART II:	% age
Library Science	15%
1st Subsidiary	5%
2nd Subsidiary	5%
 PART III:	
a) In the case of students with no subsidiary subject: Library Science	75%
b) In the case of students with a subsidiary subject: Library Science	70%
Subsidiary	5%

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Akinyotu's findings in relation to the above tabulation is put into more perspective when compared with present weightings in the section on "evaluation": Section 7.5 in this present work. The weightings allotted to 'Library Science' induced Akinyotu to comment that the programmes are 'technique-oriented'. Similarly, one does not seem to share the author's argument (even at the time of writing the article) that the objective of education at the "non-professional" education level should be to produce only library assistants who would be skilled in carrying out all library routines with minimum supervision. For instance, that:

... it is necessary to teach cataloguing and classification only to the extent that the students will know how to shelve and retrieve books, how to file catalogue cards and how to use the different kinds of library catalogues.<sup>143</sup>

is to over-simplify the role of middle-level staff in libraries, especially in university, college, and other academic type libraries. The skills described in the quotation above can be acquired through experience but the rationale for 'education' goes far beyond 'training' basics.

The Colloquium on library education and training in Nigeria, held at the University of Ibadan 15-19 March, 1974, is a familiar source for discussion in the literature on curriculum development in Nigerian library and information studies. For the first time in Nigerian library education history, the academic staff of the two library schools

at Ibadan and Zaria, the Heads of all the major libraries in the country, as well as many other librarians attended the Colloquium. With 49 participants and 20 observers, a total of sixteen papers was presented spread through seven sessions conducted in a way to allow for full discussion of each paper presented. A vignette of the proceedings has been provided in the literature by Bankole<sup>144</sup> (representing the Nigerian Library Association), and the Department of Library Studies, University of Ibadan<sup>145</sup> (as the organisers of the Colloquium). Some of the papers presented are of pertinence to this study and shall be examined as such.

Benge<sup>146</sup> in his contribution, observed world trends in library education and proposed that any theory on Nigerian library education must relate to social relevance without which there are no foundations for right social action other than to nurse what he described as 'a kind of cultural imperialism'. Although Benge did not point any accusing fingers, he was indirectly referring to curriculum development activities in the pioneering library school at Ibadan where the curriculum has been designed to conform with 'international standards' based primarily on the influence of Europe and American developments in library education. For example, Ibadan concentrated for some time on postgraduate studies in librarianship in pursuance of its "leadership" objective, whereas the staffing needs of Nigerian libraries dictate priorities to the contrary. Furthermore, attempts at standardisation have had varying effects on curriculum development as will be examined in other papers presented. In terms of "cultural imperialism" the implications for libraries and library schools are clear although no one is under illusions as to the mounting difficulties posed in dismantling an educational system deriving its origins from the colonial administration period. From education and training viewpoint, Chan<sup>147</sup> reflects on "cultural imperialism" as implying library schools teaching what is desirable rather than what is necessary in the developing countries. The 'desirable', Chan argues, is usually an impossible dream, while the 'reality' is a nightmare for which the student librarian may be unprepared and largely untrained. Consequently, 'the student may learn about O & M, MbO, and PPBS, but he will not learn what to do when the library is infested with mice'. According to Benge, while professional education should move away from mere techniques, care should also be taken to avoid laying too much emphasis on academic subjects.

However, Dipeolu<sup>148</sup> disagrees on the issue of the academic content of a librarian's education. In his paper Dipeolu urged that library schools' curricula should be based on a level of liberal education which is guided by the functions and activities performed by librarians and the library needs per se. As revealed in the comparative study of the two schools at Ibadan and Zaria, Dipeolu concludes:

- (a) That the content of the B.L.S./M.L.S. degrees at A.B.U., Zaria, and the PGDip at Ibadan are "substantially similar".
- (b) That the academic subject content of the BLS degree at A.B.U., Zaria seems inadequate for employment in academic and university libraries.
- (c) That the BLS holders are inadequately prepared for acquisition, reference and assistance to readers services in the academic subjects.
- (d) That the trend is towards making librarianship a graduate profession all over the world.

This 'hard-line' approach towards middle-level management in libraries arises from a consideration of the content of the BLS degree course without formal educational evaluation procedure being applied in anyway other than a personal view of the trend. This fact alone makes most of Dipeolu's conclusions suspect although one may not contend with some of his observations especially as regards professional employment in academic libraries.

Ogunsheye<sup>149</sup> in her paper, traced curriculum development trends to the growth of information as an essential characteristic of communication using the fields of science and technology as basis for examination. The development in information technology is set against new dimensions in library processes and technology management, with the emergence of other medium, other than book, being fully integrated with conventional library services. Ogunsheye therefore proposed that curriculum development in librarianship should take account of the following:

1. The need for a grade for higher professionals (librarian/specialist) made up of people with a good first degree and postgraduate qualification in librarianship. The PGDip holders are included in this category.
2. The need for professionals (Associate librarians/specialist technicians) made up of B.L.S. degree holders and A.L.A. with three years experience.
3. The need for an acceptance of the "growing single professional theory" with a large core and longer duration to make room for specialisation. Thus, two-year Master's degree by course-work, to be introduced as a prerequisite for achieving such specialisation.

- (3) The offering of degree courses with library science components should be discouraged (as agreed at the Dakar Conference, 1974).

In essence, Ogunsheye advocates a five-year professional education structure, with the Master's degree as the basis for first professional qualification. The relationship of libraries to technological applications is an innovation which would genuinely ease information dissemination problems especially in the rural areas; the factor of illiteracy and oral tradition also contribute to how professional education can be oriented to the relevant needs of the community served.

Moid<sup>150</sup> in his paper, presents a slightly different view from the others on the status of the BLS degree. He proposed inter alia:

- (a) a discontinuation of the PGDip. in favour of the two-year Master's.
- (b) acceptance of the BLS as a three-year first professional (my emphasis) course after Diploma in Library Science or 'A' Level.
- (c) MLS as a two-year degree after the BLS. Could be of two types:
  - (1) for BLS holders, and
  - (2) 'ordinary' (sic) i.e. subject graduates.

It can be observed from Moid's proposals that the two-tier Master's degree was indeed both radical and innovative at the time it was being proposed, considering that in 1974 similar moves were made at Sheffield and Loughborough universities in the U.K. - both universities offering Master's degree for degree and A.L.A. candidates. However, for the first time in the discussion the BLS holder is recognised as a 'first professional'. In viewing this proposal objectively one may even go further and compare with trends in other professions such as B.Ed. (Education), LLB (Law) B. Mus (Music), M.B.B.S. (or Ch.B) Medicine, and B.D. (Religion). The conclusion seems to be that an illuminative evaluation of librarian's qualification along this line may be long overdue.

The following recommendations emerged from the 1974 Colloquium:

- (1) that library school courses should include special courses to meet specialist interests.
- (2) that the facilities for the training of library technicians might be better provided for in a technical college situation than in a university situation as at present;
- (3) that an active policy of continuing education be adopted by libraries;

- (4) that library schools should organize continuing education programmes on a regular basis;
- (5) there is a need for a survey to determine job descriptions for various levels of personnel in different kinds of libraries in Nigeria;
- (6) that the profession should develop a career structure and appropriate remuneration for library technicians as supportive staff;
- (7) that the profession should aim at a school library service in in each state manned by fully-qualified librarians;
- (8) that library school teachers should avail themselves of opportunities to improve the effectiveness of their teaching;
- (9) that there should be mobility between the teaching and practising sides of the library profession;
- (10) that librarianship in Nigeria must move towards a postgraduate profession;
- (11) that curriculum development must reflect the needs of the Nigerian society;
- (12) that note should be taken of the termination of the British A.L.A. course in 1980 and that attention should be drawn to opportunities offered by the external degree programmes of Nigerian universities;
- (13) that Nigerian library schools should investigate the possibility of starting courses for experienced librarians who hold only the British A.L.A. or F.L.A. qualifications to enable them to acquire Master's degree in librarianship;
- (14) that library schools should investigate the possibilities and avenues for co-operation among themselves;
- (15) that library schools should maintain relevant statistics on library education and these should be comparable;
- (16) that the papers and recommendations of this Colloquium be passed on to the Nigerian Library Association for information and further action.<sup>151</sup>

From the above list, the recommendations seemed to have touched upon virtually all problem areas in Nigerian librarianship and some of the far-reaching proposals such as items 2, 10, 12 and 13 were significant in view of the existing needs of the profession. Some aspects of the recommendations such as items 5 and 6 are still largely unattended and certainly the "aims" of such recommendations bear some similarity to the "objectives" of this present research, namely the need to survey and determine "professional" and "non-professional" job characteristics in Nigerian libraries as a periphery of curriculum development in the

identification of aims and objectives; and, the consequent career structure and appropriate remuneration likely to emerge as a direct result of such survey. Thus, the Colloquium, due to its importance from addressing itself to urgent problems in the profession in a topical way, provided the opportunity for the two library schools (Ibadan and Zaria) to exchange views on their programmes for the first time in the country's library education history, it also enabled library educators, employers of librarians, and the professional association to exchange views on education and training programmes and needs, and to establish broad guidelines for a structure of education for librarianship in Nigeria.

Obi<sup>152</sup> has in 1975 examined the content of courses offered at both Ibadan and Zaria library schools, and come to the conclusion that a three-tier educational structure exists represented by "para-professional", "first professional", and "specialist professional", which affords both similarities and differences. This view contrasts with findings in previous studies indicating that curricula provision in both schools are the same (Akinyotu, 1972; Dipeolu, 1974).

According to Obi, the similarities are reflected in the close adherence of the programmes to the 'core' as laid out in the Ibadan seminar of 1953:

- Library organization and administration
- Selection and acquisition
- Cataloguing and classification
- Reference and bibliography
- Special types of libraries:
  - public
  - school
  - university
  - special

These 'core' elements of the library schools' programmes are said by Obi to have shown remarkable resilience to change for more than a decade up to 1975. The core courses, are taught in a comparative manner 'with the libraries of Great Britain and America forming the background while libraries and librarianship in Africa are used as examples'.<sup>153</sup> The differences are observable in the duration of courses, entrance qualifications and weighting (Table 7.10). For example, according to the tabulation on the three-tier structure, the MLS programme at Zaria (in the "specialist-professional" category) is dual in nature comprising of:

- (a) a full-time two-year programme for graduates who have a professional qualification (BLS or the equivalent) which comprises of coursework for one year followed by a thesis to be presented at the end of the second year;
- (b) a full-time two-year programme for graduates without prior courses in library science also to comprise of one year of course work followed by a thesis.

Additionally, there is a part-time programme for graduates, whether or not they have a BLS, who work on the A.B.U. Campus or in Zaria as a whole. Furthermore, there is a fundamental difference in the entrance qualifications and admissions policy for the "para-professional" category with Ibadan requiring a minimum period of one-year full library employment plus success in the entrance examination, whereas Zaria's policy along these lines are less rigid in view of the shortage of candidates of the right calibre in the Northern part of the country.

In the "first-professional" tier one noticeable difference is that the PGDip. of Ibadan lasts for only one academic year while the Zaria BLS is undergraduate in nature and contains the equivalent of two-years of professional study. This implies that Ibadan's first-professionals have had, at completion of the PGDip. a longer period of academic study and a shorter period of professional study than have the graduates with BLS from Zaria.

Attention must now be focussed on specific items of curriculum development as practised in the library schools, having reviewed the literature on the varying degrees of structure, Nzotta's<sup>154</sup> survey to find out how the seven library schools in sub-Saharan black Africa taught management comes immediately into mind. Four schools returned the questionnaire sent to them, i.e. those situated at Ibadan, Zaria, Legon (Ghana) and Zambia. Nzotta<sup>155</sup> found that the management syllabuses in these schools covered most of the topics expected to be treated in such courses and that the teachers possessed most of the requisite qualifications for their job, but some necessary teaching aids were unavailable. On the method of teaching it was discovered that while lecturing was the prevailing method, a few other methods were being tried out and that this situation was found to be similar to those in Britain and the USA (Table 7.12). Table 7.11 shows, however, that in the teaching of management, library users and their needs did not feature at all. Nzotta argues further that the course outlines in management offered no scope for discovering whether the courses touched on the differences

TABLE 7.12     METHODS OF TEACHING RANKED IN ORDER OF USAGE (NZOTTA, 1977)

METHOD	RANK*			
	IBADAN	ZARIA	GHANA	ZAMBIA
Lecture	1	1	1	1
Seminar	2	2	3	2
Case Study	-	4	4	-
Simulation	-	-	2	-
Visit	3	3	5	3
Other	-	-	-	-

\* Ranking in order of highest to lowest ... 1, 2, 3 etc.

between management as practised in Africa and management elsewhere. When compared with guidelines on the 'core' (Chicago Workshop, 1953)<sup>156</sup> only three of the eight topics recommended by the Workshop are covered by all of the four library schools: these are, general principles of administration, organisation, and management; personnel management; and financing and budgeting.

In a paper presented to the Standing Conference of African Library Schools (SCALS) in 1978, Mohammed and Otim<sup>157</sup> have traced the trend towards the "indigenisation" (See: Section 7.3.6 of this present work) of the curriculum as practised in A.B.U., Zaria. Special emphasis was placed upon study in the area of 'Library and the community' as a core course:

- (a) Sociology of Library Science
- (b) History of Books and Libraries.

These two courses are taught at first degree level in the context of Nigeria's social setting. Details of the course development in these two specific areas are evaluated in Section 7.5 of this present work. The value of the contribution of the authors to the study of curriculum development process in Nigerian librarianship is inherent in the positive indigenous approach to the curriculum and how this reflects in the total curriculum process.

However, Bengé<sup>158</sup> suggests elsewhere in the literature, that Departments of Library Studies have failed to make their programmes

relevant to African circumstances. He argues further that all previous efforts to indigenise the curriculum have been implemented only to a superficial degree. He contends that basic theory is international whereas its interpretation is not. Thus, for example, 'The principles of classification are universal but the Dewey classification system is inevitably ethnocentric as it reflects the attitudes and characteristic of an American in the late nineteenth century'.<sup>159</sup> Furthermore, as Benge visualises, in subjects like the 'History of Libraries' the indigenous requirements are more obvious but not easy to fulfill considering that the exclusion of the study of e.g., ancient Greece and Rome or the European Middle Ages is not necessarily the answer to a full-fledged curriculum that is strictly indigenous. Persuasive as Benge's argument may seem, it contributes nothing to developments in this aspect of curriculum development other than to reject the basic principles (rather than practise) of "indigenisation" in the curriculum. As Section 7.5 of this present work shows, there is considerable evidence to suggest that "indigenisation" of the curriculum is truly reflective of national developmental objectives and community needs for information and library services.

In a more formal comparative review of the elements in programmes offered by both Ibadan and Zaria, Ogunshye<sup>160</sup> has shown evidence of a unified approach to curriculum development with "library science"/documentation/and "archive" courses formally represented in the syllabuses. The author observes that the development of the parts into a unified whole is not yet complete:

... the courses for the archivists programme are still to be initiated. Although an archives management course is offered in the Ibadan syllabus, no student has enrolled in it. Likewise information science courses are not fully developed. Although computer applications to libraries are offered, a programme for the training of information scientists in the M.Phil. specialist programme is in the planning stages.<sup>161</sup>

In countries like Britain and the USA information science has developed as a discipline in its own right backed-up with the necessary framework for its curriculum. For the same level of attainment to be achieved in the Nigerian curriculum development process, the information requirements and needs of the various library users will require definition and detailed study to make such curriculum relevant to local needs. The level at which the curriculum for information science is planned will

also need to be determined, i.e. either at undergraduate or postgraduate level. For example, Ibadan was reportedly planning the curricula "for users of information" at all levels - primary, secondary, and teacher training colleges, with additional recommendation that library science becomes a programme in the curriculum of schools, colleges, and universities.

In the area of special library types such as 'school libraries', Fayose<sup>162</sup> has made proposals for a one-year postgraduate education for school librarians in Nigeria. The proposed programme will prepare the school librarian for his dual function as teacher and librarian, and is set at the one-year PGDip level, with possible adaptation for the two-year non-graduate (Diploma) students 'who wish to go into primary school libraries'. The author proposed six compulsory courses to form the core of the programme:

- Educational psychology
- Curriculum development
- Materials for children and young adults
- Cataloguing, classification, indexing, bibliographic compilation
- Library administration
- Educational technology; and one optional course styled 'one special subject' - from which the students can choose. It should be a subject that the school librarian can teach in the school after the completion of his course.

However, on the basis of Fayose's article, a definition of the needs of the school community is lacking, thereby making the proposals seem empirical when this should not be so as previous studies tend to justify.<sup>163-166</sup> In Ogunshye's work for example, a theory was advanced that the educational needs of the school population in terms of supplementary information required as back-up to formal classroom studies are not yet met by books and these (needs) now require the availability of audio-visual materials, if the new education with cultural content is to become a reality; Ogunshye submits that the school population as well as adult illiterates in rural and urban industrial communities, form the majority of the citizenry in Nigeria and therefore their educational needs for information should no longer be neglected. If tested, this theory could have been of added significance as prerequisites to Fayose's proposals. Again the author could have used available information in the literature to advantage if she had considered current research in the field of school librarianship. For instance, at both Ibadan and ABU, Zaria there is a current investigation on the needs of the school population even at the time of Fayose's

article. The Abadina Media Resource Center Research Project under the direction and supervision of Professor Ogunsheye, is centered around service and research in five primary schools within the vicinity and there is a similar project at the Samaru Public and Children's Library under the direction of the Department of Library Science, ABU, Zaria. It would be useful to consider, in situ, what pattern of users' needs has emerged from these projects before curriculum decisions could be made based on learning experiences and the level at which such professional education could be offered.

The nature of assessment techniques in education with emphasis on the character of professional education in library and information studies has been examined in papers by Aiyepoku<sup>167</sup> and Edoka<sup>168</sup>. The library school has been highlighted as an academic unit of the university, thus, being naturally tied to the apron strings of university regulations in assessment of university students. Overall on the issue of assessment there is the general tendency amongst library educators to apply the use of the concept broadly from educational viewpoint. For instance, Ogunsheye defines assessment as "the means by which we ascertain whether behaviour and attitudinal changes required have taken place in the candidates"<sup>169</sup>. In a professional library programme education is the function of "transmitting knowledge and skills which are necessary for successful performance in the profession of librarianship".<sup>170</sup> This function places library schools at the vortex of the profession. Employers of librarians invariably depend on the judgement of library schools in choosing new entrants to the work force. Examinations, as major assessment techniques, are taken by the profession and the society at large as having predictive value for future performance as: "... success in the examination is held to be prima facie evidence of fitness to higher studies or to exercise a profession"<sup>171</sup>. The methods of assessment in Nigerian library and information studies therefore encompass, in addition to evaluating students, course objectives and course content, through essay-type examination, continuous assessment, oral examination, objective testing and project work.

Other writers have focussed on individual aspects of curriculum development in librarianship. One such writer highlighted the administrative aspects, i.e. the library school's role in curriculum development - Olden<sup>172</sup> in a descriptive survey of the Department of Library

Science, A.B.U. Zaria considered some elements of curriculum activity. For instance, Olden found that:

- (a) the foreign language requirement as a compulsory element of the curriculum from 1968/69 to 1972/73 had to be dropped because most of the students did not have 'O' level French. This presented considerable difficulties to both faculty and students. At the Faculty Board of Education meeting of May 1973 it was adopted that the foreign language be recommended still, but not made compulsory. As a result of this regulation many students opted for other courses such as Education and Sociology at the expense of foreign language option.
- (b) there exists inter-departmental co-operation in which courses in library management have been taught by lecturers from the Department of Business Administration.
- (c) that students actively participate as members of the Curriculum Review Committee which was set up in 1978/79. Some of the Committee's recommendations as implemented in 1979/80, streamlined the BLS syllabus and removed some overlapping of courses.<sup>173</sup>

Olden furthermore shed light on the structure of the new M.L.S. curriculum which has been designed on the same pattern as those for other Master's programmes within the faculty of education. The M.L.S. degree offers a choice between coursework (7 courses) plus thesis, and coursework (11 courses) plus an "independent study" of not less than 6,000 words. The seven-course programme is for students without a previous librarianship qualification and they have to pursue four compulsory subjects, i.e. reference and bibliography; Organisation of knowledge; collection development; and library management.

However, the eleven-course programme for students with librarianship qualification includes seven Library Science courses and four from the range offered by other Departments within the faculty of Education namely: Education, Vocational and Technical Education, Physical and Health Education Departments. For instance, all M.L.S. courses are to last one term (3 hours a week amounting to 30 hours), with an examination at the end of each term. This arrangement is different from the previous MLS module under which courses extend from October to May with fewer lecture periods a week per course. All the elements of the content of courses run by ABU, Zaria are evaluated in Section 4.2 on Evaluation. Other writers such as Aboyade<sup>174</sup>, Mohammed and Afolabi<sup>175</sup> have also contributed to the literature on curriculum development in comparative studies published in Nigerian Libraries.

Aboyade, for example, has drawn attention to curriculum development activity at Ibadan library school where in the basic professional curriculum for one calendar year (MLS), new introductory courses have been designed in information science, library automation, and archives and historical manuscripts collections as optional courses for students. In addition, some aspects of modern information handling techniques have been incorporated into existing courses. For instance, this is evident most especially in courses on: "Special Libraries and the Literature and References Sources for Science and Technology, Classification and Cataloguing, and a bit of documentation processes in courses on Literature and Reference Sources in the Humanities and the Social Sciences".<sup>176</sup>

For their part, Mohammed and Afolabi argue that curriculum development is a problem area of Nigerian library schools as 'an examination of the curricula reveals a preponderance in the traditional areas' (unspecified)<sup>177</sup>. The authors suggest an orientation of the curricula such that they would bear social relevance to the community. According to the authors, this can be achieved through adoption of a dynamic curriculum as proposed in the seminal work of Havard-Williams on the 'Harmonisation of the core curriculum' and Saunder's 'Guidelines for curriculum development in information studies' (op. cit. Section 7.1.3).

Some international aspects of curriculum development in Nigerian library schools deserve mention in this section if only to illumine the library schools' efforts to indigenise the curriculum through the curriculum development process. In May 1981 a Meeting sponsored by the Federation Internationale de Documentation (FID), Education and Training (ET) was held at Ibadan University to discuss technical problems of identifying "training" needs for library and information services in a predominantly non-literate society, with particular reference to agricultural and rural development.<sup>178</sup>

Most of the papers presented at the Conference, which was presided over by Professor Paul Wasserman, reflect the growing importance and recognition of information as supportive input for specific development programmes of which agricultural and rural development is a significant part. The large majority of the people living and working in rural areas are "illiterate" and have thus been neglected both in library provision

and the required training necessary for personnel who find themselves working in such locality at one stage or another of their career. In view of this current awareness of the need to re-vitalise services to the rural community it is gratifying to note the Conference's decisions as follows:

- Those responsible for formal education programmes in library and information science should take into consideration the need to prepare library and information personnel for service to the rural and non-literate communities;
- Continuing education programmes including short courses for library and information workers engaged in service to the rural and non-literate communities;
- Colloquia should be convened for library educators, adult literacy and agriculture extension specialists and other experts involved in rural development to plan for co-operative educational efforts;
- Schools of library and information studies in Africa such as the Department of Library Studies at the University of Ibadan be given adequate support by their governments and international organisations to prepare information personnel for service in rural areas in their country. (Summarised by present writer)

Perhaps at this juncture one should reflect on Ogunshye's<sup>179</sup> paper presented at the Conference. In the paper, the author posits that:

- (a) rural non literates have information needs which can be identified and categorised;
- (b) that a new concept of service and practice are required to meet those needs;
- (c) that library and information services that can promote education, increase productivity and quality of life are feasible in non literate rural communities;
- (d) that rural society can be structured and organized to be receptive to information transfer from formal agencies like libraries;
- (e) that the relationship established between information flow and development is pertinent to developing countries;
- (f) that special training programmes and curriculum are required for a new type of information counsellor librarian and "para-professional" (sic) assistant to give this service.

Thus, an evolving hypothesis from the above outline is that the conventional library service has not succeeded in meeting the information needs of predominantly non literate communities. This implies that for libraries to fulfill their roles effectively a new dynamism is required in providing essential service to promote literacy, to educate for

change, to articulate wants of rural communities, perhaps even to increase productivity and improve the general quality of life at the grass roots level commonly present in rural area life. Given such a situation, it would seem positive to consider Ogunsheye's suggestion, that the personnel envisaged to implement rural library and information service be educated in two categories;

- (a) "Professional" cadre, termed as Extension Librarian or Information Counsellor Librarian. According to Ogunsheye, the "professionals" are individuals with first degrees in a discipline with training at postgraduate level for rural agricultural library and information service. The possession of a subject background such as science, or sociology, or humanities is of distinct advantage. The structure of the "professional" programme should be either a two-year programme for an MLS including an additional certification for rural librarianship, or a sandwich programme in two parts, consisting of a first professional MLS, with a continuing education programme for specialisation in rural librarianship after a period of practice.
- (b) "Para" - professional cadre, styled by Ogunsheye as Extension Information Library Officers. These are individuals with a secondary education, and a two year diploma, with additional specialisation for rural librarianship. These will function as information officers executing services, working with agricultural extension team, health services team, functional literacy team and others in an outreach programme or at the information referral desk under the supervision of the professional extension librarian.

It follows that a curriculum requires to be worked out for both categories of library workers, with guidelines as follows;

	<u>Level</u>	<u>Orientation</u>
(a)	M.L.S.	Theory, practice and decision-making
(b)	B.L.S.	Theory and practice
(c)	D.L.S.	Operational executive function.

The core curricular for the various levels - M.L.S., PGDip, BLS, and DLS is as proposed by Ogunsheye<sup>180</sup> in Table 7.13. The key to the outline as shown in Table 7.13 is contained in Table 7.14 giving full description of courses according to the harmonised core curricula. The reader will need to use both Tables concurrently in order to understand the elements of the curricula.

The curriculum as proposed by Ogunsheye cannot be faulted on a a priori basis, for it was based on sound theory and previous related studies on the subject. For example, in addition to using her own comparative methodology from an earlier work<sup>181</sup>, the author also consulted other works of importance such as the Report of decisions taken by Directors of

African Library Schools at the Dakar meetings of 1974<sup>182</sup> and 1978<sup>183</sup> which persuasively advocated for the "Africanisation" of the curriculum (c.f. Section 3.3 of this present work). Programmes from other parts of the world were also considered. Of particular relevance are: the programme for information specialist for various specialised services by INSDOC<sup>184</sup> (and the special documentation centres in Delhi, India), and the School of Library and Information Studies, Pittsburgh's newly planned 'Agricultural Information Specialist Program' for candidates from developing countries. The latter is, however, considered as offering at Bachelor's and Master's degree level courses which are related to conventional library and information service for agricultural establishments rather than for the whole spectrum of rural development.

A general observation on the papers which have been surveyed here under 'Nigerian Studies' shows that the current trend of thought in professional education relates to developing the curriculum on the basis of extended duration of programmes especially at the Master's level. This is due in part to the current expansion in the frontiers of knowledge in information science and technology and to the general mood for change in professional library and information services.

#### 7.1.7 Other Studies

##### 7.1.7.1 Australia

In 1974 an important Colloquium on education for librarianship was held at the Western Australian Institute of Technology (WAIT) August 28-30, 1973<sup>185</sup>. The Colloquium compares in similarity with Colloquia held elsewhere such as, The Illinois Graduate Library School Conference of 1970 in the U.S.A., the Ibadan University Colloquium on education for librarianship in Nigeria, 1974, and the U.K. British Library Research and Development in library and information science, 1977, and more recently the Cumberland Lodge curriculum development seminar, 1980. An internationalist approach to curriculum development problems is particularly evident in the 1973 Australian Colloquium. While other similar colloquia have concentrated on national curriculum development problems the WAIT Colloquium examined problems of curriculum design overseas, more especially in the developing countries. Some of the resolutions of the Colloquium bear salutary inferences to library education as practised elsewhere in the world. For example:

- that further investigation is required into the future role of the professional;
- that curriculum design is dynamic in concept and essentially related to the future;
- that the curriculum should emphasize the international implications of librarianship;
- that basic qualifications should normally be generalist in nature;
- that courses in areas of "post-basic" specializations are required as a matter of urgency;
- that library schools are obligated to enter the field of continuing education with the community rather than for it<sup>186</sup>.

All the recommendations reflect increasing concern for library education to be made locally relevant. Dean<sup>187</sup>, in referring to the situation in the developing countries, argues that the trend towards 'relevance' is a major influence among other numerous factors governing curriculum development. The characteristics of hurdles to be cleared are, according to Dean,:

1. Adequate back-up resources for teaching and a/v equipment;
2. Indigenous staff;
3. Accommodation;
4. Type of student: qualities and suitability;
5. Language fluency for tertiary teaching and notemaking by students.

Dean is of course writing from valuable experience having served overseas (especially in Nigeria and Ghana) enough to know and be able to identify the peripheral problems affecting curriculum development activity in the library schools. His argument that the library pattern has in many cases been predetermined by colonial experiences and a system developed which is possibly not particularly appropriate for the environment, is quite valid and raises some questions. For example the author implied a re-definition of the future role of the professional in library and information services. The professional will be expected, by his superiors, to carry out his duties effectively and in a manner appropriate to new forms of education and practice. Thus, in respect of what is expected of library educators, Dean submits 'that curriculum rethinking in respect of objectives, content and teaching method is sadly lacking in most areas of the third world, and the habitual and familiar tend to be cherished'<sup>188</sup>.

However, in another study on curriculum development, Parr and Done<sup>189</sup>

have jointly reported on the use of the Nominal Group Technique (NGT) as a tool of curriculum renewal in their library school. The use of NGT was decided upon with the aim of identifying curriculum areas of prime concern to library practitioners. The authors sampled 26 librarians (some of them former students of the library school) from senior and middle rank positions in academic, public, state, school and special libraries. Such technique as the NGT was initiated and developed by Delbecq, et.al.<sup>190</sup> in 1968 as an alternative to the more conventional group formats such as: open discussion or debate, and it was aimed at diffusing volatile or threatening group encounters as probable in such situations, thereby facilitating a more rational and comfortable decision making process.

Elsewhere in the literature, Delbecq and Van de Ven<sup>191</sup> have in 1972 applied the NGT concept to the field of exploratory health studies, but even more pertinent to this present work is that the NGT was for the first time applied to librarianship by Lonsdale<sup>192</sup> at the 1970 WAIT Colloquium. The procedure used was based on a nominal-group approach for small-group creative decision-making. All groups, drawn from Colloquium participants, had the same problem - to identify the most important attitudes, values, appreciations or feelings which should, in their view, be developed by a course in librarianship. In the analysis of results that followed, two areas of prime importance emerged:

- (a) objectives relating to the relationship between the librarian and the library user; these are exemplified by such expressions as 'understanding the needs of users and a desire to serve them', 'responsibility to clients', 'desire to help', 'attitude of service', 'sensitive to people';
- (b) objectives relating to the manner whereby the librarian approaches and solves problems.<sup>193</sup>

The list of objectives presented to the participants is not fully comprehensive nor do the results as outlined above truly represent the views of the participants. However, the study created a basis for discussion on the application of NGT, as demonstrated in Parr and Done's work. The advantages of NGT have been outlined as consisting of four important elements necessary for obtaining relevant results from the participating practitioners:

1. NGT encourages participation by each group member;
2. It minimizes threatening or stifling interaction between group members;
3. It focusses attention on ideas rather than on people;
4. It produces an indication of the relative emphasis given by the group to the various issues raised during the discussion.

Clearly one disadvantage which may act as a hindrance to all the stated advantages above is the "academic reality" that exists in higher institutions in the curriculum development process - curriculum innovation is hardly based on the opinions of practitioners where such expressed views cannot be quantified nor assessed objectively.

The views of practitioners may rightly be sought (as the authors have done) on curriculum content for library education because of the need to gain some measure of feedback as to the relative importance of the subject components to practice. The inclusion of former graduates of the WAIT library school amongst the 26 librarians who participated in the NGT is reasonable to the extent that they would offer valuable comment from personal experiences on the effectiveness of the existing programme as a preparation for the field. Table 7.15 indicates the integration of the NGT items. In relating the items to the general results of the survey, it can be observed that Philosophy and social context of libraries (A) was considered by the participants to be the second most important element in the curriculum, occupying almost a quarter of the available time for study. Administrative aspects (C) was judged to be of "great importance" as 'strong emphasis was placed upon the study of people as individuals' (my emphasis) within the organization. 'Library skills' (B) failed to make much impact as to rank alongside A and C, regardless of their tangible importance in the day-to-day running of the library.

In conclusion, Parr and Done argue that the view of the practitioners should be predominant in curriculum design; one may add that it is equally important that the library school is itself aware of expectations and changes in the field, and there are many avenues towards achieving this, for example, through active participation in continuing education schemes for professionals, research, consultancy and the like. On the whole, NGT as a tool in curriculum development has its limitations, as has been discussed earlier, but the overriding factor is that it is an effective channel for obtaining current feedback from practitioners as regards library schools' courses, as well as a reliable medium for assessing practitioners' attitudes to curriculum innovation in the library schools.

### 7.1.7.2 INDIA

Gupta<sup>194</sup> in a recent survey of library and information science curriculum, has related the nature of jobs performed by qualified library personnel with the content of library schools' courses in India. The results proved to be inconclusive and the report could only serve as basis for further discussion and debate. Similarly, Kanjilad<sup>195</sup> has attempted to trace modern trends in library education, only to devote considerable space and time to events happening overseas and leave very little room for the trends in India, presented as they were in a breviate form.

However, by contrast, Kashyap<sup>196</sup> in a well-documented study on curriculum development considered the concept in its educational context, and following detailed examination of the curriculum development process, proposed that in its application to library and information education a "systems" approach to curriculum development is preferable. Kashyap argues that because of the impact of systems philosophy the curriculum is increasingly being regarded as a system of interrelated tasks designed to achieve certain ends. As a "system", the curriculum is defined in terms of its components such as, (a) objectives; (b) subject contents; (c) instructional materials; (d) teaching-learning strategies; (e) procedures for evaluation of student progress; and (f) implementation programmes. The interaction of these elements provide the parameters for defining the curriculum as:

A "system" of planned action of instructions and evaluation methods of transmitting organized bodies of knowledge (subjects) to the learner, with the objective of increasing his knowledge and developing his intellectual ability, social behaviour and vocational aptitude.<sup>197</sup>

Within the "system", as proposed in Kashyap's definition of the curriculum, there exists an inter-active system of planning and development of a workable and effective curriculum design in an educational environment. Thus, the "systems" approach constitutes:

- (i) Determination and formulation of:
  - a) overall objectives of education
  - b) level-wise objectives of curriculum
  - c) subject-wise objectives of curriculum.
- (ii) Identification, selection and specification of core elements of the curriculum, namely:
  - a) subject contents to be learned by students
  - b) teaching-learning strategies (methods)
  - c) assessment procedure, i.e. how can the extent of learning of a student be measured

d) instructional materials

(iii) Determination and formulation of objectives and functions of the core elements

(iv) Establishing interrelation among the core elements

(v) Implementation and monitoring of the whole curriculum system.

It would seem from items (i) to (v) above that the "system's" approach is heavily dependent on implementation for successful course design. Even then, there will still be the need for evaluation of course materials, Kashyap refers to this last stage as "a cycle of continuous revaluation and revision of curriculum", thereby ensuring that what is taught is made relevant from time to time.

The author utilised relevant educational literature to good effect by working out a set of desired objectives for a new library and information science educational programme. The "objectives" thus determined and specified will provide the guidelines for:

- (a) Conceiving the whole structure of an educational programme and to measure the effectiveness of its final output.
- (b) Rational selection and organisation of curriculum contents; identifying relevant teaching-learning processes; choice of suitable methods for evaluation and preparation as well as selection of instructional materials.

Educational literature is still largely used by library educators involved with selection and organisation of content. For example, Schwab suggests a "structure of discipline" as a device for content selection. It covers three distinct but related sets of selection conditions as follows:

- (1) the way in which accumulated knowledge is organized according to subjects or the way discrimination is made between areas of investigation.
- (2) the set of basic methods and rules used within the framework of the discipline for providing evidence, in other words, the methods of enquiry unique for the discipline.
- (3) the set of basic concepts used to describe a variety of phenomena within the boundaries of a discipline.<sup>198</sup>

Another educationist Dave refers to the selection and organisation of curriculum contents on the basis of:

- (1) The curriculum area or subjects of study should be selected in such a manner that they provide a wide basis and choice for further education.

- (2) While selecting subjects and organising their content, the nature of individual subjects must be taken into account. For example, subjects which undergo quick changes in respect of their content need frequent updating.
- (3) In the process of selection and organisation of content, the emphasis should be shifted from specific bits of knowledge which quickly become obsolete, to those aspects which constitute the structure of the subject, key concepts of the curriculum area and tools and methods of inquiry specific to the subject ...
- (4) The curriculum content should have an appropriate mixture of work and study. Academic study should be interrelated with work situations wherever possible.
- (5) Each subject of study selected for inclusion in the curriculum should be examined in terms of the possibility of its acquisition and applicability.<sup>199</sup>

The important point to emerge from the above-mentioned citations (Schwab and Dave) is that library schools are suitably disposed to adopt the principles of selection as enunciated in the outlines such as, for example, in the area of restructuring the curriculum content. The developing countries too may use this as a leverage for indigenising their curricula so as to make them socially relevant. This is all the more important because in almost all cases of curriculum innovation in African library Schools, the planner of the educational programme is not always presented with tabula rasa, from which to develop his course. Kashyap's contribution, apart from being of value to the developing countries in general, is a positive analysis on curriculum development as a process in professional education.

#### 7.1.8 Review

The literature on curriculum development in library and information studies has been reviewed in this section to cover trends in the field from British, American, Nigerian and other countries' perspectives - such as Australia and India. Practically, all elements of curriculum design and change as surveyed in this present work indicate some form of pragmatic approach to the curriculum of librarianship. In some cases proposals for new curriculum have been made without due recourse to assessment of need, although this is more than compensated for in the renewed efforts by the library schools, especially in Nigeria, to localise the curriculum so as to make it socially relevant.

As can be observed from the review, curriculum development is a cyclic process with a continuity value in the field of education. In general, it is influenced by both "inside" and "outside" factors such as, social, economic, and political change in the society which library schools exist to serve. In view of the changes necessary to be made in response to these factors, efforts must now be directed further at developing new concepts such as the NGT and applying them beneficially to the profession as a whole. As "gatekeepers"<sup>200</sup> of the profession library schools are suitably placed to incur whatever changes are considered necessary in order to improve professional services through an active curriculum development process.

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7.1.9 CURRICULUM OBJECTIVES : CASE STUDIES OF NIGERIAN LIBRARY SCHOOLS :

Curriculum objectives are anticipatory and derive directly from the designer's apprehension of the kinds of generalists and specialists which will be necessary within the profession, not now, but in the years to come.

John DEAN

Introduction, In: Curriculum  
design in librarianship: an  
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### 7.1.9 Introduction: Definition and Scope

The present writer is an ample example of how "objectives" in Nigerian library education (not to consider similar world trends on the subject) have been made to relate to the needs and "functions" of personnel in library and information services, having first obtained the so-called "para"-professional qualification after two G.C.E. Advanced Levels before proceeding to acquiring degrees after serving in junior and intermediate positions in the library since 1967. Likewise, the importance of "objectives" are made inherently obvious to the present writer during and after having served in senior positions in libraries both in the U.K. and Nigeria after graduation. Thus, for the purposes of this present study which focusses on "professionalism" in Nigerian librarianship one may at this juncture ask, what constitutes the concept of "objectives" from library education viewpoint.

"Objectives" are the planned ends of the classroom activities that make up the daily work of a known group of students in a particular institution, and the "function" of the students when they upgrade to personnel status in libraries refers, in terms of "objectives", to the strictly factual statement of what the institution or a sub-unit within it, actually achieves, rather than what it may be designed to achieve, as a result of its activities. Therefore, it would seem that from the present writer's experience much has been written about the "functions" of libraries, but very little has been written about the actual (achieved) function of the library schools. Admittedly, this unique way of looking at "objectives" is open to different interpretations depending on the reader's own perspectives, but in the context of this present work, curriculum objectives can only be expressly derived in the light of the circumstances of a given institution and its personnel. As the opening quotation of this Section suggests, 'curriculum objectives are anticipatory and derive directly from the designer's apprehension of the kinds of generalists and specialists which will be necessary within the profession, not now, but in the years to come' - nothing can be much closer to the truth than that! For, it is possible to derive objectives from 'proximate' goals through ability to consider the students, teachers, and facilities of a given institution and tailoring a programme to precise and known needs. Hence, educational objectives are often cited as the most precise guide to curriculum development. Since they represent the most specific statement of desired behavioural outcomes in the classroom, this is true, but with

the important proviso that it is necessary in the case of objectives, to specify which classroom is under consideration. Therefore educational objectives can be derived from proximate goals only in the light of knowledge of the needs, progress and potential of the particular students identified as being at work in a particular classroom. Perhaps an example will vindicate the foregoing statement; consider, for example, the study of computer technology upon which complete programmes have been framed in North American library schools although for the most part "objectives" are relatively limited, and so far imprecise, even by the U.K. standards (as a leading technological country). Experience in the North American continent elicits the following objectives:

1. To make students familiar enough to feel comfortable when talking to others in their field or to computer people;
2. To be familiar with terminology and have confidence when involved, and cope with discussions;
3. To be alert to the advantages and drawbacks of using a computer;
4. To manage information systems;
5. To be highly educated users themselves.<sup>1</sup>

However, no general consensus on the "depth of penetration" in familiarisation with terminology has been reached, nor has familiarisation with the computer's actual "technology" as reflected in the familiarisation expected to engender confidence in the average student, been totally achieved. Indeed, item 4 above is regarded as being too advanced to be realistic by most practising library educators.

