126. Ṣadā-yi dunyā
127. Ṣadā-yi kārgar
128. Ṣadā-yi mu'āṣir
129. Ṣadā-yi Qazvīn
130. Saman (Símnan)
131. Sangar
132. Sarbāz va inqilāb
133. Sawgand
134. Sipīdah-i surkh
135. Sipihr
136. Sīstān
137. Sitārah-i gharb
138. Surūsh-i najāt
139. Shāhid-i gharb
140. Shanbah-'i surkh
141. Shāṭir al-shu'arā'
142. Shihāb
143. Sitārah-i Islām
144. Tūfān
145. Ummat
146. Zan-i mubāriz

Persian Periodicals

1. Ārmān (Journal of the Org. of Iran's Youth & Democratic Students)
2. Āsiyā-yi javān
3. Bāmshād
4. Buhlūl
5. Damāvand
6. Dānishāmūz
7. Girahgushā
8. Guzārish-i rūz
9. Haft
10. Iliktrūnīk
11. Inqilāb-i 57 (Shīrāz)
12. Istiqlāl
13. Ittiḥād-i javān (for students)
14. Jadval-i katībah
15. Javān
16. Jumhūrī
17. Jumhūrī-i Islāmī
18. Kārgar bih pīsh (Org. for Struggle for Workers' Freedom)
19. Kārgarān
20. Kawṣar
21. Khūsh khandah
22. Māhān
23. Majallah-i kār
24. Majallah-i rūz-i haftum
25. Maktab-i mubāriz (Journal of Assoc. of Islamic Students in U.S.A. & Canada)
26. Mīhan
27. Nās (Journal of Assoc. of Workers & Students)
28. Nasl-i naw
29. Payk-i dānishjū
30. Ragbār-i imrūz
31. Rūydādnāmah
32. Ṣawt al-Shahīd
33. Shāhid
34. Surūsh
35. Umīd-i Īrān (banned before the revolution)
36. 'Urvat al-vuṣqā (by Students in the Islamic Republic Party)
37. Vīzhah-i kārgarān

Arabic Newspapers and Periodicals

1. al-Ṭarīq
2. al-Shahīd

Azeri Turkish Newspapers and Periodicals

1. Ārāz
2. Āzādlīq (Azadlık)
3. Bīrlīk
4. Chanlī Bīl (Çanli Bel)
5. Khalq sūzū (Halk sözü)
6. Kūr Ūghlī (Kör Oğlu)
7. Mullā Naṣr al-Dīn (Molla Nasreddin)
8. Ūdlāyūrdī (Odlayordı)
9. Sattār Khān (Sattar Han)
10. Ūldūz (Yıldız)
11. Vārlīq (Varlık)
12. Yūldāsh (Yoldaş)

Selection Tools

Many private publishers have been issuing their catalogs, but these appear irregularly and soon are out-dated. There is no equivalent to the American Trade List Annual in Iran. The closest to it was Fihrist-i Intishārāt-i 1352, a collective listing of some twenty publishers compiled on the anniversary of the 2,500 years of Iranian monarchy. In general it is hard to know what is currently published in Iran. Rahnamā-yi Kitāb, founded by the Book Society of Persia in 1958, had a special section on new publications and was a reliable source for most book publishing, especially in recent years. A number of similar but less regular book reviewing and listing journals have appeared, such as Barrasī-i Kitāb (Murvārīd Publications), Kitāb-i Imrūz, Naqd va Taḥqīq, and Nāmah-i Kitāb-dārān-i Īrān. Literary periodicals including Yaghmā, Sukhan, Nigīn and Vaḥīd have also carried book news every now and then.

The Iranian National Bibliography, presently a quarterly with annual cumulations, if published in a timely fashion, would serve as a good guide to current publishing in the private sector and for some government publications. First published in 1954 under the title Kitābshināsī-i Īrān (Bibliographie de l'Iran) in 1956 it changed its name to Kitābhā-yi Īrān (Bibliography of Persia) and was published by Anjuman-i Kitāb (The Book Society of Persia). A cumulation of ten years from 1954 to 1963 was published in 1967 under the title Kitābshināsī-i Dah-sālah-i Īrān. It is arranged according to the Dewey Decimal Classification and contains subject, title, and author indexes. From 1963 to 1966 two "national" bibliographies were being published. Kitābhā-yi Īrān ceased publication with volume thirteen and was superseded by Kitābshināsī-i Millī-i Īrān, which is published by the National Library in Tehran. Initially it was an annual and of little use for current publishing information. In 1969 and 1970 it came out monthly and since 1972 it has been a quarterly with

annual cumulations. With the establishment of a book depository law in 1968 its coverage and format have improved considerably. There is still the problem of time lag in publication; sometimes it exceeds six months.

The Book Depository Law of 1968 does not apply to government publications. But due to the efforts of its compilers, recently many government documents have actually been listed in the National Bibliography. There is no comprehensive guide to government publications. Ever since its establishment in 1968 the Iranian Documentation Center has been working on an index to government documents, but there is no evidence yet that this project is completed.

In 1975 the first subject guide to books in print in Iran, Fihrist-i Mawẓū'ī-i Kitābhā-yi Mawjūd dar Bāzār-i Īrān, was published by the National Library. It included both private and public sector publications available in the market and it provided full bibliographic information except for price. Owing to administrative and other difficulties it has not been kept up.

For retrospective buying, Khānbābā Mushār's Biblography of Books Printed in Persian, in spite of some omissions, is a comprehensive guide. It lists approximately 14,000 works printed in Iran, India, Turkey, and parts of Europe, and is arranged by title with a separate author index. A separate volume compiled by Mushār covers Arabic books printed in Iran. A supplement to Mushār's Bibliography of Books Printed in Persian has just been completed.

Early issues of the Iranian National Bibliography are of some use for retrospective selection of Persian imprints, but the ten-year cumulation prepared by Īraj Afshār and Ḥusayn Banī Adam for 1954-1963 is easier to use. Mr. Banī Adam's Iranian Subject Bibliography (Kitābshināsī-i Mawẓū'ī-i Īrān), published by Bungāh-i Tarjumah va Nashr-i Kitāb in 1974, is arranged by the Dewey Decimal classification and contains some 7,500 Persian works.

Another important work for retrospective selection is al-Ẕarī'ah Ilā Taṣānīf al-Shī'ah by Āghā Buzurg-i Tihrānī, published in two dozen volumes. It covers both Persian and Arabic works by a title arrangement.

In addition to those mentioned, several other bibliographies of lesser importance have been issued at different times. Afshār's Bibliography of Bibliographies provides a listing of most. A partial supplement to that bibliography is attached to this paper.

Persian Collection Building in the U.S.A.

Persian collections in U.S. libraries were generally based on private collections acquired during the mid-1950's through the efforts of concerned faculty and area specialists. After the World War II, in response to needs expressed in connection with national defense, area studies assumed importance. The National Defense Education Act in 1958 provided funds for scholarships and grants. The establishment of the Inter-University Summer Program in Near Eastern languages offered intensive language courses in Middle Eastern languages including Persian from 1957 to 1967. The establishment in 1967 of two consortia of universities for sponsoring intensive programs in Middle Eastern languages, the Peace Corps Program, the Foreign Service Institute School of Languages and Area Studies in the U.S. Department of State, and of the Department of Defense Language Institute have all had their impact on the expansion of Middle Eastern area study programs including Iranian studies. And of late the Society of Iranian Studies has played a major role in coordinating research and pointing to gaps in this area. All of this has resulted in recognition of the need for access to Persian language library resources in U.S research libraries

Response to the need for building up Persian collections has come in varying degrees from different institutions, depending on the extent of Middle Eastern library funds and staff allocations. In general, the growth of Persian collections has been much slower and less systematic than the Arabic. While every major U.S. research Middle East collection has had at least one Arabic specialist, the presence of a Persian bibliographer or area specialist as a full-time staff member has been either a temporary arrangement or an exceptional case. There have been problems of inadequate budget for Persian materials, irregularities and complexities of the Iranian book trade, lack of a dependable dealer, the Iranian restrictions on book export, postal shutdowns, and inflationary pressures.

No clear trend in the growth of book production in Iran is evident. In recent years, UNESCO statistics placed book production for 1971 at 2,190, and based on the development programs set up for the country since then an annual growth of 10% could be predicted. But because of the reasons cited above this rate has not been realized. There has been

much fluctuation in the organization, quantity and quality of publishing. It is not unrealistic, however, to assume that on the average about 2,200 titles have been published annually in Iran since 1971. About thirty-five percent of the Iranian publishing output seems to be what Dr. D.H. Partington describes as collectable for research needs in U.S. libraries.[5] This would justify the acquisition of some 770 titles of current Persian materials by a major Middle East collection. A questionnaire survey of ten major Middle East collections (Library of Congress, Harvard, Princeton, NYPL, Columbia, Michigan, Chicago, UCLA, UC at Berkeley, and the University of Texas) complemented by on-site visits of these collections in May, 1979 indicates that libraries have had varying degrees of success in acquiring the 770 titles from Iran.

Some libraries reported budgetary limitations as a reason for not having as much of Persian published material as they should. It was quite clear from conversations with the bibliographers that lack of an organized book dealer is the main reason for missing many current publications. In general, the libraries surveyed can muster the money to buy the publications they need for Persian collections if the books are offered to them. Since most of the Middle East collections do not have the required staff and time to check book lists and bibliographies to fill the gaps, those that have made buying trips to the area have achieved much better coverage for current and retrospective publications. The political developments of 1978 and the ensuing postal strikes caused periodic disruptions in the acquisition of Persian materials. Because of the experiences of the past and the unpredictability of the situation in the future, evidently American libraries need some kind of cooperative acquisition program in Iran. It may be best to hire a representative to be based in Iran. Working under the general guidance of U.S. Middle Eastern bibliographers and librarians, this representative could be a good asset by keeping informed of the publishing situation through visits to bookstores, research institutions and libraries, and by collecting and shipping the material to the participating libraries.

Abazar Sepehri

[Footnotes follow on next page]

1. Declaration by Gurūh-i Āzādī-i Kitāb va Andīshah, found in Payām-i Dānishjū, vol. 4, Sept., 1977.

2. Kitāb va Maṭbū'āt dar Īrān. Tehran: Iranian Statistical Center, 1973. pp. 19-25.

3. Barzīn, Mas'ūd. Maṭbū'āt-i Īrān, 1343-53. Tehran: Kitāb-khānah-i Bihjat, 1976. pp. 8-10.

4. See attached list.

5. Cooperation among Middle East Libraries of North America: a Workshop held in Ann Arbor, Michigan, May 26-31, 1975, sponsored by the Middle East Librarians' Association. p.39.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Literacy and Reading

1. "Afrād-i Mutafarriqah, ya'nī Afrādī kih Kitābkhvān Nīstand" (The non-reading public), Āyandagān, no. 2375 (8/28/54).

2. Ardalan, Faridūn. "Zawq-i Muṭāla'ah dar Īrān" (Interest in reading in Iran), Rahnamā-yi Kitāb, 9 (Sept., 1967), pp. 12-14.

3. Ayrāmlū, Parvīz. Ravish-i Ṣaḥīḥ-i Muṭāla'ah (The correct way of reading). Tehran: Ashrafī, 1347 [1968]. 56 p.

4. "Bayn-i Mardum va Kitāb Judā'ī Uftādah Ast" (A separation between books and people), Kayhān-i Shahristānhā, no. 1032

5. "Bīgānagī bā Kitāb" (Alienation with books), Meshed, no. 8160 (5/6/36).

6. "Charā Ustādān va Dānishjūyān Kitāb Namīkhvānand?" (Why professors and students do not read books?), Rastākhīz, no. 207 (10/15/54).

7. "Chih Ishtibāh-i Buzurgī Ast Agar Bikhvāhīm Afzāyish-i Bāsavādān Rā Dalīlī bar Gustarish va Ghanā-yi Farhang Bidānīm" (What a big mistake to consider the increased number of literates as a proof of expansion and enrichment of education), Pars-i Shīrāz, no. 4117 (7/4/36).

8. "Dānishjūyān Bāyad bā Hunar-i Kitābkhvānī Āshnā Shavand" (Students must get acquainted with the art of reading), Rastākhīz, no. 109 (10/17/54).

9. "Difā'-i Kitāb" (In defence of books), Iṭṭilā'āt, no. 15468 (8/29/36).

10. "Faqr-i Kitāb va Kitābkhvānī dar Mu'assasāt-i Āmūzishī" (The poverty of books and book reading in educational institutes), Rastākhīz, no. 217 (10/28/54).

11. "Kambūd-i Kitābkhvān Yak Durūgh-i Tablīghātī Ast" (A Shortage of book readers is a propaganda lie), Javānān-i Imrūz, no. 118 (9/3/36).

12. "Kishvarhā-yi Dar Ḥāl-i Rushd bā Qaḥṭī-i Kitāb Rūbard Hastand" (The developing countries are facing a book famine), Javānān-i Rastākhīz, no. 117 (8/28/36).

13. "Kitāb Parastī" (Book worshipping), Tamāshā, no. 338 (8/22/36).

14. "Muṭāla'ah dar Barnāmahhā-yi Āmūzishī Javānān Jā'ī Nadārad" (Reading has no place in the educational programs of young people), Kayhān (10/18/54).

15. "Rābiṭah-'i Kam'savādī bā Girānī-i Sarsām Āvar-i Kitāb" (The relationship between illiteracy and the soaring price of books), Kayhān, no. 997 (6/30/35).

16. "Ṭabaqah-'i Bāsavād Bāyad Kitāb'khvārān Rā Firiftah-i Khūd Bidānad" (The educated class must be attracted to books), Rastākhīz, no. 160 (8/8/54).

Book Publishing, Printing, And Distribution

1. Afshār, Īraj. Sayr-i Kitāb dar Īrān (Book trends in Iran). Tehran: Amīr Kabīr, 1344 [1965] 72 p.

2. Afshārpanāh, Shāhrukh. "UNESCO Regional Seminar on Book Distribution in Asia, Colombo, October 23-29, 1974," Iranian Library Association Bulletin, 7: no. 3 (Autumn, 1974), pp. 404-413.

3. "Āqāyān-i Nāshirhā Īn Musābiqah Ẓidd-i Farhangī Ast" (Dear publishers, this competition is anti-cultural), Javānān-i Rastākhīz, no. 105 (3/6/36).

4. Ashnā'ī bā Kitāb (Introduction to books). Tehran: Ittiḥādīyah-'i Nāshirīn va Kitābfurūshān, 1345- [1967-] v. 1-

5. "Az Kār-i Chāp va Nashr Ghāfilīm" (We have neglected printing and publishing), Āyandagān, no. 2361 (8/12/54).

6. "Bahā-yi Kitāb Mushakhkhaṣ Nīst" (The book price has not been fixed), Rastākhīz, no. 690 (5/22/36).

7. "Bahā-yi Kitāb 50 dar Ṣad Girāntar az Gīmat-i Tamām Shudah Ast" (The price of books is 50 % more than actual cost), Kayhān, no. 10022 (9/1/35).

8. "Bāz Ham Mū'iẓah Darbārah-'i Kitāb" (Again preaching about books), Kayhān, no. 9859 (2/21/53).

9. "Bāzār-i Kitāb Pur Rawnaq va Umīdvār Kunandah" (Book market brisk and hopeful), Rastākhīz, no. 744 (7/25/36).

10. Barrasī-i Mushkilāt-i Nashr-i Kitāb" (A study of the problems of book publishing), Teheran Economist, no. 1021 (10/15/52).

11. Behn, Wolfgang. "Book Production in Iran; its bibliographic control and cost," MELA NOTES, no. 6 (October, 1975), pp. 10-13.

12. "Bisū-yi Ḥall-i Mushkil-i Asāsī" (Toward the solution of the main problem), Rastākhīz, no. 163 (8/31/54).

13. "Book Sale Boom Hints at a Wind of Change," Kayhan International, no. 5808 (9/3/35).

14. "Breakthrough for Scholars," Tehran Journal, no. 5609 (3/12/51).

15. "Charā Bāzār-i Kitāb Īn Hamah Kasād Ast?" (Why is the book market so dull?), Būrs, no. 2748 (5/29/51).

16. "Charā Tīrāzh-i Kitāb dar Īrān Kam Ast?" (Why is book circulation so low in Iran?), Ṣubḥ-i Imrūz, no. 524 (6/6/51).

17. Craig, Bruce. "Report on a Study of Middle East Book Publishing Figures," MELA NOTES, 4 (March, 1975), pp. 22-24.

18. "Dīgar Sarmāyahguzārī Rū-yi Nashr-i Kitāb Khaṭarī Maḥsūb Namīshavad" (Investment in publishing is no longer considered a risk), Rastākhīz, no. 81 (5/13/54).

19. "Girānī-i Kāghaz Chāp-i Kitāb Rā Bih Buḥrān Kashīdah" (The high cost of paper has brought a crisis to book printing), Ittiḥād-i Millī, no. 1240 (4/25/53).

20. "Hamāhang Kardan-i Kitāb bā Pīshraft-i Iqtiṣādī" (Coordinating publishing with economic progress), Kayhān, no. 9280 (3/20/53).

21. "Ijād-i Shabakah-'i Gustardah va Munaẓẓam-i Tawẓi'-i Kitāb Ẓarūrī Ast" (It is necessary to create an expanded and regular network of book distribution), Rastākhīz, no. 544 (11/25/35).

22. "I'lān-i Khaṭar-i Nāshirān-i Kitāb" (A warning by publishers), Pārs-i Shīrāz, no. 3804 (4/10/53).

23. "Inḥiṣārṭalabī dar Kitābfurūshī" (Monopoly in bookselling), Sipīd va Siyāh, no. 1054 (10/19/52).

24. "Jum'ah Bāzār-i Kitāb" (Friday, the day for bookselling), Kayhān, no. 8852 (1/20/51).

25. "Kālbudshikāfī-i Iqtiṣād-i Kitāb" (An anatomy of book economics), Rastākhīz, no. 472 (8/29/35).

26. "Khabarhā-'i az Kitāb" (News of books), Āyandagān, no. 2082 (8/30/53).

27. "Kitāb rā Arzān Kunīm" (Let us make books cheaper), Kayhān, no. 9716 (8/27/54).

28. "Dawlat Bāyad Bih Chāp va Intishār-i Kitāb Kumak Kunad" (The government must assist in the printing and publication of books), Kayhān-i Shahristānhā, no. 9860 (2/22/35).

29. Markaz-i Āmār-i Īrān. Kitāb va Maṭbū'āt dar Īrān (Books and the press in Iran). Tehran: The Center, 1352 [1973].

30. Moradi, Nourollah and Fani, Kamran. Book Production and Publication: from author's manuscript to the printed copy. Tehran: Iranian Library Association, 1973.

31. "Kitābfurūsh Bīshtar az Kitābnivīs Mafhūm-i Kitāb rā Mīfahmād" (Booksellers understand books better than writers), Javānān-i Rastākhīz, no. 104.

32. Muṣāḥab, Mahmūd. Kitāb dar Īrān(Book situation in Iran). Tehran: Majallah-i Rāhnamā-yi Kitāb, 1342 [1963]

33. "Mushkil-i Kitāb va Arzyābī-i Qīmathā" (The book problem and evaluation of prices), Rastākhīz, no. 688 (5/19/36).

34. "Mushkil-i Nashr-i Kitāb" (The problem of publishing), Firdawsī, no. 1148 (11/1/52)

35. "Nāshirīn Bāyad Takhaṣṣusī Dāshtah Bāshand" (Publishers must specialize), Āyandagān, no. 2367 (8/18/54).

36. "Nāshirān Ganj-i Qārūn va Ṣabr-i Ayyūb Dārand" (Publishers need Qārūn's treasure and Ayyub's patience), Iṭṭilā'āt, no. 14076 (1/29/52).

37. "Nāshirān-i Kitāb Muvājih bā Buḥrānand" (Book publishers are facing a crisis), Iṭṭilā'āt, no. 14434 (3/28/53).

38. "Nāshirān: Mā tājir Nīstīm" (Publishers: we are not merchants), Javānān-i Rastākhīz, no. 72 (8/27/35).

39. "Nāshirān-i Mā Tājirān-i Bīzawq Hastand" (Our publishers are tasteless merchants), Rastākhīz, no. 209 (10/7/54).

40. "Nāshirān-i Pāytakht bih Kitābkhvān va Kitābfurūsh-i Shahristānhā Ijhāf Mīkunand" (Publishers in the capital are being unfair to the provincial book readers and sellers), Kayhān, no. 9719 (9/1/54).

41. New York State University. International Studies and World Affairs Center. Book Production and Distribution in Iran; a study of needs with recommendations within the context of social and economic development, prepared by Harold G. Emmerson (et al.). Oyster Bay, N.Y., 1966. 44 p. Contract AID/csd-1199.

42. "Nigāhī bih Rābiṭah-i Nāshir va Kitābfurūshī" (A look at the relationship between publishers and booksellers), Kayhān, no. 10103 (12/8/35).

43. "Nigāhī bih Vaz'-i Kitāb Dar Sālī kih Guzasht" (A glance at the book situation during the past year), Āyandagān, no. 1581 (12/29/51).

44. "Pakhsh-i Kitāb dar Sarāsar-i Kishvar bih Shirkat-i Ta'āvunī Vāzguzār Shūd" (Book distribution delegated to cooperatives throughout the country), Āyandagān, no. 2384 (9/9/54).

45. Partington, David H. "Book Production in the Middle East," MELA NOTES, 5 (April, 1975), pp. 14-18.

46. Pearson, James. "Current Publications for Non-Western Studies," Library Quarterly, 35 (1965), pp. 373-382.

47. Rāhnamā-yi Kitāb (Guide to books). Tehran: Book Society, 1956-

48. "Rukūd-i Bāzār-i Kitāb bā 'Alāqamand Sākhtan-i Mardum Bimuṭāla'ah Pāyān Mīyābad" (The stagnation in the book market can end by making people interested in reading), Būrs, no. 2733 (9/6/51).

49. "Rukūd-i Bāzār-i Kitāb Hamchinān Idāmah Dārad" (The stagnation in the book market still continues), Rastākhīz, no. 162 (8/20/54).

50. "Rukūd-i Guzashtah va Rawnaq-i Kunūnī-i Bāzār-i Kitāb" (Past stagnation and the present swing in the book market), Rastākhīz, no. 775 (9/3/36).

51. Schnidel, M. "Report from Iran," Horn Book, 43 (Dec., 1967), 726 ff.

52. "Shish Māh: Shishṣad 'Unvān Kitāb" (Six months, 600 titles), Rastākhīz, no. 742 (6/22/36).

53. Tābandah, K. "Kitāb dar Īrān," Kitāb-i Imrūz (Winter, 1974), pp. 59-60.

54. "Taḥavvulī Tāzah dar Kār-i Ta'līf va Nashr-i Kitāb Farāham Mīshavad" (Authorship and publishing to be revolutionized), Ibtikār, no. 318 (10/17/52).

The Press

1. Abū Ziyā, Parvīn. Directory of Iranian Newspapers. Tehran: Iranian Documentation Center, 1971.

2. 'Asgarī, Muḥammad Riẓā. Ḥuqūq-i Maṭbū'āt (The rights of the press). Tehran: University of Tehran, Faculty of Social Communications, 1351 (1972).

3. "Barrasī-i Maṭbū'āt-i Irān" (Survey of Iranian press), Iṭṭilā'āt, no. 14989 (2/1/35).

4. Barzīn, Mas'ūd. Maṭbū'āt-i Īrān, 1343-1353 (Iranian press, 1964-74). Tehran: Bihjat, 1354 [1975].

5. ----------. Tārīkh-i Maṭbū'āt-i Īrān (History of Iranian press). Tehran, 1345 [1966].

6. "Maṭbū'āt-i Īrān" (Iranian press), Būrs, no. 354? (1/19/35)

7. "Namāyishī az Pīshrafthā-yi Chashmgīr-i Maṭbū'āt dar Dahsāl-i Akhīr" (An exhibition of the press progress in the last decade), Fada-yi Īrān-i Nuvīn, no. 1958 (8/25/51).