Thus, "objectives" are an important, if not all-significant, aspect of the library school curriculum for it relates to the nature of the profession itself given the changing circumstances in the society as a whole. This present Section (7.1.9) covers the objectives of the four existing library schools in Nigeria, i.e. at Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria, Bayero University, Kano, Ibadan University and University of Maiduguri respectively. Their evaluation is covered in Section 7.5 of this present work. As Dudley submits:

A more effective assessment of the relevance to professional practice (of tomorrow not today) is more likely to be achieved through an examination of the objectives of courses and teaching syllabuses and the relationship between them.<sup>2</sup>

While this section is not entirely devoted to the teaching syllabuses per se it also examines the basis for objectives, the standards that

should be conformed with and their planning in theory.

#### 7.1.9.1 The rationale for objectives in library education

The study of objectives in any discipline raises fundamental questions as to the nature of practice in that discipline and consequently the structure of its professional education. The objectives of library education, in general, has been under scrutiny for some time. In a study based on the field of documentation Shera remarks that;

... the recruitment of technical information personnel is handicapped by our uncertainty as to the precise nature of the profession, the kind of people who should be brought into it, and the nature of the education the initiates should receive. Such uncertainties are not disastrous but their clarification would materially mitigate the problems of recruitment.<sup>3</sup>

The primary reason for the uncertainty as regards the precise nature of the profession is, as Shera concludes, 'because the profession is so young that it has never defined the parameters of its own discipline'.<sup>4</sup> Foskett<sup>5</sup>, in a related study, concurs that library educators lack any kind of informed, disciplined and stringent analysis of what librarianship actually is.

However, the importance of having clearly stated objectives has been persuasively put by Revill<sup>6</sup> in a study of the objectives of library education in the late sixties. Revill states that despite the semantic difficulties caused by a precise lack of definition of what librarianship is setting out to do, a statement of objectives is required if only to assist library educators in assessing their own objectives. The clarification sought for by Shera and others on the nature of objectives is not uncommon in educational literature. In Nigeria, it is fashionable for some of the library schools such as at Zaria and Kano to describe their courses as "library science".

'Library science' is a term which is defined, in the United Nations Bibliographic Information System (UNBIS) Thesaurus, as 'the branch of learning concerned with collecting, storing and distributing written or printed records by means of libraries and of the management of libraries'.<sup>7</sup> Following on from the understanding of the intellectual skills required of the librarian in 'collecting, storing and distributing written or printed records', is the rationale on which basis a clarification of objectives in library education may be made. This can be considered in three ways:

1. the students;
2. the inter-relationship between them and society; and,
3. the knowledge component.

First, the students. A consideration of students in terms of their given abilities and proven professional outlook has so far been ignored in most librarianship curricula. While the technique and methodology of assessing students may vary from one library school to the other, it should be possible to identify objectives and make the content of courses applicable to the different levels of ability range such as in the three-tier structure of the curriculum as revealed in Section 7.1.6.2 (Table 10). The curriculum should therefore be student-centred in the sense of being related to areas of life and experience which they see as relevant to them, i.e. relevant in terms of specialisation or interest, and relevant in terms of the learning styles which equip them for the challenges of a changing profession and the society at large.

Secondly, in a society of considerable cultural tradition, technological complexity and general rapid change the need for flexibility and adaptability becomes essential as both styles of work and leisure are affected.

Thirdly, the knowledge component should be determined in context of the level required for professional courses. For example, how far should library courses go in terms of academic subject study? How are the students' interests catered for in this respect? What about employment trends in the discipline, as well as the needs of library employers? The foregoing recognition of objectives projects it as a basis for efficient learning and this in turn should lead to a more precise statement of objectives appropriate to particular needs. From this normative consideration of what should constitute a librarian's education, must be derived the objectives of the library school. These objectives, growing out of a soundly developed theory of librarianship, must provide a basis for the integration of dissident interests within the profession. The traditional definition of a library, as a collection of books organised for use, by implication defines the librarian as one who is little more than a keeper of the collection, and merely describes what is done in libraries by librarians with only the vaguest reference to specific social goals towards which the operations of the librarian are directed. The UNBIS Thesaurus definition of 'library science', however, shows the latest trend of implying that the

librarian's duty extends beyond collecting, storing and disseminating records, but also of managing them.

Expressed in terms of education for librarianship, those professional activities relating to the collection, organisation and utilisation of written or printed record, requires to be emphasised in the curriculum. Stated in terms of their social objectives, these professional responsibilities are of two kinds:

1. Advancement of the general cultural level through the provision of library materials which enrich the experience of the individual.
2. Advancement of the "scholarship" of the society; i.e. its scientific knowledge and managerial effectiveness, through provision of the specific information needed in the research, investigation, and decision-making processes.<sup>8</sup>

But as Shera warns, these two responsibilities stand almost in direct opposition. The first is focussed upon the user - his tastes, education, interests, and experience; it implies an intimate and highly personal relationship between reader and book. The second, by contrast, is environment-oriented in that it relates to such variables in the situation as the subject field, the type of problem to be solved, the method or methods of investigation being used, or the kind of decision to be reached. Here the characteristics of the user, other than the librarian's capacity to understand what is set before him, are relatively unimportant.<sup>9</sup> According to Shera, the lines of demarcation between the above-mentioned two responsibilities are not always clear and distinct, and though one may, in general, say that the first is the domain of the public, the school, and the academic library, and the second is the concern of special library or information centre, there is a constant recrossing of lines of responsibility. While this interrelationship may not be improper, it nevertheless causes some confusion in properly identifying the librarian's social and other role, and consequently, confusion in respect of the kind of professional education the librarian will need.

Thus, in summarizing the rationale for objectives by which the professional programme of library schools can be evaluated the following points emerge:

1. library schools' courses need to represent a well-developed theory of the social function of the library;
2. library schools' courses need to extract from the totality of the librarian's knowledge and skills those which are

professional ;

3. library schools' courses must present librarianship as a unified cluster of specialisations in preference to previous concept of educationally preparing a "universal" librarian - the type John Dean refers to as the generalist of Johannes fac totum at the basic professional level; and,

4. Librarianship courses need to be directed more toward the training of the intellect. Library schools in Nigeria are integral parts of the university community in which they exist. Only to the degree to which their programmes are intellectual can they be fully integrated with other academic departments.

In order to achieve and possibly maintain this rationale for objectives some level of standards and planning needs to be met. These are discussed in the following sections of this present work.

#### 7.1.9.2 Standards; library schools' objectives

In the area of curriculum objectives in library education, the need to conform to broad guidelines is essential especially in parts of the world where the formal establishment of library schools is a recent phenomenon. The usual channel for such conformity is through the provision of "standards" in all spheres of professional practice of which library education is one. The merits and demerits of 'international' or 'national' "standards" have been discussed in another chapter of this present work. However, it is pertinent here to unfold the importance of existing standards in library education as it affects the formulation, statement, and consequent evaluation of objectives for the programmes offered by the schools.

In the IFLA 1976 document on Standards for Library Schools<sup>10</sup>, it is argued that the worldwide development of the library profession (including documentalists and information scientists) has brought into focus the necessity for high quality programmes in library education. Library education is regarded as very advanced in certain countries but functioning less satisfactory in most areas of the world. The document further posits that there are basic differences to be found, from one region to another, in the level of the library education programmes, in their curricula, in their expectations of students, in the qualifications of their teaching staffs, and in their conditions of operation. Thus, in many instances these differences work to the disadvantage of library development in the regions which need it most.<sup>11</sup>

If the views expressed in the IFLA document is accepted, then it

would seem that some form of criteria or "standards" is essential for progress in education for librarianship. The next task is to determine the guiding principles for the stating of objectives as provided for in the IFLA standards. In the relevant section on "objectives" it is expressly stated that;

The school should have specific objectives, derived from its goals, which are clearly stated in a formal document.<sup>12</sup>

The goal statement is one of general purpose and long-range intentions of the School. The objectives statement is an expression of specific aims which are to be met (usually in a specified time span) and which can be evaluated in terms of their achievement or lack of it. Viewed as a totality, the curriculum, as the document suggests, should clearly offer a unified and coherent succession of studies and experiences which will support well-defined objectives. The objectives of the curriculum should be carefully expressed as specifically as possible, in a formal document which is periodically examined to assess its current validity, and revised as necessary. As a corollary to curriculum objectives, institutional objectives are also viewed as of prime importance. For instance, the document advocates that considerations of future activity by the school should be prominent in the thinking of the staff and Head. Such considerations will be most effective if they are based upon prior formulations of goals and objectives.<sup>13</sup> This latter requirement from the library schools have varying implications for some schools, for example from developing countries, who cannot afford to meet the required minimum standard due to infrastructural exigencies. As many library schools and library establishments are members of IFLA, it is reasonable to expect favourable adoption of most, if not all of the recommendations as the obvious advantage is that it helps to maintain quality of the programmes offered as well as an international acceptability of the qualifications obtained. But the implications for planning policy of the library school needs to be assessed separately.

#### 7.1.9.3 Planning: library schools' policy on objectives

If the criteria on "objectives" as stated in the earlier section are neglected or even possibly ignored for one reason or another, then the absence of a clear statement of objectives will be "a shortcoming which might lead to lack of direction and purpose"<sup>14</sup>. This lack of direction further manifests itself in confusion, inability to achieve, sudden changes in programmes thereby causing unnecessary nor desirable

tinkering with the curriculum, and above all, futile efforts at launching unsuccessful programmes. The 'stating' of objectives requires planning so as to reflect the goals and objectives of the larger society, i.e. whether it is an open democratic society where access to knowledge and information is considered the right of every individual or otherwise. Besides, the statement of objectives (i.e. in its final written form) or any other form should also be clear on whether the institution plans to cover every cadre required in the profession or only particular levels such as middle or senior levels.

As Ogunshye observes:

The ideal and the trend in Africa is to train for the various cadres within an institution. The older institutions in Africa at Ibadan, Accra, Kampala and Zaria run two or three levels of programmes:

- a) Postgraduate for the specialist ...
- b) Undergraduate programmes for first professional
- c) "Sub-degree" (sic) programmes for the para-professional.<sup>15</sup>

According to Professor Ogunshye this seems to be the ideal in the present state of development in most African countries, because it has the advantage of utilising fully the limited manpower for library education and of control of standard of training for all cadres in the profession.<sup>16</sup> This assertion may very well be true in the light of existing circumstances of the burgeoning state of professional education especially at the postgraduate level in Africa, but the ultimate goals of the library school also relate to people and ideas. For example, the library school assumes responsibility for the production of qualified personnel at every level in response to local demand. Dean, in his seminal text on the subject of library education, suggests that when the demand for staff is not sufficient for the effective development of library systems, as is often the case in emergent areas, then the library school should make a determined attempt to change the employment pattern by indicating as persuasively as possible to employing authorities the extent to which their establishments fall short of their minimum requirements.<sup>17</sup> This assertion may be equally true in the late sixties and early seventies but certainly if recent developments in Nigeria are anything to go by, then the employment pattern seems to have been influenced by external forces such as social (e.g. educational expansion), economic (budget increases to institutions and establishments due to 'oil boom'), and the general rise in demand for information. In this situation, the library schools have been lucky not to be the

agents of change and stimuli to the employment pattern as it affects librarianship.

However, the library schools still have obligations, in their planning, to undertake professional leadership. Indeed, this view is not new as Danton in 1949 has stressed the importance of undertaking such professional leadership:

Unless library schools in some measure assume a role of leadership we can hardly expect more than the maintenance of the status quo and a static condition in librarianship; if progress and improvement are to be achieved they will come to a considerable degree from leadership exercised by the schools which must then be at least a step ahead of the libraries for which they prepare staff members.<sup>18</sup>

The library school should therefore be somewhat ahead of current professional thinking and constantly concerned in its teaching, both intra-murally and extra-murally. Dean has provided what amounts to "specific objectives" which can be identified by the library school in the developing country:

1. To ascertain curricular needs and the setting up of appropriate training courses at the levels required.
2. To identify areas in which investigation is required and to establish research programmes, encompassing both group and individual projects.
3. To publish monographs, textbooks, journals. As soon as a school is reasonably well established, it should begin to think in terms of publication to invigorate local and, indeed, national professional thinking.
4. To undertake the creation of a resource centre in librarianship, i.e. the assembly of materials relevant to library studies generally upon a selective basis and the assembly of local materials upon a comprehensive basis. The centre may well become the focus for the exchange of materials between institutions right around the world.
5. To maintain continuous professional contact with alumni and to afford guidance after they have left the school.
6. To contribute to continuing education in the region served and to mobilize professional consciousness by seminars, short courses, and conferences.
7. To hold exhibitions of current publications, of new items of equipment, etc., in order to increase the school's impact upon its environment.
8. To establish library pilot projects, where local services are deficient - the community must be brought into contact

with effective library service by the creation of pilot projects as they may be required.

9. To provide advisory and consultancy services when necessary. In developing countries, with an overall lack of professional expertise, a number of library systems may appropriately take advantage of these facilities. At its most significant, this kind of activity is directed towards coherent library planning at the national level.
10. To play an active role in the administrative, teaching and research functions of the institution of higher education in which the school is situated.
11. To take some responsibility in creating appropriate international relationships, i.e. to forge links between other library schools everywhere and thus create a forum for the exchange of ideas.<sup>19</sup>

It is against this background of specific objectives (as listed above), which can form the basis of a dynamic policy in respect of a library education programme, that the case studies on Nigerian library schools will be conducted and discussed.

#### 7.1.10 Ahmadu Bello University Library School, Zaria

In the 1968/69 session at Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria the Department of Librarianship was founded "to train librarians and assistants (B.L.S. degree and Diploma respectively) on all levels of librarianship with special emphasis on librarianship in Africa"<sup>20</sup>. At the time this objective was stated, there seemed little doubt as to the fact that the recruitment needs of the Northern States of Nigeria were not the same as the rest of the Federation, nor could anyone deny (as evidenced in the pattern of admissions) that the first responsibility of the library school was 'to fulfil the staffing needs of the Northern States',<sup>21</sup> following the Sharr Report which revealed enormous gaps with the South in this respect. However, by 1978 ten years after the inception of the school, the library school at Zaria (by now formally established as Department of Library Science) expanded its objective to include postgraduate programmes for the 'leadership' concept in the profession<sup>22</sup>.

However, by 1979, as Mohammed and Afolabi report, the terminology and scope of Ahmedu Bello University library school's objectives changed significantly. For instance, the statement of objective has been re-oriented "to train professional and para-professional library staff at all levels with well rounded education up to international standard

(my emphasis), for all states of the Federation, while placing emphasis on the problems facing libraries in Africa"<sup>23</sup>. Certainly, this latest statement seems the most comprehensive when compared with earlier statements. Students are now viewed not as "librarians" and "assistants" but as "professionals" and "para-professionals". This in itself reflects current thinking in the library profession in Nigeria beset with determining a specific pattern of recruitment into its professional cadres.

Similarly, the emphasis on 'international standard' is noteworthy in the light of discussion in the earlier section on standards of library education in this present work. It would seem that the library school at Zaria is keen to make its programmes universally acceptable beyond the national frontiers. But the determination of equivalencies would normally be based on evaluation reports of the programmes rather than through statement of objectives worthy though it may seem.

Two other points emerge from this latest statement of objectives, i.e.: (1) the desire to make the school national in outlook rather than existing mainly to serve Northern States' interests. After all the graduates of the library school would stand to benefit in respect of employment opportunities in other parts of the country, but this cannot be achieved through a politics of isolation. On the credit side, the library school justifiably lays emphasis upon the problems facing libraries in performing their traditional functions in a society which cherishes its cultural values and traditional heritage. Somehow this progressive stance needs to be permeated with 'international standard' objective and all its implications.

A further objective of the library school, which does not seem to be incorporated in the statement under discussion, but discovered by the present writer while on a visit to the library school is the orientation of the "syllabus" to suit students' needs. Students' views on the design of the "syllabus" have always been listened to and implemented. For example, at the students' request, the title of the Library and the Community course was changed to Sociology of Library Science. As Olden points out:

Student representatives were members of the Curriculum Review Committee set up in 1978/79 and some of that Committee's recommendations, as implemented in 1979/80, streamlined the BLS syllabus and removed some overlapping of courses.<sup>24</sup>

Naturally, one would expect that in normal circumstances the library school should involve its students in curriculum development, but as Dudley indicates, this is not always the case in the U.K., for example, in summarising the proceedings at the 1977 Workshop on curriculum development held in Wales, he observes that:

... the workshop rarely considered the problem of a curriculum as a whole ... with whatever degree of internal cohesion and as experienced by students (intimately) and by Heads of schools of Librarianship (distantly) ...<sup>25</sup>

This view was also echoed by the students themselves two years after the workshop.<sup>26</sup> Thus, the involvement of students in curriculum objectives as practised in Zaria library school would seem to be a step in the right direction in any consideration of the professionalisation of education for librarianship in the country.

#### 7.1.11 Bayero University library school, Kano

The Department of Library Science at Bayero University, Kano has the following statement of objectives:

1. To produce librarians with an adequate professional and academic background to work in the fast expanding school, public, academic and special libraries in Nigeria.
2. To help students develop an understanding of the role of the library in a rapidly changing society.
3. To inculcate in students the value of continuing education and research.<sup>27</sup>

It is clear from the above statement that considerable attention is paid to students' needs within the overall planning of the curriculum. Preparing the student librarians for the varying challenges of library and information services entails developing their intellect and skill in the knowledge of the environment in which they are likely to work, as well as the subject background knowledge necessary to fulfil their professional responsibility in the collection, preservation, and disseminating written or printed record. For instance, in the B.A. (Library Science) programme, the purpose of the course is to provide a thorough grounding in professional subjects and sufficient background in some academic subjects<sup>28</sup> (two subjects from degree courses in other departments), in order to enable the student to shoulder responsibility in any type of library in which he is employed.

#### 7.1.1.2 Ibadan University Library School, Ibadan

The first fully fledged library school to be established on a

regional basis for West Africa was the Institute of Librarianship, University of Ibadan, Nigeria. The library school is now a Department of Library Studies with the pioneering objectives stated as follows:

To help the development of libraries by training librarians and investigating problems of librarianship and bibliography, with special reference to West Africa and with particular attention to the leadership level.<sup>29</sup>

There are three elements constituting this statement of objectives, i.e. the development of libraries, bibliography and postgraduate emphasis in professional education - styled as the 'leadership' level. The pursuance of the 'leadership' concept bears historical significance dating back to the decisions reached at the Unesco seminar on the development of public libraries in Africa (1953), in which it was recommended that:

a limited number of library schools of high calibre be established in Africa to provide full-scale professional training at the leadership level.<sup>30</sup>

And further that:

Library schools located in Africa should require university graduation or its equivalent for admission to the programme of full-scale professional training at the leadership level.<sup>31</sup>

However, the decision of the Ibadan library school to give priority to training at the leadership level and therefore postgraduate level aroused some controversy in Nigeria. Despite the controversy, fifteen years after its inception, the objectives of the Ibadan school patently includes the leadership concept even though courses are now provided at sub-professional level. According to Ogunshye, the original objective of Ibadan to educate the leaders of the profession has been expanded to include training of supportive "para-professionals" and the research specialist at the apex of the professional ladder<sup>32</sup>. Thus, by the mid-seventies the statement of objectives reads:

1. To educate the leadership for the profession.
2. To train supporting paraprofessional staff for libraries.
3. To conduct research into the problems of libraries and library operations in Africa.
4. To provide further educational opportunities for experienced members of the profession; and,
5. To provide a forum for discussion on problems of African librarianship.<sup>33</sup>

These objectives have been translated and applied in the development of courses at the different levels in the library school. An evaluation of the curriculum elements and the influence of the school's

objectives is investigated in Section 7.5.

However, item 3 above includes an element of continuing education, conferences, workshops and seminars, with the library school fulfilling its responsibility in this respect.

#### 7.1.13 University of Maiduguri Library School

At the University of Maiduguri, itself a young institution in comparison with the other main higher institutions of learning such as at Ibadan, Zaria, Lagos, Nsukka, and Ife, the Department of Library Studies was established in 1978 in the Faculty of Education offering a 'Bachelor of Library Science' degree programme. The statement of objectives is as follows:

1. To produce graduates educated in the conceptual and technical skills of library and information work, i.e. library and information professionals well-grounded in relevant theoretical knowledge and equipped with the necessary skills and techniques.
2. The products of the (B.L.S.) programme should be able to cope with the enormous rapidly growing flood of information and knowledge, modern management techniques, new media, new teaching methods at learning situations in educational institutions and in society at large.<sup>34</sup>

By April 1981, strict measures aimed at upholding the objective of enabling students to acquire knowledge in the processing of information based on the literature of modern and Arabic languages, were published<sup>35</sup>. This required that all students who did not meet the foreign language requirement must take and pass the two required courses in the chosen language before they can graduate. The approved languages are Arabic, French, and German.

Needless to emphasise, from the present writer's point of view, the considerable academic strain this requirement on languages will bear on the student librarian, at a time when most schools in similar circumstances are relaxing such requirements to make them more flexible in terms of weighting and assessment in the final Library Science degree examination. In short, it is apparent that a forcible attempt is being made at upholding high 'standards' in the quality of the educational preparation of the librarian in Nigeria (c.f. "Evaluation": Section 7.5).

However, it needs to be pointed out too that the objective of producing graduates 'educated in the conceptual and technical skills of library and information work', seems to be a classic response to the

protracted debate in the profession as to the quality of the B.L.S. degree and the academic preparedness of its graduates to serve in demanding circumstances of library and information service most especially in the university and other academic libraries, and special libraries/information bureaux. Thus, it would seem that the standard of education has been deliberately set high in view of current professional thinking aided by the powerful 'academic librarians' lobby in the profession as a whole.

#### 7.1.14 Summary

In summarising this section one can only relate the evidence that has emerged from the case studies of how the library schools in Nigeria state and pursue their curriculum objectives to why the objectives are themselves derived. Their derivation exists from growing professional pressure and 'needs' circumstances in the library and information field. An example of such pressure from the profession is the need for library schools to relate and reflect their courses on local problems of library and information practice, i.e. the need to make the courses socially relevant.

This in some cases places a strain on the library schools which have been established on traditional lines of librarianship as practised mainly in the 'advanced' countries of Europe and America. As a result the schools find themselves chasing a chimera of high 'standards' on the one hand and 'local relevance' on the other, and thereby struggle to maintain a balance between the two. This is a healthy situation to be in as it implies, as determined elsewhere in this present work, the professionalisation of education for librarianship in the country.

Missing from the available literature used in this section, is any clarification of the "objectives" format, nor is there any appreciable guideline or proposal for a method of assessing if objectives are being met in the process of curriculum development. It is important to distinguish between 'institutional objectives' and 'course objectives'. Institutional objectives are incorporated in the overall policy of the library school while 'course objectives' are fixed behavioural and educational capabilities expected of students. In the fulfilment of both functions the library schools can be observed to have performed appreciably well although distinct demarcation lines need to be drawn if objectives are to be met and assessed satisfactorily to incorporate the needs of students, institution, and of the whole society.

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## THE PROFESSIONALISATION OF EDUCATION FOR LIBRARIANSHIP

### 7.2 Introduction

Within the overall concept of professionalism, this chapter deals with an important criterion - its education system. By virtue of its nature, professional education contributes valuably to any occupation's claim to professional status. The system can thus be examined in its various facets, and with different objectives in indicating the trend on professionalism in Nigerian librarianship. Furthermore, it is important, perhaps illuminating to consider the system of professional education under main categories such as: the professionalisation of education for librarianship; the conceptual framework of its curriculum development; the factors of relevance, *i.e.* educational and developmental; evaluation (of curriculum and staff); philosophy of education for librarianship (covering the 'knowledge-base' theory, organisation of content in terms of academic versus professional elements of the curriculum); and finally, the role of the library school in research, and the nature and purpose of research degrees in librarianship. All these elements provide suitable basis from which to assess professional education within the overall concept of Nigerian library professionalism.

The immediate concern at present is to consider those forces and events which typify the process of 'professionalisation' in the educational preparation of the librarian. The approach adopted here is to demonstrate the facts as scrutinised through historical analysis of documents relating events and developments in the field of library education in the period 1950-1970. The first of the two decades (1950-1960) was a period of non-formal library education; but then, its significance is borne out by the fact that the foundation for a formal system of professional education was laid during this period. The second decade of 1960-1970 portrays the 'teething period' of uncertainty but also a time significant for the courage and tenacity of the pioneer library educators in Nigeria, who not only struggled to institutionalise the system of professional education through the traditional university system but also succeeded in handing over to their successors a sound and solid professional system of education, as integral parts of reputable graduate/undergraduate degree programmes in Nigerian universities.

The social events underlying the professionalisation process are discussed so as to illuminate the genesis of the problems encountered, and to enhance tacit understanding of how the ensuing difficulties were either tackled or surmounted. It is crucial to consider that such factors as: debates over the right kind of institution for library education and the consequences for qualification levels, e.g.: graduate or non-graduate entry into the profession; control of library education; library education statistics relating demand and supply situation of librarians in Nigeria, and the like, are all factors that are recurrent and therefore proving inconclusive, ad infinitum.

### 7.2.1 Professionalisation

According to Carroll:

... professionalization is defined as that dynamic social process whereby an occupation, or one or more aspects of an occupation, such as its educational system, can be observed to change certain of its crucial characteristics in the direction of a profession, thereby taking on more of the elements of an ideal type profession.<sup>1</sup>

The concept of an 'ideal type profession' and how this reflects on the overall concept of library professionalism has been thoroughly examined in the work of Combe in which the conclusions show that, 'there is a strong status-seeking ideology associated with the professionalisation process, and its connection with professional education movements ... thus, librarianship has undergone and continues to undergo the professionalisation process',<sup>2</sup>. It would seem that Combe's observation is consistent with Carroll's point that professionalization of library education implies 'the process whereby those concerned with training librarians seek to change the agencies involved to bring them into conformity with other professional schools',<sup>3</sup>. The status-seeking element is comparatively high in this latter observation.

Nevertheless, the origin of professionalisation is by itself status clad. Reader suggests that,

One of the earliest developments in professionalization was the passing of the Apothecaries Act of 1815. The Act did not forbid unqualified practice, though it did put obstacles in the path of it, and in this also it set a pattern for late legislation. If people wanted to go to quacks, it was felt, they should be free to do so.<sup>4</sup>

Not all occupational groups were controlled by statute, hence those occupations where statutory control existed were considered fortunate

because they have experienced state-aided professionalisation. This did not imply that the government of the country (in England) was in any way supporting a highly lucrative monopolistic system for the professionally qualified. Hine and Jennifer<sup>5</sup>, in an article, considered the seeking of recognition by professions through Acts of Parliament or incorporation by Royal Charter. The same conclusion was reached as to the status-seeking symbol of professionalisation.

However, despite the odds that might have faced pioneer librarians in Britain, the nineteenth century marked a turning point in library history with the granting of a Royal Charter to the Library Association (LA) in 1898<sup>6</sup>. The Charter granted the LA a monopoly over professional qualifications and this was jealously guarded through the use of the professional register<sup>7</sup>. In general, the significance of the award of a Royal Charter in modern times has been stated by Millerson who wrote:

a Charter has developed into an inter-association status symbol; a distinguishing mark, acknowledging supremacy in a particular field.<sup>8</sup>

On the part of the LA, the Charter meant a regal acknowledgement that it was the supreme arbiter of all matters concerned with professional library practice. According to Bramley, two of the clauses of the Charter laid a distinct responsibility upon it to assume complete responsibility for the education and training of librarians, notably:

1. to promote whatever tends to the improvement of the position and qualifications of librarians;
2. to hold examinations in librarianship and to issue certificates of efficiency.<sup>9</sup>

The resounding success of the professionalisation of British librarianship inevitably had salutary inferences in the English-speaking world where the only route to professional qualification was by passing the LA examinations. Thus, the characteristics of professionalisation as a process in the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries were, according to Reader status-based, because an occupation:

... needed a professional association to focus opinion, work up a body of knowledge, and insist upon a decent standard of conduct ... should have a Royal Charter as a mark of recognition ... to persuade parliament to pass an Act conferring something like monopoly powers on duly qualified practitioners, which meant practitioners who had followed a recognised course of training and passed recognised examinations. Right at the centre of the professional world therefore was this matter

of training and examination.<sup>10</sup>

A change in emphasis of the curriculum and, even more important, in the attitude of university administrators towards professional education, has drastically altered the images of professionalisation as characterised by 19th Century Charters. The pursuit of knowledge in professional education is now fully integrated with the realm of world of learning. No longer is the graduate of a professional course in librarianship compelled to register before he could practice. The attainment of degrees has relegated such requirements to the back-stage. Graduates now voluntarily join the LA on other basis such as, to further their professional interests through current trends in the field, associate with colleagues and peers, and exchange information for personal professional development.

The essential characteristics of the process of professionalisation now centre around: the planning and implementation of professional education programmes; structuring and re-structuring diversifying elements of the qualification system; determining levels of educational attainments amongst practitioners and, as a corollary, defining the career grades and organisational structure for different cadres of personnel; providing suitable programme of continuing education designed to disseminate new ideas and improvement of existing ones from professional schools to the practitioners and vice versa; co-ordinating library education statistics for the purpose of facilitating manpower planning; and finally, regulating the certification system through a retention of the in-house structure of licentiates, associates and fellowships.

Given the foregoing stated characteristics and the wind of educational change that has produced them, it is clear that professionalisation is self-generating in professional education systems. In the process, occupational groups place great emphasis on the education and qualification of practitioners for their business. Bennion refers to 'chartered status' as a symbol of possession of a hallmark of competence highly valued by the society:

Few people will employ an architect, unless they have assurances of his quality, if he is not a member of the R.I.B.A. Similarly, those needing to employ an accountant or a surveyor will feel happier if he is 'chartered'.<sup>11</sup>

Thus, the statutory recognition of a qualification as represented by the designatory letters of the various institutions, is very much

sought after by professional people, hence the reason for their preservation. Degree holders also seem to desire professional qualification (even though it does not affect the regulation of their practice) if only to achieve the high status of proven competence in their professional skills.

### 7.2.2 Early library education provision in Nigeria, 1950-1970

The urgent need for library education in Nigeria soon became apparent immediately after the establishment, in 1948, of the first university college located at Ibadan, Nigeria. Prior to this time, of course, some learned libraries in research institutes and advanced colleges of science and technology have been developed and equally expanding their services.<sup>12,13</sup> The decade 1950-1960 was, however, essentially one of foundations in preparing suitable grounds (in terms of finance, accommodation, and philosophy) for the formal establishment of library education in Nigeria. This important preparatory factor including social events and educational ("training") activities in the period have, more often than not, been ignored in the professional literature. The pattern of the preparatory efforts to create a library school was first based on a regional basis, taking the whole of West Africa as a region for the purpose of library education, and Nigeria as the 'training centre' where the first school for English-speaking West African librarians was to be established at Ibadan. Unfortunately at the time, this was not to work out as smoothly as expected due to many constraints of finance, nationalism, and regional distance (this will be expanded upon later).

#### 7.2.2.1 The period 1950-1960

Operational difficulties notwithstanding, some form of recognised 'training' did take place during the decade. 'Training' is deliberately used here as a synonym to describe the form of education which took place up to 1960. In this respect, the training factor consisted of organised courses which had the objective of privately preparing participants for the (British) LA examinations (from the First Professional Examination (FPE) stage to ALA and the ultimate accolade of FLA), and equipping them for better performance in their library assignments.

As mentioned earlier, the professionalisation process in Nigerian librarianship was already underway boosted by the establishment of the University College of Ibadan Library and the consequent growth in

collection and staff. The Library, which temporarily carried out National Library functions with particular emphasis on bibliography, was also responsible for the training of Nigeria's early librarians.

Lawal<sup>14</sup> outlines the evidence of progress:

- (a) Two publications, the first of their kind - 'A Preliminary List of Serials in the Library' (1949) (University College, Ibadan), and, 'A Guide to the Library' (1950).<sup>15</sup>
- (b) The acquisition of a microcard reader in 1950, possibly the first such machine in any Library in the British Commonwealth.
- (c) The celebration in December 1949 of the accessioning of the 10,000th volume. Nigeria at last had the basis for a scholarly research library, and for a national bibliography, as well as an effective staff to handle them.
- (d) In 1949, a group of experienced librarians met to discuss knowledge and skills and the subsequent booklet compiled afterwards, and published in Ibadan by the Western Provinces Education Department proved an occasion of the birth of the library profession in Nigeria.

The opportunity afforded for education and training was indeed enormous considering the above-mentioned developments. The group of librarians who met 'to discuss knowledge and skills' laid the foundation for professional education by publishing a tentative syllabus edited by Miss Joan Parkes<sup>16</sup>. The document preserved something of what was taught on that occasion, most being related to the development of skill. The admission requirements specified that participants 'should be literate in English and their general standard of education should not be below Middle II'.<sup>17</sup> The course was the forerunner of similar courses regularly organised in Northern Nigeria by Parkes as from 1952.

Producing library workers in this way was both cheap and fast in view of the urgent need for library staff to keep up with the pace of development.

Public libraries were also used as centres for organising in-service training courses for junior library staff and success on the course is guaranteed by promotion up the career ladder. The Eastern Regional Library Board, perhaps the most effective library development Board at the time, also started a staff training scheme in 1956 with five assistants as the first in-takes. The dual objective of preparing

participants for the (British) LA examinations and improving job performance was also the dominant factors at this stage. Similar in-service courses were run by the Western State Library until late 1968. By 1959 beneficiaries of the in-service courses were recognised and being given the opportunity to supplement whatever assistance they could get with a full-time overseas course before qualifying finally either as ALA or FLA. Most of those given in-service training leaves of absence to study abroad travelled to the U.K. where they completed the formal courses in librarianship; the others who stayed on at home studied privately through correspondence courses.

In addition to the educational activities as described above, the 'preparatory decade' 1950-1960 witnessed an era of concrete discussions as to how best library schools could be planned and established in the West African region. The UNESCO Seminar<sup>18</sup>, which was held at Ibadan in 1953 on the development of public libraries in Africa, provided the added impetus for the planning of library development in Africa (c.f. Section 7.2.3). The ideas on library education formulated at this seminar have since formed the philosophical basis of education for librarianship in Nigeria.

#### 7.2.2.2 1960-1970

Unlike the present writer's tracing of library education history in Nigeria from 1950 onwards, writers such as Obi<sup>19</sup>, Akinyotu<sup>20</sup>, and others tend to observe 1960 as the commencement date for library education in Nigeria. But this approach is from institutional viewpoint, for the first library school was established as Institute of Librarianship at University of Ibadan in 1960. At the same time, the country attained political independence and consequently, the accelerated development in social and economic order created the basis for expansion in library services and, hence, demand for trained manpower in the field. An historical account of the development of the Institute of Librarianship, Ibadan is contained in Obi's article<sup>21</sup> on library education in Nigeria.

Of particular significance in the historical analysis are the factors of students and the curriculum. The author pointed out that the first class consisted of four graduates and two non-graduates representing a compromise on admission requirements, in order to permit selection of candidates with at least two years full-time experience in a recognised library and who hold one part of the LA Registration

examination. Non-graduates account for three out of ten students enrolled in 1961/72; four out of twelve in 1962/63; ten of twenty-three in 1963/64; and eleven of twenty-two in 1964/65. In 1965/66, the last year in which non-graduates were admitted to the programme, thirteen of the class were graduates and six non-graduates. By this time the Institute had produced sixty-nine professionally qualified librarians of whom fifty-three held the Institute's own diploma<sup>22</sup>. By implication, it is obvious that the library school was implementing the 'leadership', i.e. postgraduate philosophy as prescribed at the 1953 Ibadan Seminar.

With regards to the curriculum, the first curriculum was geared specifically to the LA registration examination. Courses for the Diploma in Librarianship 1963/64 to 1965/66 comprised the following four papers: Administration, Book Course (i.e. Reference and Bibliography), Cataloguing and classification, and Special subjects. 'The special subjects are included as options for public, university, special, school and children libraries'<sup>23</sup>.

With hindsight, perhaps the most significant document to emerge from the Institute in the mid-sixties was the one entitled 'Achievements and future of the Institute', which was distributed within Nigeria and to other West African countries in order to give interested parties a brief survey of what the Institute had already accomplished and what it hoped to accomplish in the future. A resume of the publication is provided as a useful Appendix in Dean's work on 'planning library education programmes'<sup>24</sup>. Some of the pertinent issues raised in the document, as indicated by Dean, are hereby reproduced to serve as a focus for appreciating the later shift in status for the library school (from Institute to full departmental status in the Faculty of Education):

FUTURE OF THE INSTITUTE (POLICY STATEMENT, 1965)

(a) Integration into the constitutional structure of the University

It is important that the Institute, which is now fully fledged, be integrated into the constitutional structure of the University. The advantages are:

- (i) When the case for providing funds for the financing of the Institute in the next quinquennium, which begins in 1968/69, is presented, the work of the Institute will have been known and discussed in the Councils of the University for two years.
- (ii) The Institute will be in a better position to call on other departments of the University for assistance

in the teaching and research programme.

- (iii) The present Board of Studies, which has done valuable work, is essentially a professional body. The association of other members of the academic staff in the affairs of the Institute will be of considerable advantage.

(b) Research:

It is vital for the Institute to develop research programmes. The need to stimulate research is paramount and the areas of enquiry are manifold ...

(c) Textbooks:

The library field is generally conspicuous for the absence of acceptable textbooks. This fact is nowhere more obvious than in Africa. It is proposed that one of the projects of the Institute will be to produce a series of manuals for the use of students not only in Nigeria, but throughout Africa ...

(d) Co-operation in Africa

... Chief librarians in Africa will, in due course, be consulted with a view to discovering whether they would be interested in sending postgraduate students to the Institute for training ... It should be emphasised that at the moment Nigeria is the only developing country in the anglophone or francophone territories of Africa giving a postgraduate and it is clear that Nigeria will be able to attract students from overseas ...<sup>25</sup>

The text of the Institute's Policy Statement in 1965 provided the fulcrum for later developments in the library education scene.

However, it soon became clear that while Ibadan was steadily advancing the 'leadership' training philosophy and consolidating its own professionalisation, other equally significant efforts were being made in Northern Nigeria concerning the establishment of a library school to cater for the needs of the North. A survey was commissioned in 1963 to consider broadly the library needs of Northern Nigeria. The ensuing report by Sharr<sup>26</sup> received considerable attention both in and outside the profession. The commission was mandated:

- (i) to survey critically all existing libraries including public, university, school and special libraries, to study their development plans and to suggest improvement with a view to providing the best and most economic overall service to the Region;
- (ii) to make recommendations on the division of responsibility between the government library services and the Native Authority services;
- (iii) to survey the existing training schemes and to consider the establishment of a Central training

school and, in addition, to consider the possibility of local certification prior to fully recognised professional qualification;

- (iv) to recommend the best means of producing a comprehensive regional bibliography.<sup>27</sup>

Given the above mandate, the Commission felt compelled to recognise the importance of professional education in relation to library needs and therefore Chapter II of the Report was devoted entirely to the necessity for having an organised form of professional education and training. One of the Commission's observation supports this view:

Before there can be good libraries there must be qualified and trained librarians. There is no organised professional education and little training in the North; in ten years only one Northern librarian has qualified. There is a dual need; for in-service training ... and for professional education which could best be given in a school of librarianship at Ahmadu Bello University providing a combined course of general education and professional studies.<sup>28</sup>

Thus, the Sharr Report distinguished between 'education' and 'training' and, in addition, precise mention was made as to the particular institution required for the education of librarians from the North and the nature of the course content. Understandably, one of the consequences of the Report is the formal establishment in 1968 of the Department of Librarianship at Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria. The Department was established 'to train librarians and assistants (B.L.S. Degree and Diploma respectively) on all levels of librarianship with special emphasis on librarianship in Africa'.<sup>29</sup> From 1971/72 session, the Library school at Zaria was re-named Department of Library Science. The historical detail of the development of the school is contained in the works of Obi<sup>30</sup> and Olden<sup>31</sup>.

Perhaps the whole essence of Sharr's Report revolves round the emphasis it placed on the idea of a profession which, the Report argues, 'rests on the possession of an intellectual technique acquired by special study and experience which is capable of application in some sphere of life'.<sup>32</sup> Professional education in Nigeria, it was further suggested, should be provided at 'international qualification standard on a sandwich course basis for Northern students and for those of other Regions, if they so desire'.<sup>33</sup> The successful commencement of Zaria's programmes, and the school's effective contribution to professional and non-professional library manpower suggests an attainment of profession-

alisation status in education for librarianship. The school's concern with professional development now transcends its original regional approach as its outlook is now national and international.

### 7.2.3 British, North American, and other international influences

#### 7.2.3.1 British influence

Nigeria was in the early fifties one of the very few Commonwealth countries to benefit directly from international activity in the field of library development and education. The 1950s represented a period of determined efforts on the part of Unesco to eradicate the universal disease of illiteracy in the Third World. Worthy as this cause seemed, it presented numerous planning difficulties. As a British colony Nigeria received some form of British assistance in the education field on a variety of basis such as textbooks, expatriate manpower, British Council grants and other aid activities. Gunton<sup>34</sup> suggests that different aid agencies encouraged the development of reading materials suitable for Nigerian schools and also initiated publishing services. For instance, under the British Technical Assistance programme the British Colonial administration expedited the growth of publishing in support of existing in-house printing that was being done locally. In addition, 'student edition' of expensive textbooks such as in medicine, engineering and the humanities were made available to Nigerian students under heavy subsidy.

The presence of expatriate professional personnel in many sectors of the Nigerian economy and social development has no less been effective. Dean states that:

In the former colonial territories, many of the expatriates holding office immediately following independence were usually nationals of the former colonial power. This can be accounted for by the number of ties - economic, educational, linguistic and cultural - which inevitably lingered on between the former colony and the former colonial power in spite of autonomy. However, after the first phase of independence, the structure of the expatriate group tended to become more cosmopolitan. The work of the United Nations, the specialist agencies and the American Foundations, in particular, has been responsible for the growing diversification of the expatriate community ... (Thus,) Expatriates are active in all professional fields in the developing countries and not least in librarianship.<sup>35</sup>

British contribution in terms of professional service in Nigerian library education is immense. British experts have served as Director of Library schools - latterly as Heads of Department of Library Studies/ Science; as lecturers; external examiners; and consultants on library education projects. By this effort, they have more than made up for the apparently divisive policy of regionalism which was initiated as part of the deal setting up the Ibadan library school. A case in point of the resultant divisiveness was the occurrence of nationalistic barriers and sentiments. Ghana felt strongly that the first library school, as intended for West Africa and deliberately set at university standard, should have been located not in Ibadan but Accra 'which has superior public and special library services and a university library in no way inferior to that in Ibadan'<sup>36</sup>. But overall, the sequence of events which led to the cessation of the West African Library Association (c.f. Chapter on Professionalism), indicate that perhaps the right decision was taken at the time with regards to the location of the first library school in West Africa.

#### 7.2.3.2 North American influence

The timely assistance of the Americans enabled the planning of the first library school in West Africa to be formally implemented at Ibadan. In 1957, Harold Lancour was commissioned by the Carnegie Corporation of New York to undertake a survey of the libraries in (British) West Africa. In his report, Lancour<sup>37</sup> suggested that the area in which the Corporation could make its greatest contribution to library development in West Africa was that of recruitment and training of personnel. Thus, it was recommended that;

- (a) a grant of money be established for scholarship to send potential librarians to England and possibly to other countries;
- (b) to establish a library school in one of the West African countries, preferably at Ibadan; the location of such a school, it was further suggested, should be in an institution of higher education.

As a direct result of these pungent recommendations, the Carnegie Corporation made a grant of \$88,000 (dollars) available to University College, Ibadan for the purpose of establishing, in 1959, a training scheme for librarians in the university library<sup>38</sup>. The library was used as training grounds for preparing students for the Registration examination of the (British) LA examinations in one year. In addition to the A.L.A. examination, graduates were to be awarded a local diploma based on success

in the A.L.A. plus additional work of special relevance to libraries in tropical Africa.

According to Burgess<sup>39</sup>, the choice of Ibadan as the first library school in West Africa was fortunate (since Ford Foundation's support for several other schools and departments was secured independently) thereby placing the new library school in a rapidly developing university. However, additional grants insured the continued existence of the library school until 1968 at which point it was taken over by the university<sup>40</sup>. Overall, the Ibadan library school was financed from 1960-1968 by the Carnegie Corporation of New York, with a total expenditure of \$300,000 (dollars)<sup>41</sup>.

It is pertinent to point out that in 1963, there was a complete re-organisation of the school following the Ford Foundations renewal grant which ensured the appointment of an advisory Director for the Institute of Librarianship at Ibadan for one year. The person given the job was Dr. Lieberman, Director of the University of Washington Library School, Seattle in the U.S.A. It is significant that one of the first changes to be instituted was the elimination of the (British) LA syllabus, since in the view of the library school the institution was no longer prepared to teach an externally examined subject.

Even more significant, and perhaps an interesting phenomenon of the time, is the observation of the absence of American influence on the curriculum. Usually, institutions which are aided with American grants display some form of loyal affinity in the structure of the institution and its programmes. This was not the case at Ibadan except for original members of the teaching staff from the indigenous population whose traits reflect their American background in education and training but were not forceful enough to drastically influence a change in the status quo. Thus, in the crucial decade of formative library education provision (1960-1970), American influence was largely financial, but this was enough to give the profession a sure footing in its education system.

#### 7.2.3.3 International influences: UNESCO, UNISIST/NATIS (PGI), BRITISH COUNCIL, U.K. MINISTRY OF OVERSEAS DEVELOPMENT, AND LEVERHULME FOUNDATION

One of the first effective measures on the international scene was

the sponsoring, by Unesco in 1953, of the Ibadan Seminar on 'the development of public libraries in Africa',<sup>42</sup>. This seminar resulted in the establishment of the first regional library school in West Africa as stated earlier, though at this stage it was clear that the initiated discussion on library development was producing an emergence of a philosophy of librarianship akin to the developing countries. The philosophical debate centred on two factors:

- (1) the desire and search for a theoretically-based education which would provide the initiate with the principles and philosophy of the library profession and leave the technical aspects of training to his employer, i.e. graduate education to provide 'leaders' for the profession;
- (2) the insistence of some groups that urgent staffing needs be faced by providing vocational-type training which is rich in technical skills and would provide the profession with the urgently required level of staffing needs in libraries, i.e. non-graduate education to provide paraprofessionals.

What seemed to be forgotten by participants on the debate was that the country required the two staff cadres, whatever the urgency. On the 'leadership' issue, the undeviating zeal of John Harris brought to a conclusion a project he had long nurtured. Reference to this fact was reflected in the report of Group III of which Harris was a member at the Ibadan Seminar:

... the basic objective of full-scale library training in Africa should be to train leaders for the library profession.<sup>43</sup>

Carnell, in reviewing the report in WALA News, however, was pronounced in her opposition to the 'leadership' philosophy:

It is difficult to understand how anyone who has worked in Africa can support the statement that "the basic objective of full-scale library training should be to train leaders for the library profession". The basic need is workers. Leaders, in any case, are not produced by library schools ... the essentials are certain qualities of character ... discipline ... responsibility.<sup>44</sup>

Evans in her Presidential address to WALA in 1957, concurred with Carnell:

There is a suggestion from the Unesco Seminar that... library schools located in Africa should require a university graduation for admission to the programme of full-scale professional training at leadership level. Does this give cognisance to the fact that the fellowship of the Library Association approximates in standard to a university degree? Is it necessary for a librarian to have two degrees ...?<sup>45</sup>

However, Carnegie's enthusiasm for higher education was expressed in the desire for a postgraduate school of librarianship despite the

objections to the 'leadership' philosophy.

In the area of education of teachers of librarianship in the developing countries, Unesco, the British Council, and the Ministry of Overseas Aid and Development have contributed significantly in offering technical assistance for the education of library educators from the developing countries. Such practical assistance was tailored to suit the education of the educators from the viewpoint of their own environments. The assistance was crystallized at the NATIS Intergovernmental Conference (1974):

The training of the teachers especially for new schools in developing countries was also a problem. Unesco was urged to give more assistance to such training schemes for the teachers as had been organized and sponsored by the Royal School of Librarianship, Denmark, and Loughborough University, U.K.<sup>46</sup>

The NATIS Conference preceded the commencement of the Loughborough University course by ten days. Prior to the conference, Unesco and the Department of Library and Information Studies of Loughborough University have conferred with the latter agreeing to investigate the response from library educationalists in the developing countries as to the establishment of a course that would assist in satisfying their demands and which would grant successful participants a Master of Arts degree in Archives, Library and Information Studies and Education (M.A./ALISE)<sup>47</sup>. The response was satisfactory. Loughborough University agreed to the establishment of such a degree course and Unesco, through the Department of Documentation, Libraries and Archives drew up a contract defining its support for such a course.

Unesco agreed to three awards: three library educators from Africa to receive priority in the first year and three from Asia in the second year in part fulfilment of objective 13(iii) of the Natis Conference which concerned itself with the programme for professional education.<sup>48</sup> The British Council and the U.K. Ministry of Overseas Development offered practical support with scholarships and technical assistance training awards respectively. The Leverhulme Foundation agreed to meet the salary and related expenses of the course tutor for the experimental period<sup>49</sup>.

Thus, was established a unique M.A. programme which is the first and only course of its kind in the world. Lawal observes,

The M.A. (ALISE) is an international qualification and the course draws students, with their own distinctive cultural mix, from various countries; for example, from October 1974 to September 1979, 43 students have completed the course, represented by: Nigeria, 10; Brazil, 7; Ghana, 4; U.K., 3; Denmark, 2; Indonesia, 2; Australia, 1; Ceylon, 1; Finland, 1; Iraw, 1; Ivory Coast, 1; Kenya, 1; Malaysia, 1; Mauritius, 1; Norway, 1; Pakistan, 1; Sierra-Leone, 1; South Africa, 1; Tanzania, 1; Thailand, 1; Uganda, 1 ... so far on the programme since 1974/78 not less than 21 countries have been represented (on the MA(ALISE) course)<sup>50</sup>.

As can be observed from the list of beneficiaries of the MA(ALISE) course, Nigeria has done well by topping the list although the library needs of each country differ. The training of library educators is thus an enormous boost for Nigeria's manpower requirements in this area. This could not have been possible, nor the achievement sustainable, without the tacit support of the international agencies involved in setting up the course primarily for the benefit of teachers of library education in the developing countries.

In addition to the varying curricula demands, made within the country, on the library schools, Nigerian library educators have had to reckon also with international demands in library and information studies. Abcyade identifies the factors of international influences thus:

The international developments in the profession that have been having repercussions on education for librarianship in recent times are principally the concepts of UNISIST, NATIS (PGI), UBC (Universal Bibliographic control) and the newest arrival on the horizon - UAP (Universal Availability of Publications). These phenomena have since gone beyond the conceptual stage to the development of concrete proposals and programmes of action to make them a reality in our time<sup>51</sup>.

By implication, the planning objectives of the international agencies, which include fostering closer co-operation between documentalists, librarians and archivists, require the harmonisation of training in librarianship, information science, and archival administration. From the viewpoint of economy, this arrangement has proved valuable for Nigerian library schools as courses that could not be offered separately, e.g. 'information science', have been integrated as viable units of the curriculum. In essence, the 1974 Unesco Paris consultation with a group of experts on the 'harmonization of methodology and curricula in the training of documentalists, librarians and archivists', engendered

the foundation of broad common interests among library educators teaching in at least two of the three fields of information, with the sole purpose of harmonising programmes for each of the services and identifying items to be included in a common core curriculum for each one separately. These factors are considered in Sections 2 and 4 of this chapter. In general, therefore, the major international efforts directed at enhancing the professionalisation process of education for librarianship have proved rewarding in Nigeria much as in other parts of the library world.

#### 7.2.4 Summary

With the evidence produced and examined in this section concerning the events leading up to, and including, the formal establishment of library education in Nigeria, it would seem conclusively that the attainment of professionalisation is assured. The status-seeking criterion has proved instrumental as one of the factors which have helped to shape the trend in professionalisation. Chronologically, the two decades 1950-1960, and 1960-1970 have their distinctive significance in contributing to professionalism in Nigerian librarianship. The underlying elements of the events contributing to the 'professional' status of librarianship in Nigeria, are of historical significance. But their current development when put into perspective, shows a capacity for absorbing new trends, such as in the areas of the curriculum, professional relevance, evaluation and perhaps an analytical view of current needs for philosophy. These elements are examined separately in the next sections, but in the meantime, the fundamental achievement of having local schools of librarianship has promoted kindred overseas interests not only in the country's professional education system but its absorption of international trends in library development.

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### 7.3 THE SEARCH FOR RELEVANCE :

To those who cannot read, libraries  
hold little attraction

- Lester Asheim (1966)<sup>1</sup>

### 7.3 THE SEARCH FOR RELEVANCE

#### 7.3.1 Introduction

The concept of 'relevance' consists of many aspects from which it may be viewed and applied. In relation to learning, the use of the term implies the appropriateness of educational provision to the society in which such learning process takes place. It is possible to look broadly at 'whole' systems such as institutions; universities; teachers and other academic personnel; libraries; language, i.e. medium of instruction; culture, i.e. the effect of literacy on local traditions; and, the process of national development. The library is inextricably linked to these social institutions.

However, it is also beneficial to examine specific aspects of relevance within the given systems. For instance, one may select the area of curriculum development in any aspect of education and then relate the elements in terms of national or local needs. Thus, the application of the concept of relevance to particular situations will need to take account of its varying nature. It is important to specify: relevance to what? Similarly, the circumstances for obtaining specific interpretation may prove all-inclusive if, as it is possible, the analysis cuts across a wide spectrum of factors which describe the 'what' element. As a case in point, the university is expected to be conventionally dominated by a sense of reality and have relevance to the society which supports it. That the university should promote change is not in question, but there are widely differing views on the ills of society and on the means of correction. Education which would promote change must per se still take cognisance of, and relate to, the current scene. A diversion from this viewpoint often results in problems of relevance. Thus, an assumption can be derived that the university not only gets its support and its authority from society but also takes direction from it and is accountable to it. This implies that the educational programmes of the university are required to be responsive to society's needs and concerns.

However, in its commitment to learning, the university cannot be held entirely responsible for digressing from local needs even at critical periods of change in the society. Other factors influence the incapacity to cope with change especially when such changes have to be related to tradition. It may be argued further that societal needs may

usefully be determined through appropriate research, but while research is essential to learning, the university is not primarily a research institute but a medium for motivating students to learn and for focussing on the nature of what is to be learned. Accordingly, the search for relevance is influenced in the main by both educational and developmental factors which tend to define the problems of relevance in perspectives.

The analysis that follows in the work as set out in this section, relates principally to the educational and development factors of relevance. The objective is to provide an in-depth analysis of the genesis of the problem and to show how the search for a solution is affecting education for librarianship in Nigeria. The professionalisation of education for librarianship in Nigeria incurs scrutinisation of programmes offered from the viewpoint of relevance to national or local needs.

#### 7.3.1.1 The Criteria of Relevance

One of the persistent problems to emerge from all kinds of discussion on relevance is a lack of standard for judging the parameters of the subject and consequently its effects on social systems. In the case of librarianship, the criteria of relevance derive from the activities of libraries in promoting social change:

1. The education system: Its appropriateness and validity in traditional social systems. Unlike in metropolitan countries of Europe and North America with a sure assumption of full literacy, homogeneous culture and language, oral traditional societies offer alternative systems of acculturation. In this way, the values and norms of the society are not only preserved but enhanced in the educational process.
2. Socio-political effects of colonialism: the evolution of foreign ideas of administration and political organisation for the purposes of government. These ideas form the basis of undue influence and, therefore, unrelated societal values in the generation, organisation and dissemination of written records on which information is usually based on all aspects of societal life. Librarians inherited the accumulative records showing Arabic influence of Islamic education and European type education as introduced by the Christian missionaries. These Islamic records have sometimes been perceived by writers<sup>2,3</sup> as indigenous literature, yet they are the products of another form of imperialism.

3. Curriculum renewal and oral-aural culture: Librarianship in its own curriculum renewal has taken account of society's oral-aural culture but to what extent? Cynics claim that indigenisation has been 'carried out only to a superficial degree'<sup>4</sup>. Perhaps it is understandable that such criticisms are made in view of the radical nature of curriculum renewal detracting from the principles of librarianship which have a political content rooted in various interpretations of democracy.

Thus, it is clear from the above criteria that the search for relevance derives from the needs and concerns of the society either as a group or as a nation. Professional education should take cognisance of this fact, especially as socio-economic forces influencing the curriculum are deeply rooted in objectives of national development. For instance in political terms, one of the most explicitly nationalist criteria of relevance is the "Africanization" of the curriculum in African institutions. There is a deep rooted feeling that first, the staff should be Africanized and second that the curriculum should also be Africanized. This follows the rationale that there are times when it is generally assumed that the curriculum and entire syllabus cannot effectively be localized unless the staff itself is local. But rejection of aliens and their ideas or ideologies is surely not a positive approach to indigenisation of curriculum and staff as Bengé<sup>5</sup> and Mazrui<sup>6</sup> have observed. The quest for a reduction of foreigners or their ideologies does not lie in restricting the curriculum to the study of African phenomena only. The greater challenge is to study a variety of other intellectual riches but from an African perspective.

### 7.3.2 "Localisation", "Nigerianisation", and "Indigenisation";

#### Postulate of relevance

In the field of education in general, and library education in particular, the overall concept of relevance has drawn the fervent attention of sociologists who view the minutiae of events in the discipline with some concern.

The concerns relate to the disparities and diversities of social behaviour in many African countries in which the consequence of behavioural differences shows in ethnic and religious customs and urban-rural life styles. Such diversities make the curriculum planners' task most arduous and complex. The complexity is compounded

when there is greater demand for promoting indigenous culture through the curriculum at all levels of education.

However, education whether modern or ancient, aims at perpetuating the culture of society wherever this may be. In the African context, traditional education attaches considerable importance to this aspect of training the individual. In most cases, traditional education is thus imparted without elaborate equipment or complicated teaching methods. In Nigeria, for instance, the child just grows into and within the cultural heritage of his people; he imbibes it. Culture in traditional society is not taught; it is caught, through what sociologists describe as the 'socialisation process'.

The child observes, imitates and mimics the actions of his elders and siblings. He watches the naming ceremonies, religious services, marriage rituals, funeral obsequies. He witnesses the coronation of a king or chief, the annual yam festival, the annual dance and acrobatic displays of guilds and age-sets, and 'often participates with his own age-group or his relations in the activities'<sup>7</sup>. The core of European or American criticism of this system of traditional education is that it tends to be conservative and conforming in that it does not train the child to challenge or change those aspects that are considered unprogressive within the system. The gradual build-up and consequent strengthening of this position among African elites has led to the recurring dilemma of local relevance in the system of education.

In Nigeria, the elites form the core of administrators and educators; these two groups in particular share a common belief that there is considerable weakness in traditional education since any form of change in the system is considered as tabu by elders of the various cultural organisations in the country. But can this be a disadvantage? Recent attempts to neutralize the cultural debate have always pointed at some sort of compromise. According to Taylor:

In the past few years there has been a new determination in Nigeria's search for a curriculum which seeks to develop a national "supra-tribal" (sic) identity as a precursor to modernity in a multilingual and multicultural country.<sup>8</sup>

The theory of ethnocentrism does not, however, presuppose "supra-tribal" sentiments. Educational sociologists use supra-ethnic entity

to refer to the phenomenon of national identity: that which surpasses the beliefs and tradition of any one group in the country. Therefore in the search for curriculum relevance, the Western European model of education system is constantly being re-examined in areas of obvious local content. The dismay of educationalists is reflected in Fafunwa's observation:

If education is the aggregate of all the processes by which a person develops abilities, attitudes and other forms of behaviour of positive and meaningful value in the society in which he lives, if it is a system based on certain philosophical or theoretical assumptions and seeks to justify its usefulness in terms of its practices and results, then most of the educational systems in Africa south of the Sahara and north of the Limpopo today can hardly stand the test.<sup>9</sup>

Thus, it is clear that the imported 'modern' system of education instead of development positive cultural values in the society in which the African child lives, tends to alienate him from his own cultural environment. The 'modern' system educates the child out of his environment regardless of the positive or negative aspects of this situation. As a prominent educator has observed, there is a strong feeling among all educationalists today that traditional western education has contributed in no small measure to the failure of social and economic progress in Africa; it has disorganised and disoriented African societies, thereby divorcing the educational needs of Africa from the economic imperatives.<sup>10</sup>

However, the feature of concern here is to consider the various terminologies that have emerged as a direct result of the search for relevance. The terminologies as outlined below, derive from their general, sometimes confused, application in the humanities literature. These are now considered as follows:

#### 7.3.2.1 "Localisation"

The term "localisation" in African education system refers to the decolonising of the process of modernisation without ending it. Although an interpretation of the definition seems close to neo-colonialism, in fact it is different from any such connotation. It implies, merely, the creation of an indigenous system in every sphere of social activity within the universal concept of modernisation. Thus, localisation is analogous to Africanization in the way the term is usually applied in African literature. Sometimes, it reflects the

replacement of expatriate staff in institutions of higher learning and other related establishments, and at other times, the removal of foreign ideals from the curriculum in response to local needs.

Furthermore, it is desirable to grasp an understanding of both terms in the light of current events in the search for relevance. While 'localisation' is specific in its application to particular environments in the society, 'Africanization' is much more of a wider term putting in perspective many interrelated elements such as: not only in terms of implementation of educational reforms to suit African needs, but also inculcating replacement of expatriate staff or a drastic reduction in their quota, in favour of indigenous manpower. Usually this is more noticeable in top administrative or teaching positions.

Localisation varies intently in perspective. For instance, if education whether African, Western or Eastern European, is viewed as the totality of experience in response to nature and the environment, it follows that it may differ in style, approach, and emphasis mainly because of local needs and conditions. One may offer the hypothesis that both traditional and modern systems have positive and negative aspects. Hence, localisation implies the essence of utilizing what is positive when formulating a new system which will be relevant to the needs and conditions of the locality in a society. A rejection of negative aspects of modern education system in African societies should not represent a criticism or an indictment of its philosophy. Rather, it could be viewed as a meaningful departure from unreality - a classic disposal of Utopian ideal of ultimately attaining full developmental status in the nation's socio-economic adventure.

Equally, it is clear that Africanization derives from the principle that all modern education systems are commercially based and not on the interests of Africans because, according to radical elites in African universities, modern education lacks the necessary foundations that should have been built on African traditions and values, for example:

- (a) African respect for humanity and human dignity;
- (b) African sense of community;
- (c) African respect for legitimate and human authority;

- (d) African respect for authentic and positive African moral and religious values and cultures;
- (e) African respect for the dignity of labour;
- (f) Motivation and stimulation of creativity.<sup>11</sup>

Against this background, modern education system in Africa at present views technology and scientific achievements as ultimate educational aims which are not necessarily ideal for existing situation. Localisation, as a tool of relevance, ensures pertinent readjustment of the status quo in educational provision to suit local needs.

#### 7.3.2.2 "Nigerianisation"

Presently, curriculum development is still dominated by the desire to shape a 'Nigerian-ness' and the majority of professional educators accept this goal. Two specific strategies are often adopted:

- (1) an extension of opportunities for more children to attend school via the introduction of the Universal Primary Education Scheme, begun in 1976;
- (2) a language policy to provide a national lingua franca which will equip individuals with a working knowledge of a Nigerian language other than the local vernacular<sup>12,13</sup>.

Both strategies are commonly acceptable in the education circle since they provide the necessary itinerary for Nigerianisation of the modern education system. It was the declared policy of the government to Nigerianise both the civil service and administrative sectors of institutions of higher learning in the country immediately after political independence in 1960. However, it should be noted that the implementation of the policy to Nigerianise is inevitably linked with the sensitive ethnic political rivalries existing in the country<sup>14</sup>, but perhaps more predominant at the time.

"Nigerianization" can therefore be defined as the appointment of qualified Nigerians to higher and responsible posts both in government and educational sectors. The commitment here is deeper than the Africanisation issue because the implementation of the Nigerianization policy depends to a very large extent on the urgent need to provide institutions in Nigeria for the supply of needed manpower for national

development.

Furthermore, growth of institutions is simultaneously accompanied by Nigerianization of the faculties mostly in terms of staff. The ultimate aim of Nigerianization is therefore to promote concerns of relevance to national purpose and national identity. Nigerian universities have particularly witnessed the effects of the Nigerianization policy in their faculties and departments. But the policy has drawn the attention of educationalists from Western Europe. Taylor, for instance, observes that:

While the Nigerian people collectively may have discovered nationalism, many as individuals feel that local geography, local anthropology, local studies are hinderances to their personal educational development.<sup>15</sup>

Taylor's observation sums up the typical neo-colonialist attitude of regarding local education materials as "inferior" and foreign ideals such as the study of 'Shakespeare's works' or the 'geography of the British Isles' as "superior". The essential point in the search for relevance is to sever links with "colonial mentality" and wake up to the realism of local relevance in the education system, be it through staffing or the curriculum. Bengé aptly suggests that:

A consequence of cultural dependence is that perceptions are blocked or distorted so that people are prevented from seeing their own world; they are using borrowed coloured spectacles. With regard to education for librarians this causes the unfortunate students to concentrate on non-problems and provide answers to questions which should not have been asked. It is of course true that the textbooks are inappropriate, but that is partially true of all textbooks; the teacher's task is one of interpretation and eventually to provide his own text. (My emphasis)<sup>16</sup>

The essence of Nigerianization should be to enable teachers to use their own indigenous upbringing in relating courses to the local environment. The malign influences of a metropolitan education system cannot be allowed to detract from this objective. According to Taylor:

If the Nigerian pupils accept that the curriculum is designed to socialise and Nigerianise as well as to prepare for higher education and future occupations, the experiment may succeed. But at present the problem has psychological, sociological and pedagogical ramifications about which the government's think-tank has not yet commented ...

there has been no assessment of parental or pupil interests and needs ... (nor) child-centred needs determining either teaching content or method.<sup>17</sup>

In a development situation, the characteristics of democratic thinking inherently displayed in Taylor's quotation above is nothing but a luxury in many developing countries. Many departmental research conducted by Nigerian educationalists, though not publicised nor published in conventional form, have found their way to the necessary government quarters to facilitate the decision-making process. Besides, evaluation of any kind has many constraints such as, political, financial, and reliability. Given these constraints and the consequent ethnic feeling likely to be engendered, it seems reasonable to pursue a policy of restraint in making public comments on the issues of relevance arising from Nigerianization of the education system. National objectives have priority in such matters.

However, there are other significant problems of Nigerianization. Consider, for example, the lingua franca factor. According to John:

When an education system forces children to express themselves in a language which is not their own, it not only becomes difficult for them to articulate their ideas but they also tend to lack the confidence which they would show when using their native tongue.<sup>18</sup>

In the Nigerian context, the problem is made more complex as there are many languages to choose from for a national lingua franca. Politically, it is emotive; sociologically, it seems impractical; educationally, it may prove costly and retrogressive; but realistically, it is an essential corollary of relevance in the education system. Consider for instance, the effects on writers of indigenous textbooks, novels, and other works.

Hypothetically, in an already literate society a change of official language does not alter the status quo of writers, regardless of the literacy rate in such a society. The problem, however, is not the inability of writers to detach themselves from the subjects they wish to write about, but the difficulty of having to use another language. The likely effect is that writers would become frustrated by their inadequate command of the new language. But if the introduction of a new language is made at lower levels of education (such as

primary and secondary), it can be realistically expected that at a future date, say in two decades, the necessary foundation for a lingua franca would have been laid. Thus, it would be possible to obtain locally-produced documents to support pedagogical work. The

\*FESTAC Colloquium<sup>19</sup> produced resolutions which called for total 'reorganisation or revolution' of most of the current school systems in Africa from the primary school level to the university level. The starting point of the "revolution" is seen as the introduction of an indigenous language or mother tongue as the medium of instruction. This is already taking place in most schools although much more at lower levels of education. Language, it was further hypothesised, is a vehicle which transmits knowledge to the child; such vehicle must of a necessity be that which the child is most familiar with and which relates to his everyday life and understood by his parents and society. The attainment of an 'ideal' language for medium of instruction will definitely take some time. Current efforts, however, show that this objective can be met. In Nigeria, for example, Yoruba is presently being used as a medium of instruction predominantly at lower levels of education but gradually being introduced on some courses at the university level. In this connection, mention was made at the FESTAC Colloquium of efforts being made 'to create technical vocabulary either by selecting indigenous words or Africanization of foreign words through borrowing'<sup>20</sup> - further evidence of creating and showing a desire to shape a 'Nigerian-ness' in the education system.

### 7.3.2.3 "Indigenisation"

A common term used in the developing countries to denote emancipation from economic domination by foreigners. The aliens are backed by the dominant power of rich nations who, in theory, determine to a large extent the pattern of international trade, terms of technology transfer, foreign aid, and direct investment in Africa, Asia, and the Caribbean. Since the end of World War II, Nigerians have tried to analyse the reasons for the low levels of indigenous participation in the modern sector of African economies<sup>21,22</sup>. It has been a classic legacy of "We (Africans) have the land, the Asians have the money, the Europeans control the government" syndrome<sup>23</sup>. In order to overcome this legacy, Nigerians distributed "a wide range of extant and proposed programmes to assist indigenous investors"<sup>24</sup>. Thus, with the attainment of political independence in 1960, the first

order of business was the Africanization of the civil service to pave the way for indigenisation of the economy. But the country's industry and trade remained an almost exclusive preserve of the expatriates, and Nigerians did not like this<sup>25</sup>. The Nigerian Indigenisation decrees of 1972 and 1977 therefore came as no surprise given the unexpected transformation of the economy by the oil boom of the 1970s.

Thus, "indigenisation" is an elusive term in the social sciences. The term means different things, in different places, and at different periods in a nation's history. In social and political context, for instance prior to Nigerian independence, in the 1950s indigenisation at the university level meant Nigerianization of staff (c.f. Section 3.2.2.). Furthermore, indigenisation is used to describe curriculum renewal and innovations which relate to local and national conditions<sup>26</sup>.

This latter development of the concept of indigenisation is of central concern in the search for relevance. Despite intense pre-occupation with the concept in the 1970s, Nigeria has today not achieved much by way of economic self-reliance or economic independence. According to Balabkins:

Indigenization can be conceived of as an integral part of the economic evolution of or a vital component of the socio-economic development strategy of Nigeria. One of the most important elements in this strategy is the way in which the Nigerian masses perceive and interpret the prevailing economic opportunities in their country.<sup>27</sup>

The importance of self-reliance cuts across frontiers in social and economic development. As part of the development strategy, indigenisation of the curriculum is seen to promote social change, but as Balabkins warns, there are limits to be reached:

The roots of modernization go back to the 18th Century, to the philosophers of the Enlightenment. This Weltanschauung has three basic ideas: reason, nature, progress. In the philosophy of Enlightenment, the environmental conditions, be they the existing legislation, customs, or traditions, can corrupt and prevent the normal physiological application of reason.<sup>28</sup>

To improve matters, the subscribers to the philosophy of the Enlightenment held that certain environmental changes are indispensable for the building of a better world for the masses. They believed in and advocated what was known as "social engineering".

The indigenisation process is perceived as a mechanical way, say for example, by which libraries could respond to the growing needs of the community in sustaining society's self-reliance in knowledge and information.

### 7.3.3 Educational factor of relevance

The underlying elements that created the irrelevance in the modern education system, can be traced to Nigeria's colonial past. Details of the link with colonialism cannot be justifiably treated here, but these are adequately covered in studies by Koehl<sup>29,30</sup>, Kay and Nystrom<sup>31</sup>, and Mazrui<sup>32</sup>. In the cited works, European motives for the cultural penetration of Africa were analysed to the effect that the penetration was found to result in the emergence of the university as the most sophisticated instrument of 'cultural dependency'. For instance, Mazrui argues that university graduates in Africa are the most culturally dependent because they are the most deeply westernised Africans<sup>33</sup>. Integration with metropolitan systems have always formed the basis of the priorities of African scholars. In West Africa, Greek, Latin, and European history formed the core of the humanities. For many years, no African language, not even Arabic, could be studied at the university level<sup>34</sup>.

Having been educated, African elites, like their colleagues of the same social stratum in other parts of the 'Third World', pride themselves more on the basis of the prestige and status of the higher institutions they attended rather than what they could achieve for the benefit of the society who trained them. High profile institutions such as Harvard, Yale, Oxford, Cambridge, University College, London and the former University College, Ibadan (now University of Ibadan) are recognised publicly as status symbols for appointments into the public service. Thus, as evidence of cultural dependency, the personal educational achievements of elites in the African society tend to rank higher than their capacity for social responsibility and service. The question of value therefore arises. This can be approached from two dimensions:

- (i) Practical relevance - which focusses on issues of skills; and,
- (ii) Cultural relevance - which relates to issues of values.

Practical relevance in African universities should be concerned

with whether or not universities are producing the right kind of personnel for the processes of economic and social development. The emphasis must be on skill. For example, in areas such as political science, management studies, sociology, and librarianship, the curricula changes so far seem to reflect what is studied rather than how it is studied. More and more courses on Africa and on the economics of development have been introduced, but few methodological innovations (such as being applied in 'oral tradition in history'). Relevance may in this way gradually vanish into oblivion or at best become a Utopian ideal.

Cultural relevance, on the other hand, ensures relativity of theory with past and existing tradition in the society. The traditional values of the society are not lost but incorporated in the learning process, regardless of other forces that may influence the curriculum. The ultimate aim is to enhance greater understanding of the indigenous social system and thereby improve the level of services and the general quality of life in the society.

#### 7.3.3.1 Nigerian Education System

The objective in this section of the study is to provide an insight into the nature of the education system in Nigeria (excluding the higher education sector which is discussed separately in adjoining section 7.3.2). The education structure that evolves is then related to the perspectives of relevance under discussion. A consideration of factors in the education system thus provides an opportunity of a suitable background from which to assess professional education.

##### 7.3.3.1.1 Traditional Education

The analysis of traditional education in this section follows the trend set in section 3.2. The nature of traditional education has been described but its origin, cause and effect have not been traced in the light of the search for relevance.

In Northern Nigeria, which is predominantly muslim (except for areas such as Plateau, Kaduna, and Bauchi States which are not predominantly muslim), an Islamic educational system has been in operation since the 15th century<sup>35</sup>, long before Europeans intervened. Until the 19th century, it was mainly a peripatetic system but some educational institutions did exist. In Kano alone in the late 15th

century there were an estimated 3000 mallams<sup>36</sup>. Teaching and learning were by lectio and memoriter (i.e. reading aloud and rote memorisation). With time the peripatetic system gave way, never completely, to a formalised, institutionalised system of Quranic education.

Thus, over many centuries an educational system and an ideology which suited the muslim population of Northern Nigeria was in existence. The introduction of westernised education did not go unchallenged. In this context, various appreciations and analysis as regards the role of Islam in the process of development and modernisation have emerged in sociological and historical literature. Weber<sup>37</sup>, for instance, considers Islam as a relatively non-progressive, conservative force. But according to Ajayi and Oloruntimehin:

... for the vast majority of West Africans in the first three-quarters of the 19th century Islam, not the Christian abolitionist movement, was the revolutionary factor creating larger political systems with new economic opportunities and establishing new religious obligations and social values.<sup>38</sup>

The social values, still existing today, are difficult to eradicate even by modern standards.

Apart from Islamic education, other aspects of traditional education exists with the following common goals:

- (1) developing the child's latent physical skills;
- (2) developing character;
- (3) inculcating respect for elders and those in position of authority;
- (4) developing intellectual skills
- (5) acquiring specific vocational training and developing a healthy attitude towards honest labour;
- (6) developing a sense of belonging and participating actively in family and community affairs;
- (7) understanding, appreciating, and promoting the cultural heritage of the community at large.

These common goals, in Fafunwa's view<sup>39</sup>, enhance greater understanding of traditional values in Nigerian education. In addition, there are "hidden" values in the traditional system of education:

For the select or the elect (apprentice/practitioner) secret cults served as institutions of higher or further education. It was at this level that the secret of power (real or imaginary), profound native philosophy, science and religion were mastered. Irrespective of the level of education and training given during the pre-colonial days in Africa,

it was functional because the curriculum was relevant to the needs of society.<sup>40</sup>

The issues raised in the above quotation are still pertinent today, but with an increased awareness for public recognition of traditional institutions. As Taiwo submits, 'at present, in addition to the formal education offered in schools, Nigerian children are subject (in varying degrees) to some traditional education'.<sup>41</sup>

In respect of the content, Taiwo states that traditional education consists of:

- (i) Education for living in conformity with the traditions of the community;
- (ii) Education for occupations and economic self-reliance;
- (iii) Education for special occupations such as family crafts, secret organisations, religious priesthood, divination, medicine and surgery.

Given the content as stated in (i) to (iii) above, it was obligatory to expose every child to the first type of education, which was basic. Fadipe, a Nigerian sociologist, suggests that,

... the child's teachers directly or indirectly were his parents, as well as the various members of his family and household, his extended family (usually located in the same compound), his kindred and his neighbourhood.<sup>42</sup>

To call a person "uneducated" in this sense was a great insult to the person and his family<sup>43</sup>. The social environment reinforced these accepted values, but as Taiwo suggests, the traditional methods of education that are observable today are no longer in their former setting:

The factors which influence the methods of education have changed. The aims of education have been broadened out to keep step with the age of science and technology. Reading and writing which were unknown are the basic tools of education, which every child should acquire as the first essentials. Education has become complex, far beyond the grip of any one father, mother or older child in the family or any adult in the compound to impart ... The content of education has also increased and deepened many times over. The environment has also changed.<sup>44</sup>

The change in environment has resulted in the child being less acquainted with farm life, its animals, birds and plants but more in contact with artificial surroundings with social provisions such as air, sea and road transportation, shops, theatres and libraries. The rural areas are being transformed into more complex environments and

new societies are emerging. These changes have affected traditional values and methods of education.

With regards to problems encountered in the organisation of the content of traditional education, some elements are discernible:

- (a) The problem of language defies solution at present because African languages, when placed in context of mathematics, science, technology or political science, seem clearly to be inadequate in the universal pursuit of knowledge;
- (b) the curriculum of traditional education is often presented in a way that it emphasises living in a society other than creativity;
- (c) teachers and their education rarely take full account of intellectual requirements of traditional values and norms. Teachers should know the qualities which have sustained the community and the methods of imparting them otherwise their contribution to education would remain superficial.

Against this background of change and the resultant problems of traditional education, it is possible to examine further the provisions of the formal system. For instance, does the philosophy of education in the formal system adequately cover the fluid state in the traditional system, i.e. in terms of definite structure and its relation to national development objectives?

#### 7.3.3.1.2 Philosophy

In general, the foundations of the Nigerian government policy are the five main national objectives<sup>45</sup> which it is widely believed that education can promote. The philosophy is that education is recognised as the greatest force that can be used to foster the much needed unity of Nigeria and to correct the imbalance in "inter"-State and "intra"-State development. Education is also perceived as the greatest investment that can make for the quick development of the economic, political, sociological and human resources of the country.

The government therefore aims at providing equal educational opportunities for all the citizens of the nation at the primary, secondary and tertiary levels, both inside and outside the formal school system with a view to integrate the individual fully into a sound and effective citizen, useful to himself and his society, and the nation. It is fervently considered that education will bring about self-realisation, better human relationships, individual and national efficiency, effective citizenship, national consciousness,

national unity, as well as social, cultural, economic, political, scientific and technological progress. The government considers it to be in the interest of national unity that each child should be encouraged to learn one of the three major languages (Hausa, Ibo, and Yoruba) as well as his mother tongue<sup>46</sup>.

#### 7.3.3.1.3 Primary education (age 6 to 11+)

Free universal primary education (UPE) is available to all Nigerian children (effective, September 1976) and is soon to be made compulsory. The curriculum is aimed at permanent literacy and numeracy and effective communications. The medium of instruction is the mother tongue or the language of the immediate community, and, at a later stage, English. Islamic 'protests of corrective censure', made against the U.P.E. scheme are in line with the emphases that the cultural heritage of the peoples of Nigeria must be preserved, that a Nigerian educational system, a Nigerian political system rather than foreign models of these must be developed, and that in some instances, these emphases have already had their effect<sup>47</sup>. The move to make Hausa the medium of instruction in the Northern States in 1976 has assisted in the development of a Nigerian educational system which takes cognisance of the modern and useful aspects of the traditional.

#### 7.3.3.1.4 Secondary education (age 11+ to 17+)

Secondary education is aimed at preparing individuals for useful living in the society and for those willing and able to further their studies at higher education level. It is a six-year course (effective 1982) and it is in two stages of three years each, known as the junior and the senior stages or schools respectively. It is both academic and pre-vocational, and sufficient as preparation for trade and vocational training. The senior secondary school is comprehensive. Admission to the university will be directly from the six-year secondary school.

#### 7.3.3.1.5 Technical education

This is broadly defined as 'that aspect of education which leads to the acquisition of practical and applied skills as well as basic scientific knowledge'<sup>48</sup>. Outside the universities, there are five types of technical education institutions: pre-vocational and vocational schools at the post-primary level, and technical colleges, polytechnics and technical teacher education colleges at the post-

secondary level. At the technical education level in librarianship, for instance, the new professional course - Nigerian National Diploma in Library Studies (4 years) (now re-styled HND Library Studies) - has been introduced. Although Oweni College of Science and Technology is already implementing the course, the final draft of the curriculum is yet to be approved by the government sponsors and the profession<sup>49</sup>.

#### 7.3.3.1.6 Adult and non-formal education

The National Policy document on education provides for nationwide mass literacy campaign which is planned for a limited duration of ten years during which all available resources will be mobilised towards the achievement of total eradication of illiteracy.

In improving the education of those adults who, for various reasons, are unable to go to normal universities for further studies, there is provision for an Open University (O.U.) system to enable the adult workers to study for and gain degrees initially in subjects related to national development objectives. Obasi<sup>50</sup> and Lawal<sup>51</sup> have in separate articles examined the basis and importance of the O.U. system and the implications for library services.

Overall, the pattern of Nigerian education system is as represented in Figure 1 (p.611) indicating the structure and levels of learning. It appears the issue of relevance is illuminative not in the structure itself but in the organisation and selection of content for the curriculum. The universality of knowledge, as sometimes assumed in the literature, makes the present educational structure seem inevitable, but knowledge is also a social construct which draws its intellectual wealth from local circumstances in an environment. Thus, it is possible to make courses relevant to local needs without necessarily dismantling the structure of the education system due to its 'foreign-ness'.

#### 7.3.3.2 The higher education system

A practical point from which to start the analysis is to assume that educational culture is a dynamic system of behaviour implementing a dominant group's values and expectations concerning the preparation of children, young people, and adults for living on after the older generations pass away. The higher education system is an avenue not only for expanding knowledge frontiers but for conserving and

propagating aspects of societal values. If not handled rationally the higher education system may be used by some groups as breeding ground for social revolution and consequently leading to confrontation in the society which the institutions exist to serve. African societies have assimilated many aspects of European educational tradition by establishing formal institutions for education and certification, and 'acting in a mediating role for transforming the society along indigenous lines'<sup>52</sup>.