8. "Pishrafthā-yi Fannī va Chashmgīr-i Maṭbū'āt-i Īrān dar Dahah-'i Akhīr" (Technical and noticeable changes in the Iranian press in the last decade), Āzhang, no 339 (8/25/51).

9. Rizvānī, Muḥammad Ismā'īl. Tārīkh-i Maṭbū'āt (History of the press). Tehran: University of Tehran, Faculty of Social Communications, 1351 [1972].

10. Ṣadr Hāshimī, Muḥammad. Tārīkh-i Jarāyid va Majallāt (History of newspapers and periodicals). Isfahan, 1327-28 [1948-50].

11. Salihyar, Ghulām Husayn. Chashm'andāz-i Jahānī va Vīzhagī-hā-yi Īrānī-i Maṭbū'āt (World scene and Iranian characteristics of press). Tehran: Ministry of Information and Tourism, 2535 [1976]

12. Soltani, Poori. Directory of Iranian Periodicals. Tehran: Iranian Documentation Center, 1970.

13. Ṣulḥjū, Jahāngīr. Tārīkh-i Maṭbū'āt-i Īrān va Jahān (History of Iranian and world press). Tehran: Amīr Kabīr, 1348 [1969]

14. Sutton, Elwell. "Iranian Press, 1947," Journal of Persian Studies, no 5, (Sept. 1979).

•••

PARTIAL SUPPLEMENT TO IRAJ AFSHAR'S "BIBLIOGRAPHY OF BIBLIOGRAPHIES FOR IRANIAN STUDIES"

COMPILED BY

ABAZAR SEPEHRI

1. Anvār, 'Abd Allāh. Fihrist-i Nusakh-i Khaṭṭī-i Kitābkhānah-i Millī. Tehran: Idārah-i Kull-i Kitābkhānah'hā, Vizārat-i Farhang va Hunar, 1352 [1973]

2. Banī Adam, Husayn. Kitābshināsī-i Āmūzish va Parvarish. Tehran: Anjuman-i Kitāb, 1346 [1967].

3. Bayānī, Mahdī. Kitābshināsī-i Kitābhā-yi Khaṭṭī. Tehran: Anjuman-i Āsār-i Millī, 1353 [1974].

4. Afshār, Īraj. Fihrist-i Kitābhā-yi Khaṭṭī-i Kitābkhānah-i Millī-i Malik, 1352- [1973-].

5. Afshār, Īraj. Kitābshināsī-i Dahsālah, 1333-1342. Tehran: Anjuman-i Kitāb, 1346 [1967].

6. Afshār, Īraj. Rahnamā-yi Tahqīqāt-i Īrānī. Tehran: Markaz-i Barrasī va Mu'arrifī-i Farhang-i Īrān, 1349 [1970].

7. Ātābāy, Badrī. Fihrist-i Kutub-i Dīnī va Mazhabī-i Khaṭṭī-i Kitābkhānah-i Salṭanatī. Tehran: Kitābkhānah-i Salṭanatī, 1352 [1973].

8. Dībāj, Ibrāhīm. Fihrist-i Nuskhah'hā-yi Khaṭṭī-i Kitabkhānah-i Nūrbakhsh. Tehran: Khānqāh-i Ni'mat Allāhī, 1352 [1973]

9. Fākhir, Husayn. Kutub va Asnād-i Tārīkhī-i Rāji' bih Īrān dar Ispānīyā. Tehran: [s.n.], 1344 [1965]

10. Farmānfarmāyān, Ḥāfiẓ. Kitābshināsī-i Tārīkh-i Jadīd va Mu'āṣir-i Īrān. Tehran: Ṭahūrī, 1344 [1965].

11. Farmānfarmāyān, Ḥāfiẓ. Kitābshināsī-i Tārīkh-i Mashrūṭīyat-i Īrān. Tehran: Amīr Kabīr, 1345 [1966].

12. Farzānahpūr, Ghulām Riẓā. Fihrist-i Asnād va Mukātibāt-i Tārīkhī-i Īrān. Tehran: [s.n.], 1333-1339 [1954-1960].

13. Fihrist-i Kitāb Barā-yi Kūdakān va Nawjavānān. Tehran: Shūrā-yi Kitāb-i Kūdak, 1342 [1963].

14. Fihrist-i Mawẓū'ī-i Intishārāt-i Dānishgāh-i Tihrān. Tehran: Dānishgāh, 1342 [1963].

15. Fihrist-i 15 Sālah-i (1333-1347) Mu'assasah-'i Intishārāt-i Firanklin. Tehran: Mu'assasah, 1349 [1970].

16. Ibn Nadīm. al-Fihrist; translated by Riẓā Māzandarānī. Tehran: Ibn Sīnā, 1343 [1964].

17. Ibn Yūsuf Shīrāzī, Ẓiyā' al-Dīn. Fihrist-i Kitābkhānah-'i 'Ālī-i Sipahsālār. Tehran: Maṭba'ah-i Majlis, 1315 [1936].

18. Karīmī, Khusraw. Fihrist-i Mawẓū'ī-i Kitābhā-yi Mawjūd dar Bāzār-i Īrān. Tehran: Kitābkhānah-i Millī, 1354 [1975].

19. Kitābshināsī-i Mawẓū'ī-i Īrān, 1343-1348. Tehran: Bungāh-i Tarjumah va Nashr-i Kitāb, 1352 [1973].

20. Kitābshināsī-i Tawṣīfī-i Kitābhā-yi Munāsib barā-yi Nawjavānān. Tehran: Anjuman-i Kitāb, 1353 [1974].

21. Maḥbūbī Ardakanī, Husayn. Kitābshināsī-i Kitābhā-yi Khaṭṭī-i Mahdī Bayānī. Tehran: [s.n.], 1352 [1973].

22. Majdū', Ismā'īl ibn 'Abd al-Rasūl. Fihrist al-Kutub wa-al-Rasā'il. Tehran: [s.n.], 1344 [1965].

23. Maqsūd, Javād. Fihrist-i Nuskhah'hā-yi Khaṭṭī-i Kitābkhānah'hā-yi 'Umūmī-i Iṣfahān. Tehran: [s.n.], 1349 [1970]

24. Markaz-i Khadamāt-i Kitābdārī. Ṣūrat-i Kitābhā-yi Fihrist Shudah dar Markaz. Tehran: Markaz, 1350- [1971-].

25. Maẓāhirī, Nāṣir. Kitābshināsī-i Nukhustīn Dahah-'i Inqilāb. Tehran: Kitābkhānah-i Millī, 1352 [1973].

26. Munzavī, Aḥmad. Fihrist-i Nuskhah'hā-yi Fārsī. Tehran: Sāzmān-i Farhangī-i Hamkārī-i Mantiqah'ī, 1349 [1970].

27. Naṣr, Ḥusayn. Kitābshināsī-i Tawṣīfī-i Abū Rayhān Bīrūnī. Tehran: Markaz-i Muṭāla'āt va Hamāhangī-i Farhangī, 1352 [1973].

28. Rawshan, Muḥammad. Fihrist-i Nuskhah´hā-yi Khaṭṭī-i Kitābkhānah´hā-yi Rasht va Hamadān. Tehran: Farhang-i Īrān Zamīn, 1353 [1974].

29. Rawshan, Muḥammad. Fihrist-i Nuskhah´hā-yi Khaṭṭī-i Kitābkhānah-'i 'Umūmī-i Jam'īyat-i Nashr-i Farhang-i Shahr-i Rasht. Tehran: Farhang-i Īrān Zamīn, 1352- [1973-].

30. Rawẓatī, Muḥammad 'Alī. Fihrist-i Kutub-i Khaṭṭī-i Kitābkhānah´hā-yi Iṣfahān. [s.n.], 1341 [1962].

31. Shākirī, Ramaẓān 'Alī. Fihrist-i Kutub-i Khaṭṭī-i Kitābkhānah´hā-yi 'Umūmī-i Farhang va Hunar-i Mashhad. Mashhad: [s.n.] , 1348 [1969].

32. Ta'āvunī, Shīrīn. Kitābnāmah-'i Kitābdārī. Tehran: Mu'assasah-'i Taḥqīqāt va Barnāmah´rīzī-i 'Ilmī va Āmūzishī, 1352 [1973].

33. Teheran. Dānishgāh. Dānishkadah-'i Ilāhīyāt va Ma'ārif-i Islāmī. Kitābkhānah. Fihrist-i Kitābkhānah-'i Ilāhīyāt va Ma'ārif-i Islāmī. Tehran [s.n.], 1345 [1966].

34. Teheran. Dānishgāh. Kitābkhānah. Fihrist-i Mikrūfilm´hā-yi Kitābkhānah-'i Markazī. Tehran: Dānishgāh, 1345 [1966].

35. Uṭāradī Qūchānī, 'Azīz Allāh. Makhṭūṭāt-i Fārsī dar Madīnah-'i Munavvarah. [Tehran: s.n.], 1346 [1967].

Current Problems In The Acquisition Of Library Materials From Turkey

Whereas preceding reports come from professional Middle East librarians, the observations offered here on current problems in the acquisition of library materials from Turkey are those of a long-time "patron" of Middle East collections and of a private collector of Turkish works on the history, politics and literature of the Ottoman Empire and the Republic of Turkey. Thus, these remarks are set forth with some trepidation before this forum, and with the fear that they may bear on knowledge commonplace among the members of MELA. It may, on the other hand, prove a somewhat refreshing novelty to receive these views from a person outside the pale of library science.

The principal problem to be addressed here is not strictly "current" in nature. Rather, it is the old and continuing matter of the long "sellers' market" in Turkish publications of virtually all genres endured by collectors for at least the past thirty years. The fact that the sellers still dominate this market is amply illustrated by the steadily decreasing frequency one notes in the dissemination of sales catalogues by Turkish booksellers during the last half decade. There is simply little need of such catalogues or, for that matter, of any sort of advertisement so far as the dealers are concerned; and we in this hemisphere remain the losers for it. As a matter of fact, all forms of publicity from native dealers in Turkish materials have become so infrequent that the irregular issues of Türkiye Bibliyografyası, published by the Milli Kütüphane (National Library) in Ankara, now emerge as our best printed source of publishing news from Turkey.[1] Turkish law requires that a copy of all material printed there be submitted to the Milli Kütüphane for cataloguing, retention,

and entry in Türkiye Bibliyografyası. Many publishers, however, are not prompt in fulfilling this requirement, and the staff at the library are themselves hard-pressed to remain abreast of incoming materials. Hence, their journal falls considerably short of an ideal vehicle for the timely distribution of publication notices.

Given the foregoing observations on the "sellers' market" in Turkish library materials, one may well ask the reasons for such a strange situation. They are both simple and complex in character. Although Turkey has produced on average about 3,000 new titles (one-third of them translations of foreign works) per year in recent times, individual impressions seldom exceed 4,000 copies.[2] This limitation may be attributed to two possible factors: (1) the continuing need to import immense supplies of paper in an economic system desperately short of foreign credits[3] and (2) a continuing Turkish dedication to long-established Middle Eastern business practices, whereby the entrepreneur seeks a rapid turn-over of his goods while minimizing the risks of accumulating surplus stocks or of damage to his inventory in storage. These factors also go a long way towards explaining the large number of small bookshops one finds in the sahaflar districts of Istanbul and Ankara, and the very noticeable lack of large shops throughout Turkey.

The entire web of cause and effect outlined to this point draws all the more tightly for us on this continent with the addition of two final strands: (1) the consistently modest costs of publishing in Turkey, and (2) the sheer physical distance between Turkey and ourselves. These two circumstances in themselves often contribute to the exhaustion, or nearly so, of many valuable Turkish publications before North American scholars and librarians even become aware of their very existence. The relatively low prices set on such materials place them within the budgets of a very large sector of the rapidly growing literate public in Turkey; and whatever remains in the way of stocks is usually snatched up by European scholars and book dealers who obviously enjoy relative proximity to the publishers. This later fact, moreover, reflects the wider and deeper interest in Turkish studies prevailing in Europe than in North America.

In view of the enduring importance of personal relationships in the conduct of business throughout the Middle East, the value of a long-established account with a Turkish bookseller--an account to which the seller cannot only attach a personal name but a face as well--can scarcely be over-emphasized. Put bluntly, an account based on fairly frequent personal

contacts receives priority from the Turkish bookseller--to the degree that items supposedly reserved for a less familiar account suddenly and mysteriously disappear, probably to re-emerge on the invoice of a more familiar account. Thus, frequency of personal contacts alone contributes immeasurably to the success of our European competitors in the rough-and-tumble arena of Turkish acquisitions. These buyers have further added to our own difficulties by pampering the booksellers of Istanbul with a large volume of "cash-and-carry" transactions. The small bookshops of Istanbul obviously prefer such sales over the ponderous, bureaucratic methods of acquisition now in vogue among the large libraries of North America. In short, our systems of acquisition are simply too inflexible and impersonal to serve us well in Turkey.

The sad results of this long chain of adverse circumstances are apparent in the sales catalogues of prominent European dealers in Middle Eastern publications, where one often notes items priced at ten times the cost of acquisition in Turkey.[4] The new Redhouse Turkish-English dictionary is just one case in point. The rapid disappearance of the 1974 Librarie du Liban (Beirut) reprint of the 1890 edition to the "old" Redhouse lexicon portrays a double example wherein both the original edition and the recent reprint of it--in addition to all of the other, old editions printed from 1890 to 1923--now command large sums in the marketplace. The latter case even suggests a sinister propensity for hoarding among some dealers. Whereas the 1974 reprint originally sold for $60, it is now advertized at over $100. At least a score of similar examples come to mind here, but need one really gone on? In consequence of the foregoing observations, the disposal of rather modest Turkish collections in North America now become events for considerable interest among Turkologists here. The present writer is aware of four such instances within the past ten years.

The question of how our libraries and universities have coped with this entire situation to date logically arises at this point--and, perhaps more important: how we all can overcome these difficulties both singly and cooperatively. Limitations of time and space preclude a full discussion here of the first portion of this question. The presence of only one member of Turkish origins at this MELA conference attests to the relatively small interest in Turkish studies evident today on this continent, already noted herein. Since general interest is slight, it follows that institutional resources for support, in the forms of staff, faculty and funds devoted to the acquisition of Turkish materials, are also proportion-

ately meagre. Thus, a large number of Turkish works useful to scholars in virtually all Middle Eastern Studies are overlooked by many of our libraries. Some do not even appear in the National Union Catalogue for whichever period one may consult. In short, no library on this continent has really solved the complex of problems posed here. Of course, some have been more successful than others, and the extent thereof is a measure of respective resources available to acquisition efforts.

The more successful libraries usually enjoy the services of native Turks or of "old Turkey hands" of other origins who keep a finger on the pulse of the publishing business of Istanbul and Ankara by fairly regular trips there or through correspondence with colleagues there--or both. Similarly, such libraries usually strive to cultivate a close working relationship with one or more of the well established bookstores of Istanbul.[5] Nevertheless, the collections assembled to date by even our more successful libraries tend to reflect the individual interests and prejudices of those who helped to build them. So, "balanced" collections, permitting expansion of course offerings in our universities, remain rare. Although a few Middle Eastern libraries in the United States known to this writer have amassed impressive collections of manuscripts and out-of-date publications from Turkey, one can nevertheless challenge their capacity for keeping abreast of new materials. Some large collections merely represent the product of a single, sustained effort on the part of one or two dedicated scholars.

A glance at the other end of the spectrum of Turkish collections, the end reflecting modest holdings and libraries hopeful of starting a Turkish collection, reveals a rather bleak backdrop of obstacles. And, the veteran collector blanches to anticipate the future there under current conditions for acquisitions. Unless this scene shifts soon, the experienced observer can foresee a setting wherein "the rich get richer and the poor...." The added question stands forth dramatically here as to whether or not materials even exist in sufficient quantity to provide all current Middle Eastern collections with holdings adequate for serious programs in Turkish studies. A conservative view of the marketplace suggests that available materials fall short of such a mark. Of course, a more definitive reply to this question would depend on thorough knowledge of the inventory of Turkish courses now offered and projected at all institutions of learning in this country. Even should such a survey be available, experience and intuition point to a shortage of many important works.

Turning finally to the second aspect to the question of solutions raised above, great hope for individual approaches seems remote. Holders of modest Turkish collections might resort to the methods followed by our more successful libraries if such action falls within their means. All libraries, despite the state of their Turkish holdings, can take more aggressive action in screening the critiques and notices of new Turkish publications found in the various journals produced by the faculties and institutes of the major universities of Ankara and Istanbul.[6] Given, however, delays in postal service from Turkey to remote destinations, plus even greater slowness peculiar to the very appearance of critiques and notices in Turkish journals in the first place, one can foresee a lack of timeliness even in this course of action. Since rapidly rising airfares promise to make travel to Turkey by North American scholars and library officials even more infrequent than at present, a cooperative approach to acquisition efforts there seems all the more desirable.

The most obvious and economical course, by way of a cooperative acquisition effort in Turkey, is a joint subsidy of an established scholar in Turkish studies who needs funds to support an extended visit there. Both the American Research Institute in Turkey (ARIT), with branches in Istanbul and Ankara, and the Turkish Studies Association (TSA) surely can identify and recommend scholars in search of assistance--who would be willing to represent a group of libraries in patrolling Turkish bookstalls. Every Turkologist worth his salt spends much of his time in Istanbul at book shopping in any case. Since both the Istanbul and Ankara branches of ARIT maintain valuable Turkish collections on their own premises, a collective arrangement for acquisition among MELA libraries may also prove feasible through the branch directors or their librarians. TSA, on the other hand, can identify native Turkish scholars who plan to visit North America. Such scholars not only can provide news of Turkish publishing events--and works in progress--but can even undertake a role in acquisition for us, given appropriate incentives.

Whatever may be the specific approaches taken by libraries here in acquiring Turkish materials, this observer urges one general policy for all: when in doubt, buy! Regardless of recent, world-wide inflationary trends in the publishing industry, Turkish works of all genres remain all-time bargains. While Turkish publishing costs, like those everywhere, have risen sharply, drastic devaluations of the lira against the dollar since 1970 have held prices for foreign buyers relatively static to the present.[7]

Robert F. Zeidner

1. Issued quarterly on average.

2. These 3,000 titles do not include the great mass of often heavy tomes produced by the "official" presses in the forms of government reports and studies. In the private sector, reprints also add significantly to these titles. Reprints, however, lag far behind demand in the marketplace, as demonstrated by the great number of "out-of-stock" entries found in the sales catalogues of the Tűrk Tarih Kurumu (The Turkish Historical Society). For further information on the private sector in Turkish publications, see: Herbert R. Lottman, "The Foreign Desk: The Turkish Market for Books," Publishers Weekly 216 (No. 8, 20 August, 1979): 64.

3. Governmental control of scarce stocks of paper has often figured as a subtle fashion of press censorship in Turkey since World War II.

4. This is true of both out-of-print and new materials--and of serials as well as monographs.

5. The booksellers, in turn, often suggest and set aside for old customers new or rare works of possible interest.

6. They are: in Ankara--Ankara University, Hacettepe University and Middle East Technical University; in Istanbul--Istanbul University, Istanvul Technical University and Boğaziçi University (formerly Robert College).

7. The lira has fallen steadily in the past decade from a ratio of 9:1 to almost 80:1.

Problems Of The Middle East Specialist In Small Libraries

This paper deals with the problems encountered by the area specialist librarian, specifically the Middle Eastern specialist of a small vernacular language collection in a small to medium-size research library.

The first problem encountered in the smaller collection, and probably the most potentially devasting one, is the identification and acquisition of titles which fall within the parameters of the collection development profile and which the budget can accomodate. If this cannot be dealt with successfully, the other problem areas will never be of concern!

Desirable individual titles must be identified as soon after publication as possible, since printings of scholarly materials in the Middle East--as in many of the world's developing countries--are limited to a few hundred copies and go out-of-print very quickly; if titles are not ordered within approximately two years after publication, the chances of acquiring them, even at increased cost, are very slender. National bibliographies are few, frequently appear only after a lapse of several years beyond the publication year specified, and are not usually comprehensive in coverage. As a result, dealers' catalogs and the Middle East Accessions List[1] are our best sources of information about what is being published in the area.

Limited staff time (which will be discussed more fully in other sections) often forces much selection onto the teaching faculty. Undeniably, the teaching faculty are in the best position to evaluate worthwhile scholarly contributions, just as they should be eminently aware of what is being published in the fields of specialization, and what titles will support current and future course offerings. However, faculty members also are very busy and, often, book selection is relegated to a position of low priority in their schedules, leaving the perusal of catalogs and suggested titles until semester breaks, summer vacation, etc. This causes delays in ordering and, sometimes,

difficulty in budgetary allocations, especially toward the end of the fiscal year. Teaching faculty also may tend to concentrate on the development of the collection in the area of their own interests to the neglect of other areas, the result being that the collection is not well balanced. The area specialist librarian, then, must monitor selections as to budget, balance the collection's development and notify faculty of important titles mentioned outside the usual review media and selection tools.

As mentioned earlier, prompt ordering is essential to assure obtaining desired titles. The sooner after publication a title is ordered, the greater the chance of obtaining it. When a dealer's catalog lists a title, only two or three copies may be in stock and a six-month delay in placing the order probably means the dealer will have to search for it in O-P stocks; this can severely reduce the odds of ever adding this title to the collection. The cost to a dealer of searching for an O-P title means that he may not be willing to do it for a low-volume customer, such as the small collection, or that he will supply materials only at increased cost, often prohibitive to our limited budgets. Blanket order plans, which under other circumstances might solve the problem of identifying desired titles quickly, are not feasible when funds are very limited and a broad range of subjects must be covered.

The small size of a collection often means no full-time staff commitment. The area specialist librarian often has part-time responsibilities in the acquisitions, cataloging, reference and/or serials departments. When there is a full-time professional staff member devoted to the vernacular language collection, the volume of work usually does not justify the hiring of full-time clerical assistance. The result: the area specialist performs many clerical tasks, such as pre-order and pre-cat bibliographic searching, but especially typing (of master cards, references, etc.) and physical processing. Student assistants are heavily depended upon to perform clerical tasks, at great expense, since they require long training in the wide variety of tasks involved and then often stay on the job only one or two semesters.

The scarcity of authorities for Arabic headings causes a particularly acute problem in the smaller collection, as the specialist must spend much time searching for established forms of headings and,often, when no authoriety can be found, must establish the heading locally. While the Arabic Script Union List[2] and the forthcoming Near East National Union List, which will provide an even wider data base, have improved the situation, this area is a dramatic example

of the need for cooperative efforts among libraries to share authority information and bibliographic records.

Generally, vernacular language materials must be handled outside the basic work flow of the library's processing procedures. Increased chances for typographical and other clerical errors exist due to staff unfamiliarity with the languages and special needs of these materials. This is particularly noticeable in catalog filing, where creative approaches to the dilemmas created by "unusual" headings often scatter the same heading in several places in the catalog.

While these problems are not unique to the small Middle East collection--indeed, they are universal within librarianship as a whole and are experienced to a greater or lesser degree in all Middle East collections--they are intensified when one person handles all aspects of the collection. It is impossible for this person to be in several places simultaneously, and the juggling necessary to keep books ordered, to supervise searching, to create original bibliographic records, and to be available for reference service, often means that inadequate attention is given to special projects until forgotten or until they reach crisis proportions, requiring "first-aid" measures. On the other hand, there is a decided advantage in having responsibility for the collection clearly centralized, allowing the area specialist--given adequate funds and administrative lee-way--to readily assess his or her professional accomplishments.

Brenda Bickett

[1] Prepared by the Cairo Library of Congress Office, it includes all titles acquired through the PL-480 program and distributed to major Middle East collection in the U.S.A. Most titles are in Arabic; all are published in the Arab world.

[2] Published in microfiche by MELA, Ann Arbor, 1978; 1st Supplement, 1979.