In 1972, the Association of African Universities held an important education seminar at Accra, Ghana. The theme of the seminar was 'Creating the African university: emerging issues of the 1970s'. An envisaged African university was defined as:

a community essentially of African scholars, men and women, old and young, lettered and unlettered, dedicated to serve knowledge to its community and committed to the total development of the African society with the objective of the total liberation of the common man from all that hampered his well being physically, materially and intellectually<sup>53</sup>.

The African concept of university system as indicated in the above quotation implies not only a commitment to knowledge but one of social responsibility as well. Clearly, this is a challenge to all Africans because it calls for a re-evaluation of the present European and American models in favour of a nationalist pattern. The political undertones such as 'total liberation of the common man', derive from the existing marriage of convenience between politics and the system of higher education in African countries. But university education is an international phenomenon often in defiance of political rhetorics. According to Bereday:

Not only do the substance and procedure of university study partake of universality, but they are from the beginning of the modern age, and still at present, derived from the accomplishment of academics and amateurs of the Western, central and northern European culture area including the North America, the very areas of the world against which the twentieth-century nationalism of Asia, Africa and Latin America is asserting itself.<sup>54</sup>

Agbowuro adds that:

What, to my mind, the Africans call the Africanized system of higher education, is a system whose task, in part, is to propagate a universal culture and to contribute to its growth, while simultaneously cultivating and developing the indigenous actual or potential national culture and enhancing

national life.<sup>55</sup>

In the pursuit of the dual objective as suggested by Agbowuro, the existing model of the university needs to be retained even though it is a foreign transplant. However, what is taught in the institutions is a different issue altogether. The curriculum will need to relate to the local environment. As Fafunwa argues:

(The curriculum) should be designed to interpret the nation's culture, history, geography, religion, philosophy and to control the physical forces of the students' environment for the benefit of the whole nation<sup>56</sup>.

Having stated the determining factors of establishments in the higher education system, and the primary function of advancing knowledge plus the enhancement of traditional values and skills in curricula provision, attention may now be paid to the specific issues of relevance in the higher education system of which professional education is a significant part.

Mazrui writes,

Debates about practical relevance in African universities have been concerned with whether universities are producing appropriate personnel for the processes of economic and social development. Is there enough emphasis on training people skilled in modern agriculture? Are universities sensitive to the need for veterinarians in pastoral regions? Do they emphasise Shakespeare more than rural development?<sup>57</sup>

Though writing from a political viewpoint, the focus of Mazrui's observation seem to cut across the broad spectrum of social issues.

In the field of education, many African universities started as liberal-arts colleges, not as training centres for skilled manpower. Part of the prejudice against technical courses was inherited from the metropolitan powers. Thus, the higher education system was producing more leaders than the required level of technicians. Nigeria's premier university (Ibadan) offered courses in Latin, Greek, Christian doctrine and Medieval European History long before it recognised the need for courses in engineering, economics, public administration, or librarianship<sup>58</sup>.

However, there were strenuous efforts on the part of politicians and educators alike to make the courses offered in the universities

locally relevant. Despite the ardent wish to forge an adaptable system of education, the problems of conservatism, scholasticism, romanticism, and a colonial outlook joined forces to frustrate curriculum reform of higher education from the time Ibadan opened its door in 1948 until the early 1960s when the four universities entered the scene<sup>59</sup>. The root of the problem lies in the attitude of Nigerian scholars trained in Britain, who believed, perhaps curiously, that any programme that diverged at all from what they themselves have gone through in the U.K. would not be good enough. A change, in their view, would be tantamount to lowering of standards, Ashby observes that:

... some African intellectuals, especially those educated in Britain, resist changes in curriculum or in pattern of courses because they confuse such changes with a lowering of standards. They are accordingly suspicious of any divergence from the British pattern. Some of them are particularly allergic to proposals for incorporating African studies into the curriculum. In this, they say, the first step toward disarming us intellectually; to substitute Arabic and African languages for the classics; to teach English to Africans as Chinese is taught to Englishmen, not as Englishmen learn English at Cambridge; to neglect Tudor history in favour of the history of Africa; to regard oral tradition as legitimate material for scholarship<sup>60</sup>.

Nigerian intellectuals display open maternal allegiance to their alma mater institutions; until recently, these institutions are mostly overseas-based. In view of this trend, the restructuring of the curriculum in terms of social relevance has been rather slow in the universities. The education of professionals now takes place in the universities with the curriculum being aimed at producing knowledgeable but practical men while at the same time structuring the professional programmes to reflect national needs.

#### 7.3.4 Development factor of relevance

The idea of "development" derives from a generalization that presupposes: (a) cultural awareness, and (b) social commitment to change. On grounds of economic principles, the generalization is further widened to contain the element of growth. The cultural and social aspects of development create a process usually described in the literature as 'nation-building'. This is a process of reducing ethnic cleavages while at the same time promoting a common national

heritage. Thus, in the context of development, the search for relevance involves relating socio-cultural activities to national purpose and identity.

#### 7.3.4.1 Socio-economic and educational interpretation of development

Modernisation and dependency theory provide the basis for three characterisations of the relationship between education and development. The developmentalist perspective is based on the notion that education can provide the skills, motivations, and personality traits required for an industrialising society. From nationalist's viewpoint, La Belle and Verhine<sup>61</sup> argue that education based on Western or neo-colonial models has not furthered national development, but has simply enabled those who control the schools to control the work place as well.

The dependency perspective is that the failure of peripheral nations to develop is not the result of their educational systems, whether Western, or nationalistic types, but of the specific role they play in the division of world labour. Existing educational systems are both a consequence of and a means of reinforcing this dependent position.

According to some developmentalists<sup>62,63,64</sup>, education has two key functions: it should respond to national needs for trained manpower, and it should socialise a nation's population into modern values, attitudes, and personalities. This viewpoint assumes that the major reason for the Third World's failure to develop is that most of its people do not have 'sufficient education' to support a modern occupational structure, and are too traditional in outlook to participate in a modern world. Within this assumption, however, the mechanism of change has not been taken into account thereby weakening the strength of the proposition. To the developmentalists, since educational modernisation is expected to upgrade labour, it is considered an investment in human capital which will yield a substantial return in the form of increased national prosperity. The problem is perceived in terms of individuals, or an aggregate of individuals, rather than the social structure at the national and international level.

Another dimension of development and its relationship with education and occupation is that high levels of education are associated

with high-status and high-paying jobs. This relationship points to the possibility that a higher general level of education will lead to the formation of a more modern occupational structure. Walters suggests that evidence from Africa indicates that educational expansion 'simply increases the number of credentials required for a particular job, and has little effect on the occupational structure; throughout the periphery, education has expanded tremendously, but national economic growth has not'.<sup>65</sup>

Furthermore, any interpretation of development needs to encompass social, psychological, and educational elements of change. Modernisation is the process of social change in which development is the economic component<sup>66</sup>. Investment in education, or more broadly in human resources, may be perceived as a major and critical basis of societal change.

Thus, in its socio-economic interpretation development is 'concerned with the human capital and how to mobilise the latter for the enhancement of the quality of life of the majority of the citizens in a society'.<sup>67</sup> Elsewhere in the literature, Sanda<sup>68</sup> states that development has been erroneously equated with industrialization, or with modernisation or even with Westernization. The recent experience of many industrialising but developing countries points to the fact that premature industrialization may constitute a stumbling block to the process of development in certain situations such as whereby workers are withdrawn from, say, the agricultural sector (without the location of an adequate substitute of source of food production), and into an industrial sector with limited capacity for the absorption of unskilled workers. This situation has created numerous problems of underdevelopment for some Third World societies.

Similarly, it is significant to draw a parallel with education activities where curriculum planners and planners of educational expansion perceive 'development' as synonymous to 'modernisation'. In many developing countries, there is a new concentration on the building of schools and colleges, expansion of enrolment at all levels of education and in adult education, extension of the coverage of mass media particularly through radio and television, growth in the number of health centres and medical establishments to create healthy learning situations, provision of better housing, libraries, and other

social facilities complementing the role of education in enhancing quality of life.

In terms of the generation and dissemination of information, this is why in the development context, it has become important to deliberately create and institutionalise one or many agencies to provide the channel for a two-way information flow. In Nigeria, as in other African or Asian countries, these agencies include, for example, the agricultural extension worker, the co-operative officer, the community development officer, or even 'Extension Librarian/Information Counsellor Librarian'<sup>69</sup> as recently proposed by Ogunshye. It is important to reflect this information need in the education process.

For instance, the extension worker is at present often regarded by many as the most important of information agencies. His role is to ensure a sufficient flow of information to the rural populace concerning the need for and the advantages of change; to teach people the skills needed for this change through demonstrations, explanation and persuasion; and, to encourage them to participate fully in all the relevant processes of decision-making. In this way, a curriculum that reflects social development needs, may be said to attain relevance to national purpose and identity. This in turn reflects on the scale of professionalism in the various occupational activities.

#### 7.3.5 Librarianship and the concept of local relevance

##### 7.3.5.1 The problem

In the preceding sections, the education system, in general, and higher education specifically, was examined. It is clear that higher education has been slow to absorb the teaching of practical subject matter usually associated with the professions. Even more important, is the trend that emerges from the current demand being made upon the educated for skills they do not have, and perhaps more likely, that they are unwilling to exercise. In order to meet this demand, the professions have effectively broken through the barriers of academic tradition in the universities by establishing and expanding their own knowledge frontiers. But the problem of professional relevance remains. In most cases, this is often generated in the field and spills over to the professional schools and vice-versa. So, how is librarianship faring?

Libraries, as social agencies, represent the traditions of society. Librarianship as a social institution is a foreign ideal which the developing countries of the world perceive largely as an essential agency to expedite social development and to facilitate exchange of information on the required knowledge for agricultural, scientific and technological advances. Basically, the philosophy and principles of librarianship are universal, but there is an increasing trend towards differentiating the emphasis on practice. Most developing countries have begun to question the rationale of providing libraries stocked with up-to-date reading materials in a largely non-literate society and rural environments occupied by local farmers, petty traders, and market men and women enjoying life to the full. To these groups of people, education is still restrictive no matter what significant development is taking place on the economic front. This restrictiveness implies unmotivated need for access to information, knowledge, and ideas which could substantially improve their economic performance as well as their personal development in the society. Thus, the circumstances surrounding the evolution of libraries in Nigeria and the attendant role of the services in education more than the social sector, is the root cause of the problem of professional relevance. Many regard library institutions as existing at present, as a fait accompli of neo-colonialist influence on Africa. The appeal of the opening quotation<sup>1</sup> to this work rests on a radical departure from what is considered 'traditional' in conventional library practice especially where this relates to a predominant non-literate society.

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The challenge of 'relevance' is therefore a stimulating phenomenon in almost all kinds of professional activity. Europeans questioned the value of their professional education in the sixties and seventies - a period of economic boom and general educational expansion. But in the context of American and European experience, Havard-Williams suggests that 'relevance, a keyword in the sixties and seventies, is still alive, but perhaps not so relevant as it once was'<sup>70</sup>. It is not a question of cultural stalemate but one of values in a changing society.

Criticisms of library schools in regards to what is taught and learned, and the nature of professional services in times of change,

have reached endemic proportions in the literature concerning developing countries. The root cause of the problem, which is being analysed in this present work, has scarcely been explored by contributors to the debate. Perhaps an outstanding view in respect of the library school's curriculum is that put forward by Dean who states that:

The library pattern (in developing countries) has in many cases been pre-determined by colonial experiences (my emphasis) and a system developed which is possibly not particularly appropriate for the environment ... This kind of situation calls for a good deal of insight on the part of the planner in determining precisely the programmes (that) are called for to satisfy the needs of the library systems of the country.<sup>71</sup>

Assuming that 'colonial experiences' is the root cause of the problem on professional relevance, how valid is this hypothesis, and how can the visible effects of colonialism be neutralised through cultural re-awakening? The validity of 'colonial experiences' as a rhetoric for under-development was critically examined by the world renown American economist, Professor Galbraith, who states that:

The ideas that interpreted capitalism, at least its early stages, were reasonably candid. The ideas that justified colonialism have never been candid. There is nothing remarkable about this. On many matters men sense that the underlying reasons for action are best concealed. Conscience is better served by a myth. And to persuade others one needs, first of all, to persuade one's self. Myth has always been especially important where war was concerned. Men must have a fairly elevated motive for getting themselves killed. To die to protect or enhance the wealth, power or privilege of someone else, the most common reason for conflict over the centuries, lacks beauty. The case of colonialism is the same.<sup>72</sup>

History has run its course in the shaping of the affairs of men. The insatiable desire for world power in terms of political and economic gains led to adventures of colonialism, thereby creating in its trail a cultural subjugation of the weaker nations. However, with political independence, the search for relevance in the developing countries has no less been radical as the foreign ideals through which they have been subjugated. Critics of 'colonial experiences' do not recognise that there are limits to be reached in making such claims.

According to Galbraith:

No memory is so deep and enduring as that of colonial humiliation and injustice. But it must also be added, nothing serves so well as an alibi.

In the newly independent countries the colonial experience remains the prime excuse whenever something goes wrong. In these countries much does go wrong. So, in this respect too, colonialism remains a lively source of myth. Once the myth was made by those who colonized. Now by those who were colonized.<sup>73</sup>

When narrowed down to the field of librarianship, unlike other sensitive areas of political organisation, administration, and economic services, 'colonial experience' becomes a burden rather than any form of alibi in places where things go wrong, hence the need for relevance. As one considers the need to relate library functions to local needs, political insinuations must be detracted from the inappropriateness of the system handed over to the new generation of Nigerians by the colonialists. Holdsworth, for example, emphasized that the need for relevance arises from the notable effects of colonialism:

Library development was used by the colonial administration to perpetuate the "proper exercise" of the function of a State (i.e. the Colonial power) and for the work of industry, trade and professional classes, through libraries of institutions of higher learning to finally public libraries, which in a way reflects colonial interests and priorities.<sup>74</sup>

The curriculum of Nigerian library schools until the late sixties reflected the colonialist's urge, which could not have been easily dispensed with in the first decade of independence. The urge was to propagate British culture and, thus, seek its assimilation from their "subjects": Latin, English and Mathematics became core of the curriculum, the study of Shakespearean works is still emphasised even today in the Literature curriculum. The immediate effects on the curriculum of library and information studies have been highlighted in section 7.1

Ekpe<sup>75</sup> argues that the impact of colonialism was so deep-rooted in the socio-economic and political life of Nigeria that librarianship had no ultimate philosophy of its own for the indigenous population. Calls similar to Ekpe's, have therefore been made for professional services to relate both to traditional Nigerian values and development needs<sup>76,77,78</sup>. Aina<sup>79</sup> and Ogunshye<sup>80</sup> have also examined and discussed the conventional problems of attaining metropolitan status and how librarianship can best cope with achieving national identity. For instance, Ogunshye found that,

... Africa consists of communities and cultures with oral traditions, and communities whose information and recreation needs cannot be met by the conventional media - the book. The records of our culture are not in book form, but are alive in our oral poetry, drama, praise sayings, religious chants, festivals and art works. They carry records of our philosophy, religion and literature; of our crafts and technology; our cultural norms therefore our laws, politics, sociology and history.<sup>81</sup>

Libraries can in this way attract those members of the community who have not had the privileges of formal education, by relating the social aspects of the service to the norms of society.

#### 7.3.5.2 International Dimensions

In the field of librarianship, the concept of professional relevance has wide international connotations. The challenge to traditional values usually is based on the claim that they do not today have relevance. The attacks on education in general, and library education in particular, often feel obliged to make no more specific indictment than that<sup>82</sup>. But 'relevance to what' is seldom defined, although the context sometimes suggests the nature of the complaint. On an international basis, postulatory views have been expressed as to the ideal role of the librarian in the society<sup>83,84,85</sup>. Given the change in emphasis with regards to the library's role in all categories of information transmission (such as, in the area of information technology and its accompanying innovations), the claims for relevance often turn out to be simply utilitarian in ideals by prescribing specific learning situations to tackle specific tasks confronting the modern librarian. Asheim observes that when a procedure, considered by its originators as being of standard is abandoned, the justification is that it is no longer relevant to current professional needs<sup>86</sup>. At present, there is no evidence in the literature to prove otherwise.

Boaz comments on the problem by stating:

The issues of core curriculum and electives of a liberal education and specialization, of graduate and undergraduate programs are questions which continue to be of concern. The themes are old, the problems are ever present, the solutions (if found) will be new<sup>87</sup>.

One way of seeking relevance in the curriculum is through the optional and other specialised courses which usually address themselves to

topical issues. The library school in the setting of a developing country will find it difficult to vigorously pursue wide ranging electives or specialization in its curriculum mainly because of problems of staffing, finance, and inconsistent demand from the profession (which, in order to make the courses viable, must be on a continuous basis).

Glazer<sup>88</sup>, writing on the United States of America, observes that:

... the 'better' schools of librarianship tend to place their emphasis on that content which prepares higher administrators, research workers and potential teachers in library school to the alleged neglect of training for the central role of the practitioner<sup>89</sup>.

Another factor to emerge from concentrating courses designed for top management positions in libraries other than for levels lower end of the scale, is the relationship of librarianship qualifications to professional performance output. Mayhew cites a number of studies which seem to indicate that there is a minimal positive or even slightly negative relationship between job performance and length and level of education. The author suggests further that:

If such studies are further validated, professional schools, if they are to continue to warrant the support and regard they have achieved in the past, will be forced into radical revision of the entire process of education, beginning with techniques of admission and extending to organisation of courses and requirements for graduation<sup>90</sup>.

Such radical reorganisation of the 'entire process of education' will derive from changing practices in the field and, at times, the irrelevance of the librarian's own qualifications to the job in hand.

As regards those members of the profession who are advocating radical improvements due to the factor of relevance in education, Jencks and Riesman observe that:

The reformers in any given profession are disproportionately concentrated in its training institutions ... at any given moment the quality of practice taught at a professional school is likely to be higher than that actually carried on by the alumni of that school. Indeed the exalted image of a profession provided by its better schools may first help it attract better recruits than it deserves and then help sustain these men in the

the face of its often sordid and tedious reality<sup>91</sup>.

As for the recruitment pattern into the profession of librarianship, a lot will depend on the individual who aspires to become a professional. This element can hardly be predicted beforehand in the library school's curriculum, thus, the claims of irrelevance in this respect would seem unjustified.

On the sociological issues of library and information service, in terms of relevance, the American experience seems to be of practical value. The demand for relevance by the Social Responsibilities Round Table, and related movements in the American Library Association, can be traced back to the 19th century faith in the public library as a social force that would, 'through the promotion of reading, save mankind from poverty, crime, vice, alcoholism, and almost every other evil to which flesh is heir'<sup>92</sup>. From the 1930s through 1970s, the sociological roots of American librarianship derived from pleas for social action, that the librarian should have a vigorous and vocal social consciousness. According to Shera<sup>93</sup> and Asheim<sup>94</sup>, this conviction was especially strong among a relatively small group of young librarians who were demanding an end to conservatism and complacency, with development in their stead; the group also advocated for a dynamic social role for the library.

Earlier advocates for an investigation into the impact of social change on the utilisation of human resources, staked their claims on the grounds that 'the librarian should concern himself with society and must teach himself to develop "attitudes of foresight"'<sup>95</sup>. In writing a credo for the youth of his generation, Martin argues tennuously that the core of the library's being "is the transmission of group culture and knowledge as recorded in printed materials"<sup>96</sup>. The author thereby derived the social functions of the public library as an agency of social control which conserves and transmits the social heritage, and inculcates the experiences and values of the past to its contemporary society in order to promote social solidarity and unity. The heavy emphasis on 'printed material' tragically ignored other important, perhaps more significant forms, of information transmission in society<sup>97</sup>.

The viewpoints of the 1930s spread through three decades of

professional uncertainty, hence the persistent calls for relevance in a society prone to change. Perhaps, as Wheeler observes, the library profession has suffered from 'a well-meant over-dose of social viewpoint'.<sup>98</sup>

### 7.3.6 Indigenisation and library studies in Nigeria

One aspect of relevance that draws the undivided attention of librarians and educators alike in Nigeria concerns the indigenous elements of the curriculum in library schools. The demands for local relevance in the curriculum seem to have triggered off efforts in that direction. The work in this section attempts to analyse current trends in the indigenisation of library and information studies, based upon derived needs for local relevance.

#### 7.3.6.1 Nature and purpose of local relevance

Nigerian library educators, in considering the relevance of their programmes to the community, readily admit that this is an area constituting 'a major academic problem for the library schools'.<sup>99</sup> It is generally felt that while mindful of the development in the profession on the international plane, education for librarianship should also reflect local needs. There seems to be an inclination towards the social functions of libraries. Aboyade's observation in this respect is pertinent:

For us in Nigeria, as indeed for Africa in general, the question of relevance has to do mainly with service to a predominantly orally literate and non-literate people when the institution itself is heavily print oriented.<sup>100</sup>

The emphasis on oral tradition is a direct result of the Unesco-sponsored Standing Conference of African Library schools Meeting held in Dakar in 1974, where the need to indigenise the curriculum was formally recognised and recommendations put forward to the effect that the curriculum in African library schools should include courses on African history, sociology and literature, oral tradition and audio-visual materials and technology. Library schools in Nigeria have since taken up this challenge. However, in view of the slow progress so far made (c.f. Section on "Evaluation" 7.5), the process of indigenisation of the curriculum seem to be stagnating. But the saturation point is far from reached because there is still plenty of scope for making the library school curriculum socially relevant. Ogunsheye provides some clues:

Research is an instrument for discovering new knowledge and this is very necessary in the African situation where we are still rather uninformed about the behaviour and information of our local clientele, where we need to record and document our cultural, literary, and information material resources. The tendency is for academic personnel to be guided solely by interest, in their selection of topic for research. The factor of relevance must strongly be considered in the African situation where funds generally are in short supply.<sup>101</sup>

One valuable approach to indigenisation of the curriculum is through pure and applied research, but this method may prove expensive and time consuming in a dynamic situation requiring urgent solutions.

Mohammed and Otim<sup>102</sup> have shown another approach to indigenisation by relating professional education in librarianship to the realities of the library school's environment and to the goals of societal aspiration in general. The authors perceived a relevant curriculum as geared towards defining and meeting developmental needs and requirements through the teaching of 'appropriate' courses. To illustrate the appropriateness, Zaria teaches two main course types:

- (1) Bibliographic study of source materials on Africa (area study); and
- (2) A sociological course.

The content of the courses reflects a wide connotation of the concept of local relevance in that it digs deeply into societal concerns such as librarians' need to recognise cultural liberation and be aware of change in respect of education for national development.

Other approaches to indigenisation, which are far less ingenious and outwardly superficial are represented by the commonly used cue in examinations - 'with special reference to ...' (Nigerian situation), 'with particular emphasis on ...' and the like. If, as stated earlier, it is accepted that knowledge is a social construct, then it follows that the problems of professional practice under consideration in written examinations, essays, thesis or whatever, should be perceived as unique to the local environment. If the teaching has adequately reflected on this element during the course, then evaluation through examination will achieve original results without recourse to superficial cue such as, 'with special reference to'. Students need to be encouraged to develop aesthetic perception of trends in

the field and to apply this in their practical work situations. According to Bengé,

A consequence of cultural dependence is that perceptions are blocked or distorted so that people are prevented from seeing their own world; they are using borrowed coloured spectacles.<sup>103</sup>

The root cause of the search for relevance derives from colonial experiences which in turn affect traditional pursuits in education.

Furthermore, a common explanation for failure to indigenise aspects of the librarianship curriculum is through using a measure of excellence, which in the sociological literature is tied up as a mythical international standard that must be achieved. African educators run the risk of conceding that anything indigenous is 'inferior' while foreign traditions and specifications in the same field are considered as 'superior' and of standard. The tendency is for developing countries to be dismayed by the constraints, as Ogunsheye has found out:

Standards are ... related to the ability of the country or nation to afford the specifications. It is also significant to note that these standards which are specifications for the ideal have a dynamic relationship with sociology. They therefore change according to the financial and other economic and social conditions of the country.<sup>104</sup>

A stronger motivation in the factor of relevance should be the developmental factor of relevance to national needs and identity rather than consideration of 'ability to pay the minimum standard of excellence required'.

The inability of some educators to detach their reasoning from cultural dependency has led observers on the trend of indigenisation to make overt comments on the inability of the library schools to indigenise. For example, Bengé with good intentions, considers that:

... a major reason for this relative failure arises from an inability to appreciate what is required ... In the modern world, ideals and concepts are necessarily international and these include the principles of librarianship which have a political content rooted in various interpretations of democracy. What is rightly condemned is the attempt to transfer technology or ideals to African countries without reference to local needs and circumstances. Basic theory is international; its interpretation is not.<sup>105</sup>

The political content of librarianship which Bengé considers as 'rooted in various interpretations of democracy', is seldom realised nor admitted by contributors to the analysis of relevance. Theoretical suppositions derived from foreign ideals are but offshoots of cultural dependency; they may or may not be international.

Similarly, Tjoumas and Hauptman<sup>106</sup> citing Nigerian studies on "non-traditional" (i.e. European) approach to public library service, discover that the ultimate aim of the persistent efforts towards indigenisation is to transform the librarian from a member of an advantaged group serving the elite into a servant of the people. According to the authors, the key to this transformation is trifurcate:

- (1) the potential librarian must be educated so that he will be capable of performing his tasks; further, he must be stimulated to desire to do so;
- (2) the attitude of the educators must indicate that library work with the disadvantaged is both honourable and professionally rewarding; and,
- (3) the monetary compensation that librarians receive for this difficult job must be commensurate with the salaries of academic and special librarians. <sup>107</sup>

Interpretations differ as to who is 'disadvantaged' in the community. Unfortunately, the authors did not address themselves properly to defining the specific group of clientele they have in mind. No one wishes to be 'disadvantaged' in any society either as a minority group or a pressure group. The work of Obi,<sup>108</sup> which the authors relied heavily upon, refers to the rural community who cannot be called 'disadvantaged' due to the nature of their location and activities in the society. Surely, there are other potent factors that could beneficially be examined in the context of local relevance.

#### 7.3.6.2 Some examples

Having analysed the issues and approaches to indigenisation in library and information studies, it is perhaps important now to concentrate on few examples where training is designed to suit local needs.

The IDUPOM<sup>109</sup> Research project is a case in point, based on heuristic information and professional relevance (with particular emphasis on Selective Dissemination of Information - S.D.I. - services) in Nigerian civil service. The characteristics of development information was used to determine the content of the project. These

characteristics are derived from the assumption that: most 'Third World' countries having found themselves in a 'world development order' have no alternative but to make the most of their available resources for better improvement of their social systems. For instance, in determining the characteristics of civil servants' information needs, Aiyepoku states:

... it would obviously be more helpful to know in detail the information needs of Nigerian civil servants than some universal knowledge of the information needs of a civil servant stereotype<sup>110</sup>.

Thus, among Nigerian civil servants, it has been possible to identify the following categories of potential information seekers/users according to the orientation of their functions:

- (1) Policy-makers with respect to socio-economic development at governmental and non-governmental levels, nationally and internationally;
- (2) Planners of socio-economic development project and programmes, including those responsible for the formulation of social and economic indicators; forecasting and pre-investment studies; technological-economic and social surveys, including the scanning of the socio-economic and socio-political environment; and assessment and performance evaluation of projects and programmes;
- (3) Managers of development projects and programmes in the field and in central authorities;
- (4) Researchers and teachers of socio-economic development subjects and those involved in management of research projects and programmes;
- (5) Financiers who provide resources and technical co-operation for development projects and programmes. Likewise those who provide consultancy and advisory services;
- (6) Communicators who attempt to convey information about development policies, plans, programmes and projects in easily assimilated language to the population at large or to particular segments of it;
- (7) Personnel concerned with information analysis and products thereof (i.e. monographs, data compilations, trend reports, forecasts, etc.) as support service to those involved in the types of work mentioned in (1) to (6).<sup>111</sup>

The spectrum of potential users, the project refers to as "development community". Local needs on development information are self-generating; the community has itself produced or caused to be produced various

kinds of information under the generic title of 'Government documents'. The IDUPOM Project is an attempt to create an information system which can maximise information input in policy decision-making process of development planning. Apart from introducing the use of SDI service to retrieve information from development literature, the Project failed to suggest ways of organising the local materials for effective dissemination to users.

Another example of attempts at relevance in librarianship is as contained in Aboyade's paper<sup>112</sup> presented at the FID/Education and Training Technical Meeting held at Ibadan in 1981. The paper dealt with the state of documentation in rural development and how information transfer could be facilitated. The author argues that within the world-wide information systems network for agriculture, such as: AGRIS, it is possible for information materials which are locally generated either through research or other activities, to be stored and then transferred to users, nationally and internationally. In national terms, the rural people whose main occupation is farming agricultural products, would benefit substantially from such effective communication system. At present, Aboyade points out quite rightly the missing communication link which is due to the fact that, 'appropriate information borne out of an intimate understanding and knowledge of the prevailing conditions in specific rural communities may be lacking'<sup>113</sup>. Nigeria, as one of the first countries to join the AGRIS system, has not effectively exploited the resources of the system, like other countries such as Tunisia and Egypt. One could have expected Professor Aboyade's paper to go a step further by suggesting measures that should be taken in order to facilitate access to information by non-literate rural farmers.

Perhaps other examples of actual and potential indigenisation areas of the librarianship curriculum are best illustrated under specific subject categories, although its wider scope is already covered in section 7.5 "evaluation". Benge, in a recent study<sup>114</sup>, specified some topics which the present writer will now consider under the appropriate headings:

#### Library history

Indigenisation does not imply automatic discard of comparative study of overseas institutions such as the history of librarians in

Babylonia, ancient Rome, Greece, in the European Middle Ages, or present-day USA or USSR. As a library educator in Nigeria observes:

... (students) conclude that we can achieve local relevance by increasing the number of details about their own history and by limiting the amount of time to be spent on the rest; that is not what we mean by indigenisation.<sup>115</sup>

The study of history in relation to overseas institutions is relevant, not so much as to learn what should be done, but to learn from the country's own mistakes. Thus, the study of history is not in the first instance a guide to action but a key to understanding both the universal past and present, i.e. including the indigenous present. It will augur well for the new zest of librarians, who have begun the process of collecting, organising, and disseminating the intellectual contents of Nigeria's oral tradition and history, to study in greater detail elements of local and national history so as to provide a more relevant service to the community. The cultural function of libraries in the society cannot be performed satisfactorily without detailed reference to, and proper understanding of the place of history. The study of overseas institutions should act as a supplementary focus from which to measure national links with the international community. Thus, any move to strengthen the content of the curriculum with regards to library history in terms of its evolution in Nigeria and the inter-connecting international events which have helped to shape that history, should be a welcome innovation. One cannot look into the future without understanding the past and the present. The main philosophy is guided, not by nationalistic feelings, but by a pertinent desire to create conditions suitable for professional relevance in the community of which the library is an important part.

#### Library management

In this subject, most of the materials used for teaching are from overseas as Nzotta's<sup>116</sup> detailed analysis shows. Even though it is questionable whether the orthodox theories of management are appropriate to Nigerian circumstances, it seems at present that little can be done to radicalise the predominance of foreign ideals. This is due to extraneous problems of lack of documentation of indigenous experiences in the field on the part of practitioners and educators alike. The fact remains, that in Nigeria, the 'principles' of management proceed from invalid assumptions which are not part of management

theory but derive from social conditions in other countries. Thus, the principles of management, when transformed to a different environment are not wrong but irrelevant, and education which ignores these differences in social reality cannot be said to be indigenous. This view is consistent with the observations of Berge, a former library school professor in Nigeria, who in a recent article<sup>117</sup> argued the problems of finding suitable materials for teaching 'scientific library management', from local experiences, such as social and psychological factors. The problems may be there, but the possibilities of indigenising the library management curriculum offer great scope for optimism as project work for students, consultancy projects and other research, and increasing documentation in the field tend to illustrate.

### Book selection

The emphasis on evaluation of books in areas such as: children literature, recreation reading, and development literature, vary significantly from those of other countries. The objective is to enable the librarian to promote imaginative experience in children through indigenous literature which reflect the course of events, folklore, and culture in the children's environment. Furthermore, the librarian could help to develop recreational reading habits in individuals through a knowledge of indigenous novel literature. Thus, popular readership would depart from foreign historical novels or other writings which derive from a different cultural setting, and concentrate on locally generated events in the people's culture and life-styles.

The basic universal principles of 'selection' and general collection development procedures are, however, important features that need to be retained, constantly reviewed, and applied in library situations which present a less radical front for indigenous participation. For instance, in book selection, the training of librarians for university, college, or special library services will tend to emphasise the theoretical precepts than would be the case for public, national or state librarianship where local needs tend to influence the selection process in the promotion of socio-cultural values.

### 7.3.7 Summary

The concept of 'relevance' has been examined in the context of: socio-economic phenomena, in particular Nigeria's education system:

and, specifically, in relation to curricula provision in professional library and information studies. The educational and developmental factors of relevance which have been examined show an unrelenting trend towards indigenisation in the cases cited. The search for relevance thus implies re-orientation of national values within the overall concept of 'professionalism'; not to detract from the quality and standards of professional service but to add, for its enrichment, local tradition and culture. In addition to being a process of individuation, modern education is a process of universalisation, and professionalism, as it applies to all fields of activity, should take account of the factor of relevance so as not to alienate universal principles of knowledge from existing local tradition and values.

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#### 7.4 PHILOSOPHY OF EDUCATION FOR LIBRARIANSHIP :

*Of all professions, that of the librarian is probably the most derivative and synthetic, is the most dependent upon the more formal disciplines for the derivation of its own theoretical structure and its corpus of practice. In the past, librarians have been disposed to view this characteristic as a fundamental weakness, and it has therefore generated a considerable feeling of professional inferiority. Yet this very quality has given librarianship a uniquely strategic position of leadership in the integration of human knowledge, and it could make of librarianship a great unifying force, not only in the world of scholarship, but also throughout all human life.*

*- Jesse H. Shera (1972) <sup>1</sup>*

#### 7.4.1. INTRODUCTION

In William Maidment's The professions: librarianship, the philosophy of librarianship was viewed and presented wholly from public libraries' perspective thereby indicating assumed aims and attitudes of librarians to the work they do.<sup>2</sup> This basis for presenting librarians' work and their attitudes to the outside observer seems to be common in the literature, with other professions such as teaching, law, medicine, and the clergy being used by writers to draw comparison with librarianship. For example, Broadfield,<sup>3</sup> Butler,<sup>4</sup> Emery,<sup>5</sup> and Grimshaw,<sup>6</sup> among others, have distinctly professed the cultural function of the library mainly from the public service viewpoint perhaps to the obvious neglect of the educational function of the library and its probity for important access to information.

Butler, for instance, formulated statements like:

the cultural motivation of librarianship is<sup>7</sup> the promotion of wisdom in the individual and the community.

Though the use of 'wisdom' is lacking in clarity it can only imply, based on the cultural factor, an understanding of the society in which an individual lives. The library is therefore presented clearly as a public warehouse of knowledge which is not strictly subject-based, i.e. in terms of actual contribution to knowledge, but merely as a general purpose facility for the seeking of leisure. This is perhaps understandable in mid-20<sup>th</sup> century librarianship but attitudes of this kind have persisted. Emery, in his contribution adds that:

... a philosophy of librarianship could critically examine beliefs ... the basis upon which libraries exist, that is conceptions of their nature in relation to society in general; and the relationship of librarianship to other branches of knowledge (my emphasis).<sup>8</sup>

The latter part of the quotation as emphasised above implies specialisation. The bases of modern librarianship is inextricably linked with changes in society's need for information and the means of making such information available for the enhancement of knowledge.<sup>9 - 11</sup> Thus it is possible to derive an assumption that libraries have a generic relationship with the world of learning.

As man acquires more and more knowledge about the world around him, he inevitably preserves it in documents which have to be organised, stored, and retrieved in order to generate learning. This element of the overall philosophy of librarianship paves the way for a proper insight into the philosophy of education for librarianship.

However, the "public service" image of the library profession is not being totally dispensed with here as its central issue can be used to show the fundamental difference in the present writer's approach to the subject. Writers like Grimshaw submit that:

Librarianship is cleaning up after toddlers and/or dogs, the former who forgot to tell mummy they wanted to go and the latter who have wandered in to inspect the library without the benefit of an owner ...

Librarianship is improving one's vocabulary ... not from the less refined readers or the children from 'poor' homes but from the books that one is offering as part of 'culture' to the literature-thirsting populace of the area ...

Librarianship is being interrupted at least a dozen times whilst trying to 'do' the monthly statistics.<sup>12</sup>

Grimshaw's observation is applicable only to small or branch libraries but the parallel effect is the same because in most cases, at present, the library staff are more likely to be well-educated and qualified as graduates. This "public" perception of librarians influences, sometimes adversely, the factor of status recognition. It is clear that there is more to the intellectual content of librarianship than it is portrayed in the above quotations. The question arises as to how this is reflected in the planning and implementation of library education programmes, i.e. the central issue of the field's classification in the academic cadre; the function of education in the library profession; the knowledge-base of the discipline; its resource support unit; and, its universality ('home' or 'abroad'). These elements need to be linked from a philosophical viewpoint in order to demonstrate that the rationale for library education need not be measured tacitly by functions performed in the field but by the educational preparedness of the librarian and the ability to relate this to his task variables. To this end, a consideration of the philosophy of education for librarianship is a vital adjunct to the study of library professionalism.

#### 7.4.1.1 SOME DEFINITIONS

In this work wherever the term "librarianship" is used, it is meant to be read in its broadest sense i.e. as including the relevant concepts of information 'science' and documentation in general; wherever the term "libraries" is used, the current models of media centres, learning or educational resource centres,

information, documentation, and referral centres are also assumed. The specification of both terms as emphasised here is necessary in order to avoid the cumbersome process of repeating the entire gamut of variations and expansions often incurred in the professional literature.

Equally it is important to establish a working definition of "philosophy" as it will relate to education for librarianship. The present writer submits that no philosophical issue solitarily exists in a vacuum. Usually such issue is connected to the primary source of the general concept of philosophy and within the purview of the appropriate subject field being considered.

Thus, when viewed on the basis of all known disciplines "philosophy" is the pursuit of wisdom and knowledge, i.e. 'the knowledge of the causes and laws of all things' (OED). It is an art which purposefully sets out the principles underlying any department of knowledge; philosophy therefore provides the basis for theoretical derivation from principles and practice of the discipline.

The central question of whether libraries (and librarianship) has ultimate philosophy of its own is a subject of emotive debate in the professional literature but this is not the main concern here. It is possible and in fact enriching for a philosophy of librarianship to be diversified in its perspectives, and these can be made manifest through the formulation of hypotheses such as : 'libraries help promote individual attainment through adult education', 'libraries profess the aims of civilisation', 'libraries promote culture', and that 'libraries, as learning forum, are quint-essential to higher education and research' - the list of such hypotheses may be unlimited. For instance, other conceptions evolve from formulating library's relationship with business, politics, and society as a whole, other than purely in terms of educational function.

Against this background, one may assume the existence of varying philosophy in librarianship and a model (for example, of library education) or models (for example, of the custodian, humanitarian, promoter, documentalist roles of the library) may be predicated to describe the appropriate philosophy in a distinct manner. In the context of library education, therefore, philosophy implies a system of theories on the nature of the principles and practice of education for librarianship as experienced both by staff and students of library schools.

The definition as provided here portrays the socialisation that

takes place in the community of staff and students in schools of librarianship in terms of: available choice of course and place of study; the indispensable tradition that the schools and the professors pass on values; the norms and objectives which lead student librarians to identify with the profession; and, the library schools' approach to curriculum development as demonstrated by the content - 'academic' (i.e. general education) and 'professional' (i.e. core and specialised options' study of librarianship). These elements are indicative of the broad perspective of philosophy of library education.

#### 7.4.1.2 OBJECTIVE AND SCOPE OF STUDY

The work in this section is designed not to emphasise normative analysis of philosophy of librarianship, but to identify the prevailing philosophy in the education system of the library profession, with emphasis on Nigeria wherever practicable. The scope is confined to critical examination of the factors customarily dismissed as problems but nevertheless requiring urgent clarification. Such factors include:

- clarification on the faculty status, hence classification, of librarianship in the university system, i.e. in the system of the sciences, art, or humanities;
- the function of professional education in the system of the library profession;
- a clarification of the 'knowledge-base' theory and how librarianship features as in other disciplines;
- the 'universality' of library education and its dysfunction in terms of location of study, i.e. 'home' or 'abroad';
- the importance and functioning of resource support units or centres in the library schools visited.

The nature of librarianship practice and the intellectual content of its formal courses confer on the library schools unlimited monopoly in the educational preparation and certification of competence both of the generalist and specialist staff with subject qualification from other disciplines but who seek or desire professional qualification to enable them to work in libraries. In this respect a framework is provided in this section to take account of the processes of socialisation which directly or indirectly influence the professionalisation of education for librarianship

within the overall concept of library professionalism.

#### 7.4.2 THE 'CLASSIFICATION' FACTOR

In general, library schools are of the same genre everywhere but due to different emphasis in philosophy the schools' programmes are in most cases variously presented in form and content. Even where the title of courses are similarly styled, the content always seems to differ in emphasis. This can hardly be surprising as the problem of attaching the library school to a specific faculty in the system of the sciences, arts, or humanities is rather fragmented world-wide. For instance, existing library schools are Departments in their own rights both within the university system and other higher education establishments such as colleges and polytechnics. But the crucial point is that they are all linked differently with Faculty or School : Social Sciences; Education; Education and Humanities; Arts; and, Communication and Modern Languages.

Consequently, there are varying degree nomenclatures in the field of librarianship such as, "Bachelor of Library Science" (or 'Studies'); "Bachelor of Arts in Librarianship"; "Bachelor of Arts in Library Science"; "Bachelor of Science" (Library Studies); and a complex array of similar structure in Masters and Doctoral programmes. As the evaluation of undergraduate programmes reveals in Section 7.5 of this study, the structure of the courses indicates that through the studies of a mainly vocational degree, students receive a liberal education which prepares them not only for librarianship but other careers as well. Thus the Batesonian<sup>13</sup> view that librarianship is not a degree-worthy discipline is both curious and inaccurate.

'Inaccurate' thought it may seem, but elements of Batesonian conservatism still persists today. For instance, according to Benge:

At a deeper level and without reference to particular countries it has to be recognised that there is something inherent in library and information work which renders it less urgent or vital than the activities of doctors or lawyers, or even priests. ...Like teachers, librarians are embedded in the foundations of the cultural process; their tragedy is that they ought to be most notice-able when they are not there, but in many countries this does not happen.<sup>14</sup>

This kind of situation, as described in Benge's claims, calls for a good deal of insight into the precise nature of the educational programmes designed for librarians, and in addition the task perform-

ance of librarians need to be related also to their intellectual level of preparedness to handle complex information materials. It is only in this way that the professional rating of the librarian can at present be determined, bearing in mind the multifarious nature of his clients. This theme is taken up further in a related survey conducted by the present writer in the chapter on professionalism.

Meanwhile, in referring to library education in Nigeria in terms of curriculum development, Benge suggests further that the type of programme to be introduced in Nigeria's new library schools - apart from Ibadan and Zaria - 'will be largely determined by factors which are not strictly academic and this is how it should be'.<sup>15</sup> Again, Benge's prescription remains unclear and the conclusions that can be drawn from the evaluation conducted in this present work, based on the programmes of the new schools as well as the old ones, certainly suggest to the contrary of Benge's expectations. This begs the vexed question of the intellectual content of librarianship and its "right" kind of knowledge 'classification' in the academic context.

Writing historically on the concept of 'modern librarianship', White seems to be in no doubt as to what kind of education is required:

Limits were being reached beyond which the mind could not keep up with or fully utilize the learning that was accumulating without relying upon the specialty which the library profession was to rise to handle ... It was up to somebody to assemble, organize, and make available this expanding record of the mind. It could no longer be done by private individuals who took on the responsibility as a side job while doing other things. To develop this emerging specialty in scale with the times, library service would have to be organized and supported along the lines of other public responsibilities like police protection, formal schooling, and public health. High standards of service would be required for all classes of people, of all ages, and steady financing in terms of program needs would be called for.<sup>16</sup>

From the above quotation, one can deduce that librarianship is perceived as a public utility for which no great educational preparation is required for the professional staff. However, in 1964, when White's statement was made, librarianship was experiencing accelerated changes in its education system. Many institutions began to offer degree courses in librarianship; the demands on the profession was also changing significantly with technological innovations and rapid expansion in the higher education system as a whole. There were also considerable advances in major fields of

activity, such as in business and industry. This resulted in a more sophisticated and information-conscious society eager to take advantage of library services. Furthermore, there has been an unprecedented increase in publishing all over the world coupled with developments in the field of information technology, increase in literacy, and the resultant growth in the complexity of documentation and information needs. Therefore, the tradition of librarianship no longer seem to reside merely in 'public utility' sense but can also be observed to encompass other vital elements of communication at all stages and levels of activity.

The organisation of the library profession itself has made significant progress in the past two decades. It has grown in influence and stature and successfully negotiated public policy and maintained standardisation in such areas as training and continuing education. As learning advanced and became increasingly specialised, this was reflected in the professional associations and in their journal output. Though these specialised journals were designed to meet the needs of their immediate clientele, the wider dissemination of such publication brought the innovations and discoveries of the field to the scholars of another, and thus made possible the development of social cohesion among groups, the members of which, might otherwise have found communication difficult.

In the light of professional developments described above the classification of librarianship requires to be clarified in the academic system. This will enhance better understanding of the function of professional education and in addition illuminate the knowledge-base criterion of library professionalism.

#### 7.4.2.1 "SCIENCE", "ART", OR "TECHNIQUE"?

The problem of classifying librarianship in a particular branch of learning can be rather complicated due to the interdisciplinary nature of the profession. Regardless of this fact, public recognition and hence the status of the profession seem to reflect the uncertainty as to whether librarianship is an 'art' (skills), 'science', or 'technique' (craft).

As the opening quotation<sup>1</sup> at the beginning of this work shows, the knowledge required of the librarian is derivative and synthetic, based upon the more formal disciplines drawn from academic subjects such as: history, psychology, logic, mathematics, sociology, and

education. The requirements for such knowledge in library and information work, are fundamental to the process of selection of content in librarianship curriculum. The curriculum therefore contains both the academic and professional elements integrated for the purpose of preparing the student for a career, having attained a liberal education background in librarianship.

(1) As an art, librarianship, like any other profession, is a composite of theory and practice, i.e. knowledge and skills, and the one without the other is barren and sterile. Shera<sup>17</sup> argues that if librarians have anything of importance to contribute to the culture of their society it must be transmitted by those special skills that they have developed through centuries of practice. Such interaction of 'special skills' often result when transmitted to other disciplines via scholastic exchange. In the province of art all skill relates to a system of some kind, for example, to a coherent set of quantities, properties, and relationships which have been, or may be abstracted from the totality of the environment.

The successful exercise of any skill depends upon the ability to create an abstract system from the complexities that comprise the real world in which the practitioner is operating. By implication, the skill of the librarian will depend upon his ability to abstract a system from the intellectual, emotional, social, and physical world around him, i.e. the world he "serves", be it that of the housebound or other outreach services, the college student, the business man or industry experts, of the general public, or of the scholar in all kinds of institutions and research centres.

Communication of information thus becomes essential to the librarian's system where 'information' is to be understood as written or unwritten records of human minds which are made manifest through a maze of intellectual activity. An example of skill that can be acquired by the librarian is in recording transcripts, storing and dissemination of the intellectual content of oral history. This form of intricate pattern of communications reflects the abstraction of librarianship and the peculiar skill of the librarian can be sought.

(2) As a 'science', the general understanding of librarianship by those who profess the "science" terminology seems baffling. One is tempted to enquire what the 'science' is in "library science". The usage of the term is shrouded in a quagmire of mystery. Librarianship is no exception to the mysteries of terminology. Line<sup>18</sup> estimates that the mystique of librarianship is possibly stronger

than its mystery. He submits that:

All professions gather around themselves a mystique. One way of persuading the world that one's job is a profession is to require an initiation ceremony, often of considerable length and difficulty, and to surround the job with an impenetrable air of mystery. Manifestations of mystique are not hard to find. Examination papers in librarianship would quickly frighten off any non-librarian, if only by the terminology used. Professional conferences, where acronyms are commonly bandied about at a fearful rate, are another manifestation. One of the most pervasive mystifications is the misuse of 'information science', a perfectly good term for the theory and study of information,<sup>19</sup> in the sense of 'practical information work in industry ...

Probable clues to the mystery of 'science' in library studies are there in the above quotation but these are inconclusive. Khan however addresses the problem differently by stating:

In the last quarter of the nineteenth century there was a trend to call any human activity where some literature had accumulated a 'science' particularly in non-English speaking countries like Germany, France, and USSR. This was hardly relevant in the English speaking world where science was considered (as) comprising of observations made by performing experiments, formulating hypotheses and theories and employing the tools of mathematics and formal logic. The term 'science' however enjoyed some prestige. 'Library Economy' was therefore changed to 'library science' without much of opposition from the academicians. This change did not, however, mean that scientific methods had been applied to the study of libraries. It merely enhanced the prestige of the profession<sup>20</sup> to bring it at par with medical and engineering professions.

It would seem practical to suggest, from the foregoing considerations, that the term 'science' has been introduced into librarianship mainly to enhance the status of the qualifications which the term describes.

Librarianship within the system of the sciences has attracted the attention of many experts in the field in various countries. Butler suggests that the intellectual content of librarianship consists of the following:

- 1) It deals with things (materials) and principles that must be scientifically handled;
- 2) with processes and apparatus that require special understanding and skills for their operation;
- 3) with cultural motivations that can be apprehended only humanistically.<sup>21</sup>

Of particular relevance to this analysis is the "scientific" handling of library materials. If, by implication, this includes the processing of information and its retrieval using modern technology, then there is a de facto case for that element of 'science' in librarianship. One may augment this factor with the tasks of compiling bibliography, indexing and abstracting of science materials.

V Cubarian,<sup>22</sup> in representing the views of Soviet experts in a report, suggests that librarianship is inter-related with other sciences. He contends that the strengthening and broadening of the inter-relationship of librarianship with other sciences, and their possible integration, has three aims<sup>23</sup> (these are discussed in seriatim):

- (i) The definition of the problems of library research against the broad background of the achievements, conclusions, and theoretical propositions of other sciences.

This view as presented in (i) above is supported mainly by Soviet experience where it was found that the successes of sociology (for example) have enabled librarians to study readers from a special point of view, and to conduct library research in conjunction with problems such as the socio-demographic composition of society, the use of leisure, and the people's use of mass communication media. It was further suggested that the influence of science reflected on the problem of library and bibliographical information retrieval systems which depend upon modern technology. This trend was set as a result of developments in electronic computer science. Further involvement of the sciences with library processes emerged from the scientific elaboration of the distribution of library networks which have become possible mainly as a result of its integration with the achievements of various social sciences, especially on such problems as the dynamics and social structure of the population, and urbanisation.

- (ii) The use of research methods of various sciences to raise the level of library theory.

The wide use of the research methods of other sciences has generally raised theoretical standards in librarianship and this factor had decidedly influenced library research by overcoming the speculative character of some of its conclusions and propositions. Methods identified include the use of questionnaires, interviewing, 'social experiment', and expert evaluation.

- (iii) The use of factual material, conclusions, and propositions obtained from librarianship for the enrichment of other sciences.

Sociological applications of reading habits, readers' interests, and the spiritual life of the community - all derived from conclusions of library research.

An overview of V Cubarian's paper seems to place librarianship firmly in the system of the social sciences although there are elements from the nature of librarianship which suggest that an inter-relationship exists with the science of communication, i.e. information technology. This is pertinent at a time when the tradition of

library practice are being urgently re-examined in the light of growth in modern technology and its impact on library and information work. The librarian, archivist, and information officer, will need to be educationally equipped to accept this challenge and responsibility. They need also to be prepared to exploit the materials and resources of a modern library and resource centre both in terms of scientific and social utility.

(3) As a 'technique' (Craft); the portrayal of librarianship as a craft fits Grimshaw's description as quoted earlier in Section 7.4.1

Librarians working in rural or suburban libraries are likely to be less challenged with urgent tasks and usually under the circumstances there is a fusion of professional and non-professional duties as the 'professional' may very well be an administrator, cleaner, technician, and readers' adviser, in conjunction with doing his professional tasks. In most cases where this situation arises, collection development is usually centralised in the system i.e. from the parent library, and all that the branch librarian and his assistants do is to fulfil the clerical and other routines according to their own schedule. The activities carried out in this kind of libraries can be learned effectively on-the-job without the undue necessity of a formal education and training. Nevertheless, the library clientele revere their "librarian" and they are only too grateful to him for any assistance he may render in the course of their enquiries.

In advanced countries of Europe and North America for instance, it is not unusual to find graduate employees in libraries of the type described above. The present writer's recent experience on a visit to France and West Germany has influenced the viewpoint expressed here. In Britain too, some graduates for various reasons such as unemployment, matrimonial and maternal factors, and regional mobility, choose to work in the quiet of the suburban library. However, as West African experience shows, many library workers, especially in the French-speaking regions, are termed as "librarians" regardless of the level or quality of qualification status of the staff.<sup>24</sup> This is still a dilemma for the library profession, which is struggling at present to define the parameters of professional and non-professional duties in libraries.

The professional literature is indicative of the mistrust felt by some writers<sup>25, 26, 27</sup> as to whether librarianship is not indeed a 'technique'. According to Butler,

... the librarian's self-identification has been retarded by

another error. Persuaded of his own professional status, he has always been inclined to imitate the outward forms of the other professions before attaining the corresponding internal development.<sup>28</sup>

The problem, as Butler has stated, arose from a consideration of the inception of education for librarianship in North America. The main purpose of the "founding fathers" was to provide vocational training. However, they were also influenced by the idea that librarianship should have its professional schools because the other professions have theirs. Library education was therefore conceived of as primarily a training in the "niceties" of cataloguing and classification with the attendant result that a core curriculum became crystallized which even by 1950's standard, resists dissolution and makes educational reforms more difficult than they should be. In this context, librarians have developed a simplistic view of the demands of their job and therefore of the kind of training required. Some writers such as Messenger<sup>29</sup> and Jesson<sup>30</sup> criticise the library schools for being too theoretical and less inclined to teach the rudiments of practice, factors which they claim are in the best interests of the student who is more than likely to face such problems in his job.

Jesson for instance, observes that

For far too long, we have taught and examined in 'education' and allowed 'training' to be picked up on the job ... Education is thought of as 'professional', training as mechanical; the two as mutually exclusive.<sup>31</sup>

Clearly an assessment of this nature is in disregard of the primary function of the library schools, i.e. to educate students who are aspiring to become full-fledged professionals. The library schools are also aware of their responsibility concerning training and this is reflected in the curriculum as indicated in the section on evaluation.

Having considered the problem of classification a positive determination of "librarianship" and "library science" in the realm of academics remains pertinent.

Dean, in his seminal work Planning library education programmes, examined the nature and objectives of librarianship and derived a working definition of the discipline as:

the professional discipline concerned with the accumulation, storage and transfer of recorded knowledge.<sup>32</sup>

From this definition Dean views the goal of library education as being,

to produce a person of general competence in the theories and techniques associated with library studies, a good educational

background, a willingness to serve his community and the courage to defend his professional convictions with tenacity.<sup>33</sup>

In pursuance of this goal the positive contribution of the library schools to professional development in terms of manpower and innovation of services, cannot be underestimated. However, a comprehensive definition of the processes of librarianship is as stated in IFLA's 1976 Standards for library schools in which "librarianship" is defined as:

The profession that is concerned with the systematic organisation of knowledge in all its various formats and its dissemination for the purpose of preserving the society's cultural heritage, promoting scholarship and the generation of new knowledge. The practitioners employ the skills and processes of library science, documentation and information science to make graphic records available to meet the specific needs of its clientele according to the level of service required.<sup>34</sup>

The term "library science" evolves from this definition as a separate entity of its own. When probed further in the Standards "library science" is described as,

The study of the principles and skills of processes and operations for systematic organisation of societies' intellectual heritage in the form of graphic and non graphic records in libraries. It is also concerned with creating ready access to these records and the maximization of their use by matching clientele and appropriate record.<sup>35</sup>

Thus, from these two definitions cited above, librarianship is portrayed as 'the profession' and library science as 'the study' of the principles and processes of the profession. This is consistent with the latest description of library science as entered in the United Nations Bibliographic Information System (UNBIS) Thesaurus, 1981:

The branch of learning concerned with collecting, storing and distributing written or printed records by means of libraries and of the management of libraries.<sup>36</sup>

The description provides suitable explanation for the 'science' that is in 'library science'. It can also be inferred that whatever title is adopted in course descriptions e.g. BLib., B.L. Science, B.L. Studies or whatever, the concept is broadly the same. Traditional librarianship is in transition and its new elements avail the professional, complex skills and specialized knowledge that could only be systematically implanted in the library schools. The horizon of library practice has been widened by events to enhance the status of the librarian to that of information professional or manager, while the information scientist will be the core of specialists in practice.

### 7.4.3 THE FUNCTION OF PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION

Professional education has been described variously by different writers in the literature but at least on one cardinal point, -there seems to be unanimous agreement - that professional education has three basic functions within the concept of professionalism. These include,

- (a) It systematically determines who enters the profession and what qualifications and educational standards they must meet to qualify for professional practice;
- (b) it provides formal teaching and learning situation of which the most important purpose is to provide students who seek to qualify with an understanding of the mission and practice of the profession.
- (c) it supplies the profession with qualified people, provides continuing education, defines the objectives of the profession and anticipates its future needs through a comprehensive feedback system of its own activity.

In general, professional education prognosticates trends in professional development through its research channel, although this is by no means the only basis for stimulating developments in the profession.

Churchwell suggests that:

Professional education for an occupation has always been a subsequent development of the occupation itself. As the knowledge of an occupation accumulate and its techniques became more complex, the methods of education evolved from that of apprenticeship programs, the earliest and simplest form of professional education, to the highly organized professional school. Professional education has become, therefore, the most widely used method of transmitting knowledge and techniques of an occupation from the skilled practitioner and theoretician to the unskilled beginner.<sup>37</sup>

Library practice was in existence even before the establishment of the first library school in North America, U.K., and Nigeria. In fact, in the case of Nigeria the profession was already consolidated in function by the time the Ibadan library school opened its doors for the first time in 1960. In this context, it is certainly appropriate to state, as Churchwell has done, that professional education is a subsequent development of an occupation.

It is significant to mention that professional education has, since the beginning of the twentieth century, invariably become associated with higher education. In an attempt to determine its nature within the higher education system McGlothlin considers that:

Professional education is the most complex and difficult of all forms of higher education. Professional schools cannot be

content merely with transmitting knowledge, although knowledge is important to them; they must make sure that the<sup>38</sup> graduates are both knowledgeable and competent to practice.

The practical orientation of most professional courses has willy-nilly been some form of hinderance to its early acceptability into the university system.<sup>39</sup> However, it is characteristic of professional education not to begin at a lower level institution other than that afforded in the higher education system. Therefore ensuring that professional education prepares students "competently" for practice is an obligation on the part of the institution, though more pressing issues of developing knowledge seem primarily to be the urgent task-in-hand for the schools.

To the independent observer, professional education represents, 'all that education which prepares (students) for professional calling or employment'.<sup>40</sup> This implies an all-inclusive interpretation of the phenomenon in that professional education may be differentiated, on the one hand, from vocational education which relates to those employments not generally recognised as professions, and on the other hand, from general (liberal) education which has no specific practical application in view.

However, the latest trend for professional schools working within university establishments is to orientate their education system (especially at the undergraduate level) towards preparing students to receive a liberal education, through the study of a mainly vocational degree.<sup>42</sup> While most students enter the information field, for example, a degree in archive, library or information studies can serve as a preparation for other careers.<sup>41</sup>

The responsibility of professional education is therefore not only to function, in Conant's phrase, as 'the natural gatekeepers of the profession',<sup>43</sup> but also to prepare students liberally so that they are able to comprehend the world within the terms of their professional education and training.

As already indicated in the section on evaluation in this present work, progress is visibly being made in many library schools in respect of harmonisation of the curriculum which incorporates teaching of the elements of archive, library, and documentation studies in an integrated fashion. This process of education is not new but it serves to mesh the much-desired theory with practical developments in the field. Saunder's observation in this respect is pertinent:

The firmer the theoretical framework the easier it will be to teach library and information science at the level of principles

rather than through a detailed description of practice.<sup>44</sup> But practice in any profession is the raison d'être of its education system. The present trend is for most library schools to offer full-time programme of courses, but the important 'fieldwork' element as a corollary to education, still requires wider definition in relation to theoretical derivations of the principles and practice of the discipline. For instance it could be necessary to provide training facilities which will enhance deeper and more specialised knowledge of skills as librarians' need for them becomes apparent. However, the constraint on the library schools especially in the developing countries is as always that of cost.

It is also the function of professional education to provide intellectual leadership in the profession. If this hypothesis sounds like 'preaching to the converted', it may be illuminating to find out why in universal terms the professionals always seem to be at loggerheads with the educators who are responsible for supplying the service with qualified staff. The mandatory requirement of intellectual leadership is for professional schools to preserve and pass on existing knowledge, create new knowledge, and use both existing and new knowledge to define the objectives of the profession as best perceived. Periodically, the information thus generated are in conflict with the tradition and assumed norms in the profession because in most cases change is advocated, and sometimes the reform of the profession itself is theorised.

One possible explanation for the communication barrier is that the professionals are not eager to submit themselves and the service to the whims and caprices of intellectual prognosis and this reluctance often results in emotive debate and consequently inevitable rift between the two sides. For instance, Conant in pointing out the anti-path of service professions to change in the United States of America, observes that:

Most service professions tend to develop static organisational forms and procedures that lend stability and continuity to the function. Yet stability and continuity must from time to time give way to new discoveries and techniques that permit the profession to adapt to change. Librarianship benefits from stability and continuity in that the record of human knowledge requires procedures that guarantee against loss and destruction, but the adaption of new techniques of access are needed to balance the values of preservation and order.<sup>45</sup>

Implicit in the above quotation is the emphasis on the function of professional education to provide an intellectual disposition whereby new techniques of access may be explored, yet the tradition of practice could still be preserved within that new order.

Swanson argues that intellectual access to information can be made possible through, for example, in-depth analysis of 'indexing, subject-analysis, reference, bibliography, classification and cataloguing'.<sup>46</sup> These are areas which deal with the conceptual realms of gaining intellectual access to information. Furthermore, one may argue that the intellectual aspects of the stated library tasks can be distinguished from the vocational aspects in terms of depth other than their mere application.

However, some practitioners are of the view that the activity as described above seems like forcing intellectualism into librarianship. The library schools, though, have a responsibility to prepare their students for change if libraries as learning institutions are not prepared to innovate their methods for information retrieval and dissemination to clientele. Lancaster<sup>47</sup> has uncompromisingly suggested the disastrous consequences for libraries if they continue to resist change. Not that this is something new. In their concern to alert the librarian and information worker to the new technology, the doomsday merchants have predicted the demise of the library and information profession and the information media that these professions leave traditionally organized and made available. It is arguable that whilst the librarian and information worker must recognize the technology and environment of the present decade (1980s) and not cling to the past two or three decades, change is not as rapid as some would have the profession to believe but the position of the library schools is quite understandable as they cannot afford to take chances else in future they will incur the wrath of this same profession for "not being far-sighted" and lacking in "intellectual leadership". Besides, there is evidence in the literature<sup>48, 49</sup> to show that libraries have rightly recognized the need to respond to new technology though they may not have been very united or systematic in the nature of their responses.<sup>50, 51</sup> For example, reference libraries and information units have embraced viewdata systems like Prestel, and systems which permit them to search both bibliographic and non-bibliographic computerized databases. Therefore library schools cannot simply ignore these developments.

The library schools in providing professional education which is in consonance with current developments in the field need to take account of the several claims of writers on the future of libraries. Perhaps the point needs to be emphasised that the 'information science' element owes its present status and future

possibilities almost entirely to computer and other ancillary electronic innovations. Licklider's concept of "Symbiont"<sup>52</sup> visualised a little less than two decades ago, Landau's concept of the 'Library-in-a-desk',<sup>53</sup> and Lancaster's 'paperless information systems',<sup>54</sup> are all based on advanced computer technologies. According to Taylor, with further technological progress during the next couple of decades, a stage will be reached when the libraries of the traditional types will 'wither away, their historic duties done',<sup>55</sup> The predictions of the "prophets" on the future of library services seem possible enough, but perhaps Rowley's observation as quoted below sums up how the problem should presently be perceived:

For most people, on most occasions when they might seek information or entertainment from text, accessibility of a computerized database offers nothing to compete with a gentle stroll to the public library or neighbourhood bookshop or newsagent. Despite its limitations, the information available from these sources satisfies most users most of the time.<sup>56</sup>

It will be in the library schools interest to preserve this balance in their programmes.

#### 7.4.4 CONTROL OF LIBRARY EDUCATION

An important aspect of professional education in all disciplines is its form of control. The education system may be controlled either from within the professional schools or outside the institutions, say for example, through the general professional association working closely with the association of professional schools and educators, or a government or parastatal body set up to regulate the education system. However, with regards to librarianship, most institutions operate within the university system each of the institutions being independent and governed by different regulations. Another dimension is that whilst degrees in librarianship, as obtained for instance in U.K. Polytechnics, are subject to regulations of the academic board or the Council for National Academic Awards, the certification does not automatically guarantee that the graduate is professionally competent although sandwich courses incorporate practical elements. The accreditation remains the exclusive preserve of the profession, although nowadays the graduate librarian can seek employment without the necessity of being a 'chartered' or 'ordinary' member of the association. Even now the route towards chartered status has been narrowed through the newly-introduced Licentiate system. This form of control has various implications

for professional development and the future of library education as a whole, and this will be examined appropriately in the chapter on professionalism.

At present, the control of library education is diversified incorporating elements of pedagogics, manpower (in terms of demand and supply of librarians), and continuing education and training. However, in the literature of librarianship it is not exactly clear where the power base of control of the education system should be lodged. The library schools and educators, the general professional association, and perhaps the education authority, all stake their claims to control professional education.

Burrell considers that:

Professional education is, for the most part, firmly in the hands of the professional associations at the stages of teaching, examination, certification and accreditation. It is theirs since they created it at a time when the very few universities of any real note were institutions <sup>57</sup> for the propagation of a social, rather than a working elite.

Burrell's view no doubt relates to the United Kingdom but surely in developing countries such as Nigeria such a statement will be viewed with scepticism as the library schools in the country owe the library profession a 'political' rather than 'educational' debt. This factor per se throws the whole issue of control wide open in circumstances where the general professional association has demonstrated little or no effect on the professional education system. A few examples will suffice: the association (NLA) has no certification system of its own nor a curriculum for purposes of teaching and examination; it cannot accredit due to its lack of legal status. The fact that the Zaria library school was planned and established in 1968 without due consultation with the profession greatly enhances the point made here. Rather, the Federal Government mandated the National Library of Nigeria to initiate a course in HND Library Studies.<sup>58</sup> The courses are designed to be taught and examined not by the profession but by the colleges of technology where such programmes are to be offered. Furthermore, no viable statistics are presently available concerning the demand and supply of librarians in Nigeria - a factor which really ought to have been spear-headed by the profession. Thus, it would seem that unless the library profession re-vitalises itself in this direction the control of library education will continue to slip away from them thereby affording the library schools a free hand in pursuin their own objectives. The next decade will be a crucial one for the survival of the profession in Nigeria if factors such as membership and

education are taken into account.

However, another element of 'control' not examined in any detail here so far is the location of professional schools. There are divergent views on this issue i.e. as to whether professional schools should operate within the university system, or perhaps in colleges and polytechnics (under the control of local education authority), or whether professional education can be effectively handled by the profession itself (through external examining or internal validation in appointed institutions). Most of these routes, as stated here, are laudable and have proved practicable elsewhere. But perhaps the most enticing challenge is that of location at the universities - how does this affect recruitment into the profession? Would a university education produce 'elitist' tendency in the professional and how does this element affect his general practice, professional outlook, and job mobility? While university education is a good thing for a professional, e.g. architect, librarian, accountant, or engineer, the fact remains that independent schools such as the Nigerian Law School and the independent library school at Scandinavia are viable alternatives in support of the professional associations own education programmes.

Nigeria shares the same higher education tradition with Britain as determined by history, thus the model of investigation here is based on the British traditional university. The concept of the 'university' as a traditional centre of learning and teaching (a 'studium'), has been the focus of scholarly analysis in literature of every kind. Some considered writers seem to link past influence of early universities to current developments in university institutions. Professor Havard-Williams in his lecture (on the conferment of a doctoral degree honoris causa at Sung Kynn Kwan University, Korea 27 September (1982) relates how the evolution of the university in its formative period still influences university practice today; he argues,

At Oxford (and at Paris) there were the three superior (and incidentally vocational) faculties of theology (the Queen of the Sciences), law and medicine, while arts was the junior faculty, where students first received their basic general education. The tradition of taking a BA before any other degree still exists at Oxford and Cambridge, though the degree is no longer a 'liberal arts' degree, but nearly always an honours degree in a specific subject (from physiology to French, or German to geology). <sup>59</sup>

The 'superior' nature of traditionally vocational faculties such as theology, law, and medicine is implicit in the above quotation but, on the other hand, the 'arts' came to dominate the organisation of

the university as there were teachers of distinction particularly in philosophy and the arts at Oxford, and the graduates of the University had, according to Havard-Williams, ius ubique docendi i.e. a right to teach everywhere in Western Europe. The emphasis was thus placed on teaching. But, other than teaching, the 'liberal arts' curriculum in colleges had centred on providing the foundation for a general education depending on the level of the corresponding secondary or high school education. Certainly, many of the original library schools in the U.S.A. are attached to colleges where the American BA degree in Library Science are obtained.<sup>60</sup>

The university college system has wide implications, for example, the administration of university college create the positions of : chancellors, vice-chancellors, deans, faculties, schools, matriculation, degrees of bachelor, master, and the ultimate academic accolade of doctor - all deriving from the concept of studium generale, or the universitas magistrorum (the corporation of masters). Many of the early graduates at the University College, Ibadan took influential positions in government while others took to teaching and rose to the rank of professors with time. The university has in this way often been perceived by the Nigerian observer as centres of learning par excellence. The certificates, diplomas, and degrees obtained from university institutions have therefore been recognised for employment and teaching, thereby conferring status not only on the individual but his profession as a whole. The university thus seems to have become an inevitable tour de force for acknowledging the status of a discipline.

Unlike 'management studies', 'accountancy', 'communications' (media) - all new comers to the traditional university education system - librarianship is fortunate to have been identified, early in its formation, with the traditional university. This is due largely to the energetic influence of the "Founding Fathers" of librarianship in Nigeria such as the late Professor John Harris, F. A. Sharv, the late Harold Lancour, and John Dean all of whom contributed positively to provide a sound basis upon which the programmes of professional education are now based.

The decision to establish library schools as part of university education in Nigeria stems from the John Harris' school of thought who felt strongly with the Ibadan (1953) Seminar group that :

... library schools in Africa should require university graduation or its equivalent for admission to the programme of full-scale professional training at the leadership level.<sup>61</sup>

The author's argument follows the general belief in Africa that

university graduation seems to provide the most effective means and probably a most reliable measure for ensuring that persons aspiring to reach the highest levels of professional practice, such as in librarianship, shall be well educated individuals with formal schooling not less good than the best which the continent affords. In the light of this development, Sharr felt obliged to recommend in his 1963 Report to the Ministry of Information of the then Northern Nigeria, that a school of librarianship should be established at Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria to provide formal professional education which concentrates on undergraduate programmes leading to the award of a first degree or diploma.<sup>62</sup>

Thus it is possible to view the two concepts of 'profession' and 'university' as inter-related in terms of educational function. Control of professional education is therefore balanced as

- (a) independent control of content, teaching, and examining by the higher institutions offering librarianship programmes, and,
- (b) professional control as exerted through recruitment of educational products, changes in the nature of practice and hence changes in career structure.

The empirical basis of the model which is presented here in (a) and (b) above has been relatively explored in an article by Adams,<sup>63</sup> who contends that, in the case of the concept of a profession social changes have made many of the old criteria on professionalism obsolete. According to Adams, three of these social changes include the following (as summarised by the present writer):

- (a) Today, members of a profession instead of being solely employed to serve in the private sector, have a great majority of their membership serving in public employment, central or local, for example, teaching, medical staff, and the more recently created professions in the social services which find their main activities in local or central government. Public employment therefore is absorbing an increasing proportion of 'surveyors and architects, of actuaries and statisticians, and of the legal and engineering' professions. Adams argues further that on the basis of this revolutionary change, there must be some profound effects of the change upon all aspects of the professions - *i.e.* their recruitment, internal hierarchies, social status, discipline, and their relationships to clients. These effects are yet to be studied systematically.
- (b) the change in the institutional education structure; Adams observes that universal primary education was, in the last forty years, supplemented by compulsory secondary education, and a period in which tertiary education is becoming freely available to secondary school leavers - in universities, polytechnics, colleges of education, technical colleges, and the whole network of institutional training and education

which is developing in the binary system. The age of entry to the professions has rapidly risen with some professions like the veterinary adopting a single portal entry, a university degree, thus entrusting their primary professional qualification to the universities. Against this new educational background, the professions are having to change their recruitment policies and the standard content of their qualifying demands and to adjust themselves to a different composition in terms of social classes and traditions.

- (c) the explosion of organized knowledge, i.e the advent of specializations in the professions, some having been derived from historical accidents, such as the separation of barristers and lawyers, or the distinction between physicians and surgeons (and perhaps, one may add, between the librarian and information scientist). However, the kaleidoscopic changes in the past century lend weight to Adams' contention that these specializations have their origins mainly in 'the great explosion' of organized knowledge. Perhaps one could employ a less 'explosive' term and say simply that the situation as described portrays the 'historic advances of organized knowledge'.

It is this concern by professions, with standards and with accredited knowledge that creates the mutual interest between the 'professions' and the 'universities'. White provides a neat summary of the distinct advantages of university education for professional librarians by stating that,

University sponsorship of the education of librarians has yielded two principal benefits. It has raised the level of scholarship, introduced research and research programs in a field where nothing of the sort had existed before. Second, it has broadened the education of the operating personnel, balancing instruction in the technology of the subject with supporting instruction in other fields. Libraries are concerned with the entire spectrum of knowledge; balanced instruction thus becomes of necessity an interdepartmental task. In this respect, educating librarians is something like educating writers. Each specialty, writing just as librarianship, presupposes a certain technical competence as well as a special language and some knowledge of a particular literature all of which can be taught by a single department.<sup>64</sup>

Shera agrees that librarians require a well-rounded intellectual development. He considers that:

... the skill of the librarian will depend upon his ability to abstract a system from the intellectual, emotional, social, and physical world around him ... the basis of the librarian's system is the communication of information, where information is to be understood as any graphic manifestation of intellectual activity.<sup>65</sup>

It would seem that in the context of libraries being related to the world of learning, a philosophy of library education evolves which specifies that the prime requisite of the well-qualified librarian is a university education. Assuming that this view is accepted, the

function of a library school is therefore one of rounding off a general university education with that more specialised preparation which is essential to intelligent practice of the library profession. University education in the professions affords facilities for promoting research and development. It may be true to assert that the resilience to change in library schools' programmes has been made possible through university affiliation which helps to establish in the public, the professional status of librarianship and its 'academic respectability'. The strengthening of the curriculum and higher standards of teaching derive from contact with the rest of the academic community and accordingly with wider fields of knowledge. The dynamic occurrences in the past decade in relation to the growth of information technology is a case in point of the strengthening of the librarianship curriculum. The library schools could not have ignored this development in the field. Havard-Williams, in a forthcoming publication, describes the new challenge to librarianship as follows:

With the growing influence of automation and computerisation, the procedures in libraries have become much more complex in terms of house-keeping - acquisitions (in association with greatly increased computerisation introduced by the major periodical and book suppliers), cataloguing, classification and indexing generally, and circulation systems. More important for its long-term effect on libraries and information centres is the production of data-bases, the large number of which now equals the number of data banks. Data bases provide bibliographical details, and frequently abstracts of published materials in most of the subjects in which research is pursued, and open a new concept of information provision.<sup>86</sup>

This supports the view that professional education when conducted in the university environment can beneficially develop both the academic and professional content of the curriculum for the general advancement of library and information services. From the perspective of the old dichotomy of 'education' and 'training' it seems clear that professional education takes place in a university milieu, a locus whose residential fee is paid in the coin of theoretical emphasis. On the other hand, professional education has as its goal the pursuit of a vocation and this element can be clearly portrayed in independent educational circumstances.

#### 7.4.5 THE KNOWLEDGE-BASE THEORY AND LIBRARIANSHIP

In the sociological literature, the core of the commonly

accepted criteria on professionalism resides in the "knowledge-base" theory. Usually, a profession is service-oriented, but the intellectual knowledge of its practitioners and the factors of skills which have been developed and theoretically derived, form the basis of practice in the profession. As competence in the skill must be demonstrated by passing a test in order that the practice of the profession be restricted, knowledge becomes "internalised" in the course of professional development. It is this intellectual ingredient which defines the knowledge-base of the profession. By implication the theory, laws, and principles of practice in a profession thus represent the knowledge-base of that profession.

Contributors to the analysis of the intellectual basis of the professions often use the term 'learned profession' to describe the knowledge-base criterion. But as Flexner<sup>67</sup> and Sharr<sup>68</sup> have shown, the term 'learned profession' is tautologous since all professions must by the accepted criteria on professionalism be "learned" if they are to measure up to required standard.<sup>69, 70</sup>

The skill upon which theory is usually derived should in turn require further enhancement through education and training. By tradition, the professional is expected to avail himself of every opportunity open to him by which he could update his knowledge, usually by participating in programmes of professional self-improvement such as short courses, residential tutorial/seminar or workshop and continuing education in general. A summation of these activities by all professionals in a given field of activity usually form the broad knowledge-base.

Hughes observes that the knowledge-base of a profession is not always clear:

The nature of the knowledge, substantive or theoretical, on which advice and action are based is not always clear; it is often a mixture of several kinds of practical and theoretical knowledge.<sup>71</sup>

However, as already analysed, there should be no ambiguity about the knowledge-base. The functioning of the profession and the inherent generation of information by professionals, through inter-change of ideas, form the knowledge foundation within the profession. This generation and exchange of information through the "invisible college" create a cyclical process whereby the functions and general practice of the profession are constantly under review.

Goode clarifies that 'doubts about a sufficient knowledge-base undermine occupational claims to professional status or reward'.<sup>72</sup> One may add that knowledge-base cannot be qualified as "sufficient" or "insufficient" as stated by Goode as this assessment is prone to be value-laden. Nevertheless, Goode's seven criteria for professional

knowledge needs to be assessed:

- (i) Ideally abstract skills with codified principles;
- (ii) Knowledge applicable to concrete problems of living;
- (iii) A public belief that the professional knowledge can deal with these;
- (iv) The acceptance by the public that the profession should take charge of solving these problems;
- (v) The profession itself should help to create, organize and transmit knowledge;
- (vi) The profession has the final decision over the technical solution to the problems.
- (vii) The knowledge and the skills are seen as a 'mystery' by the public.<sup>73</sup>

Most of the traits identified in Goode's criteria apply to all professions and can thus be validated. The firmer the theoretical framework of professional studies the easier it will be to teach the subjects at the level of principles rather than through a detailed description of practice. For instance, the library school curriculum may be thought of not only in terms of activity and experience but also in the context of knowledge to be acquired and facts to be stored. In the educational literature<sup>74, 75, 76</sup>, it has been suggested that life and its problems are not neatly divided into nicely-bounded subjects; they are multi-disciplinary and at times interdisciplinary. Similarly, in librarianship, the objectives of library education parallel closely those of other professional fields. A cursory look at library schools' brochures, prospectuses, and other course materials indicates that the library schools act as the vortex of the profession, by their description of programmes offered reflecting both broad and specific knowledge of librarianship, and as well presenting members of the teaching staff as authorised in various aspects of the discipline. As the knowledge accumulates librarianship would, according to Sharr, 'be the study of people on the one hand and of ideas or knowledge on the other'.<sup>77</sup>

Stokes<sup>78</sup> points out (about British librarianship in the early sixties when the LA was still largely in control of professional examinations) that students have found it difficult to understand the complicated pattern of the government and administration of many existing types of libraries without some basic knowledge of the outlines of central and local government and yet this is a rare thing for a student to bring to his professional career. It has also been difficult for a student to understand the complexities of

government publications even down to the purely professional problems of their cataloguing, unless the student knows something of the mechanism of government which produces these publications. Historical bibliography is another area found to be impossible for a student to study with any real sense of purpose when his knowledge of the history of Europe is to say the least, rudimentary.

The resultant effect of these deficiencies in students is for them to 'learn by rote' rather than by any real understanding of the bibliographical processes. This situation also pervades in the syllabus because a student could possibly sit for the paper on "Bibliography of French Language and Literature" without producing evidence of any knowledge of French.<sup>79</sup> In short, general education was lacking in the early sixties but this has more than been compensated for in the seventies as the content of the librarianship curriculum has increasingly reflected the subject expertise required of the librarian.<sup>80</sup>

According to Montgomery:

If one considers librarianship on the basis of the strict sociological interpretation of professionalism then it does fall short, notably in the knowledge base and theoretical principles, and in the general role of the librarian and the specific duties or functions which he is competent and qualified to carry out.<sup>81</sup>

But the knowledge-base theory is synthetically rooted in the principles and practice of librarianship. Kaplan states that the library symbolises:

... a means of education, an instrumentality by which special groups and classes in the society can take advantage of experiences not directly their own, and so improve their position in society.<sup>82</sup>

However, it is clear that an 'encyclopaedic' knowledge is not required of the librarian in the fulfilment of his duties. There may have been a time in earlier generations of libraries when it could be expected that the librarian would know all there is to know, and the measure of his effectiveness in the discharge of his duties could have been provided to a significant extent by the measure of how completely he had mastered human knowledge and interests. Hughes considers that,

What kinds of general knowledge - human knowledge, scientific knowledge - and wisdom are essential for the profession I simply do not know. But I would say that if library educators are not in a continual state of strain with their students over this point they are probably not doing their job very well.<sup>83</sup>

The suggestion that library educators should constantly explore the knowledge framework of librarianship with their students, seems

pertinent enough but how can this be best achieved? It is worth considering that knowledge is a universal attribute which applies to all strands of life; in the case of librarianship professional knowledge is based on humanistic perspectives of library practice such as 'literary culture', 'oral tradition and history', 'enhancement of individual values', and on the generation of information, its use and dissemination. These factors are culture-specific and hence they must relate to the society.

As Phenix argues in Realms of meaning, society itself is fully aware of the inter-relationship between knowledge and information. He states:

... great advances have been made in the storage and retrieval of knowledge. Vast resources of information can be preserved on tapes, films, discs, and other devices, as well as in the more conventional forms of books and artifacts, and they may quickly and inexpensively be reproduced for wide distribution. Effective new methods of indexing, cataloguing, abstracting, and cross-referencing have also been developed, so that whatever is known will not be lost from sight and so that the relevance of any given item to many other items of knowledge may be kept in view.<sup>84</sup>

The task of the library educator is to plan and implement programmes of study which conform to the generation and processing of information in all formats suggested by Phenix. The library educator could choose from all forms of knowledge necessary to be learned in relation to the society in which the library school is located. Furthermore, it would be logical to assume that the student librarian living in a modern society is exposed to various manifestations of knowledge which are characterised by growth in interdisciplinary studies and, to an increasing need for awareness in understanding the process of knowledge transference as a whole. Hence the consequent harmonisation of knowledge elements<sup>85</sup> in the international approach to librarianship curriculum.