Bibliographic Instruction For Students Of The Middle East

Introduction

Library literature pertaining to bibliographic instruction in academic libraries has grown steadily in the past five years, most noticeably since the publication of a document prepared by the ACRL Bibliographic Instruction Task Force in 1975 which outlined a set of guidelines and provided a model statement of instructional objectives. While occasional articles have dealt with the planning and development of programs for subject bibliography, most of the literature focuses on general bibliographic instruction at the undergraduate level. The recommendations and guidelines discussed in these works are sufficiently broad to lend themselves to adaptation by area specialists, and in recognition of this the present paper will attemp a synthesis of the recurring themes and principles. At the same time, however, the role of an area studies librarian, the identification of his/her clientele, and the very nature of Middle Eastern bibliography pose unique problems which further complicate the already difficult task of developing effective instructional programs. Therefore, a section of this discussion will be devoted to identifying some of these problems and offering suggestions toward their solution. I must state explicitly from the start that many of my observations are subjective: I have not yet attempted a formal survey of students in Middle Eastern studies at Harvard University, nor have I solicited the opinions of my MELA colleagues concerning the unique problems of Middle Eastern bibliographic instruction. Rather, I contacted a small number of my MELA associates who work at libraries which I suspected might be actively promoting bibliographic instruction, to request descriptions of programs they had designed. Therefore, these observations are by necessity limited to my experience in assisting students at Harvard and to my recent deliberations over how to implement an effective instructional program

at Harvard.

The Harvard University Library system is highly decentralized, thereby making it extremely difficult to mandate uniform policies or practices concerning bibliographic instruction. Because the College Library has only recently undertaken general B I programs aimed at reaching large numbers of students, the level of bibliographic expertise varies dramatically among different segments of the student population. Therefore, some of the suggestions offered in this paper will not apply to the requirements of your own situation. Luckily, however, we have active practitioners of the art among us, and can turn to each other for guidance and even inspiration.

Background

Bibliographic instruction, variously referred to as library orientation or library instruction, seeks to educate patrons in the role of the library in meeting information needs. While recognizing that orientation to the physical aspects of a library setting, such as the location of various tools, facilities, and departments, is a necessary component of library education, the primary focus of instructional programs is on the bibliographic apparatus housed in the library. The theoretical rationale for this endeavor is that the library, as the primary research-supporting facility, should play an important educational role in the academic community it serves. Furthermore, librarians, as the principal actors in this facility, are the most effective teachers of good bibliographic skills. The practical ramifications of bibliographic instruction are obvious and therefore less frequently disputed than the theoretical: search strategy and related bibliographic techniques are more efficiently acquired through organized instruction than individually by trial and error.

Bibliographic instruction programs are as varied as the libraries which offer them, ranging the full gamut from ad hoc, personalized tutoring to full year, credit-bearing courses. The materials used in these programs are equally diverse, but generally fall into one of five main categories: library/facilities guidebooks, guides to the literature (bibliographies and pathfinders), point of use guides, workbooks, and self-paced manuals and exercises. Regardless of the quality or quantity of printed materials provided, however, such materials merely facilitate instruction and in no case should they supplant the active and visible participation of a librarian at some point in the instruction process. Even in cases where contact is minimal, the library user is provided an opportun-

ity to identify a human resource behind the confusing morass of printed resources. More significantly, the fundamental concepts of strategy and methodology, and the basic organization and function of various bibliographic tools are more effectively communicated and stressed in oral rather than printed fashion.

Step 1: Warning

Assuming you are convinced of the value of a systematic approach to bibliographic instruction and are willing to expend the time and energy required to create and maintain a program, your first and major concern is how to attract students to your service. While some students have at least a vague notion of the wealth of library resources, only the most motivated or the previously "indoctrinated" will seek your guidance in learning bibliographic tools. Considering the numerous demands on students' time, and that most have already "survived" academically without such instruction, it is easy to see why weak library skills are perpetuated and even re-inforced.

Most studies on bibliographic instruction emphasize that the effective program does not exist in a vacuum, and that no amount of campaigning and banner waving about the value of bibliographic know-how will succeed in reaching and enticing all those who need help. Faculty support, especially in schools where bibliographic instruction is not part of the curriculum, is therefore vital to the success of a B I program. All too often, however, faculty prove to be a resistant force. While most recognize the importance of the library to their own research, far fewer are eager to "sacrifice" class time for library instruction. Therefore, like any good sales-person, we must be prepared to package our product in the most convincing and marketable way possible, and to advocate the merits of our role as instructor.

Step 2: Assessment

An assessment of the salient features of your library environment is a useful preliminary step to formulating the most appropriate B I service for your community. Specifically, the complexity of your library system, the extent and depth of bibliographic instruction programs already in place, and the perceived strengths and weaknesses of your Middle Eastern collection should all help determine both your strategy for identifying and reaching patrons, and the focal points of your presentation. As Middle Eastern librarians, our primary concern with regard to B I is to enlighten students concerning the wide range of available materials which facilitate research

in their field. Yet, if for lack of general B I programs at your school these students come to you with virtually no bibliographic skills save what they have acquired by trial and error, your specialized instruction may be wasted unless you incorporate such basic concepts as search strategy and functions of the broad bibliographic categories into your presentation. Furthermore, the area librarians' territory is vast, spanning several subjects, languages, and centuries. Instruction can range the entire spectrum from the lowest common denominator to the most specialized, depending on our patrons' needs.

Your role and physical location in the library are additional factors to consider during this assesment period. Consider, for example, the Middle Eastern Department at Harvard. The Department is housed on the top floor of Widener Library, the University's major research library for the social studies and the humanities. The Department's primary functions are to acquire and process Middle Eastern vernacular language materials, to acquire Middle Eastern imprints in other languages, and to recommend non-Middle Eastern imprints for purchase. Our vernacular script catalogues are located just outside the Department and function as a union catalogue of Middle Eastern language titles for the University. While general reference service is available in Widener and in Harvard's undergraduate libraries Lamont and Hilles, the Department is the University's primary source for library staff knowledgeable about the Middle East. New graduate students, who are oriented to the Department when they commence their studies at Harvard, generally come directly to the Department when they need assistance. Undergraduates, both in Middle Eastern studies and in other fields, as well as non-Middle Eastern graduate students, tend to try the general reference departments in either Widener or the undergraduate libraries first, and are referred to the Department when their questions require specialized attention. From this assessment of the current pattern of reference service at Widener, an important non-user group was identified: the general reference staffs at Widener, Lamont and Hilles. Their role as intermediaries between some patrons and the Department is a factor the Department must consider in developing a wide-reaching program. While it is neither practical nor desirable to give specialized B I to those with only a passing research interest in the Middle East, it is important to ensure that such patrons are competently served in their requests for assistance. Therefore, the Library's general reference personnel (who must be relied on for this service) are a target for a certain type of bibliographic instruction. Such skills as romanization and finding Arabic authors

in Western language catalogues could prove very useful for reference librarians.

Faculty who are convinced of the value of good bibliographic skills can also help in reaching students you are personally unable to instruct. A few professors at Harvard give problem-solving assignments which require the use of bibliographic tools and reference works. If more faculty members could be encouraged to develop such assignments and to urge their students to use library services, the level of "non-use" would decrease significantly. In short, while you cannot possibly provide specialized instruction to everyone having a present or potential Middle Eastern research interest, an analysis of your library environment and of the patterns of library use or non-use can help you to identify your targets and to develop the best tactics for reaching them. Furthermore, by analyzing the quality and extent of general bibliographic instruction already provided to your clientele, you can better determine the focus of your own presentation.

Designing a Program

While instructional programs must be tailored to the needs of a particular situation, and there are pros and cons to every mode of instruction, two rules of thumb for designing any program are to enumerate learning objectives from the outset and to seek outside guidance in planning and preparing materials for distribution. Enumerating learning objectives forces you to focus on the learning process first, rather than on teaching methods. After recording the skills and concepts that you want the students to learn, you can proceed to develop a presentation which will promote those learning objectives. This method ensures a logical, systematic approach to program design, and creates a vehicle for future evaluation. The Policy and Planning Committee of ACRL's Bibliographic Instruction Section has recently published a handbook which includes a model statement of objectives for instructional programs aimed at undergraduates. These objectives are adaptable to the needs of any level of student, however, and are especially useful to the subject/area librarian in identifying general skills which might have to be incorporated in a specialized presentation, depending on the backgrounds of the students or the availability of such instruction elsewhere in the library.

Once you have assessed your community's needs, identified your target groups, ennumerated learning objectives, solicited the support of at least one

faculty member, and decided upon your strategy for reaching the various target groups, you are ready to prepare written guides and possibly exercises for distribution. The most efficient way to proceed is to first examine what has already been done by your MELA colleagues. While you may choose to refine these materials to satisfy the needs of your students or to harmonize with the format of your presentation, working from what is available saves time and energy. MELA Notes provides a convenient vehicle for communicating news in the realm of bibliographic instruction. Furthermore, the Library Orientation-Instruction Exchange (LOEX), based at Eastern Michigan Univsity, provides librarians in this country with a vehicle for exchanging B I materials aimed at all levels of library users. Therefore, I would like to make the following recommendations:

1. That MELA survey its members to gather information on the nature and extent of the B I they provide and the materials they have prepared;
2. That we contribute articles to MELA Notes informing one another of efforts to implement B I in our schools;
3. That we contribute to LOEX materials we have prepared so that each of us as well as non-Middle Eastern specialists can benefit from our work.

The survey could appear as a directory in an issue of MELA Notes and would enable us to contact each other for advice or guidance in assessing user needs and developing programs responsive to them. The directory would include information about those of us who have or intend to contribute to LOEX so that we could request copies from that organization rather than burden one another with the expensive and time-consuming job of distribution. Lastly, the articles could range from the purely descriptive to actual features on specific topics or skills. Such articles could provide valuable insight to those of us struggling to develop good programs, or could be adapted and reproduced for the use of our patrons.

In conclusion, bibliographic instruction means much more than orienting a person to the physical setting of a library or disseminating reams of printed materials. It entails a great deal of preparation and sensitivity to the users' needs and a careful assesment of the information resources in your library. Such considerable demands on our time are justifiable if we accept the concept that our users have the right to "bibliographic knowhow." If so, we must accept

the responsibility of imparting it.

Useful Sources Consulted:

American Library Association. Association of College and Research Libraries. Bibliographic Instruction Section. Policy and Planning Committee. Bibliographic Instruction Handbook. Chicago: ACRL, 1979.

This is available from the Association of College and Research Libraries, 50 East Huron, Chicago, Illinois 60611. The price is $5.00 for ACRL members and $6.00 for others.

Conference on Library Orientation, 3rd, Eastern Michigan University, 1973. Planning and Developing a Library Orientation Program. Proceedings of the Third Annual Conference on Library Orientation for Academic Libraries, Eastern Michigan University, May 3-4, 1973, edited by Mary Bolner. Ann Arbor: Pierian Press, 1975.

Conference on Library Orientation, 6th, Eastern Michigan University, 1976. Library Instruction in the Seventies: State of the Art. Papers presented at the 6th Annual Conference on Library Orientation, edited by Hannelore B. Rader. Ann Arbor, Pierian Press, 1977.

Conference on the Evaluation of Library Instruction, University of Denver, 1973. Evaluating Library Use Instruction. Papers, edited by Richard J. Beeler. Ann Arbor: Pierian Press, 1975.

"Guidelines for Bibliographic Instruction in Academic Libraries," College and Research Library News, no. 4, April 1977, p. 92.

Hills, P.J. "Library Instruction and the Development of the Individual," Journal of Librarianship, VI, October 1974, pp. 255-263.

LOEX News; This is a newsletter published by Project LOEX (Library Orientation-Instruction Exchange). For information, or to contribute materials, write Project LOEX, Center of Educational Resources, Eastern Michigan University, Ypsilanti, Michigan, 48197.

Lubans, John Jr., ed. Educating the Library User. New York: Bowker, 1974.

Nielson, Erland K. "On the Teaching of Subject Bibliography in History," Libri, XXIV, 1974, pp. 171-208.

"Towards Guidelines for Bibliographic Instruction in Academic Libraries," College and Research Library News, no. 5, May 1975, pp. 137-9, 169-71.

Francine H. McNulty

Toward Bibliographic Control Of The Arabic Literature Of The New World

From 1892, when the first Arabic periodical (Kawkab Amīrikā) was printed and circulated in the New World, until the present time, some 389 or more newspapers and journals plus hundreds of monographs have appeared to form the body of Arab immigrant, or Mahjar, writings.

This paper reflects my work in progress on the bibliographic control of these writings. I have divided my comments into three parts. First, I will look into the historical background of Arab-Americans in order to illustrate the literary themes and trends which dominate their works. Next, I will report on the progress of my work and mention some of the outstanding sources which have been invaluable to this research. Finally, I will discuss some of the problems which have developed in this project.

Historical Background

During the early part of the 19th century and possible even earlier, a small number of Arabic-speaking people found their way to the New World. The most significant immigration took place during the 1860's when Greater Syria (and especially the area of Lebanon) was undergoing great political and religious turmoil. Although religious persecution obviously caused many Arab-Christians to abandon their homelands in search of religious freedom, there were other reasons for this later, massive emigration.

As early as the 1820's, Lebanon was exposed to Western influences due to the educational activities of the Jesuits and various Episcopalian missions. By 1860 there were over thirty schools for Lebanese Christians. It was from amongst the graduates of these schools that reformers and revolutionaries emerged seeking the destruction of their Ottoman masters. Many among them also left their homeland for Egypt and the Western world, seeking freedom from oppression.

During the 19th century, Lebanon's economy was predominantly agricultural. However famine, land erosion, a harsh feudal system and heavy taxation all contributed to massive migrations to the cities of destitute farmers in search of work. In the cities, too, economic conditions were deteriorating because of the dumping of cheap, colorful, European-produced material into the marketplace, undercutting the locally produced fabrics and contributing, consequently, to unemployment in the textile industry. Thus, unable to find work, many farmers emmigrated to the New World in search of economic opportunities.

Those who found their way to the American continent represented a microcosm of their homeland and thus formed as diversified a community as the one they had left behind. The Mahjar writings reflect this variety of background, education, and talent. One finds political treatises and religious essays and poems, along with the fancies of romantic poets -- all written in both the dialects and literary styles brought from home.

The Work in Progress

After a preliminary search, I found that no one to date had attempted to compile a comprehensive bibliography of the wealth of Mahjar literature. I decided to attempt such a task, and Harvard College Library supported my endeavor with a grant to cover travel expenses to New York and Washington, and to offset clerical costs.

After a year of working on this project (as yet incomplete) I have been successful in amassing over 5,000 cards containing bio-bibliographical information about the authors and brief annotations on each listed title, whether monograph, essay, or article. In order to collect this information I examined all the critical and analytical works written about Mahjar authors available to me. Towards this end, George Ṣaydaḥ's book, Adabunā wa-'Udabā'unā fī al-Māhjir al-Amrīkiyah, and Ya'qūb al-'Ūdāt's al-Naṭiqūn bi-al-ḍād fī Amrīkā al-Janūbiyah, have been invaluable resources. Both works are encyclopedic in scope, each author trying to be comprehensive in his information.

For the periodical listings, in addition to the titles mentioned above, I should note that Tarrāzī's Tārīkh al-Ṣiḥāfah al-'Arabīyah is the most useful and accurate guide for tracing Arabic periodicals in America up to the year 1929. For the subsequent era Qandīljī's book, al-'Arab fi al-Mahjar al-Amrīkī, is useful in updating the periodical list despite the fact that both sources (the latter more than the former, often lack detailed, accurate information.

As a second step, I checked every edition of several important Arab and Mahjar periodicals like al-Adīb, al-Mashriq, al-Abḥāth, al-Funūn, al-Samīr, al-Sā'iḥ al-Mumtāz, al-'Uṣbah, and many other journals, adding new titles to the list or revising my previous notes with the more accurate information obtained from these sources.

At this point I should point out that al-Adīb of Beirut is indeed an outstanding literary record of Mahjar writings. In almost every issue since 1942 one can find reviews, critical essays and advertisements about immigrant writings and authors. After compiling all my notes, I found that my material was beyond the boundaries of my original project, my resources, or the time available to complete it. Consequently I limited the scope to literary works written primarily in Arabic, and to critical essays, commentaries or reviews about Mahjar literature, whether in Arabic, Russian or any major Western language. The choice of literature, and not science, for example, was based on the fact that literature represents the bulk of writings by these immigrants and best provides a view of their lives and culture.

Mahjar literary works reflect the personal and communal life of the Arabs in the New World. This literature also illustrates the relations between the Arab immigrants and their American neighbors as well as their continued exchange of ideas with their counterparts from their native land.

Problems

Since the subject matter of the bibliography is Adab al-Mahjar it is necessary to find a clear understanding of this term so that inclusion or exclusion is accordingly justifiable.

Adab al-Mahjar means the literature of the immigrants, and despite the fact that the geographical location is not specified, the generally accepted interpretation is immigrants to the New World. Thus, it would seem straight forward for any bibliographer to include all the literature produced by Arabs who have migrated to the New World.

However, the literary critics and historians of this period have neither strictly defined nor applied consistently the term Adab al-Mahjar. We have two examples in the work Adab al-Mahjar by 'Īsá al-Nā'ūrī, a Jordanian specialist in this field, and Adabunā... by George Ṣaydaḥ, who himself was an immigrant poet. Dr. al-Nā'ūrī defines Adab al-Mahjar as the literature (which he limits to poetry) of those Arabs who emigrated to the New World around the last quarter of the 19th and the early part of the 20th centuries,

and whose style was changed by their new environment. His definition is incomplete, for it ignores other literary genres, such as fiction, and does not include other periods in history when there have been important contributions by immigrant writers. What then should we call the immigrant literature produced in the 1950's, 1960's, and the 1970's? Furthermore, from a bibliographer's point of view, it is difficult to trace and evaluate the styles and themes of great numbers of poets, etc., to find out whether or not their styles have significantly changed by their new environments, as Dr. al-Nā'ūrī requires by his definition. In addition, al-Nā'ūrī was inconsistent in his inclusions and exclusions of Mahjar writers. He included the Lebanese poet Riyāḍ Ma'lūf who only spent a few years in the New World, and he excluded Ahmad Zaki Abu Shadi who lived the last nine years of his life in the New World and wrote extensively during that time.

George Ṣaydaḥ, on the other hand, has included a wide circle of immigrant writers in his work, Adabunā, and by doing so comes close to the simple and direct linguistic meaning of Adab al-mahjar, which in turn is more useful to bibliographers. However, Mr. Ṣaydaḥ went too far by including diplomats like Amīn Arsalān and those whom he called "by-passers," who paid but brief visits to the Americas and only circumstantially produced some of their writings while here. One such example would be Yūsuf Ḥuwayyik.

Thus, the problem of a comprehensive definition still exists and bibliographers have no choice but to accomodate both approaches in order to be comprehensive, thus leaving the quarrel to the critics to resolve.

There were technical problems as well to be resolved. For instance, not all the Arabic books or articles that were published in America were written by actual Mahjar writers. Some authors of books published here never saw these shores. The elimination of a few was easy, but there are numerous other authors who have been difficult to trace. Discretion was also necessary in the choice of periodicals, some being too obscure for consideration. Finally, there remains one important technical problem which needs immediate attention -- the proper preservation of this body of literature from deterioration. While Harvard College and the Library of Congress have taken certain steps to preserve some of this important heritage by the use of microfilm, there remain several important newspapers and journals, like al-Sharq, found in Brazil, which are not being preserved and will be lost forever through negligence.

In conclusion, three points should be stressed: first, the bibliographic control of the major Mahjar writings is possible with the commitment of sufficient funds. Second, there is an urgency to complete the task in the near future before these valuable primary sources are lost for ever. Finally, more scientific studies are required to uncover the depth of immigrant writings; certain periodicals, like al-Jāmi'ah al-Suryānīyah, have not been properly utilized, and there are works in translation by Mahjar writers that have not been researched.

Fawzi Abdulrazak

The Role Of The Library School In The Career Of The Middle Eastern Librarian

The role of the library school in the career of the Middle Eastern librarian has been, traditionally, to provide a sequence of courses whose completion by the student results in the awarding of the master of library science. I will not limit this discussion to the time spent in the M.L.S. program, however. Attention must also be given to the entire career life of the individual. There is a duty or responsibility of the library school not only to provide basic education, but also to provide for and participate in the education of the librarian throughout that person's career. Therefore, this paper will address the subject as encompassing the library school's role from the beginning of coursework taken in library science on through the pursuit of lifelong learning by the Middle Eastern librarian. Most of my remarks will concern only library schools in the United States.

Library schools have always strived to provide a well balanced curriculum which prepares the student for work in any type of library. They have also realized that special types of libraries and library work require knowledge beyond that which can be obtained in a general curriculum. To meet this need, curricula have been expanded to include specialized study. This may be accomplished with elective tracks or joint-degree programs. Both have relevance for the student wishing to become a Middle Eastern librarian. Let us examine these alternatives more closely, and consider the current and possible roles of the library school.

Most library schools in the United States offer a standard core of courses and a choice of elective tracks. These tracks often focus on a type of library such as school, public, academic, and special, and on information science. Generally, they include special courses on administration according to library type and on reading materials for the user of that library, and concentrations in areas such as cataloging, automation, reference, or media, according to the

preparation desired. On the other hand, the student may, in some library schools, elect comprehensive course-work emphasizing activities such as reference or cataloging, rather than a type of library.

A third type of elective track, relevant to the Middle Eastern librarian, is that in which the student takes a series of courses pertaining to a certain subject. According to Antje Lemke, in a recent paper on alternative specialties, library schools offer subject specialities in medicine (36 schools), law (31 schools), archives (23 schools), rare books (22 schools), music (11 schools), art (10 schools), publishing, ethnic studies, drug information, gerontology, disadvantaged/handicapped, prison services, urban programs, geography/maps, performing arts, theology, and Latin American, South East Asian and African area bibliography.[1] There appear to be no specialized tracks for Middle East librarianship.

The library science student aspiring to be a Middle Eastern librarian probably elects a track emphasizing academic libraries, or takes a concentration in cataloging or reference. Following the tight course requirements of the standard core curriculum and the elective track, the student usually does not have sufficient free elective hours available to be able to take courses outside the library school that might be relevant to future employment. These courses would include Middle Eastern languages, history, politics, geography, literature, economics, and religion, to name just a few avenues of study.

Unless the future Middle Eastern librarian comes to the library school with a master's degree already obtained in Middle Eastern studies, it is likely that this individual graduates with a feeling of being unprepared. At the least, there may be a certain regret that the curriculum did not allow for the inclusion of other courses that would have been beneficial. To compensate, some may go on to earn a second M.A. degree in a Middle Eastern subject.

What is the role of the library school? I do believe that the library school has the responsibility to determine whether there is a need for a specialized area studies track. More specifically, the library school should look for needs for area specialization covering all major regions of the world, and the Middle East should be among those regions investigated.

If a need for a subject speciality focusing on Middle Eastern librarianship is found, the library school should investigate such a speciality, just as it does for law, medicine, and other subjects. There should be at least some library schools in the United States which will train the student for work with Middle Eastern materials collection.

The program does not have to be elaborate, but it should be available. Using the courses in Latin

American Library Studies at the Graduate School of Library Science at the University of Texas at Austin as a guide, there might be courses such as Middle Eastern Archives, Middle Eastern Publishing and Book Trade, Library Development in the Middle East, Seminar in Middle Eastern Library Studies, Middle Eastern Materials: Humanities & Social Sciences. This is all a possibility. It could become a reality.

One question arises. Suppose the library school feels that the student still needs coursework concentrating on a type of library or library activity? An immediate problem is how to include so many different sources in a regular master's degree program.

In the usual master's degree curriculum in library science, the student completes approximately 36 semester hours of coursework (more for the quarter system). If 12 or more of these hours are taken in the core curriculum, only 24 are left for electives, approximately eight courses. If one subtracts the advanced courses in cataloging and reference, a course on administration of a type of library, and a course on automation, there is very little time left for a well-rounded Middle Eastern librarianship specialization.