#### 7.4.6 'HOME' OR 'ABROAD'

The objective in this section is to provide additional background material that will enable greater appreciation of factors which determine the philosophy of education for librarianship. One such important factor is the location of the library schools which contribute to manpower development in the profession, especially from the viewpoint of Nigeria.

In Nigeria, as in many other "developing" countries, the formal provision of library education is a recent phenomenon when compared with the advanced countries of Europe and North America. Many Nigerian librarians, prior to the first library school being established in 1960, gained their qualifications from overseas institutions, notable UK and North America. However, the creation of more library schools in the country has not stemmed the exodus of students (who still travel to European institutions in search of 'the golden fleece') as was first anticipated in the profession. Despite the efforts of pioneers in the field to ensure a truly indigenous system of education for library practitioners, facilities for 'home' study has proved comparatively inadequate, so many students still prefer to study 'abroad', especially those whose specialisations are not catered for at home. This situation has varying implications for services and personnel, and the effects are yet to be quantitatively determined.

The education of library practitioners, if conducted abroad, is less likely to take account of the genesis of local problems and thus it has been argued by some that on return home the "globally-qualified" librarian may turn out to be a mis-fit in challenging situations such as 'rural library service', 'information work relating to Nigerian documentation', and 'appreciation of users' needs' in general. The implications for service is therefore serious enough.

As libraries are set up, sooner or later an indigenous system of professional education has to be introduced to meet their staffing needs. In this respect, the practical needs of the library profession, as derived both locally and nationally, can be assessed and a curriculum designed for the educational preparation of the specialist staff required. The existing trend suggests a recent curriculum proposal for the training of specialist staff for Nigerian agricultural and rural development.<sup>86</sup> Despite this development, government provides financial support for postgraduate students wishing to further their studies abroad in librarianship. Those who are unsuccessful to gain scholarship awards study abroad by benefitting through employer's sponsorship schemes. Few students still brave the daunting task of self-sponsorship and it is hardly surprising that they are overtly critical of the government scholarship scheme and the apparent inability of the library profession to improve its educational provision. Library schools in Nigeria offer programmes ranging from non-graduate Diploma, First degrees, Masters' degrees

and the doctorate. The bone of contention is the insensitivity of the governing institutions in making their admission policy for postgraduate studies rather inflexible for matured professionals who do not possess the minimum admission requirements for higher degrees. The universities, operating under the constraints of a developing economy, are reluctant to "lower" their own standards considering the impact this would have on the quality of their certificates in the employment market. The Nigerian Library Association's overtures to the universities on this issue<sup>87</sup> have come to nothing since 1974. Many students who are ambitious of becoming full professionals therefore look for schools abroad where the regulations are in instances, flexible to enable the non-graduate diploma holder, or the ALA/FLA chartered librarian, and even those without any formal qualification but who are experienced, to study for Masters' degrees. Usually the FLA holder can study for academic masters degree both in overseas and Nigerian library schools<sup>88</sup> but in this respect this is how far Nigerian universities have gone at present.

It would seem therefore, that students who cannot gain entry into Nigerian library schools would continue to explore the possibilities of furthering their education overseas regardless of factors of relevance to local practice and the inconveniences thus generated in terms of culture shock, separation from families, inadequate finance and the inevitable lack of appreciation of the host country's advanced library and information systems due to severe time restrictions in the duration of their stay.

Asheim, in commenting on the strict adherence of institutions to their regulations, observes that in the developing countries this attitude is inevitable in a society keen to preserve the special privilege which accrues to a class-conscious society where it is deemed that the educated possesses particular natural qualifications which are absent in others.<sup>89</sup> Such an education must, by the society's definition, be limited to the elect; to open it to others is virtually to destroy its basic tenets. Those who attain this educational lofty height in the society do not willingly relinquish it, and those who, in the present generation of rising expectations, aspire to push up are much more motivated by the desire personally to enter this realm of privilege than to abolish it. This conflict of philosophies, i.e. the desire to indigenise courses preferably than its education system is one of the present unresolved crisis facing many developing nations such as Nigeria.

The kind of education that any nation offers its nationals tends

to support its own beliefs and institutions, and formal education in Nigerian universities should no less be different. As evaluation studies in this present work reveal (Section 7.5), librarianship has fared well in terms of innovations to its curriculum in the university system. The courses are structured at all levels to reflect social influences, ensure academic respectability, and relate to the overall objectives of the library profession.

A comprehensive article consisting of experts' views on a library education policy for the developing countries was published in Unesco Bulletin for Libraries (1968).<sup>90</sup> In it salient points were made concerning the issue of "training" students at home or overseas. In the summing up by Dean the comparative advantages and disadvantages of overseas training for library staff in the developing countries was discussed. Dean, assessed the credentials of all three contributors to the article - Salvan, Kirkegaard, and Bousso - and reflected on their contribution thus,

... (the authors) have wide experience of the problems of providing library education for the nationals of emergent territories. Paule Salvan and Preben Kirkegaard agree, with some reservations, that basic library education is best provided in the country of origin of the student, but that at a higher level overseas training is to be preferred. Amadou Bousso would accept the first proposition, but is clearly of the opinion that, while overseas training is in some circumstances valuable for higher level staff, the prospects of providing library education at this level in the emergent countries should not be discounted.<sup>91</sup>

Both sides of the view on overseas 'training' as contained in Dean's summary are pertinent today. At present most students obtain their basic librarianship qualifications at diploma and degree levels in Nigerian library schools. Higher level programmes are also available for those who wish to further their education. However, despite these notable advances, technicians and specialists are still required to staff libraries in greater numbers than at present provided by the schools.

On the advantages of a "metropolitan" professional education (so defined because the library school is located in an "advanced" environment in the host countries of e.g. U.K., Canada and the U.S.A.), Dean clarifies that the following factors are discernible:

- (1) The broadening experience of travel.
- (2) The award of a qualification that is universally acceptable.
- (3) A cadre of instructors with sufficient leisure to develop their specialities and to undertake the research that is so important for the enrichment of teaching.

- (4) Associations of lasting value with professionals of the sponsoring metropolitan country.
- (5) A diversity of libraries for field work and demonstration purposes; facilities which are all too often lacking in the emergent countries.
- (6) An opportunity to become acquainted with those technologies closely associated with librarianship, such as printing, data processing, reprography, etc., in a highly developed form.

More than a decade later, following Dean's enumeration of the above factors, all the points still bear considerable relevance especially for the postgraduate student. However, most students are inevitably too busy fulfilling the schedules of exacting coursework, projects, and examinations to even spare the time for assimilating the experience borne out from the stated advantages of their overseas stay.

As to the disadvantages of studying abroad mostly by students from developing countries, Dean observes that:

- (1) Standards in the library schools of metropolitan countries vary enormously and from time to time we find too great a flexibility in admission policy which is often a disservice to the student from overseas. (Elsewhere in the literature, Dean augments this view by clarifying that the student from the developing country is sometimes as a concession admitted to courses for which he does not have the normally required admission qualifications, often with disastrous consequences during the course\*)
- (2) Although the world of librarianship may be one world, the emphasis placed upon various aspects of library education differs from place to place. Library education in the metropolitan countries often fails to place the emphasis specifically where it is required by the student from the developing countries.
- (3) Selection procedure for candidates in absentia, whether for fellowships or library school places, is often unsatisfactory. For example, fellowships are often awarded to library students from developing countries solely on the basis of academic ability and without adequate consideration of the candidate's motivation or sense of vocation.
- (4) Encouragement of overseas library training and the expense involved may well deprive the developing country with an evolving library system of one of the basic essentials of such a system, i.e. a school of librarianship. It is the function of the school not only to teach and develop courses relevant to the needs of a region or country at all levels, but also to gather together a nucleus of specialists to undertake the various research projects which must be carried out if emergent countries are ever

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\* DEAN, J. Planning library education programmes, London : André Deutsch, 1972 : 29.

to provide library service of the highest order. Library schools must also take responsibility for adapting the body of library knowledge accumulated in the metropolitan countries for the benefit of the nation or region which they serve. A library school in a developing country, as in a developed country, also assists in giving leadership and unity to the profession. It is in fact a part of the standard library infrastructure and at a certain level in any country's development should be regarded as essential.<sup>93</sup>

Dwelling on the above thoughts it is possible to deduce that there is distinct advantage to be gained from having localised professional education system which cuts across the broad spectrum of all professions, so that the system will produce the desired educational outcomes, supported with professional test of competence as advocated by Morehead,<sup>94</sup> McGrath,<sup>95</sup> Braun,<sup>96</sup> and Lee<sup>97</sup> in the appropriate field of activity. In the education of librarians, the localisation problem can be assiduously solved through integration of its factors in the undergraduate curriculum in particular since the duration of study can absorb such radical possibilities.

The undergraduate programmes that are offered abroad are naturally not geared to the local problems of library practice of the overseas student's country. In general, apart from this and other peripheral, nevertheless important, factors such as finance, competition for places with home applicants, and the residual problems of language and the capacity of the overseas student's ability to endure a rigorous academic tenure, library schools in places such as the U.K. are mostly reluctant to admit undergraduate candidates from overseas. Usually there is the problem, for "metropolitan" library educators, of matching the student's home professional experience with the high standards inexorably set by the nature of the 'advanced' environment in which the library school operates.

Wise<sup>98</sup> observes that the problem of comprehending librarianship, set within an understanding of British tradition, poses psychological and other problems for the overseas student.

However, Chan in a radical article,<sup>99</sup> has criticised library schools for 'teaching what is desirable rather than what is necessary'. He supports this claim by pointing out that for a newly qualified librarian in a developing country 'the desirable is usually an impossible dream, while the reality is a nightmare for which he may be unprepared and largely untrained'. The author argues that:

This is especially so if, as is highly likely, he (the newly-qualified librarian) has been trained at a British, American, or Canadian library school. Few if any of their courses are likely to pay any attention to the special problems or needs of the developing countries, and there is no reason why they should.

Consequently, the student may learn about OSM, MBO, and PPBS, but he will not learn what to do when the library is infested with mice. He may learn about the different kinds of equipment which are available, but not which types are suitable for tropical conditions, nor how to obtain them when every order must be approved by half a dozen different irrational bureaucrats ...<sup>100</sup>

Chan's argument seems obvious enough for reasons discussed in the early part of this work, but equally, there are variations between library schools which make some more suitable for others, but this is rarely a factor in the student's choice of school. The cultural dominance, material comforts, technical sophistication, and bright prospect of obtaining a Master's degree attract many students to British, American, or Canadian schools, whilst if the curriculum is taken into consideration, these schools tend to be unsuitable due to the academic emphasis in the content and the general sophistication of the library system. It may be argued, however, that the theory of librarianship is universal in nature but the point being emphasised here relates to the factor of relevance as the developing countries cannot, from the viewpoint of pressing service needs, afford the empiricism which characterise library education in the "metropolitan" schools.

Other reasons for selecting the level at which overseas students can, for example, study in Britain exist. These seem to be philosophical in outlook. According to Havard-Williams:

... we do not on the whole take undergraduates from overseas countries as the Department considers that, <sup>101</sup> they should primarily be trained in their own country.

This view is supported, though in a wider context, by New<sup>102</sup> in an article which examined environmental and other factors creating difficulties for the overseas student in his study abroad. The need was stressed for library education to be set up at local levels where the basic qualifications can best be taught. Elsewhere in the literature, New<sup>103</sup> amplifies the need for some form of library education in the student's own country. He writes,

Despite the advantages of study abroad, those who study and those who teach are painfully aware of the difficulties which it presents. These might be summarised as unsuitability of course content and the inevitable handicaps which an overseas student has to overcome. Both lead to a high risk of failure. Most overseas students pass, but among the total number of failures at a library school there is likely to be found a much greater number of overseas students than their proportion in any class would indicate. It is clear that a curriculum intended for (say) British or American students and therefore based on practice in those countries will pose extra problems to students from elsewhere in the world. Reference may be made, for instance, to the system of government, both national and

local, or it may even be assumed that this is known. This, and many other examples (such as the educational pattern of the country) will be both irrelevant and confusing to the overseas student. Even where a topic is potentially relevant (e.g. computers in libraries), it may be so far outside the student's experience that it poses a study problem. For these reasons the foreigner may have his choice of options within courses severely limited, for he will be well advised to leave alone topics which call for a national background which he does not have ... topics of interest (in the curriculum) to the student's own country may frequently be ignored. So one might find the student from the tropics required to have some knowledge of library heating, when his need is for information on air conditioning and storage of library materials in humid conditions.<sup>104</sup>

In the 'home' or 'abroad' situation the content of the curriculum of "metropolitan" library schools is certainly a feature of concern as depicted in detail in the above quotation. Hardly can library schools in advanced countries be criticised for upholding their own priorities. It is therefore in the best interests of the profession to set up its own system of professional education to complement the services of professional schools. This is likely to considerably reduce the number of students leaving the country for their first qualification overseas.

Librarianship in modern Nigeria is no longer at the embryo stage; most of the present pre-eminence was achieved in the past three decades. This is consistent with Asheim's criterion as stated in the mid-sixties:

The essentials of good library education are seldom present where librarianship and publishing are still in their early stages ... There is much to be said for library education on the home ground rather than in another country, but not if it must be so far below standards as to offer no contribution to the profession of library service.<sup>105</sup>

The library schools and professional education as a whole has contributed positively to the library profession in Nigeria by supplying it with the required manpower of the highest calibre; professional education has also contributed via the avenue of continuing education and training and through demonstrating intellectual leadership in the professional literature. But it is difficult to impose any form of control on students who wish to further their studies overseas. Other professions in Nigeria such as the engineers and accountants have devised methods of associateship whereby any practitioner in the field including those who have been trained abroad, is required to register for practice on his return home through the institutions' own accreditation system. The same process may have to be introduced into librarianship as soon as the profession secures the legal backing it is seeking from the government. However, whatever system is devised to encourage 'home' study

for student librarians it is clear that students will continue to travel abroad to further their education in library studies. This is especially so at the higher degree level where, as in other disciplines, specialisation has become global and the brighter students are inevitably attracted towards the foremost teachers and researchers wherever they may be - Africa, Asia, U.K. or U.S.A.

#### 7.4.7 LIBRARY SCHOOLS' LIBRARIES

##### 7.4.7.1 INTRODUCTION

In order to isolate certain areas of professional activity and competence, and develop these in the students for later integrated use during placement and employment, the library of the library school is used as a 'laboratory' in which, and from which, students may gain partial experience in support of their professional studies. Thus students are enabled, in their normal educational environment, to analyse and criticise the library's perception of its community, its management, and other elements with which they are familiar on their course.

The objective of this section is to examine the role of libraries in library schools, as support systems for the work of the Department as a whole, i.e. including teaching, learning, and the general conditioning of students to the realities of practice in the field. The underlying assumption is that the expertise thus gained fulfils certain cognitive learning objectives and therefore allows students to adopt more confident attitude and a rational approach to the appraisal of problems in their actual placement or employment experience.

At present, only two library schools have libraries of full departmental status - at Ibadan and Zaria, the latter yet to be developed separately from the collection stored in the Faculty of Education Library.

Tape-recorded interviews<sup>106</sup> were conducted with the two library schools' librarians in order to obtain as full account as possible on the work of the library as a resource centre.

7.4.7.2 ZARIA/IBADAN

The staff of a school of librarianship is its major asset. It is a contributory factor in determining the quality of the work done in the library school. Whatever the excellence of other aspects such as buildings and equipment, a library school with indifferent staff can serve the profession no better than indifferently. In this way, the library is therefore an essential service to the school if the cognitive factors of learning are to be attained.

The necessity for the library school to have its own library as a support system is arguable; for example, instead of availing itself of the opportunity provided for the same service by the main institution library or in some cases faculty library. This depends inevitably on the location of the library school and the main university or faculty library. As Nigerian experience indicates, it is often advantageous both to the teaching staff and students of the school of librarianship to have their library situated within easy reach of the library school. In view of this, the library school apart from serving staff and student needs as in any other discipline, will inevitably be looked upon as a model. In this respect, the attainment of minimum standards in terms of stock, staff, space, and equipment may not suffice as it can be expected that student librarians use a library more heavily than staff and students in other subject fields.

There is always a possibility of the teacher arranging that students undertake some practical project in the library such as in book selection, cataloguing, or a survey of book use.

In the case of Ibadan library school library, the service has, until recently, incorporated the model or demonstration library service in the university community as located at the Abadina Media Resource Centre. The library initiated this Centre itself as a project for training teacher/librarians and other categories of teachers in the use of a resource centre. At Zaria, a similar project was set up with the cooperation of Samaru Public and children Libraries and practical training is also organized here to supplement that of the main university library. The library school library may thus feature well in the proposal for curriculum-integrated fieldwork in Nigerian library schools although the pattern it should take is not quite clear apart from the existing models already cited. According to Ogunsheye,

I offer for our consideration the idea of the internship system in Medicine. I am aware that it has been tried and failed in

some American library schools in the past but it is being re-suscitated partly in the "High John Programme" of Wasserman and Bundy who are setting up model library services and using them as teaching laboratories.<sup>107</sup>

The African library schools directors whom Ogunsheye was addressing on the issue must now be feeling bewildered as no concrete action has effectively been taken since the view was expressed. The Abadina centre cannot be classed in the category of an "internship". However, the idea of a library school's library can be expanded and sustained in order to make its services effectual in professional development generally.

At Zaria library school, the library is at present being physically created, although its stock is housed in the faculty of education library. Until such a time when the library would have developed 'sufficiently' to enable practical projects to be done by groups of students, the librarian would continue to have the status of a tutor/librarian. The students of the library school at present use the faculty library as well as the main library for their practical projects.

By contrast, the Ibadan library school library is rather well developed with more than 100 serial holdings; theses; dissertations; and bound projects; in addition, there are the textbooks collection and bibliographical tools. The seating arrangement has been designed to accommodate at least two classes, and leisure seats are also provided for the purpose of browsing through current periodicals.

#### 7.4.7.2.1 BACK-UP RESOURCES FOR TEACHING

Quite apart from providing the necessary study facilities for its users the library also actively participates in curriculum development,

- (a) by providing materials from various sources - published, printed, mimeographed or manuscript, in support of teaching, especially new courses;
- (b) developing learning resources for specific subjects that are taught mainly with Nigerian emphasis;
- (c) and, actively participating at staff meetings where any proposed developments in the curriculum are discussed and everyone including the librarian having the opportunity to express his or her mind on new courses.

In bibliography for example, materials are developed as back-up for projects undertaken by Masters degree students. The result is

that from several of the courses on bibliography a lot of information is generated within the Department, although the method of reproducing these for loan purposes is at present lacking due to poor funds available. Students also draw on the resources of other faculty and departmental libraries such as in the social sciences, and national archives library in order to obtain bibliographical information in African Literature/Sources on African Studies, and the like. Very many requests have been received for some of the students' bibliography but the library is not in a position to reproduce and send them out.

In Library and society, the few books that have been written on this topic have been by expatriates working in Nigeria and with other West African experience behind them. Most of the indigenous materials collected by the library on this topic originate from journals, proceedings of conferences, and seminars.

Reference Sources include lots of mimeographed materials which have surfaced in the past decade of librarianship in the country. The library also makes considerable effort to collect any publication on the subject especially if written by a Nigerian. Materials for the course on reference sources have become available in this way.

Management - the resources of the library for the teaching of this subject are not African in origin as most sources are geared to American, and partly British materials.<sup>108</sup> Management, as a subject of serious academic study, is in a burgeoning state in Nigeria and until indigenous experiences in the field are fully documented it seems the library school will have to continue to relate its teaching of the concept to Nigerian practice against background theory formulated overseas.<sup>109</sup>

Agriculture and Forestry - are usually the subject of projects for the media course and all the materials that are being produced for the Ibadan library school by the students are created at Ibadan University (Agriculture and Forestry faculty) and have therefore become relevant in terms of information work. This is an area in which there is considerable scope for developing further the indigenous elements of the curriculum so that the information needs in the field of agriculture, such as farming, can be derived to alleviate problems of farmers, extension officers, and the agriculture and forestry ministry as a whole.

Oral History - Significant progress has been made in this subject in recent years. In conjunction with the course tutor Professor Aboyade, the library has initiated attempts to connect on tape stories

of folklore, myths, and other traditions in the locality and from other areas of the country in different indigenous Nigerian languages. Students are encouraged to go out and make recordings from elderly people seeking information on past and present traditional activities in their areas. These projects when completed, usually follow the pattern of projects assigned to students of local history in the History Department of the University. The library school library now holds relevant materials used to back-up teaching; for example, it holds several hundreds of tapes of recordings of social activity and attempts have been made to relate these to the course in terms of librarian's role in the non-literate community. Examples of such social activity which objectively reveals the intellectual content of indigenous spoken art are documented in the works of Babalola.<sup>110, 111</sup>

Children Literature sources - materials collected on this subject have always been stored at the Abadina Media Resource Centre which came into existence with the Ibadan library school's support. However, in 1980 the Centre severed all links with the library school and thereby became a model learning resource centre serving the Abadina university community. Structurally it now has a director and professional staff are employed, but the library school's librarian still considers that the severance of links is likely to cause a set-back in the Centre's functions concerning collection development of indigenous sources on children literature - a vital aspect of the library school's teaching. The Resource Centre now concentrates on 'Children Literature' rather than 'Sources'.

#### 7.4.7.2.2 COMMENT

Having considered the active role of the library school's library in curriculum development one may predict that in the next decade the library's stock will increase phenomenally. At present it does not seem that there are plans to move the existing library into a bigger accommodation which will take cognisance of the multi-media nature of the library's collection. The problem of storage and space is therefore at present creating a nuisance for the progressive activities of the library. The present writer's projection into the next decade implies that radical improvements are now needed to prepare the library for the challenges of the next decade, such as in providing a laboratory type service equipped with media aids, terminals, experimental packs and other basic necessities, as provided in library

schools elsewhere.

#### 7.4.7.3 RATIONALE

In terms of physical plant and equipment for library schools the problem usually faced by schools in the developing countries relates in majority of cases to inadequate storage space and other infrastructural facilities which the library schools need essentially in a university environment. It is the view of experts in the field that this 'inadequacy' stems from two factors:

- either (a) due to inadequate (or 'short-sighted') planning;
- or (b) financial constraints, as determined by conditions (social, economic, or political) which influence the decision-making process when establishing the library school or well into its operation.

If this view is accepted, then it is possible to examine the rationale governing such provision of facilities in the library school.

Perhaps an incomparable authority on the subject is Dean, who in his seminal work on the planning of library education in developing countries, visualises a 'Resource Centre' in the library school as consisting of 'reading-room, stack area, exhibition area, audio-visual centre, staff work-room, and a store'.<sup>112</sup> This is the standard prescribed for Resource Centre (or library of the library school) but this is not always fulfilled even in the most energetic of circumstances Dean clarified further that:

If a library school takes the line that its resource centre should provide the vast majority of the materials needed by students, duplicating reference tools, bibliographies, monographs, periodicals, etc. then quite a considerable proportion of the library school building will be devoted to the centre. A reasonably good library of librarianship will amount to about 20,000 volumes with seating for about 50% of the academics and student body. This is a luxury that few developing countries will be able to afford (my emphasis), but many will expect to have a small working collection of several thousand volumes and with accomodation for possibly a quarter of the clientele.

Twenty-three years ago the Ibadan library school on its inception had generous space allocation in the faculty of Education building. But the factors of growth have aqueezed available provision to its limits - increases in the number of students, courses, and staff (especially academic staff), and expansion into research and continuing education activities. Financial resources have therefore had to be diverted into servicing these areas and this point

fits nicely to the part emphasised in Dean's quotation i.e. 'the ability to pay' for essential services such as the library school's own library. By West African standards diversification of activity always incurs extra budgeting which the governing bodies of institutions may not be inclined to approve too often especially in times of economic recession and general tightening of the financial screw at the institutions. Most universities, and consequently the faculties and schools, have benefited from Nigeria's oil boom in the early and mid-seventies, but it is an indictment on planning skills if particular schools now find themselves in a quadrangle of unavailable funds for their expansion activities. Hence, the usual arguments that library schools are still in their embryonic stages and therefore are 'unable to have the ability to pay for the minimum standards of excellence required',<sup>114</sup> is acceptable as it sounds, but remains odd explanation of incapacity to expand essential infrastructure facilities such as the library school's library.

It is understandable, though, that demands upon the professional school in any discipline always crystallize into criticisms and general lack of appreciation of progress achieved thus far. As indicated in previous sections of this present work, the attitude and disposition of writers on Nigerian library education seems to emphasise this point of disregard for progress made. Shera's concept of 'the scholarship of culture',<sup>115</sup> - thought of as a unity of materials, methods, and products - can be applied to foster greater unity of purpose between professional library practitioners on one hand, and professional library educators and their products (students) on the other. Both exist in form of interdependence which will guarantee advances in library practice.

#### 7.4.7.4 SUMMARY

The element of library school libraries as well as other factors of socialisation in the library schools as examined here shows the contribution of philosophy in education for librarianship as an instrument of library professionalism. In echoing the concerns of the University of California Los Angeles Group, professional education today still faces critical problems requiring solutions:

- how to turn out men who can anticipate and solve the pressing problems of modern society;
- how to marshal the limited educational research resources

of a school to develop effective programmes;

- how to develop a professional course of study that will avoid the early obsolescence of its graduates in a rapidly changing society;
- how to maintain the cutting edge of an educational program at a price that a university faculty is willing or can afford to pay. 116

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7.5 EVALUATION OF PROGRAMMES :

*... curriculum evaluation starts with the rationale - the assumption and principle - upon which the curriculum is based. In professional or technological education, the specification of particular courses may be important. Hours and types of field work, clerkships, and internships become standards for curriculum evaluation in these circumstances. This approach to evaluation thus is through specification of the process and experiences as derived from the original rationale and desired outcomes.*

*- Paul Dressel (1976) <sup>1</sup>*

#### 7.5.0. INTRODUCTION:-

In context of curriculum design, evaluation is not so much the last stage of the curriculum development process as it is a linking element which should start the whole cycle again. This is due to the fact that neither the professional practices nor the thoughts of the faculty and student body stand still for the convenience of the schools. The idea that evaluation performs an absolutely central role in the curriculum process is made clear in a model (chart 7.5.1) provided by OECD's Centre for Educational Research and Innovation (CERI).<sup>2</sup>

As can be observed from CERI's model, the term evaluation covers all the elements necessary to the curriculum development process: from the first stage of evaluation of the broad aims of a course, to the late stage of evaluating which instruments of assessment to use in order to determine the levels of students' initial and final achievement, the effectiveness of the overall teaching processes and ancillary provisions; also it covers judgements about the relevance and efficacy of the curriculum as an integrated system, and about the nature and desirability of any proposed changes. In this way, decisions made at a particular stage will affect and even prescribe those at subsequent stages, while these in turn will feed back to previous ones.

A survey of professional education literature reveals that library educators, like their counterparts in other fields, are applying the principles of educational evaluation in innovating the curricula. For instance, on the planning of evaluation and modification of the librarianship curriculum, Burrell<sup>3</sup> observes that:

Evaluation is a blanket term, covering all parts of the process and leading to the clarification of important educational questions regarding the achievement of the students in terms of their initial and final desired abilities, knowledge, attitudes, and other factors; the making of judgements based upon the available evidence about the overall efficacy of the system; the consideration of the hypothesis that it might not be the best system for its purpose; the consideration of changing circumstances within and outside the programme that might render modification necessary; ... and the consideration of any necessary or desirable changes in the purpose and specified goals of the programme, which if implemented, would probably lead to the creation and evaluation of a completely

new and different programme.<sup>4</sup>

It follows from the quotation that there is a choice of evaluation systems which allows for circumstances of change in relation to 'specified' goals of an educational programme. In other words, if after an evaluation the results show that "objectives" are not being met then re-adjustments will not only be required but necessary if there is to be any improvement both on the nature of the programme and the educational product (i.e. students). One may disagree with Burrell on one point that the situation whereby an evaluator faces a stark choice of a "system" exists at the procedural stage. This is not necessarily so. For instance, one can blend the 'types' of evaluation strategy to adapt to the circumstances of data collected and used (depending on the style of presentation). Indeed, it is common that for varying reasons evaluators, at least in some instances, employ more than one strategy in specified evaluation studies.<sup>5-11</sup> Such applications can be beneficial in tackling problems in library and information studies curricula.

#### 7.5.1 EVALUATION OF NON-GRADUATE DIPLOMA COURSES: IBADAN/ZARIA/KANO:

##### 7.5.1.1 DEPARTMENT OF LIBRARY STUDIES, UNIVERSITY OF IBADAN

(hereinafter referred to for convenience as 'Ibadan library school').

##### 7.5.1.1.1 Regulations:

A programme of courses is provided leading to a 'Diploma in Librarianship' which may be awarded with distinction.

Courses are evaluated in terms of 'course units'. A course unit is defined as a series of ten one-hour lectures or a series of ten three-hour practical projects or an equivalent combination of these types of instruction.

There are two levels of courses: these are numbered as 101 - 199 and 201 - 299.

No student may register for less than 30 or more than 40 course units in the first year or less than a total of 60 course units in both first and second years, including units credited to long essays and practical projects.

All courses are examined during the session in which they are taken and candidates will be credited with the number of course units assigned to the course for which they have passed the examination.

A candidate is allowed to sit for only one reference examination in any 100 level course he fails during the session in which the courses are offered. A candidate who has obtained less than 10 course units by the end of the first year shall be required to withdraw from the course.

A candidate shall not normally be permitted to qualify for the award of the diploma until he has completed a period of study of six terms, i.e. two academic years.

To be considered for the award of the diploma (distinction and pass) a candidate must have been credited with a minimum of 50 units, 23 of which must be in the prescribed 100 level courses. 8 of the 50 units must also include those prescribed for library practice.

#### 7.5.1.1.2. Admission Requirements:

To be eligible for admission to the two-year diploma course candidates are expected to possess the basic minimum qualification of 5 credits at West African School Certificate (W.A.S.C) or 5 passes at the G.C.E O/L including English (i.e. 5 to 6 years of secondary education). In addition, candidates are expected to have previous library experience preferably of around 12 months duration.

#### 7.5.1.1.3. Course Content:

The main comparative elements are as shown in Table 7.5.1 for Ibadan, Zaria, and Kano library schools combined. The methodology for comparison and organisation of course items conforms to international standards: Unesco's common core curricula for the 'Harmonisation of methodology and curricula in the training of documentalists librarians and archivists'.<sup>12</sup> However, it is hereby considered essential to provide course titles and description of "compulsory" and "required" elements of the curriculum, in order to enhance a deeper understanding of the content. It can only be assumed that the difference between the two elements is that the "compulsory" element is not necessarily assessed by the written examination method.

- Compulsory courses (with indication where "REQUIRED"):

Course numbers represented by "LSE" 101 - 299 as applicable; "T" - represents 'number of hours of theoretical instruction', - "P" - represents 'number of hours of practical instruction', - "U" - represents 'total number of units'.

LEVEL 101 - 199 (1st year)

- Course No: LSE 101. T = 30; P = nil; U = 2

Title: Libraries and society:

Description: Introduction to librarianship; history of libraries; functions of the library in society; interrelationship of libraries with other agencies in the community; social problems and trends affecting the library.

- LSE 131. T = 30; P = nil; U = 2

Title: Basic Reference Sources:

Description: General reference works; bibliographic aids; bibliographic description; assistance to readers.

- LSE 181: T = 15; P = 45; U = 2

Title: Introduction to cataloguing:

Description: The catalogue card; use of catalogue code and filing rules; Sears List.

- LSE 182: T = 15; P = 45; U = 2

Title: Introduction to classification:

Description: Objectives of classification; use of abridged Dewey Decimal Classification; elementary work with Library of Congress schedules.

- Course LSE 186 'Library Routines ...' deserves special mention before being focussed. Until 1981, the course has been made compulsory although now it is merely "elective" (i.e. optional). The rationale for this shift in policy is rather curious since 'Library Routines' at the 'para-professional' level is sine qua non for knowledge required of middle level library managers. The course description remains the same.

- LSE (previously styled as LSD) 186: T = 30; P = nil; U = 2

Title: Library Routines - Technical and Readers' Services:

Description: Acquisitions; book processing; circulation and control; shelving; preparation for binding; Reference;

interlibrary loans; publicity and display; extension services - hospitals, clubs, etc.

- LSD 188.(now discontinued). T = nil; P = 180; U = 4

Title: Library Routines - Practicals.

Description: Practical work in approved libraries.

LEVEL 201 - 299 (2nd year)

- LSE 202 (Required): T = 30; P = nil; U = 2

Title: School and Education Libraries:

Description: Educational principles; standards; organisation; administration and services; finance and budgetting;

- LSE 234 (Required): T = 15; P = 45; U = 2

Title: Subject Information Sources in Education:

Description: Education reference books; education bibliographic tools and sources for non-book materials - vertical file pictures; jackdaw portfolio, films filmstrips, slides, tapes, cassettes, video tapes; indexing and abstracting agencies - ERIC, UNESCO.

- LSE 241 (Compulsory): T = 30; P = nil; U = 2

Title: Compilation of a Bibliography:

Description: Bibliographical description and style; methods of arrangement; indexing; submission of a bibliography (project??)

- LSE 288 (Compulsory): T = nil; P = 180; U = 2

Title: Practical work in Abadina Media Resource Centre. The reader is hereby invited to note the change in emphasis from the discontinued element (LSD 188) "practical work in approved libraries" to a single library type "practical work in Abadina Media Resource Centre" (a demonstration learning resource (or library?) centre set up in a primary school close to the library school). Although this is suggestive of a short-term arrangement, the present writer submits that the long-term implications on the student are far more ranging than may be envisaged.

- LSE 293 (Required): T = 15; P = 45; U = 2

Title: Media Resources Collection Development:

Description: Learning resource materials - various formats; books; non-book materials; audio-visual materials; production of instructional materials; collection development; selection; organisation and services.

- LSE 294 (Compulsory): T = 30; P = nil; U = 2

Title: Library Methods in Education:

Description: Role of resource centre in education; curriculum development for library education skills; planning and implementing library programmes; syllabuses for primary, secondary, and teacher training colleges.

The content of the curriculum for the 'Diploma in Librarianship' course is thus aimed at preparing "supportive staff, paraprofessional library officers, skilled executives, working under librarians", to cite Ogunshye on the issue. Obviously, there are wide-ranging implications arising from the study of the curriculum format but these are discussed in section 7.5.4 - 'Evaluation Results'.

7.5.1.2 DEPARTMENT OF LIBRARY SCIENCE, AHMADU BELLO UNIVERSITY, ZARIA.  
(referred to throughout this section as the Zaria library school).

7.5.1.2.1 Regulations:

The "Diploma in Library Science" course is offered for a period of two academic years. The candidate is expected to pass in ten papers - five in each year in order to qualify for the diploma.

7.5.1.2.2 Admission Requirements:

5 subjects at G.C.E. O/L or 5 credits at W.A.S.C. Library experience is desirable but not essential. The equivalence of Grade II Teacher's Certificate with merit or credit in five subjects other than 'Teaching Practice', is also acceptable. Candidates must satisfy the University's general requirements in English.

### 7.5.1.2.3 Course Content:

First year: Cataloguing and classification  
Reference service  
Sociology or Library Science  
Library Service for Young People  
Practical Work in Libraries.

Second year: Cataloguing and classification  
Bibliography  
Administration of Libraries  
History of Libraries, with special reference to  
Africa ( $\frac{1}{2}$  unit)  
Collection development ( $\frac{1}{2}$  unit)  
Practical work in libraries

Students with 60% or over in the Final results of the Diploma assessment may, with Senate approval, apply for admission to the library school's Bachelors degree programme.<sup>13</sup> One favourite "laboratory" for students' practical work is at the Samuru Public Library in which the student is brought into contact with the library world, apart from his academic environment. As can be observed from available information on the content of the diploma curriculum, the course emphasises instruction on library administration in contrast to Ibadan's emphasis on 'bibliography'. The overall job designation and responsibilities is to produce paraprofessional library officers, executive officers in libraries.

### 7.5.1.3 DEPARTMENT OF LIBRARY SCIENCE, BAYERO UNIVERSITY, KANO (Kano library school)

#### 7.5.1.3.1 Regulations\*:

The Diploma in Library Science is a two year course designed to prepare paraprofessional staff to work in any kind of library. The emphasis in the course is on the knowledge of 'Library Routines' and practical work. The subsidiary aim of providing a general and high

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\* Items summarised from: Prospectus, Diploma in Library Science,  
1979 - 80 Session: 7 - 9

standard of pre-university education is catered for by an equivalent emphasis on at least one academic subject. This is a unique feature of all the diploma programmes hitherto considered.

With the foregoing background information, the regulation for the award of the diploma is set out as follows:

- Part I:
- (a) To pass part I (1st year) a candidate must obtain a pass in all the prescribed papers.
  - (b) A candidate who fails in no more than two papers, and whose overall mark for all papers is 200, may be allowed, on the recommendation of the Board of Examiners, to resit that paper/those papers, provided his mark for any paper is not assessed at less than 20%.
  - (c) A candidate who fails in no more than three papers but who obtains an aggregate of not less than 140 marks in all papers and whose score in any one paper is not assessed at less than 20% may, on the recommendation of the Board of Examiners, be permitted to repeat Part I.
  - (d) A candidate who fails to comply with regulations (a), (b) and (c) above shall normally be required to withdraw from the programme.

Part II (2nd year):

- (a) To pass part II a candidate must obtain a pass in all the prescribed papers.
- (b) A candidate who fails in no more than two papers, and whose overall mark for all papers is 200 may be allowed, on the recommendation of the Board of Examiners, to resit the papers provided his mark for any paper is not assessed at less than 20%.
- (c) A candidate who fails in no more than three papers but who obtains an aggregate of not less than 140 marks in all papers, and whose score in any one paper is not assessed at less than 20% may on the recommendation of the Board of Examiners be permitted to repeat Part II ...

Final assessment will depend upon continuous assessment (40%) and sessional examinations (60%). The final gradings is as follows:

Distinction	70 - 100%
Credit	60 - 69%
Merit	50 - 59%

Pass	40 - 49%
Fail	Below 40%

#### 7.5.1.3.2 Admission requirements:

For admission to the Diploma course a candidate must have passed: either the G.C.E. O/L 5 subjects; or W.A.S.C with 5 credits or distinction; or the Grade II Teachers Certificate with 5 merits or credits other than teaching practice; or, an equivalent qualification,

#### 7.5.1.3.3 Course Content:

Consists of two components: professional library science component being  $\frac{2}{3}$  of the course and, an academic component being  $\frac{1}{3}$ .

"Professional" library science component (Levels unspecified) -

##### Title: Book production

Description: Introductory course covering aspects of the origin and development of book, as follow: Book making; book art; book industry; book production; book distribution; and book consumption, including the Nigerian scene. Tendency towards overlapping, e.g. how do both "book making" and "book production" differ?

##### Title: Library administration

Description: The objectives and functions of various types of libraries; Administration - theory of library management, organisation, staffing; budgeting, housing and equipment, maintenance and control, evaluation, reporting and publicity.

##### Title: Classification and cataloguing

Description: Introduction to the purpose and use of classification and cataloguing; a brief examination of the various types of classification schemes and cataloguing codes; detailed study of the theory and application of Library of Congress and Dewey Decimal Classification schemes and Anglo-American code of cataloguing; subject analysis and indexing.

Title: Reference and Information

Description: The materials and methods of reference services. Use of directional, locational, instructional, and informational materials; Organisation and tools of reference services.

Title: Library History

Description: The origins and development of the library during ancient, medieval and modern periods; impact of the library on the development of culture; expansion of various types of libraries; important world libraries; rise of the library profession; library education and library literature with emphasis on library activities in Nigeria.

Title: Bibliography

Description: Purpose and use of bibliography; growth of bibliographical literature; types of bibliography; bibliographical control; and, bibliographical compilation.

Title: Book selection

Description: Purpose, assessment of needs, responsibility for selection; selection policy, censorship, selection tools; selection process, ordering procedure, evaluation of collection, weeding and discarding; problem of selection and acquisition in Nigeria.

Title: Library work with children and adolescents

Description: Familiarizes the students with children literature and provides guidance on its evaluation, acquisition and management; makes them aware of the services to be given to the children; introduces them to the elements of management of children libraries.

Practical Projects: Mainly by assignments, seminars, and special projects.

Academic Courses:

One academic subject to be chosen from :

- (a) social sciences;
- (b) language; or
- (c) the physical and biological sciences.

The curriculum details and level of these courses are determined by the School of General Studies and relevant faculties in consultation with the library school.

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SUMMARY:-

As can be observed from Table 7.5.1, there are major differences in approach by the schools though they all have the common objective of educationally preparing paraprofessional library officers.

Perhaps the most obvious difference is discernible in the 'foundations' as only Kano offers academic subject study as a component of the curriculum. The inclusion of such subject study at this level of professional education is rather unusual as students at this level should concern themselves more with the exacting nature of librarianship by having within their grasp the basic principles and practice in the discipline.

By contrast, other important areas of the curriculum, essential in the training of this category of library staff, seem to be lacking in the library schools. For instance, only Kano offers 'book arts', 'book production', and 'library building and equipment' when these are essential areas that should capture the attention of paraprofessionals. The inclusion of visits to presses and printing establishments may not be enough training for the student in the knowledge of the book arts. Similarly, in 'library administration', personnel matters seem to be largely ignored while this is an area where the paraprofessional is most likely to exert his influence in supervision and general staffing duties as may be delegated to him by his superior. Furthermore, the important item of 'subject information sources' deserves more recognition than is the case at present. At a time when there is increasing interest, shown in the profession, towards creating middle-level manpower to meet the challenge of serving institutions in rural communities, e.g. agricultural workers including farmers and extension field officers who need sources of information to improve their occupational pursuits, surely it is important to consider adopting the Ibadan library school example to meet such needs.

## 7.5.2 EVALUATION OF BACHELOR DEGREE PROGRAMMES: ZARIA/KANO/MAIDUGURI

### 7.5.2.1 ZARIA:

#### 7.5.2.1.1 Regulations:

Table 7.52 shows the principal courses of the Bachelor of Library Science degree. All the courses are taught in years 1 to 3 except 'Library Education' and 'Methods of Research' both of which are taught in the final year. Candidates are expected to pursue the library science papers plus two other subjects chosen as subsidiary from degree courses in other Departments of the university.

There is a foreign language requirement which became optional in 1973/74 session with the introduction of a French course designed for librarians.

Dissertation dealing with an aspect of Library Science shall be written in the 3<sup>rd</sup> year (although the assessment weighting if it counts towards final award is not specified); students are therefore 'expected to complete all course works and pass the required examinations (excluding the academic subject studied as this is not examined in the final year).

#### 7.5.2.1.2 Admission requirements:

Candidates for the BLS programme should possess five subjects at G.C.E of which two must be at the Advanced Level. In addition, provision is made for suitable students (i.e. Diploma students) to proceed to the BLS programme; at present University regulations for this require Senate approval in each case and a 60 per cent mark in the final examination.<sup>14</sup>

#### 7.5.2.1.3 COURSE CONTENT

To begin with, one should stress that it is not required here to give detailed listing of the courses. However, it is important to mention that a close examination of the curriculum reveals that in the first and second years of the BLS programme, students have since the inception of the programme in 1968, shown their preferences in the subsidiary academic subjects by opting for courses from among the following: Political Science, economics, sociology, history, English, French, and education. The absence of science-based subjects can not be made more evident than this. Apparently, the reason for the inability of the library school to fulfil students' needs in the sciences and technology is rooted in the (library) department's own admission that "the course elements associated with 'Science' cannot be met at present due to time-table clashes which have made subsidiaries in the Faculty of Science an impossibility."<sup>15</sup>

Similarly, it is important to point out the work done by students in year 3 for finals. Academic subject study is excluded for this year. The elements are portrayed as follows:

##### Library Science:

Practical work in libraries;

A total of 5 course/independent work units made up from the following:

- Project (independent work)
- Bibliography (independent compilation)  $\frac{1}{2}$  unit
- Documentation
- Book production
- The school library and the curriculum.
- Special librarianship
- Comparative librarianship
- Serials in libraries and Journal publishing
- Management theory
- Statistics for librarians ( $\frac{1}{2}$  unit)
- Librarianship of Audio-visual materials ( $\frac{1}{2}$  unit)

It is pertinent to observe that contrary to the popular tradition of the Zaria library school, management no longer commands pride of

place in the core of the curriculum. Initially when the course was established a lot of its innovations originated from the discontinued BLS course at Legon in Ghana, of which 'management' is prominent. The existing demand for personnel especially in the Northern part of Nigeria where the library school is situated requires that librarians should be adequately prepared to meet the challenges of managing library establishments very early in their career. .

However, it is important not to over-react as other aspects of curriculum development at the library school seem to indicate a change in emphasis towards recognising the needs of the local community within the framework of an indigenous approach. Years ago, the same candidates would have been required to sit for (British) LA examinations in 'Library and the Community' set in the context of British local government administration, financing and budgeting systems, and British social background to libraries. Now courses LS 207 'Library and the Community' and LS 212 'History of Libraries' have reversed the trend of foreign influence. Part I students on the BLS course pursue the 'Sociology of Library Science' - a course which introduces the students to the social context in which libraries and librarianship have developed in Nigeria. The course also covers the role of communication; in particular, mass media in Nigeria is focussed upon as relating to knowledge and information transfer in the community.

Furthermore, libraries in their historical context, are viewed widely as part of Nigeria's cultural tradition defined specifically by the influence of Islam and how this affects the development of Arabic education in the Middle East, North Africa (the Maghreb), the Western and Central Sudan and the whole of Northern Region of Nigeria.

It is noteworthy, in defence of Zaria library school's emphasis on this aspect of the curriculum, that in the environment in which the library school is situated, the Arabic collections that had existed in various parts of the North for centuries represent the hallmark of Islamic scholarship recorded in manuscript form. Their values as part of the library tradition have undoubtedly been long overlooked in professional education. There is evidence in the literature to suggest that the role of Islamic scholarship and its influence on the evolution of Nigeria's library tradition is an integral part of the country's philosophy of librarianship.<sup>16 - 19</sup>

Comparatively, the 'History of Libraries' course also covers Christian missionaries and their contribution to the expansion of literacy and libraries in West Africa with particular reference to

Nigeria, Ghana, and Sierra Leone.

#### 7.5.2.2 KANO\*

##### 7.5.2.2.1 Regulations

In order to be awarded the Bachelor of Arts (Library Science) B.A. (L.S.) degree, candidates must fulfil the regulations as follows:

Pass in (i) Written papers -

- Part I : (a) 2 written papers in Library Science and papers prescribed by the Department concerned for other subjects; and  
(b) a course in the School of General Studies.
- Part II : Two written papers in Library Science and papers prescribed by the Departments concerned.
- Part III : Three written papers in Library Science and papers prescribed by the Departments concerned for the chosen main subject.

(ii) Dissertation in library science

Satisfactory completion of the dissertation is an essential requirement for the award of the degree.

(iii) Practical work

Satisfactory completion of supervised practical work and library observation is an essential requirement for the award of the degree. All candidates are required to do supervised practical work in a library for 6 - 8 weeks and they must reach a satisfactory standard of performance in practicals. They may be required to undertake a supplementary period of supervised practicals when considered necessary. Supervised practical work is normally done at the end of Part II.

(iv) Assessment in library science

A candidate's final grade in the B.A. (L.S.) degree will be determined by:

- (a) Continuous assessment of work done on the course (40%)
- (b) Sessional examination (60%)

- Continuous assessment will operate as an important means of evaluating students' performance in Library Science. This may involve a variety of tests; observation of performance in different situations, appraisal of written exercises, assignments, field work, seminar discussion, paper reading, etc. The papers will be assessed internally.

- Sessional examination in Library Science for Part II, Part III, and dissertation are subject to

\* Summarised from: Bayero University, Department of Library Science.  
B.A. (L.S.) Degree programme, 1980

external moderation and assessment.

- (v) Assessment in subjects other than library sciences  
Examinations in subjects other than Library Science will be in accordance with the regulations of the Departments concerned.

#### 7.5.2.2.2 Admission Requirements

- (i) 5 G.C.E. of which at least two must be at A/L or have passed in the final examinations in the School of General Studies of the University, or its equivalent (I.J.M.B., i.e. Joint Matriculation Board).
- (ii) Satisfy university general requirement in English, or sit for remedial English.
- (iii) Diploma in Library Science with one "A" level.

#### 7.5.2.2.3 COURSE CONTENT

The B.A. (L.S.) course differs from the B.L.S. course at Zaria because, for instance, the academic subject studied at subsidiary level is offered for the whole duration of the programme. So far, the academic subjects opted for by students include the following:

Arabic, Hausa, Education, English, French, Fulfulde, History, Islamic Studies, and Mass communication.

As at Zaria, there are no scientific subjects offered or opted for by the students. The inclusion of Arabic, Hausa, Fulfulde, and Islamic Studies reiterate the view that curriculum innovation is more than anything else a positive response to local needs especially in the enriched culture of the North of Nigeria - "enriched" through Islamic influence and arguably through the undaunted work of Christian missionaries in the otherwise 'feudal north'.

The core of librarianship studies is much in evidence in the B.A. (L.S.) degree programme. Perhaps more significant is the trend towards indigenisation of the curriculum without necessarily compromising the international aspects of librarianship principles and norms. For example, in Part I Paper I - 'Foundations of library Science', course element LS 101 stipulates, inter alia, an 'introduction to librarianship' in which the origin and development of books and libraries is examined against a theoretical and philosophical background of "modern" librarianship with an indication of new trends in Nigerian librarianship. It does not end there, for in course LS 102 'Libraries and librarianship in Africa', an overview of library history in Africa with emphasis on Nigeria, is provided. Similarly, the

institutions of oral traditions, quranic schools, and private collections are examined in depth.

Equally, of importance in Part I is the course LS105 'Cataloguing and indexing' which not only takes account of the universally acceptable mode of education in the subject but also emphasises the approach to treating problematic titles, forenames and surnames of Nigerians and similar other terminological problems in subject indexing, taught against the background of internationally known indexes such as the BTI, Social Science Citation Index, Roget's Thesaurus, UNESCO thesaurus, ERIC thesaurus, and the like.

The theme of developing subject headings of Nigerian concepts and languages through the use of classification schemes is taken up in Part II course LS 202 'Advanced Classification' in which there is in-depth provision for critical study of classification problems of Nigerian and African materials. Similar Nigerian problems of library practice are addressed in courses LS 204 'Bibliography and collection development', and in LS 205 'Reference and information services.'

A feature that is of concern in Part III is the study of Paper II course LS 304 'Archives', in-so-far as it concerns the administration of archives and government documents. The course covers the history, principles, and 'techniques' of archival management with critical analysis of archival collections in Nigeria in terms of problems encountered in their acquisition, maintenance and use.

In course LS 305 'government publications' is held in high esteem with detailed study of publications and other documents of government - Federal, State and local in Nigeria. In addition, documents of some 'selected' (not cited) African, other governments e.g. Britain, and International organisations are studied.

The degree of B.A. (L.S.) is classified as follows:

First Class Honours	70 - 100%
Second Class Upper Division	60 - 69%
Second Class Lower Division	50 - 59%
Third Class	45 - 49%
Pass	40 - 44%

The course structure and requirements are as outlined in Tables 7.5.3 and 7.5.6 and discussed in Section 7.5.4.

#### 7.5.2.3 MAIDUGURI

#### 7.5.2.3.1 Regulations\*

The Bachelor of Library Science (BLS) course is offered under the semester system. A Semester course unit is defined as a series of fifteen one-hour lectures or a series of fifteen three hour laboratory/practical classes. The structure of the BLS programme, sketch analysis of the courses in terms of requirements, and the specific course requirements in library studies and academic subjects are as contained in Tables 7.5.4 - 7.5.7.

However, it is important to point out the fieldwork regulations as these have pertinence to the present study. The regulation on 'field experience' is contained in the form of course LS 316, which states that apart from the normal practical assignments accompanying certain courses, such as cataloguing and classification, reference and bibliography, efforts will be made to give students considerable practical experience in the university and neighbouring libraries. All students must undergo a ten-week supervised field experience in any library approved by the Head of the Department during the long vacation at the end of Part III. The performance of the students will be based upon their own personal reports, describing their experiences and upon those of their supervisors. Successful completion of the fieldwork counts towards 4 units.

#### 7.5.2.3.2 Admission requirements.

To be eligible for admission to the BLS degree programme, the candidate must inter alia (c.f. Table 7.5.3) :

- (i) Have at least 5 G.C.E. O/L including English and Mathematics, and 2 A/Ls; or ...
- (iv) Have obtained a Diploma in Library Science with a credit pass from a recognised university ...

#### 7.5.2.3.3 Course Content.

According to Table 7.5.4, the BLS programme operates under the

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\* UNIVERSITY OF MAIDUGURI. Faculty of Education. Department of Library Studies. BLS Degree Programme, 1981.

Semester system. The feature of concern in the content of the curriculum is the indigenous aspect of the courses offered. For instance, in Part II - Course LS201 : 'The library in its social and cultural context', considerable attention is paid to the traditional areas of practice in Nigerian libraries within the context of imaginative innovations as typified in oral traditions, illiteracy and libraries, and the role of libraries in national development. This is a compulsory element of the curriculum as indeed are most of the indigenised courses in the BLS programme. - e.g. LS 202 : 'Introduction to reference and bibliography'; LS 203 : 'Introduction to cataloguing and classification'; LS 209 : 'Book selection and collection building' with special emphasis on problems as encountered in African libraries and developing countries as a whole. Also in Part II course LS 210 'Introduction to library administration' focusses not only on established theory of management but on the patterns of government and administration of West African libraries with particular reference to Nigeria.

In Part III, course LS 301 : 'History of Nigerian Libraries' considers the evolution of Nigerian libraries from pre-colonial to post-independence period. This includes the study of Arab migration to West Africa, Islamic scholarship, and growth of Arabic collections. The elements developed in this course are not merely historical as there is considerable evidence of comparative analysis of current "forces" in the emergence of modern libraries in Nigeria with comparative references to library development in other West African countries and even in East Africa. As a supplement, the role of international agencies such as UNESCO, and the Carnegie Corporation are focussed in Nigerian library development.

Other courses such as : LS 302 'Research Methodology', LS 303 'Advanced Cataloguing and Classification' and LS 304 'Systematic bibliography' are no less significant in their in-depth treatment of the topics. But perhaps the most pertinent in terms of indigenous content are courses LS 305 : 'Reference and information services', and LS 309 : 'Inter-library co-operation and information networks'. In both courses, the status of reference and information services in Nigerian libraries are determined and taught according to library types. Similarly, the scope and type of library cooperative activities are determined within the framework of national and international information networks. The course outline also includes an examination of some successful cooperative efforts in the developed nations and their implications for Nigeria. In Part III there is also

provision for field experience (Course: LS 316) which is (ten-week) supervised in any approved library in Nigeria, undertaken during the long vacation. The primary objective of the fieldwork is to enable students to relate theory to practice, by working under appointed supervisors in various departments of a library. Evaluation of the student's performance is based upon the personal reports describing the student's own experiences, and upon those of his supervisors.

In the final year Part IV, the definition and scope of 'African bibliography' is provided for in course LS 401; in particular, the topic is considered within the context of Universal Bibliographic Control, World Science Information Systems, and Universal Availability of Publications because these are concepts which have developed broadly out of international organisations and institutions concerned with the compilation of world bibliography and documentation activities. Course LS 411 : 'Library buildings, furniture and equipment' considers the functions of the library building committee, the role of the librarian, building consultant and architect, and special considerations too in the design and equipment of library buildings in tropical countries. The implications of these curriculum development activities, as reflected in the three library schools at Zaria, Kano, and Maiduguri, for professional practice in Nigeria is considered in the discussion in Section 7.5.4. The discussion will to a large extent pave the way for assessing the extent of professionalism in Nigerian librarianship as presented in another chapter of this present work.

### 7.5.3 EVALUATION OF MASTER'S DEGREE PROGRAMMES (MLS) : IBADAN/ZARIA

#### 7.5.3.1 IBADAN:

##### 7.5.3.1.1 Regulations.

The MLS programme at Ibadan is a full calendar year course for candidates with a first degree. The course is basically similar to the former postgraduate diploma course in librarianship with an addition of 12 units of courses and seminars in research methods and an area of specialisation. The regulations are therefore as those prescribed for other Masters programmes at the university.

### 7.5.3.1.2. Admission Requirements

A "good" first degree from University of Ibadan or other universities recognised by Senate.

### 7.5.3.1.3 Course Content

Table 20 shows the courses offered for the MLS programme at Ibadan. Some of the compulsory courses are indicative of the growing trend towards indigenisation in the library schools' curricula in Nigeria. For instance, Course LSE 402 : 'Management theory and library administration' covers in some detail the patterns of government of West African libraries including elements such as: work evaluation, training of personnel, legislation and finance.

As can be expected, due to current trends in the field, Course LSE 411 'Libraries and society' is taught against a background of development of libraries in Africa. Similarly, the course LSE 444: 'Sources for African Studies' is an innovation which has been designed to study the nature of African Studies, sources of information, organisation and documentation problems for African Studies materials. Course LSE 451 : 'Literature and reference sources for science and technology' is similar to LSE 444 in respect of the nature and scope of information required in science and technology, the bibliographic control and documentation in the field of science and technology, and a consideration of national organisations of scientific research and institutions in Africa and other parts of the world.

Perhaps some sources of added significance to the new concept of organisation of knowledge and society's cultural heritage in book and non-book formats are reflected in for example:

LSE 491: 'Oral evidence and cultural studies' which covers in detail the nature and value of oral tradition, oral history programmes, recording of oral evidence, transcription and organisation in libraries; LSE 496 'Information science' which treats communication theory, content analysis in depth; here is included also computers and information storage and retrieval - concepts which act as corollary of field work in the pursuit of the course on oral tradition.

One course innovation that deserves a closer look is the LSE 521 : 'Information and society' course (4units) which has as its objectives : "to enable students learn most of the socio-economic and political ramifications of information generation and its use by

groups of people and by individuals in society".<sup>20</sup> Thus, the course covers major features of users, information retrieval systems interactions; specific examples of information in action in the society; formal and informal channels of information transfer, construction use and evaluation of SDI profiles, and the formulation of national information policies. On the 'utility of information' for example, the question of 'relevance' and 'precision' in the utilisation of information is examined, as determined by:

- (i) (a) the information systems designer
- (b) the information processor/retrieval mode
- (c) the user
- (ii) Information-use in largely non-literate societies.

The 'information and society' course is thus most invaluable if the essential characteristic of information need and retrieval systems as generated in Nigeria is to be preserved as necessary part of the library and information service.

Assessment of the MLS is based on written examinations at the end of the term in which the course is completed, and the pass mark is set for 40%. The fourth term is spent on writing a project and external examiners participate in the final assessment for the award of the degree.

#### 7.5.3.2 ZARIA:

##### 7.5.3.2.1. Regulations<sup>21</sup>

Two routes are available for gaining the MLS degree:

- (a) Course work (7 courses) plus thesis
- or (b) Course work (11 courses) plus an "independent study" of not less than 6,000 words.

Candidates who opt for the latter (b) must take four of their courses from the range offered at master's level by other departments within the faculty of education. Candidates without a previous librarianship qualification must take the following four courses:

- Reference and bibliography
- Organisation of knowledge
- Collection development
- Library management

##### 7.5.3.2.2 Admission requirements

First or second class honours university degree.

### 7.5.3.2.3 Course Content

The courses offered for the MLS programme are as indicated in Table 7.5.9.

However, one needs to point out that the course structure varies for candidates with BLS and non-BLS degrees. For graduates who have not taken a course in library science the two-year programme is of the same coursework/project nature as for those with library science degrees, the main difference is that in addition, the non-BLS holders' course consists of a core of foundation course (as outlined in section 7.5.3.2.1), together with an option in 'Archives administration'. Oral examination of thesis is required in both categories. Assuming that the two categories are hereby classified as 'A' and 'B' the course content is as follows:

Category 'A' (MLS 1<sup>st</sup> year) A choice of not more than 4 subjects including 'Research methodology' (compulsory).

Category 'A' (2<sup>nd</sup> year) Directed study and research project.

Category 'B' (MLS 1<sup>st</sup> year) As for category 'A' except for 'Research Methodology' not being examinable but compulsory all the same.

Category 'B' (2<sup>nd</sup> year) Same as for 'A'.

Students in both categories have in the past (and at present) registered for the following librarianship courses:

- Resources in the humanities
- Bibliographical control of official documents
- Bibliographical sources for non-book materials
- Information storage and retrieval
- Depth study of the LC Classification
- Depth study of the Dewey DC
- Organisation and retrieval of serials
- Planning of library buildings
- Library budgets and personnel
- Administration of academic libraries
- Administration of school libraries
- International and Comparative librarianship
- The book trade in Nigeria
- Reference and information service
- Book production and reprography
- Bibliometrics

The elements show that in category 'A', total lecture hours per week is 8 hours excluding a further 5 to 6 hours of tutorials and seminars (per week). Each of the courses are taught for 2 hours per week. The 'research methodology' course is not exhaustively treated in terms of quantitative techniques although it includes broad descriptions of methods of collection, analysis, and evaluation of data. A unique feature of 'Archives administration' is the consideration of problems in the acquisition, maintenance, servicing of archival collection in Nigeria.

In Category 'B8, courses are taught for 2 hours per week except for Organisation of knowledge which is taught for 3 hours per week. In interpreting the principles and rules of classification and cataloguing, Nigerian problems are constantly brought to the fore.

#### 7.5.4 EVALUATION RESULTS: Discussion

If only one type of evidence were available for evaluation of a course and of the teaching provided, the weighting and award minimum requirements such as reflected in examination regulations, dissertation, supervised practical work, etc., would surely be it. It is an important reflection of the tutor's conception of what is important, and it also reflects his intellectual sensitivity and scholarship. In addition, it reflects other variables which have been examined in earlier sections, such as indicating: the course content, objectives, and the extent to which the course is viewed as providing abilities to deal with broader issues or problems than those specifically covered. It is important to reiterate that not all courses are examinable although a majority are. It is essential, however, that for weighting purposes 'examination' here be interpreted as including all types of required student work which is evaluated to determine accomplishment.

Thus, various types of evidence for the evaluation of the library schools' curricula have been presented in this section.

In terms of weighting counting towards final non-graduate diploma award Table 7.5.8 indicates that the three library schools at Ibadan, Zaria, and Kano have varying regulations with Kano requiring extra assessment in an academic subject. Ibadan library school diploma is awarded with only a distinction, pass, or fail while Zaria awards on a pass/fail basis. Kano however provides a full classification for its own diploma in terms of distinction, credit, merit, pass, or fail. This is important when considering that only candidates with a minimum of credit may be allowed to proceed to higher levels of professional education. Zaria attempts to mend the gap in this area by allowing candidates with a pass but having 60% or over in the final assessment to proceed to the BLS. This may make all the difference to a candidate's professional career.

The BLS degree components in the three schools offering the programme have been considered in detail. For example, Table 7.5.9 shows the comparative weighting of assessment in library science and

academic subjects at Zaria is comparatively low at 10%. Furthermore, although Zaria candidates present dissertation on an approved project there is no evidence to suggest that this is graded as counting towards final degree award. Kano's position seems well balanced with library science accounting for 35%, academic subjects 45%, and 10% each for supervised practical work and dissertation.

Other evaluation variables such as admission requirements reveal quite an interesting situation for comparison. In addition to other minimum admission requirements, the library school at Maiduguri for example accepts candidates who have successfully completed the foundation course (Part I) of the programme in at least two basic disciplines available in the faculty of Arts, Social and Management studies, or Science, in the University. This requirement makes up at least 20 Semester units and it is likely to guarantee the educational preparedness of the candidates (other than through remote subjects studies by some entrants in the G.C.E. A/L), for the exacting library science degree course. The advantages to the student are many as he is already studying in an academic environment of which the library school is a part. Thus, the student is able to orientate his motivation on the course in line with the general educational objectives he is likely to face in the library school.

Variations also occur in the acceptance of holders of the Diploma in Library Science for the BLS degree, with Kano requesting an additional G.C.E. A/L qualification while Maiduguri requires the Diploma but with a credit level pass. In general, the admission requirements reflect the pursuance of standards, and this implies that student performance on the course may be evaluated on this basis in order to show either the exactness (and so necessary adjustments) of the degree courses on the weak points.

In terms of course content in the BLS degree courses a point emerges that the foreign language structure reveals the Northern library schools' commitment to the study of Arabic and French languages. For instance, Maiduguri's regulation stipulates that the language requirement set at 100 and 200 level series, i.e. Beginner's and Reading courses respectively, must be met by students before graduation. Kano's regulation in this respect seems more flexible because the language courses are taken ab initio except for those students who have previously passed any of the languages at G.C.E O/L in the West African School Certificate examination or its equivalent. This is similar to developments in some British library schools such as at Brighton and Robert Gordon's Institute where the foreign

language requirement is related to problems arising from the country's EEC membership. Similarly, the importance of a reading knowledge in Arabic or French for prospective librarians in Nigeria cannot be underestimated given the present circumstances. The diffusion of culture which exists mainly with the surrounding Islamic and French-speaking communities around Nigeria's boundaries impels the study of the languages if such culture and tradition is to be preserved. So, one must credit the schools for being far-sighted on this point.

The structure of the degree courses in librarianship also varies in the light of the nomenclature such as B.A.(L.S) and B.A., B.Sc (Education) and B.Ed. degrees with library science programme. The evidence presented in this section suggests that library science content is not just an 'addition' but consisting of substantial units which the Education students are required to take in order to gain their degree awards. For instance, Maiduguri offers compulsory elements from LS 201 - 203; LS 206, 207, 209; LS 307, 313, and 403, carefully selected to reflect the core of library and information studies.

The MLS courses present considerable challenge in their evaluation as this is the basic professional level for many candidates without librarianship degrees. How does the course represent the core in twelve months of academic study at both schools (Ibadan/Zaria)? Table 7.5.9 indicates the course offerings in conformity with Unesco's standard format for harmonised core curriculum in library, information and archive studies. A cursory glance at the table suggests clear and distinct differences in the content of both courses. For example, an imaginative approach to meeting the needs of the non-literate community is developed in Ibadan's courses on 'Sociology: African culture and oral traditions', and 'Sources for African Studies'. Zaria, on the other hand, places emphasis on language, research methods, children's literature and services, and planning of library systems. This is understandable in view of the trend that suggests Zaria MLS candidates move straight into managerial posts, including teaching, on graduation.

On the whole, because the sequence of all programmes is presented largely as a series of lectures, it is important that provision be made for small but intimate discussion groups in which students can consider the substance of the lectures and the readings, clarify problems, and interact with the Faculty in ways that the lectures do not permit.

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## CHAPTER EIGHT

### SURVEY ON CURRENT ISSUES IN PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION

"Ever since library schools were set up in Africa lip service has been paid to the need to make programmes relevant to African circumstances. This is the same call which is constantly made to relate all education to the national environment except that in professional education there is an extra urgency because what is studied in librarianship courses should connect not only to the needs of the nation in general but to the practical requirement of the profession in particular."

- Professor R. C. Bengé<sup>1</sup>

## 8.0 SURVEY ON CURRENT ISSUES IN PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION

### 8.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter complements the theoretical posture advanced in Chapter 7.3 on professional education: 'The Search for Relevance'. The overriding factors that emerged from the evaluative study on the state of professional education in Nigerian librarianship include the current vexed issues of control of library education and the indigenisation of the curriculum.

From the viewpoint of control it was found that the main representative of the library profession in Nigeria - the Nigerian Library Association (N.L.A.) had neither the power to accredit library schools nor its own certification system. To further compound the problem of control, the N.L.A. have had no clear, let alone effective, policy on the form of education and training of the librarian or aspirant professional. The new registration procedure for practising librarians in Nigeria is a half-hearted measure lacking in precise definition of a standard entry qualification into the profession, and above all, lacking the necessary mandatory legislation which would enforce standards and regulate membership. These and other shortcomings possible of being overcome placed the survey in this work into perspective. For example, what do librarians themselves think in terms of control of library education and how can the overriding view be tested and organised?

Secondly, in terms of indigenisation - a central focus of current debate in librarians' professional education - what feedbacks are there, if any, from practitioners' rather than educators' viewpoint as to the relative importance of the indigenised courses? It would seem that at the moment when there is a vacuum of policy in core areas such as education and training, standards, certification and the rest, library schools are claiming that all the feedback they have from practitioners are 'informal feedbacks from individual members of the Association (N.L.A.) as to the adequacy of our programmes.'<sup>2</sup>

It may well be that due to lack of systematic course evaluation in Nigerian librarianship, hence, little or no feedback from practitioners concerning the importance and relevance of courses to their practice, library schools have had no alternative but to continue developing parts of the curriculum which they

considered offer wide-ranging opportunity and interests both to the community and the profession in general. Unfortunately, practitioners have not always shared this view with the educators. Furthermore, the introduction of new courses specifically designed to meet local needs and reflecting international trends have, in many instances, been initiated without a firm rationale of their implications for practice, considering the associated social problems of change.

However, library educators' initiatives in playing a leading role in the profession should not be misconstrued as a take-over of the responsibilities of the professional organisation, especially as education for the profession can only take its cue from the kind of libraries that operate in the country. Rather, it seems pertinent to the discussion that not all of the innovations in the library schools' curricula have been particularly relevant nor applicable to many libraries. Many librarians usually air their concern on professional education through the medium of the annual N.L.A. Conferences but no critical evaluation and appraisal of the curricula have been conducted except in the shape of conference papers.<sup>3,4,5</sup>

Against this background, the survey on control of library education and the priority ranking of indigenised courses was conducted, in order to determine the level of importance of the various courses in the work of professional librarians. Based on respondents' information, the results provide a valuable insight into professional librarians' own assessment of library schools curricula as derived from their work experience.

## 8.2 SURVEY PROCEDURE:

During fieldwork for the present study the writer visited four library schools in Nigeria for the purpose of collecting information and documents from individuals in the various Departments. Since then two more library schools have been established but their activities are still embryonic compared with the older-established four schools in the sample. It was found that the internally-generated documents on course development, proposal papers to Senate for new courses, syllabuses, departmental information handbooks, and the various course outlines and objectives, provided a mine-field of information otherwise unavailable in published form.

Many of the library school teachers were especially cooperative by providing in addition mimeographed copies of papers written by them on their teaching areas in curriculum development. As a preliminary to the investigation, the materials received were used to develop the necessary theoretical framework as contained in the 'Chapter on Professional Education' of this study.

Having studied the various existing programmes and syllabuses of library schools situated at Ibadan, Zaria, Kano, and Maiduguri, Nigeria, courses in which the content have been indigenised to reflect local needs were selected for closer examination and analysis. The courses were grouped into four according to the Unesco common core curricula for the 'Harmonisation of Methodology and Curricula in the Training of Documentalists Librarians and Archivists',<sup>6</sup> and as adopted in the report and recommendations of the meeting of experts in library education held in Dakar in 1974.<sup>7</sup> Thus, the courses were listed in the questionnaire under the main subject headings of: (1) Libraries and librarianship in West Africa; (2) Information studies and sociology of information; (3) Bibliographical studies; (4) Processes and methods.

Respondents were asked to rank the importance of the indigenised courses by indicating in the boxes provided, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, starting with the item they consider to be of utmost priority to the least. The returns showed that the ranking was completed by all the population in the sample (100%).

With regards to sampling the views of the survey population on 'control of library education', respondents were asked in the questionnaire:

"What form of organizational structure would you recommend for the control of library education in Nigeria?"

Four coded responses guided by the phrase, 'Responsibility to be lodged in:', were provided giving each respondent one choice only from the four available responses. In this case, unlike the previous one on indigenisation, one respondent did not provide the required information, thus representing 99.4% completion of the question.

### 8.3 CONTROL OF LIBRARY EDUCATION

This theme has already been examined in some detail in the light of events happening elsewhere such as in the United Kingdom and United States of America. (C.f. Chapter on Professional

education Chapter 7.4.4). In Nigeria, the library schools have so far operated for more than two decades without any outside influence or pressure being brought to bear on them either by the profession or the government. The schools have enjoyed considerable autonomy as integral parts of the university system and therefore they have not been answerable to any other form of control. In addition, there are no independent schools or colleges such as those of Scandinavia and Wales (CLW); thus, the Nigerian schools are only subject to the regulations and control of their universities.

From the viewpoint of control by the general professional association, this has been non-existent and even the schools are warning that the currently proposed accreditation system may be counter-productive since the NLA itself at present lacks the organisational ability to enforce minimum standards let alone recommend what should be taught, to whom should such teaching be directed, and where the teaching and learning process should take place. Consequently, it was argued further, "the Association (NLA) must be aware that when not properly done, accreditation may lead to resentment on the part of the institutions which have responsibility for these programmes".<sup>8</sup>

It would seem that library educators want the professional body to clearly spell out a standard by which it will judge the educational programmes in terms of its expectation in matters such as staffing, level of training, curriculum content, and admissions/entry into the profession.

Although at the moment the NLA has yet to formulate such definitive standards, it has for some time now made its views known. For example, Bankole<sup>9</sup> stated at the 1974 Colloquium on Education and Training, that the NLA was particularly opposed to admitting into the various courses people whose qualifications were lower than those training in other professions, but provided no evidence as basis for this criticism. Furthermore, as the university reserves the right of determining who is admitted or not, it would seem that the Association's observation in this respect was misplaced. The Nigerian Medical Association (NMA) through its General Council does not for instance, dictate admission terms to medical colleges in the universities. Candidates presenting themselves for admission to the medical schools are in a majority of cases school leavers or those who have never worked in a hospital or clinic before being admitted. The library schools on the other hand stress professional achievement for admission to some courses,

and in others such as non-graduate diploma or first degree courses, candidates are normally required to have served for a minimum period in libraries before being admitted. Although this form of additional requirements do not detract from the quality of the candidate's entry qualification, admission tutors in library schools are more likely to offer experienced candidates with slightly lower grades than normally will be required, a chance to educate themselves professionally. Secondly, the library schools by interviewing their candidates before deciding whether or not to admit them are performing their duties as gatekeepers of the profession. Thus, the apparent lack of cohesiveness in policy on the part of the professional body and the seeming lukewarmness of educators to any form of control by the professional body, both create the need for assessment of the situation from the viewpoint of professional librarians themselves.

The data from the survey on control of library education in Nigeria are presented in Tables 8.1 and 8.2. According to Table 8.1, it is clear that more than half of the total sample population, 92 (or 54.4%) opted for control responsibility to be lodged in a 'National Council' under which the various organisations in the library profession have official representation. In 1971 a proposal was made for a 'National Council on Library Education'<sup>10</sup> but the author of this idea placed the responsibility firmly under the general professional association thereby excluding the interests of other groups.

The returns showed very close correlation of those who recommended that control should be the responsibility of the general professional association, i.e. 29 (or 17.2%) respondents, and those who favoured an association of professional library schools or educators, with 28 (or 16.6%). Though both results were close, the percentage difference between them and the leading factor of National Council was too large for them to be reckoned with as viable alternatives. For instance, those sympathetic to the views of the NLA would seem to prefer greater involvement by the association in controlling the content of educational programmes either along traditional lines or more radical innovations of benefit to local interests. On the other hand, an organisation of library educators at the helm of policy in professional education may lead to complacency in the determination of, for example, the professional content of education for librarianship as derived from practical needs and new techniques. Education complements

developments in the field, thus, professionals are well placed to assess current needs and predict future changes.

In terms of a separate agency with independent governance and its own staff 20 (or 11.8%) respondents were in favour of such a body. The problem with having such 'external' control is obvious as those given such a responsibility may not even be professional librarians at all but perhaps government functionaries or State Board of Control officers comprising mostly of ideological rather than professional staff. With ethnic politics and general lack of understanding of the needs of the profession, the agency, if set up, may degenerate into an invidious government or State bureaucracy. Not surprisingly therefore the returns for this category of control was low at (11.8%).

Table 8.2 illustrates that the largest single group amongst those who chose 'a national council' were in the beginning grades\* 07 - 09 with 41 (or 24.3%). Respondents in the middle grades also showed keen support for the national council idea by registering 29 (or 17.2%) scores. The senior librarians and top librarians in grades 13 - 14 and 15 - 16 scored 15 (or 8.9%) and 7 (or 4.1%) respectively; the results indicate an expression of maximum support for national council by all categories of library staff.

Comparatively, support for the rest coded responses apart from the national council seemed to fade. For example, senior librarians gave low response under 'general professional association' with 4 (or 2.4%) and 1 (or 0.6%) respectively. The results by this group of senior and top librarians proved to be statistically insignificant. Similarly, support for other categories showed merely a marginal improvement. For instance, association of professional library schools' scored 5 (or 2.9%) and 2 (or 1.2%) for those in the top grades of 13 - 14 and 15 - 16. As can be seen from the table (82), similar support for a separate agency was mainly confined to junior and middle level librarians with poor response rate of 10 (or 5.9%) and 9 (or 5.3%) respectively.

The conclusion must be that, in general, there is a popular support from professional librarians of all cadres for the setting up of a national council under which the various organisations in the library profession have official representation. Perhaps it is important to add that such council should have the necessary

\* C.f. Chapter 4 Appendices V and VI for salary attached to gradings.

legislative support similar to those of Nigerian engineers, Nigerian medical education council and others with expert advice drawn from within the profession rather than outside it. Furthermore, it is clear that Nigerian professional librarians have rejected the idea of an 'elitist' separate agency with independent governance and its own staff such as existing at the moment for Nigerian lawyers. Undoubtedly, the institution of such agency increases the risk of organisational bureaucracy far remote, and sometimes out of touch, with practical solutions to the intricate problems of professional education. Unlike in the United Kingdom where the library profession is uniquely placed with its powerful Executive Coordinating Committee for monitoring matters of policy, the association in Nigeria is considerably weakened by its impotency in nurturing similar but ineffective Committees due to problems of finance; legislative authority, and above all, a shortage of willing members who are prepared to act positively by participating in important policy activity, not least educational reforms and control in the profession. Given the power of accreditation of schools for instance, the national council would be suitably placed to coordinate professional response to trends in education and training. It could, for instance, delineate the qualifications factor by setting standards of entry into the profession and providing definition of the training process required for the various levels of professionals; by providing leadership in matters of qualification equivalences for the several overseas degrees and diplomas in librarianship obtained by Nigerian librarians, and in drawing such parity, ensure that a vetting system is available which will bring overseas-trained Nigerian librarians in line with the demands of the profession from Nigerian rather than overseas context. In this respect, the council may decide to hold mandatory examinations for librarians who qualified abroad, before they commence professional practice in Nigeria; alternatively, a training policy could be decided upon by the council making it obligatory for overseas-trained librarians to fulfil a one year internment period during which they will be accustomed to the practical problems of Nigerian librarianship, before they could register as practising professional librarians.

From the above viewpoint, it seems more likely that a national council which constitutes official representatives of organisations in the library profession, would authentically be in control of problems arising from the professionalisation of library education in Nigeria.

#### 8.4 INDIGENISATION OF THE CURRICULUM

The purpose of indigenising the library school curriculum has arisen from the need to make programmes, which were inherited from the old British Library Association syllabus in the early sixties, relevant to African circumstances. For the past two decades the library schools have been involved in the gradual process of relating librarianship courses to national needs and in some cases new courses have been designed to meet local needs. The degree to which the indigenisation process has since been carried out in the curriculum has now reached an appreciable level for its evaluation. Following the description and analysis of elements of the indigenised curriculum in the Chapter on professional education (Chapter 7.3.4), it was considered beneficial to assess the importance of such courses to professional librarians in the field if only to establish the state of priorities.

##### 8.4.1 LIBRARIES AND LIBRARIANSHIP IN WEST AFRICA:

In Table 8.3 the highest rating in importance was placed in 'the role of the library in education' with 65 (or 38.2%) indicating it was of utmost priority and 53 (or 31.2%) as high priority. 'The library in society' was placed second in order of importance with respondents scoring 54 (or 31.8%) as utmost priority and 66 (or 38.8%) as high priority. Significantly, the two high ranking subjects mentioned above were equally popular with an appreciable number of respondents who indicated, in the case of 'the role of the library in education', a medium priority scoring of 26 (or 15.3%) and 'for the library in society' 38 (or 22.3%).

At the other end of the scale, the lowest ranking scored was for 'Quranic schools and private collections'. An overwhelming 136 (80.0%) considered it to be of the lowest priority in their work, and close to that, 25 (or 14.7%) still felt it was of low priority. Similarly, a surprising outcome of the survey, given all the recent attention on the librarian's role in making available records on oral traditions, was the low ranking scored for 'Sociology: African culture and oral traditions' with the highest score in the group rating 68 (or 40.0%) as being of low priority in the respondents' work. However, if one considers closely the scoring for its high and medium priority value of 22 (or 13.0%) and 52 (or 30.6%)

respectively it would seem reasonable to suggest that a slight majority of respondents found the course to be of medium importance to their work, thus dispelling any misinterpretation of the high score in the low scale (Table 8.3).

From the returns relating to 'History of libraries' an interesting situation developed as it appeared that respondents could not really make up their mind as to its order of importance. For instance, the total percentage of the low and lowest scales was 32.5% while for the high and utmost priority scales it was 40.5%. However, the highest recorded rating for the subject fell into the medium priority category with 46 (or 27.0%) rating implying that the course rated comfortably between the high and medium priority scale. Many respondents would have undoubtedly been affected or influenced by the fact that knowledge gained from historical study of library development and library education might have been of limited value in practical terms although the philosophical standpoint which to a certain extent helps the librarian to acquaint himself with trends in professional development, cannot easily be dispensed with.

#### 8.4.2 INFORMATION STUDIES AND SOCIOLOGY OF INFORMATION:

Table 8.4 on 'Information studies and sociology of information' relates respondents' scoring in areas of current concern to the profession. Information in a developing economy is a national resource which requires efficient management if the objectives and development plans of the country are to be adequately met. The courses investigated in this group were designed and developed by Nigerian library school teachers who based the pattern of the curriculum on research findings of user needs in Nigerian libraries.

Respondents found 'user behaviour in Nigerian libraries' to be of utmost priority in the whole group, with 69 (or 40.6%) scored. Another 32 (or 18.8%) respondents found the subject of high priority in their work. This result is quite heartening since the core of librarianship's philosophy centres around users. Ranganathan's five laws of library science\* also placed emphasis on users but the corresponding professional attitude of the librarian towards the user

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\* RANGANATHAN, S. R. Five laws of library science. London: Goldston, 1931.

in these days of 'self-direction' philosophy, has proved an equal challenge.

In Nigeria and other West African libraries, readers using public libraries, for example, can be divided into three categories<sup>11</sup>: 'bulimic' readers who read for no utilitarian purpose, but for necessity sake, just as they would for stimulant needs such as drugs and alcohol. This group of readers find reading compulsive; Secondly, there are the 'swotters' who read mainly in order to cram for an examination, thus their reading was usually linked with preparation for academic and competitive professional examinations; thirdly, there are the 'information foragers' who read only occasionally and even then, only to seek specific data, mainly in their particular field of work, i.e. for professional reasons.