One solution may be at hand. According to Kay Murray, writing in the Spring 1978 issue of Journal of Education for Librarianship, the two-year master's program may become more of an option in library education in the next five years.[2] Ms. Murray says that "the rationale for extending the length of the master's program focuses on two factors: the expanded basic knowledge now required for librarianship, and the increasing pressure to achieve some competence in a specialized area while in library school." She further states that it is generally agreed by proponents of the lengthened master's program that both factors cannot be accomplished in one year. It should be noted that all Canadian library schools have two-year programs.

Of interest to the future Middle Eastern librarian is the second factor given, "increased pressure to achieve some competence in a specialized area." This competence does not come with three electives. Therefore, it would appear that a viable program in Middle Eastern librarianship may have to extend over a two-year period. One would expect that the Middle Eastern librarian graduating from such a program would feel far more prepared to assume duties as a specialist than one going through a regular curriculum.

Now let us turn to a second method that library schools are using to expand the curriculum. This is the joint-degree program. In a joint-degree program, the library school offers a master's degree in cooperation with a department outside the library school,

which also offers a master's degree. The student following this program graduates with two master's degrees, perhaps taking some courses which count towards each degree simultaneously.

The 1975 Delphi Study on the "Future of Library Education," revealed support for joint-degree programs with other fields.[3] Sixty-nine percent of the respondents to a survey conducted during the study considered such degrees desirable, and, in fact, they seem to be proliferating.

At present, in American library schools, there are joint-degree programs in such fields as history, education, psychology, anthropology, communications, geography, geology, medicine, art, music, mathematics, law, business, American studies, and Latin American studies, as well as a joint-degree program in Near Eastern studies. This is offered by the School of Library and Information Studies at the University of California at Berkeley, in cooperation with the Department of Near Eastern Studies. Upon graduation from this program, the student receives the M.L.S. and M.A. degrees.

In joint-degree programs, the number of credit hours of library science ranges from 15 to 30 semester hours or 27 to 45 quarter hours, with no concensus on required length of program. In the case of the University of California program, which takes two years, 33 quarter hours of library science and 32 quarter hours of Near Eastern studies, for a total of 65 hours, is the normal requirement.

Joint-degree programs in Middle Eastern studies could overcome the obligation to obtain a second master's degree either before or after library science education, often necessary to qualify for specialized positions.

Again, it should be the role of the library school to determine the need for such programs, and where a need is found, to meet this need. Considering the trend toward joint-degree programs, with encouragement, there may be more of these in the future in the area of Middle Eastern studies.

In this paper, I will not describe the various types of post-master's programs, such as those leading to sixth year certification, or advanced master's and doctoral degrees. One would expect that, in these studies, the student would concentrate on a very specialized area of Middle Eastern librarianship. To my knowledge, there are no programs at these levels specifically for the Middle Eastern librarian, in the United States. Perhaps the need is there. It would seem to be the role of the library school to provide such programs if a need is determined.

The final area in which the library school has a role in the career of the Middle Eastern librarian is that of continuing education. Much has been written

and said about continuing education, especially during the last ten years. Julie Virgo, Patricia Dunkel, and Pauline Angione aptly sum up the reasons behind the concept. They say, "Professional education, if it is successful, does not mark the termination of the educational process; indeed, it signifies the beginning of a life of continuous learning and renewal."[4]

The policy statement recently put forth by the Council on Quality Continuing Library Education: Information-Library-Media Programs lists the goals and objectives of continuing education as follows: "A lifetime of learning is an obligation of all those who work in or with library-information-media services in carrying out their major assigned role in society to identify, select, organize, retrieve, disseminate, and make totally accessible to all, the record of human thought. The goals of continuing library-information-media education are to: Improve library, information, and media services to all; Maintain the lifelong competence of practitioners. Regular participation in continuing education activities enables the practitioners to: Refresh basic education by mastering new concepts in a constantly changing environment; Keep up with the new knowledge and skills required to perform their roles responsibly; Prepare for specialization in a new area."[5]

Recognizing its role in the lifelong education of the librarian, the library school is now focusing more and more on continuing education. In fact, Jo Ann Bell, in a 1977 survey of accredited library schools in the United States, found that seventy-nine percent had some type of continuing education activity or recognition.[6] These fell into nine broad categories:

1. scheduling courses at convenient hours or through extension:
2. developing new courses which reflect current and emerging concepts;
3. cooperating with other agencies and institutions;
4. maintaining liaison with groups that are working on continuing education;
5. developing and offering workshops and institutions on content not covered in the master's program;
6. offering sixth-year certificate and doctoral programs;
7. admitting practicing librarians to select graduate courses;
8. providing training on continuing education during the master's program;
9. conducting research on continuing educa- needs, problems, etc.

Probably of most interest to the Middle Eastern librarian is the activity of developing and offering workshops and institutions on content not covered in the master's degree curriculum. The following examples of workshops, institutes, and one-day programs given by library schools in 1979 illustrate their nature: "Time and Stress Management for Libraries" (Case Western Reserve University), "OCLC for the Uninitiated" (College of St. Catherine), "Anglo-American Cataloging Rules II" (University of Rhode Island, Drexel University, and others), "Conservation Management in Libraries and Archives" (Simmons College), "Resources in the Health Sciences" (Western Michigan University), "An Introduction to the Use of Legal Materials in Libraries" (University of Iowa), "On Line Searching of Data Bases" (Drexel University, Western Michigan University and others), "Bilingual Librarianship and Information Science" (McGill University), "Effective Communication" amd "Effective Interviewing" (Columbia University).

These are just a few of the many listed in 1979 issues of Continuing Education Communicator, published by CLENE (Continuing Library Education Network and Exchange). However, I have found no continuing education offered by a library school for the Middle Eastern Librarian.

It does not seem too unrealistic to expect the library school to offer such activities for the Middle Eastern librarian. Special courses and workshops on cataloging and using Middle Eastern materials, on special problems of the Middle Eastern librarian, and on the possibilities of automation would surely be beneficial. The Middle East Librarians' Association has already shown the way with its own invaluable workshops, and library schools can do no better than to follow suit.

In summary, the role of the library school in the career of the Middle Eastern Librarian is, I believe, not only to provide the standard curriculum, along with a choice of tracks based on various subject areas. It also includes the provision of appropriate programs geared to fit the requirements of the Middle Eastern librarian. These may be elective tracks within the M.L.S. degree or joint-degree programs leading to two master's degrees.

The role of the library school further includes the provision of continuing education, based on the needs of the practicing Middle Eastern librarian. In today's world of emphasis on specialized education, the library school must recognize these roles to remain the viable institution which we have all come to depend upon.

Veronica S. Pantelidis

1. Antje Bultman Lemke, "Alternative Specialities in Library Education," paper presented at the meeting of the Association of American Library Schools, Chicago, 1978. (Published in Journal of Education for Librarianship 18 (Spring, 1978): pp. 285-294.

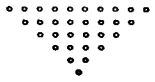
2. Kay Murray, "The Structure of M.L.S. Programs in American Library Schools," Journal of Education for Librarianship 18 (Spring, 1978) : p. 279.

3. K.E. Vance, R.M. Magrill, and T.W. Downen, "Future of Library Education: 1975 Delphi Study,"Journal of Education for Librarianship 18 (Summer, 1977):

4. Julie Virgo, Patricia McConaghey Dunkel, and Pauline V. Angione, Continuing Library Education Needs Assessment and Model Programs, Washington: The Continuing Library Education Network and Exchange, n.d., p. 1

5. The Council on Quality Continuing Library Education: Information--Library--Media Programs, "Guidelines for Quality Continuing Library--Information--Media Profession," August, 1979, p. 4 (Mimeo)

6. Jo Ann Bell,"The Role of the Library School in Providing Continuing Education for the Profession," Journal of Education for Librarianship 19 (Winter, 1979) : pp. 248-259.



Non-Print Resources For Study Of The Middle East

The term "non-print research tools" covers an incredibly large body of work in the areas of still photography, film, videotape, slides and sound recordings. For the purposes of this discussion, painting, sculpture, and realia are not included though much of the information on organization and preservation for research purposes is just as valid and necessary for those forms of non-print material.

Much primary research material which formerly appeared in print in the last century has appeared with increasing frequency in recent decades in non-print form. Radio broadcasts of speeches and news events, filmed or videotaped interviews with world figures, and photographs of specific events are by nature rich sources, full of information because they include not only the text and inflection of the speech or event, but also allow the viewer to examine frame by frame, second by second, or under a magnifying glass events which have shaped our way of life and thought.

One of the major drawbacks to Middle East and North African studies in the United States is the language barrier. Cultural gaps and language barriers may be by-passed or greatly reduced in certain areas of study by the skillful use of non-print teaching and research materials. It is no longer necessary to justify the need for non-print material in any field of study, especially teaching and research in area study programs. But even as non-print meterials are one of the richest sources of information, they are

at the same time one of the most unused and abused form of teaching and research material.

The drawbacks to non-print resources are very similar to those of print: the medium itself deteriorates after a period of time, and oddly enough it is an underused resource because there is too much of it for the individual teacher or researcher to sift through. There is also a prejudicial impression that there is little of "true research value" in the non-print field. It is as if an English language and literature instructor had the entire collection of the Library of Congress from which to choose but used only a copy of McGuffy's Reader for classroom purposes because it was already available in the school's book storage area. The overwhelming volume of film, videotape, slide, still photograph and sound recordings which are available but yet lack easy access or "mediagraphic" control has deterred the average teacher and researcher from even beginning its use. Organization and preservation of the most valuable non-print resources in Middle East and North African studies should be one of the major goals of Middle East librarians. Steps are already underway to bring some of this material, mainly films, under mediagraphic" control, which will in turn lead to further film distribution and use.

This is a period of transition as the importance of non-print media items for basic primary research and teaching is beginning to be recognized. This is particularly true of films. The location and preservation of early films, photos, slides and recordings dealing with the Middle East and North Africa is essential. But the desire and need to organize and save films is in great part a carry-over of the huge growth in the field of general film studies and the current thoughtful examination of early silent and talking feature films to determine the effects they have had in forming our images of women, blacks, Native Americans, other countries, the American way of life and our expectations of the future. The type of work done in the general film field by the American film industry decade by decade, or the many large popular film and video guides, such as Leslie Halliwell's The Filmgoer's Companion and Tim Brooks' and Earle Marsh's The Complete Directory to Prime Time Network TV Shows, 1946-Present, to name a few, makes us realize how much a part of our lives is tied up with non-print influences. In browsing through one of the guides available to prime time television, it is almost frightening to realize how many of these programs, many broadcast years ago for only one season, are readily remembered and easily discussed by people of the corresponding age group.

In the field of Middle East and North African studies, one might think that non-print media exposure is minimal and has little effect on our understanding or educational system. In fact, the reverse is closer to the truth. The so-called "average American" has an unrealistic view of the Middle East and North Africa.[1] When a group of over 200 television viewers were asked what percentage of the Middle Eastern peoples were nomadic, 23% of the group answered that 51-100% were nomadic, as opposed to current scholarly estimates of between 7-9%. When this group was asked how many countries they thought were in the Middle East and North Africa, 11% answered between only 1-5, 44% answered between 6-10 countries. This reflects the vague and indefinite definition of the area and the confusion many people have in identifying names of specific countries with their locations. In another question, 24% of those answering thought Arabs, Persians and Turks were all of the same ethnic and racial origin, that they were all Semitic peoples.

These answers should not be at all startling in themselves. They show a basic, vague understanding of the Middle East which is very common until one looks more closely at the sample. These people were 60% male, 40% female, were predominantly white with an income of over $20,000 per year and on the average with over two years of college-level education. Almost half of the group was between the ages of 25 and 39. One would assume that these are above "average" in educational level and access to information, and yet their information is not accurate. These viewers also had very definite ideas about how the "average Arab" in turn viewed them. When asked how the ordinary citizen of the Arab world feels towards the U.S., not counting feeling due to the Arab-Israeli conflicts or the Palestinians, 31% answered positively, that those feelings would be somewhat friendly (18%), very friendly (8%) or extremely friendly (5%). On the other side, 69% felt the ordinary citizen of the Arab world feels indifferent (39%) or hostile (30%) towards the U.S. This survey was taken after the Camp David accords and before the taking of the U.S. hostages in Iran. Where do these ideas come from? What is the basis for images of the Middle East expressed by individuals who don't even know if over half of a large region of the world is nomadic or not?