Inevitably, libraries require to meet the expressed or latent needs of the public. Such professional requirement is more than emphasised in academic and special libraries where library use is more laterally defined in terms of educational needs, research needs, information and study needs and other general categories of use. However, if the formal inclusion of user studies in the indigenous curriculum is to make the required advances, more literary contribution from librarians based on experience in particular library types, will be needed. At present there is a dearth of practical knowledge<sup>12,13,14</sup> which could be invigorated by theoretical learning. As the survey results showed, the general reluctance of librarians to contribute to the intellectual assessment of user behaviour in libraries was not reflected in their general acceptance of the importance of the subject in the library school curriculum, hence by implication, it is of utmost priority when applied to the nature of their professional duties.

It must be accepted though that libraries could not meet all the needs of users as Lalonde-Isnard has observed:

Lack of funds and staff means that the libraries can never satisfy every need, and must therefore choose between the elite and the people at large, between specialized documentation and semi-educational reading. Libraries can be classified as 'libraries' for bulimic readers' with a heavy turnover; semi-school libraries' frequented by young 'bulimic' readers and 'swotters'; 'mixed libraries' serving both young and/or adult 'bulimic' readers and 'swotters', and rarest of all - 'balanced libraries'<sup>15</sup> which are able to meet the requirements of all readers.

The categorisation on how libraries meet the needs of the different groups of users provide fertile grounds for exploring user behaviour in those libraries. For instance, in the case of

'information foragers' loan figures are insignificant tools for assessment since readers come to the library and use it only for specific information. Yet the sums involved in meeting their requests can be considerable, given the price of reference works. Libraries attached to a national system are generally better placed to meet the demands of the 'information foragers' because they can acquire single or few copies of works in little demand and circulate them among the branch libraries according to needs. Furthermore, the organization of documentation networks made up of special university and public libraries can, to a certain extent, mitigate the effects of lack of funds, though it cannot replace them.

According to statistics available in Table 8.4, respondents seemed to suggest that the importance of the information courses that have been indigenised in the library schools' curricula was indistinguishable in terms of priority. Nevertheless there were marginal differences which enable typical interpretation of data to be made. For instance, the course 'Information needs of Nigerian government policy makers' had the next highest recorded response as being of utmost priority 32 (18.8%) but at the same time it recorded the highest response in grade 4 considered as low priority, 47 (or 27.6%). If one evaluates the percentage returns for both grades (1 and 2) and (4 and 5) the percentage yielded are 41.8% and 38.8% respectively. With those who indicated the same course as of medium priority i.e. 33 (or 19.4%), the swing was clearly in favour of considering the course as being of high priority to Nigerian library practitioners in the sample population.

Similarly, much against expectation, the course, 'Sources of information' which ranked next in the utmost priority scale with 30 (or 17.6%) produced astonishing reactions lower down the scales: as an important course of current interest to library educators who are advancing the concept with vigour in the profession, the 45 (or 26.5%) high returns in the lowest priority scale should be a cause for concern. Two things are likely: (1) either that the course content is making very little impact on field practice due to an assumed complicated method of collection, storage and retrieval devices for dissemination of oral literature, i.e. unavailable technology through lack of funds, low motivation amongst staff to do the necessary fieldwork which puts them out of their "offices" in the library and above all cause their unwanted social interaction with members of the so-called 'lower class' of the society from whom much of the indigenous raw material for the oral literature emanates: or

(2) Library staff are insufficiently knowledgeable about how to proceed with the practical application of the theoretical principles of the course which after all is an innovation in the field.

The only library school to offer the course at a reasonably advanced stage is located at Ibadan, with substantial resources to propagate the course and further enhance its appreciation in the library profession as a whole.. However, there is very little record of the progress being made in the professional literature<sup>16</sup> leaving many professionals to rely on the abilities (or "in-abilities"?) of the school's products. Thus, according to the survey returns one could assess the course on 'Sources of information' as being of medium priority to professional librarians. Much more effort would have to be put in on the practical side if this modest achievement is not to deteriorate.

The respondents' returns on the course, 'Information needs of the non-literate and semi-literate user' were also of a disappointing nature. The non-literate semi-literate user forms the largest category of community served at least in the public sector. In particular, it is known that the information needs of this group are of different intensities. Ogunsheye<sup>17</sup> points to the needs of the adult illiterate in rural or urban industrial communities which require literacy and remedial education to make them function effectively in the modern societies. Elsewhere in the literature, the author advocates a new dynamic role of libraries providing essential service to promote literacy, to educate for change, to articulate wants of rural communities, to increase productivity and improve quality of life at the grass roots level especially in rural areas where most of the population in developing countries live.<sup>18</sup>

With 24 (or 14.1%) response rate in considering 'information needs of the non-literate' as utmost priority as compared with 46 (or 27.1%) higher responses from those who considered the course as of lowest priority, it would seem that the subject's importance to practice was low. This is consistent with the overall percentages attained for the two separate ranks (1 and 2) and (4 and 5) with 33.5% and 45.9% respectively, showing greater percentage response in the lower scales. However the medium priority scale returns of 35 (or 20.6%) ensured that in statistical terms, the respondents' priority assessment of the course was marginally low. This indicates lack of appreciation of the illiteracy factor in communications, and consequently information transfer. Thus in

demonstrating the adverse effects of illiteracy in the process of national development, Okedara states that:

Illiteracy factor automatically affects communication between literate and illiterate people... In as much as members of the rural communities are predominantly illiterates, they are expected to find communications with development agents difficult if not impossible.

Librarians constitute an important link between the government, as represented by their development officers, and the people, who are expected to forge development progress at various levels. Perhaps it is understandable too that many of the respondents in the survey felt inclined not to consider the 'information needs of non-literate' course as important because in one way or another their library community composed intellectuals and other professionals and literate people in the main. This point coupled with the fact that there are at present very few libraries in rural communities, probably explains the seeming anti-pathy of practitioners in respect of the course.

The last in the category of priorities - the course: 'Information needs of the professions', had wide-ranging scores in the scale. Those who considered the course as low priority scored 22.3% and as lowest priority, 20.0% (Table 8.4). On the other hand, 12.4% responded that the course was of utmost priority while 23.5% considered it of high priority. The difference between the two scales was significant at 6.4% indicating that more respondents felt its importance was low. But this interpretation needs to be moderated considering the comparatively high response rate of those who considered the course as of medium priority, 21.8%. Given the percentage scores on the scale as a whole, it appeared that the course had a medium level of importance in the work of respondents.

There is considerable potential, on top of what is already achieved, in the context of specific professions such as farming and medicine. In Farming, for instance, it is envisaged that 'the functions of documentalists dealing primarily (in practice almost exclusively) with the written word could be broadened to include closer involvement in services to non-literate rural people'<sup>20</sup> who form the bulk of farmers requiring information both for the improvement of their operations and understanding market trends. Similarly, the work involved in establishing the study of traditional medicine, at present at its early stages of development, implies that information needs cannot be wholly determined on the basis of 'what is good for them' but what information is really needed. It will take considerable time span for any library school course designed

on the basis of involving professionals in services to the constituent non-literate group of that profession (e.g. traditional or native medicine), to have substantial impact on practice in the field of library and information. The survey results reflect this conclusion. .

#### 8.4.3 BIBLIOGRAPHICAL STUDIES:

In general, the principles governing bibliographical studies in librarianship are universal but their application to specific countries and situations is not. The subject itself is all-embracing consisting of reference services; the listing and recording of the physical attributes of printed material (with, in some cases, an inclusion of subject content), routing; and, control. The problems of intellectual access to information both in terms of retrospective and current searching of the literature present the greatest challenge to librarians. As elsewhere in the world, Nigerian librarians have had to relate the specific tasks of bibliography to local conditions of book production, distribution, subject profiles in terms of locally-accessible headings, and literary publications which are essentially indigenous in nature, for example - African literature and creative writing: the bibliographical compilation and control of increased publication trends in folklore; history and criticism; fiction; drama; poetry - oral and written; government and politics; Nigerian perspectives in sociology, science, and the humanities. There is evidence in the literature to show that the bibliographical trends in areas listed above are appreciated by Nigerian librarians and educators.<sup>21 - 27</sup>

In the field of bibliography, Nigerian scholarly publishing has made an important impact. For instance, Ibadan University Press published the valuable Bibliography of literary contributions to Nigerian periodicals, 1946 - 1972, compiled by Bernth Lindfors, which cites over 4,000 references, and Nigerian publications 1950 - 1970, compiled by O. G. Tamuno and G. A. Alabi, which presents a twenty-year cumulation of books deposited at the Ibadan University Library. Similarly, the Ahmadu Bello University Press in Zaria which, in conjunction with the Nigerian branch of Oxford University Press produced its first title, A celebration of Black and African writing, edited by Kolawole Ogunbesan and Bruce King.<sup>28</sup> Several bibliographies,<sup>29</sup> subject and national, are continually published by

individuals and the National Library of Nigeria respectively. Perhaps the existence of these bibliographies based on Nigeria's social, economic, and cultural development lends weight to attempts by library schools to indigenise bibliographical studies in the curriculum. Thus, a feedback on the importance of the study elements in the work of practitioners has become essential.

According to Table 8.5 in which the data on bibliographical studies are presented, the most popular subject of utmost priority in the work of library practitioners was 'Reference books and subject bibliography tools in Nigeria' with 63 (or 37.0%) ranking score. An equally high response rate was recorded in rank 2 where respondents 56 (or 32.9%) considered the subject as of high priority. These two high scores in the ranks outweigh the scores at other levels indicating that far fewer people considered 'reference' as low priority. The task of information retrieval and dissemination for library clientele would be made more difficult and probably unattainable if professional librarians are not educationally prepared for knowing the tools required for answering reference enquiries on Nigeria, and subject sources of information for the researcher, professionals, e.g. lawyers, cultural artistes, doctors, historians, or anthropologists.

Ranked next in importance to respondents was the 'Nigerian National Bibliography: problems of compilation and bibliographic control' course. 51 (or 30.0%) assessed the course as being of utmost priority, with 43 (or 25.3%) scored for scale 2 - high priority. Even there was quite a reasonable return for those who considered the course as of 'medium priority' with 38 (or 22.3%). The scoring on the lower scales of four and five were comparatively low and therefore had little effect on the majority view that 'Nigerian National Bibliography problems' was a pertinent course to their work. For instance, on scale 4 respondents scored 27 (or 15.9%) while on the lowest scale (5) only 11 (or 6.5%) was scored.

In contrast to the favourable responses scored for the two courses - 'Reference Books' and 'Nigerian National Bibliography', the remaining courses under bibliographical studies attained comparatively low scores. According to Table 8.5 only 'indexing, abstracting and reviewing' could be said to have been rated mainly as medium priority with 47 (or 27.6%) scores; even then more respondents still placed the importance of the course to their work in the lower scales than they did in the high scales.

With regards to 'Children's literature and services', the results

here was disappointing with 48 (or 28.2%) indicating it was of low priority and 39 (or 22.9%) as lowest priority. Fayose believes that:

The main reason why many Nigerian school libraries have remained ineffective appendages of the schools, is the fact that they are manned by incompetent and ill-prepared staff without the faintest notion of what their duties are or of the role which the school library should play in the academic and social life of the school.<sup>30</sup>

But school library service is just on aspect of provision for children's literature and services. As past efforts of professional librarians have shown,<sup>31, 32, 33</sup> attention has been brought to focus mainly on the problems of unused books in Nigerian school libraries partly because of the nature of administering the provision of books for children through schools. Whereas another logical avenue for improving services could be through the public libraries with abounding opportunities and resources for a creative academic and recreational life for children of all ages. Unfortunately, public libraries are not as well developed as academic or special library institutions in Nigeria and this point creates the usual difficulty of assessing whether or not children's interests in learning and recreation could further be enhanced more appropriately through school libraries or as part of the main functions of public libraries. Public libraries with standard children's services are few and far between; for instance, the Lagos Municipal City Library at Odunlami, the Samaru Public Library, Zaria and the Cross River State branch library at Uyo provide good reference collections for children's use.

However, the problem of unused provision in school libraries is not peculiar to Nigeria alone. Recent research on the subject in the United Kingdom indicates that most use by pupils stemmed from interests aroused by school subjects but was often not a requirement of the taught curriculum. Thus the research findings show that resources are underused, their existence and potential as a source of learning not being appreciated by staff or pupils. This raises the question of whether the existence of library resources, other than fiction, is of value in schools where the emphasis is on formal organisation and teaching, rather than pupil-centred learning.<sup>34</sup> While Daniel's findings have salutary inferences for the Nigerian situation in terms of unused resources, one has to point to the staffing factor.

Fayose's proposals for a one-year post-graduate education for school librarians in Nigeria have already been noted. But of

particular significance are the recommendations made under 'Materials for children and young adults' as part of the curriculum for school librarians in which it was stated, among other things, that there should be two lectures and one tutorial a week on for example:

- Children's literature, with particular reference to indigenous literature in English and local languages;
- Sources of information on children's literature and related matters, criteria for selecting children's materials...

Furthermore, bibliographic compilation and subject analysis were considered essential subjects for the school librarian who may be called upon to provide reading lists of varying depths to different categories of students and teachers.

With the emphasis currently on improving the educational preparation of staff wishing to specialise in children's literature and services, the survey results become even more pertinent as they focus into attention the realistic problems of provision and utilization which are faced by practitioners in the field. Thus, much against expectation, children's literature rated rather low in the priority scales of practising librarians.

As can be seen from Table 8.5, 'Analytical and historical bibliography' scored the heaviest response as being of the lowest priority in the work of respondents, with 85 (or 50.0%) scored. A further 37 (or 21.8%) considered the course as of low priority. The scoring rate in the lower scales showed clearly that the course on analytical and historical bibliography was not important to 71.8% of the sample population of practising librarians. However, note must be taken of those who found the course as being of utmost or high priority (7.6% and 8.2%). The trend suggests that while the course may not at present be popular due to its slow development in practice, there are signs of its future potential taking into account available national retrospective sources yet unexplored bibliographically.

#### 8.4.4 PROCESSES AND METHODS

As shown in Table 8.6, the two top-rated courses considered by respondents to be of utmost priority in their work were 'classification schemes' and 'cataloguing rules'. This finding is consistent with the trend shown in the work performance of professional librarians in the sample (Chapter 6 Table 6.12). Thus, the

high ratings for both courses is not altogether surprising. For instance, under 'classification schemes' 66 (or 38.8%) reported the course as of utmost priority with 34 (or 20.0%) scored as high priority. Similarly, 61 (or 35.8%) reported 'cataloguing rules' as of utmost priority, but with a comparatively higher scoring 68 (or 40.0%) for the second scale of high priority. Overall, both courses were undoubtedly of utmost importance to respondents as has been expected, since cataloguing and classification in the processing of library materials are areas of obvious local content in indigenisation of the curriculum. For example, in the determination of entry elements in names of personal authors, the professional must recognize the complexities which characterize the cultural setting in Nigeria; the professional must also understand the complex bureaucratic institutions both traditional and newly established corporate bodies generating information and how to meet the problem of headings in the entries. In addition, changes in the country's bureaucratic structure at Federal and State levels constantly lead to scattered entries for identical works linked by several cross-references. As a result of local needs in the application of international classification schemes and cataloguing rules, considerable modifications have been found necessary for processing Nigerian materials for effective dissemination and use by library clientele.

With regards to other elements of courses ranked under 'Processes and methods', respondents clearly indicated the 'classification of special materials on Africa' as of medium priority with 64 (or 37.6%) response. Apart from the many publications originating from Nigeria about the country's social, economic and political development, non-book materials are now becoming fairly popular with some sectors of the Nigerian publishing industry thereby creating processing problems for libraries. For instance, the Library of the University of Ibadan Institute of African Studies, has an impressive collection of tape recordings of oral texts in about ten Nigerian languages. Surely, the acquisition of such texts presents its many difficulties in terms of processing. It is therefore possible to expect further expansion of courses designed to illuminate classification problems of special materials, on Africa in the library schools' programmes.

Assessment of other courses such as 'Government publications' and 'New applications in technology' showed an overwhelming low status ranking for both. As Table 8.6 shows, the lowest ranking

was for 'new applications in technology' with 102 (or 60.0%) scored. In the case of 'government publications' a large number of respondents 77 (or 45.3%) also felt that the course had low priority in their work. However, judging by the international trends in information technology and its beneficial applications in libraries, it is only a matter of time before the attitude of professional librarians in Nigeria change in favour of the trend. Similarly, governments will always continue to publish on matters of national and local importance, and if libraries are to play an effective dissemination role, professional librarians would need to be actively involved in the organisation of materials and other documents that relate to events in their own country.

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## CHAPTER NINE

### 9.0 CONCLUSION:

In the opening chapter, the basic underlying assumption that in terms of professional status 'libraries have a generic relationship with the world of learning' guided the hypotheses stated in the research. Libraries aid the learning process in all spheres of education, promote communication interchange in a society with diverse elements of tradition and culture, and act as essential agencies of development through provision of information and pertinent literature.

A cursory glance at the survey findings reveals that in many areas of the study, the validity of the hypotheses was upheld by reference to: the overall social and cultural influences of the Nigerian society on the library profession as a whole; the nature and content of professional education for librarians and the value this holds for professional practice; the effect of work on librarians in terms of social disposition and job satisfaction; the optimisation of professionals in performance of library tasks; and, librarians' main professional interests and public relations. By relating the stated hypotheses to evidence provided in the survey, the conclusions show that:

(1) The study of professionalism in librarianship can be conducted in culture-specific terms. It is recognised that in many kinds of activity problems of professional practice are of the same genre. Nevertheless an heterogeneous culture exists which tends to extrapolate professional function and problems beyond the limits of universality. For instance, in oral-aural societies such as Nigeria, local needs for services are derived from the environment itself and such needs tend to have overbearing presence in professional development.

Thus, it would seem that public awareness of the activity of librarians as part of the "lettered community" does not extend beyond mere appreciation of librarians' capability to solve foreign-oriented problems of practice which have their origin firmly rooted in ideological persuasions of the developed world. Librarians will need to court the Nigerian public that their esoteric skills are being

usefully applied to indigenous problems of practice. This will lead to a wider acceptance of the role of librarians in the community and not necessarily a role that resides mainly in the "lettered community" concourse.

(2) Given that no one occupation could possibly fulfil all the sociological criteria on professionalism, it was further hypothesised that in any evaluation of the factors, ideal values and norms are not made irrelevant by failure to achieve them. It was discovered in this investigation that the criterion that the professional association must be 'formal' and 'effective' was not met in Nigerian librarianship. At present, a professional organisation exists per se but membership and the general functioning of the professional association are purely on a voluntary basis since there is no existing legislative instrument to support the setting up of a formal structure. In general, many professional organisations in the "developing" countries seem to face similar statutory problem as the phenomenon of growth of the professions is still comparatively recent. To a certain extent observed in the survey, the effectiveness of the Nigerian Library Association seem to have been undermined as a direct result of its lack of any real form or permanence (e.g., in a secretariat).

However, in the survey, 94.1% of respondents acknowledged the relative importance of a viable professional organisation for the library profession. 91.2% professionals indicated that they are members of the professional association. The library profession itself is urgently seeking legislation to enhance professional development and association activities and this move is at an advanced stage with the government. Thus, the hypothesis seems fulfilled that even though the ideal is for a 'formal' structure, failure to attain the criterion should not detract from what has been achieved on the basis of the present organisation structure. For instance, the general professional association has worthy credentials in having adequately represented the interests of the profession in public policy matters in the past three decades: in matters such as attaining parity of remuneration for the librarian in comparison with other professions; advocating for appropriate professional gradings with library employers; and, initiating its own code of conduct for practising librarians. Such professional values as are inherent in the public policy issues reinforce the contention that ideal values and norms are not made irrelevant by failure to achieve them.

(3) The third hypothesis was based on the key premise that one is investigating the degree of professionalism and not whether librarianship is a profession or not. Thus, it was possible to assess the level of professional utilisation of library staff with the professionalism ratings of high and low for each group of tasks performed.

Similarly, the qualifications variable of respondents was related to their library ranks and performance of library tasks. The survey shows that 72.1% graduate professionals are receiving the highest salaries and have brighter career prospects than the 27.9% non-graduate respondents. The situation whereby a large majority of professionals are graduates was not so obvious a decade ago. According to the measure of respondents' work involvement in their libraries, the conclusion would seem to be that professional staff utilization in the graduate category was optimised although there were some indications of graduate professional staff performing non-professional routine library tasks. Overall, non-graduate professionals also seem to have optimised their positions in their work. However, the situation whereby the junior non-graduate professionals are found to have performed high professional library tasks is clearly undesirable. In providing fast, efficient and reliable service to library clientele, graduate skills are needed to interpret and correctly fulfil the needs of users especially in academic circumstances. The functions of the professional librarian require clear definition and interpretation by library administrators in the deployment of graduate and non-graduate staff. Thus, the hypothesis was proven in terms of the varying content of professional library tasks.

(4) Some factors such as: age, sex, qualification status, have proved instructive in demonstrating the validity or otherwise of the stereotype of librarians. For instance, in the age group distribution of Nigerian librarians sampled, the element of over-concentration of a particular age group seems noticeably absent as young and middle-aged librarians in the age range 26-30, 31-35, 36-40 and 41-45 are equally represented in the random sample. In the search for professional status, the library profession in Nigeria reflects the basic stereotype of broad-based age grouping within its ranks thus suggesting the maturity of the profession in displaying a willingness to absorb fresh ideas induced by youthful enthusiasm as well as old but wise-counselled ideas. Most young professionals privately express their desire to

play a more active role in the affairs of the profession than they are allowed at present. It is important that present leaders show positive action in encouraging younger members of the profession to participate fully in matters of professional concern.

With regards to sex, the survey findings suggest that the effect of feminisation is yet to be felt in Nigerian librarianship, therefore this factor could not be held to be of adverse effect in the attainment of professional status. The public image of Nigerian librarians does not reflect the high proportion of women as experienced in countries such as the United Kingdom and North America. Nigerian female librarians and library educators seem to be well represented in the profession especially at the top echelon of teaching and practice. In general, the 2:1 ratio of male professionals over females is indicative of overall trend and male domination of the profession seems likely to continue.

Librarians also enjoy parity status with other professions due to the fact that most practitioners possess academic qualifications comparable with those of their colleagues in other fields. Librarianship can be studied at pre-degree, degree and post-graduate levels and there is the possibility of the ultimate academic accolade of the doctorate. It can be argued that the existence of such varying levels of qualification confer professional status on library activity. The stereotype of librarians as members of the "lettered community" seems to hold in Nigeria (as in other developing countries) since the acquisition of professional and academic qualifications are still very much valued and respected by the society which the profession exists to serve.

(5) It has been demonstrated in the thesis that 'a major part of Nigerian librarianship's claim to professional status rests on its education system'. There are at present six universities in Nigeria with departments of library and information science offering first degrees. Diploma (non-graduate) courses are conducted in the universities and colleges of technology; postgraduate courses are offered at Ibadan and Zaria library schools. These activities reflect the attainment of professionalisation. Carroll defines 'professionalisation' as "that dynamic social process whereby an occupation, or one or more aspects of an occupation, such as its educational system, can be observed to change certain of its crucial characteristics in the direction of a profession, thereby taking on more of the elements of an ideal type profession"<sup>1</sup>.

In assessing the attainment of professionalisation, four library schools (Ibadan, Zaria, Kano and Maiduguri) well advanced in curriculum development, were studied in terms of the indigenous elements of their curricula. A feedback from library practitioners indicates that in terms of importance and priority to organisation needs the following courses rate very highly: 'The role of the library in education'; 'Information and society: user behaviour in Nigerian libraries'; 'Reference books and subject bibliography tools in Nigeria'; 'Cataloguing rules and application: Nigerian materials'; and, 'Classification schemes: area application, study and use'.

Following the present feeling in the profession concerning control of library education as expressed by 54.4% majority of respondents, the likely future trend is for control of education for librarianship to be vested in a 'National Council' under which the various organisations in the library profession have official representation. This would exonerate the general professional association from full responsibility in matters of accreditation and enforcement of minimum standards of educational practice and provision. Thus, practitioners will need to co-operate fully with educators and vice versa in the prosecution of professional objectives.

#### 9.1 FUTURE IMPLICATIONS:

By existing standards, the professionalism of Nigerian librarians as agents of social and economic development has recognisable attributes which seem to justify status attainment. However, whatever gains may have been made, new obstacles in the professionalisation process are likely to emerge if pertinent implications from the study are not taken into account. For instance, such factors as: the social disposition of librarians; alternative methods of professional qualification; and, general preparedness of library professionals to partake wholly in the activities of the professional association so as to further enhance the standing of the library profession in the society.

##### 9.1.1 Social:

The overall social structure of Nigerian librarians suggests that professionals engage in 'role playing'. As far as university librarians are concerned for instance, they view their roles in society as being higher in status than those of their colleagues from public, state and government libraries. Role is usually defined as 'a set of socially expected and approved behaviour patterns, consisting

of both duties and privileges, associated with a particular position in a group<sup>2</sup>. It is the 'socially expected' elements in the concept of role which link up with status. In general, professionals working in academic environments command respect within professional circles outside their immediate work environments and, perhaps more importantly, in the community as a whole; however, the likely future trend is a further widening of the social status gap between university library professionals and their counterparts from other libraries. The library school students' view is that this distinction seems institutionalised in some areas of teaching in which most examples related to theory are based on university library practice. This attempt at "university librarianship" is resented by students from other library types background and also is clearly unfavoured by their library organisations, yet the library schools can argue that university libraries represent the hallmark of library and information practice in Nigeria and thus provide the rich conglomeration of problems that can be focussed.

The social function of librarians in Nigeria is however likely to evolve beyond abstract terms in the next ten years. For instance, though the findings of this work's survey relating to the library schools' attempts to idealize the sociology of information in terms of oral tradition and sources of oral history and literature seem at present to draw lukewarm acceptance by practitioners, there is a strong possibility that in a relational sense the bulk of librarian's activity as relating to the community will centre on this important aspect of library and information service in the next decade. This follows the present high level of activity by the government to revitalise the socio-cultural tradition of the country, and librarians need not be told what to do but anticipate the sudden level of demand that would pressurise the service in response to the new developments.

Similarly, as the results presently indicate a low-level acceptance of the role of technology in libraries, the next decade will witness a reversal of this trend in the light of developments in areas of activity such as the collection, preservation, and dissemination of oral sources. In terms of scientific and industrial growth, the social functions of libraries in the country will imply new methods of information foraging, such as carrying out extension services to the professions, especially in the agricultural sector which is of current national importance. The basic tradition of titular recognition of

the 'librarian', which at present seems unlikely to change, will status- and career-wise be radically modified to take account of the demands of service. Thus, librarians will be known as 'Extension Library Officers', 'Library Scientists', 'Information specialists', reflecting the nature of their services.

The 'professional image' of the librarian, strengthened by the likely impact of increased professionalisation as reflected in the survey trends on professionalism, will be greatly enhanced by new developments, but the continuous acceptance of that image must depend on the personality of librarians and their social relations with the community served. Clearly, the social characteristics or qualities of the librarian will be similar to Bengé's suggestion of the requirements:

Qualities needed for library work include accuracy in thought and action, sound judgement, and a sense of order, intellectual curiosity and an interest in people, a strong sense of social service, and above all sufficient imagination to relate the world of recorded knowledge to the world of living people. <sup>3</sup>

Librarians from developing countries such as Nigeria face the added responsibility of relating the intellectual contents of the country's oral tradition and history, folklore and mythologies for imaginative development of children, and forging the cultural endowment of non-literates into the mainstream of intellectual activity for the enrichment and benefit of the community as a whole.

Of necessity therefore is the need for professional unity, despite a few generalisations that may be ventured into concerning noticeable personality traits which have been prominent in the profession and labelled 'ethnocentric' by respondents in this survey. Professional unity would come about only if the attitude of professional librarians alter concerning the social worth of the profession. At present, the findings in this present work do not justify such optimism with 28 out of 742 (or 3.8%) responses made in its consideration by respondents as a source of job satisfaction.

#### 9.1.2 Professional education

Another evidence of the importance of the claim of Nigerian librarianship to professional status is the fact that its professional education system is well-established in terms of providing the necessary qualifications for library personnel. It could be that in the near future a new system will evolve which will appropriately relate educational foundations to the basic and philosophical precepts of

librarianship wholly from the viewpoint of Nigerian library and information practice. From the viewpoint of the findings on indigenisation of librarianship's curriculum, the stage is now set for a forward planning of the curriculum for professional certification of library professionals.

While the overall control must rest with a national council under which the various organisations in the library profession have official representation, the professional association should design the syllabus and implement it either through colleges of technology and polytechnics, or, more in terms of expense, from its own system. Contrary to events both at home and abroad, the trend towards graduation could be expected to have only a minimal effect on the new qualification since the level of manpower need for professional librarians at present shows a shortage of personnel in comparison with other professions (fig. 9.1). The proposed structure should be at two main levels:

- (1) Associateship; and

- (2) Fellowship of the Nigerian Library Association (NLA).

Holders of the current library schools' Diploma in Library Studies/ Science could be exempted from Part I examinations of the Associateship examination. The associateship would be envisaged as a two-year course of two parts - I and II.

Similarly, holders of degrees and a qualification in librarianship could be exempted from parts I and II of the Associateship but would only become members of the Association (i.e. corporate status) on satisfactory fulfillment of supervised one-year practical training scheme (fig. 9.2).

With regards to the fellowship grade, it would require that members so admitted must be comparatively fewer, not more than five a year, than for other categories of membership. In addition, the honorary award of fellowships should only follow service of distinction to the profession by members of the NLA and in or outside the professional organisation. Transfer of membership could be permitted for former holders of the (British) A.L.A. and F.L.A. qualifications provided they obtained the qualification before 1980. In fact, such transfer must also depend on merit of the individual concerned. This route to professional certification of the librarian would not only provide a choice for the aspirant professional in terms of university

or professional certification but would also initiate further advancement on Nigerian studies in librarianship.

The controlling body of library education, as in this case may be represented by the national council, should ensure the co-operation of employers in enforcing the new grades of membership in their library organisations, and the professional association should prepare the case for suitable remuneration and ranks through its public policy system. The content of education and training of professionals is amenable to further research as this is an important area requiring additional in-depth study, but the groundwork for such study is already provided in the Chapter on 'Evaluation'. For instance, what level of education is required and at what institution? It is possible that the teaching would be done by senior librarians preferably in ranks 11 \$ 12 or above, either by correspondence, day or block release basis at local colleges of technology.

Furthermore, it is expected that in terms of manpower planning and requirements, if in about fifteen years time the system hitherto proposed is well-established, it would have produced an additional 2,250 professionals at the rate of 150 professionals a year. This would be on top of the existing government's estimate of needed library manpower of 900 (Table 9.1) per quinquennial plan (commencing 1981-85 plan) which when projected to the next fifteen years would yield on its own 2,700 library professionals (as required at the present time). With an already growing population at present estimated to be 90 million, the proposed figure of 2,250 added to the government's 2,700 imply that 4,950 librarians excluding the present 750 practitioners would by then be in practice. Adjustments would need to be made seasonally for deaths, retirements, resignations and other factors which may cause inaccuracy in the estimates. But it is clear that the present level of supply by the library schools is totally inadequate in the light of current trend in the library schools. For instance by 1980/81 session, after twelve years of its establishment, Ahmadu Bello University library school had produced 239 graduates while it is estimated that by now the number could be 280. Maiduguri produced 16 graduates in June 1981 and the numbers could well be 50 now. While it is generally accepted that libraries in Nigeria are in dire need of professional personnel, it is ironic to find that library schools are finding it rather difficult each year to attract enough candidates to fill available student places. As Nzotta observes in the case of Ibadan,

"many candidates who are offered admission fail to turn up".<sup>4</sup>

However, the fact has often been ignored that in Nigerian circumstances, while university graduation and education remains the most attractive form of institutionalised certification, the route to professional qualification need not necessarily be university-based. Many candidates who for one reason or another failed to secure admission into universities or, more importantly, the course of their choice, go on to a successful study career in colleges of technology and polytechnics, and through personal development improve their professional status in their chosen field of activity. The average Nigerian student sees the university as the ultimate accolade of his educational ambition and his standing in his local community. Less regard is paid to the importance of aspirations and the mechanics of a chosen field of study. The result is that more emphasis is placed on the end product (qualification) than the substance of its application in any activity the student proposes to be involved with.

In the context of the foregoing analysis, the proposal for the two-tier professional certification course in librarianship holds as a viable alternative to a university-based qualification. It may be argued further that it is recognised that the diploma courses being offered at the universities (three library schools offer Diplomas in library studies) are well supported by students at the moment; the problem of lack of support for courses stem from the post-graduate level where those with general degrees but who are eager to "top up" their qualification in some sort of specialisation 'just to avoid teaching at secondary schools at all costs',<sup>5</sup> consider librarianship as a last resort. This attitude tends to defeat the very purpose of professional education especially at that level and the library schools would do well to maintain standards of recruitment regardless of what-ever difficulties being presently experienced.

The proposed ANLA/FNLA would adequately lessen the widening gap between library development and the shortage of personnel to do the job required. Expansion in library and information services must be accompanied by the necessary manpower planning at all levels of library activity. Therefore, in order to meet future manpower needs, it will be necessary to initiate a professional education programme based on the mode hereby suggested.

### 9.1.3 The Professional association:

A natural corollary to the previous discussion is a consideration of the future role of the professional association as represented by the Nigerian Library Association (NLA). This is one area where it is insufficient to assume that professionalism is necessarily something altogether to be wished for. As a case in point, insofar as the proposal was made that Nigerian librarianship is a profession, then the claim can be upheld subject to the reservations stated above. The findings in this investigation also indicate that by and large the professional association enjoys the support of most library practitioners in Nigeria with 91.2% of respondents in the sample being, at least in theory, members of the NLA.

The NLA played a principal part in the establishment of the first school of librarianship in Nigeria but then was not consulted before the next school was established. The profession has been emasculated by its continuing lack of state support through legislation. The lack of a state instrument granting the professional body the authority to pursue its important activities such as in the area of education and training, the encouragement of research, the raising of professional standards and conditions generally has cast a shadow on the claim to professional status. There is a dire need for personnel in libraries of all kinds especially in the newly established universities, yet the association has no influence in bringing about the desired supply to match the new developments let alone initiate policy as to the required educational level of entry into the profession. As many writers have noted,<sup>6-9</sup> it is still a 'come one, come all' situation in which members participate in activities mainly voluntarily and therefore not bound by the unwritten laws of the association. It is this loose control over education, membership, and library legislation that greatly weakens the status of the association in the view of well meaning enthusiastic professionals now joining the NLA.

However, the situation is on the upward trend as the draft bill legislation for librarians<sup>10</sup> is already before the National Assembly for ratification and consequent promulgation into law. The findings in this investigation also indicate that by and large the professional association enjoys the support of most library practitioners in Nigeria with 91.2% of respondents in the sample being at least in theory members of the NLA. Given this situation, it is practical to suggest that a register of professionally qualified members of the Association on lines similar to those of other professional bodies could be maintained. The present

National Library of Nigeria publication of the 'Nominal list of practising librarians in Nigeria' (1982), is inadequate considering the many flaws in its system of entry such as, duplication of entries through complications of surnames being confused for first names; out-of-date information about marital status, place of work, and qualifications; and, general lack of standards in terms of noncategorisation of membership.

It is therefore proposed that following the suggestion on certification two categories of membership should exist: The qualified members with corporate status are to be (a) Associates - A.N.L.A.; and (b) Fellows - F.N.L.A. The Associates are those who are fully trained and professionally educated librarians, and the Fellows are those who have successfully completed additional work at an advanced level so as to demonstrate their ability in special areas of librarianship. Thus, library employers if enjoined to encourage recognition of the professional qualifications, would regard the inclusion of an applicant's name on the Register as a guarantee of competence. This is one way that Nigerian librarianship could enhance achieving recognition as a profession of high status.

In terms of general services to its members, the association (NLA) would need to discard its present informal structure; with no secretariat or any building of any kind which it can ascribe to its name at present, its services to members are almost nil. Influential members of the Association tend to run the organisation from their offices with incalculable consequences in terms of loss of valuable man-hours for professional work which they ought to have been doing. Since there is no secretariat, the honorary treasurer of particular branches collects subscriptions on a library door-to-door fashion while the publications manager suffers similar fate as may be required on his job. Perhaps it could be mentioned too that the financial burden of maintaining a full secretariat with salaried staff, possibly rented accommodation, and office equipments, might have eased a few problems for the association still struggling to attain sufficiently large membership, but then this has led to the present complacency. As the association derives the bulk of its funding from membership subscriptions, any huge capital investment at this stage would be deemed unwise by those whose only benefit from paying their subscriptions is the professional journal they receive three times a year.

A new spirit of dynamism is therefore called for in the rank and

file of membership. Tight control of membership could only accrue from a closed-door monopolistic policy of entry into the profession. This may sound elitist but the association needs such firm control to really establish itself both materially and professionally. In the next decade, it would augur well for the association to have its own accommodation with a modest salaried staff and its own professional reference collection for use by members. These are ideas which apart from salaried staff and reference library have in the past been subject of conference motions; for example, in 1966 the Association passed a motion calling for the establishment of a permanent secretariat for the Association,<sup>11</sup> but any such hope was dashed by the civil war and the idea has since never taken off again.

By present day standards, it would cost in the region of N150,000 (N1.00 = £0.80 sterling) represented by: Accommodation - N70,000; 1 full paid Secretary and 2 clerical staff - N30,000; initial furniture and equipment N15,000; Reference Library with one professional/two non-professionals - N35,000, to set up a Secretariat. Part of the funding would obviously be derived from members subscriptions and donations towards the cause. There could also be fund-raising activities to be organised by the various branches throughout the Federation. The establishment of the secretariat could be the first step in the right direction both for the association and the general good of the profession. As an interim measure, it is likely that the association would act from a position of strength in fulfilling its role more effectively than in the past. With continuing growth in membership, hence more funds for the association, there is likely to emerge an invigorated professional spirit from which the association could be able to exert a greater influence on public policy and improve its activities in areas indicated by respondents in the survey, for example: certification, continuing education, and attainment of legal status.

## 9.2 SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH:

This study of professionalism in the context of librarians in Nigeria is the first major survey to be conducted on the subject. As commonly associated with such primal investigation, there are areas in the study which will require further expansion and greater in-depth study. It is therefore considered essential that more detailed investigations based on some aspects of the present research should follow its conclusions.

Professional education formed a major area of detailed evaluative study in this present work. Education for librarianship in Nigeria has been examined against detailed background of the country's social and educational system. Even though the level of professionalisation was considered high, certain loose ends brought about by new demands for library personnel, need to be tied so as to achieve higher levels of professionalisation in the library education field. For instance, there is a need for curriculum planning and design for a syllabus for the new grades of membership suggested in the research, i.e. Associates and Fellows. The curriculum exercise should be preceded by a consideration of the objectives of the profession in general, and the changing role of libraries in the light of the country's socio-cultural re-awakening.

In addition, the planning of a training scheme for graduate first professionals in Nigerian libraries could possibly be investigated to take account of the training requirements of such employees.

Similarly, the role of the library schools has been examined in view of their relationship with the profession. Education for librarianship is essentially concerned with transmitting knowledge and skills which are necessary for successful performance in the profession of librarianship. This function, as has been argued in the study, places library schools at the vortex of the profession. It will be beneficial to the profession and the library schools themselves if new evidence can be studied and presented on statistics of library education. Even the present writer's visits to all the existing library schools in Nigeria in connection with the research drew a blank on the issue of library education statistics. Educators claim they are too busy and overworked to detail themselves with statistics. It is vitally important to have statistical information from the library schools on variables of admission; student profiles, in terms of numbers on particular courses and if graduates, their subject backgrounds and possibly reasons for wishing to join the profession; the supply situation of librarians from the date library school was established to the present; information on the pattern of library types or background of students, and perhaps their library placements on graduation.

The work-centred factors from which librarians derive job satisfaction have been studied in detail. The survey also relates the abundant evidence obtained from the study of work-centred factors to professional

attitude of librarians in terms of their long term main interest in library and information work. Furthermore, the level of professional utilization of librarians, on professional salary scales, with or without degrees but professionally qualified was determined. However, a missing factor which in the present writer's considered view would be of considerable value in terms of knowledge, is a sociological analysis of the personality of professional librarians. This may include biographical elements or other set limits considered fit by the would-be investigator(s). From the evidence obtained from such study, it would be possible to further enhance the assessment of librarians' attitude to their profession.

As a corollary to the information provided in the study on performance of library tasks by professionals in terms of time allocation, it would be beneficial to initiate a study that will attempt to clear the apparent uncertainties of some library employers and/or employees as to what, in the Nigerian context, qualifies as professional or non-professional duty. Even in developed countries where descriptive lists exist the situation remains unclear and perhaps unworkable in some library types such as the public library where the librarian is 'a bit of everything' in terms of the wide-ranging nature of his duties in serving the public. Thus, this particular issue begs the question as to whether there should be any hierarchy in library systems, and if so, which model would be suitably structured to accommodate the elements of division of library duties.

A positive action is called for on the part of the various States and Federal governments to increase their fund allocation to libraries if they are not to pay mere lip service to the role of the library in education and communication processes. Further studies on the role of libraries in development planning will need to be carried out. The investigation will have to relate libraries' and librarians' demand to the radical programmes now underway in some libraries, such as for example expanding services to non-literate members of the community who after all form the bulk of the country's population, assisting government policy makers in their information demands, supporting the country's cultural tradition through active participation in local and national events and helping in the publicity and back-up provision of sources of information for the events so as to raise the general standard and assimilation of the traditional elements. The investigator will recognise

and include these expected functions of the library in his assessment of government provisions in budgets and plans.

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