Are these vague images a result of newspaper and television news reporting? It seems unlikely as these forms of news coverage highlight current events and crisis reporting; wars, hostages, assassinations and riots are shown more often than nomads and camels.

News coverage seldom imparts basic cultural information. As a few questions from the survey show, the weakness of information is basic, not involved with current events. Sixty % of those responding said they would like to see an in-depth television documentary dealing with topics such as the U.S.-Arab world relations or the Palestinians. Of the 40% who did not wish to see such documentary coverage, 24% replied that it was not needed, but a large 28% replied it would not be useful because it could not be presented in a fair, unbiased way. When asked what they felt was the biggest obstacle in the way of improving U.S.-Arab world political relations, the answers by percentage were: oil (50%), ties to Israel (20%), cultural preconceptions (11%), U.S. non-recognition of the Palestine Liberation Organization (11%), or the media (8%). From this information, then, it might appear as if the vague or distorted inages of the Middle East and North Africa concerning basic life styles, geography, etc. has little to do with newspaper or television news coverage. Instead it is a combination of poor text book material throughout elementary and high school education and inadequate mention of the Middle East and North Africa at the university level, except in specialized Middle East courses devoted solely to the history and politics of the area.

Consistent fictionalized images can be easily found in popular television, novels and films, from the evil, turbanned, magic-carpet riding villain in the Electric Company's "Letterman" segment for children to the Bel-Airabs skits on Saturday Night Live. Crazed terrorists and kidnapped Arab princes for a period of time rivalled the unstable, violent returning Vietnam veteran as the popular stereotype image for many prime-time series. The image of the Middle East and North Africa exhibited, in part, by over 200 people in the above survey fits more closely the image of the Arab in Starsky and Hutch or The Odessa File than it does the images presented in newspapers, television or radio news coverage, though it can easily be argued that these forms of media are not without fault.

Theoretically, this image should be combatted in the area of documentary and instructional film dealing with the Middle East and North Africa, but if we look more closely that is also an erroneous assumption. Documentary and instructional films, often of extremely high quality and good intentions, unintentionally help to foster stereotype images in many cases. Often not so much in what is said as in what subjects were considered worthy of discussion and what volume is available on specific topics. Current

attempts to locate and categorize films and videotapes dealing with the Middle East and North Africa[2] have established a group of over 2300 films and tapes dealing with the area and Israel from 1903 to the present, in terms of dates of production. These are the films which were shown on television specials, in classrooms, in clubs and fund-raising groups and at film festivals in colleges and universities. These are the films which supposedly have formed our non-print image of the Middle East and North Africa in the non-fiction category.

What trends and categories arise as these 2300 films are examined? Of 179 films dealing with Egypt identified by this work, the following categories emerge: ancient Egypt (62 films), travelogues and general subject (57 films), the dependence on the Nile (33 films), urban life (16 films) and village life (11 films). By number there are more films dealing with the saving of Abu Simbel than there are films dealing with both Nasser and Sadat's role in Egyptian history and political life. There are more films available dealing with irrigation by use of water wheel and water screw than there are films dealing with the economic problems of modern Egypt. This type of emphasis on coverage of particular topics unintentionally helps to reinforce ideas as those expressed in text books which portray Egypt as a once great civilization and now a backward country. Does Egypt's spectacular past dwarf its present in the minds of film makers? Is this just one country which is an exception? Not at all. In fact, coverage of Egypt is one of the best available, excluding Israel. When we look at the 52 films identified dealing with Morocco, 14 deal exclusively with nomad life and the majority of others in the travelogue and general subject category cover nomadic life styles very heavily. Of 53 films on Afghanistan, 16 deal specifically with nomadism while many general topic films cover nomad life, weddings, festivals, etc. Films on the Arabian peninsula countries tend to look at oil, films on Turkey tend to focus on Turkey's role in NATO, films on Iran tend to focus on rug making. It is not inaccurate to say that rug making is a very interesting part of Iranian culture, but is it the main part? And if we take into consideration the number of films readily available for classroom or research use from national distributors, we find the percentage of films on nomadism and rug making much higher in relation to the films available on intellectual history, politics and government or economics. Films on other subjects, such as Nasser and Sadat's effect on Egyptian life were not found in readily available sources but in single copies held in a videotape archive.

These resources, then, are now in a position where they can be used only by visiting scholars, while readily available films on ancient ruins and nomad life coupled with poor text book images form the "average" American's vague, amorphous image of the current Middle East.

Two texts dealing with the image of the Middle East, The Image of the Middle East in Secondary School Textbooks by William J. Griswold, et al. and American Images of Middle East Peoples: Impact of the High School by Michael W. Suleiman, identify many text books with passages similar to the following, "...there are mainly two ways that an Arab may earn his living...as a farmer or a nomad." (Allen 242) or "In their desert tent homes, with their caravan, on the windswept sand wastes, no matter where a true follower of Allah may be, he spreads his prayer rug five times a day and faces Mecca to perform his devotions." (Rogers 158).

Is it any wonder then, that a non-specialist would assume that the Middle East is a wind-swept desert filled with nomadic religious fanatics when this image has been presented in so many text books and re-inforced by fictionalized films and novels about the "exotic" East, and then again emphasized by the choice of material in many documentary and instructional films which detail the impressive Bakhtiari migrations but never document contemporary Iranian urban life? This is again emphasized by librarians and archivists who may allow much earlier material and current works on the Middle East and North Africa of research value to be lost or destroyed by age or allowed to lapse from distribution. This may be a consequence of media centers being unable to afford the price of films available and distributors removing the title from the market, thereby making the film a lost work. The loss of all films distributed through embassies, and therefore not purchased by universities or film centers, is especially obvious in countries such as Afghanistan, Iran and Libya. Films which were once readily available and perhaps free, are now lost when the governments or information policies of these countries changed and the films were either destroyed or sent to the home country as unsuitable to represent the new government or new policies. Scholars can no longer afford to disregard these sources, so underused, unless they wish to lose them forever. Early silent films on nitrate stock, photographs deteriorating from poor storage conditions, videotapes of television programs which are not deemed "important enough" to save for research purposes, these are the problems facing the librarian, archivist and researcher interested in using non-print resources in Middle East and N. African studies.

A VANISHING RESOURCE OR A GROWING TOOL?

Before teachers or scholars can use non-print materials, they must be able to identify those items which fit their needs and find where they are located. There are several major national, institutional and commercial collections of non-print materials in Middle Eastern and North African studies in the United States. Some of the largest collections, with the most diverse research materials which are seldom used, are in national collections. A scholarly guide to media collections in the Washington, D.C. area is being published by the Smithsonian Institution Press as part of the Scholars Guide to Washington series. This will include much that will be of interest for Middle East and North African scholars. It is also an excellent beginning as Washington has much material available for use. The National Archives in Washington, D.C. is a particularly large, underused resource for non-print materials with a collection of over five million photographs and hundreds of thousands of titles in film, video and sound recordings. The Archives, formed in 1934, has non-print collections dating back to the first decade of its growth. Its original purpose was to house those records generated by the 125 U.S. Federal agencies, but the charge was very broad and any materials generated, collected or used by the agencies, as well as several large gift collections may be found there. The largest obstacle in the way of research at the Archives is the organization system itself. A system geared towards preservation, rather than distribution or retrieval of information, due to the great volume of materials involved, provides difficulties in both areas.

With a minimum of effort and study beforehand, the researcher can learn to use the system for the most efficient use of time while at the Archives. The great value of the material is that little of it has been used in the past and the vast majority of it is in the public domain. All non-print materials at the Archives are accessed by means of a system based on group numbers for each individual donating agency. Every Federal agency now existing, or formerly in existence, is assigned an individual group number. All materials, regardless of subject matter, generated by that agency will be under that number. So, it is necessary to have a good idea which agency produced, or was likely to have produced, the kind of materials for which one is searching. The entire

system, including the group numbers of all the agencies, is explained in a book entitled, The Guide to the National Archives of the United States published by the Archives in 1974. The 884 page guide also goes into great depth concerning the various subject collections held.

Two collections in the film and videotape area which are of particular interest to Middle East and North African scholars are the Army Air Forces Combat Subjects/Signal Corps Army Depository File and the Universal Newsreel Collection. The Signal Corps for decades maintained multiple film units generating an incredible amount of footage on every subject imaginable. Though much material is geared towards military subjects, coverage was extended to include street scenes from Palestine to Arab-Israeli War footage, from Moroccan prisoners of war to Arabian nomads baking bread. The file is divided loosely by subjects of the Archives' own making. It is necessary to look through the system to see the type of headings used before looking for footage on any single subject. One can always look for footage under the name of the country, as opposed to subjects, but as there are no cross-references or subject headings lists and the majority of titles are filed by subject content, this may not access much material. Flexibility and time are needed for best results in dealing with the Archives' rich collections.

The Universal Newsreel Collection dates from 1929 to 1967, recording the major events and personalities of the day. For speeches or footage of particular individuals, this file is also arranged by name of well-known figures, making access to these films somewhat better than the Signal Corps' large collection. Unfortunately, much of this collection is on nitrate stock and after a December, 1978 nitrate fire, part of the Universal Newsreel collection was lost. A complete inventory may never be able to outline the type of material lost forever.

The National Archives also holds over 47,000 sound recordings from the turn of the century to the present. A great number of these are in Chinese and Japanese, including many captured war recordings, but these are of less use for Middle East studies.

The still photograph collection at the Archives contains over five million photographs, artworks, and posters dating from the 17th century to the present. Again, listed by group number, this massive collection has incredible amounts of material on the Middle East. It also has the photo archive of the Paris office of the New York Times, which means photographs of news events and political figures of the last century in the Middle East have been well documented. Photo-

graphs documenting everything from tobacco production in Turkey at the turn of the century to the death of King Hussein are covered in these collections. The photo collection of the U.S. Information Agency (USIA) is a multi-subject collection worthy of great study, as is the collection of the Smithsonian Institution including all of its study tours of various parts of the world since the last century. Again, the major difficulty in working with these collections is the sporadic indexing of what is held and how to locate it.

The Library of Congress, in the area of film and videotape, contains around 86,000 titles; however, only 300 or so are actually on the Middle East and North Africa. Whereas films, still photographs and videotapes may be reproduced from the collection at the National Archives, the Library of Congress will allow researchers to view films but the Library has no facilities for reproducing or lending films. The Library's collection also includes many television programs including interviews with Charles Malik, Menachem Begin, Anwar Sadat, Mohammed Reza Pahlavi, Yasir Arafat and others. Listening to these interviews over the years, and the changing attitudes and subjects described by the various interviewers and interviewees, one develops a healthy respect for hindsight.

The Library of Congress film collection, containing Middle East and North African studies material, has no subject access in the title catalog; so the researcher must know the title of the film or videotape needed or make use of filmographies now becoming available in this area. The collection holds films going back as far as 1903 dealing with Egypt and the Holy Land shot by A.C. Abadie for the Thomas Edison Company. The staff at the Library of Congress is quite helpful in assisting the serious researcher; but again, this material cannot be borrowed or reproduced.

The Library of Congress' holdings in the still photograph section can be reproduced for a reasonable fee. They hold over 10 million pieces in the Prints and Photographs section, with two collections of particular interest to the Middle East and North African studies scholar.

The first collection is a gift of Abdul-Hamit II of Turkey, who donated several large books of photographs of major cities in Turkey which include hundreds of views of palaces and buildings in Istanbul circa 1893. The gem in the L.C. collection for Middle East work, however, is the Matson Archives. This is a collection of the photographer Matson, who between 1898 and 1946 took pictures of the Near East for the stereoptic and souvenir market, and as illus-

trations for groups needing pictures of the Holy Land sights. Over 6000 pieces are held at the Library of Congress, documenting fifty years of life in the Middle East, mostly Palestine, Lebanon, Jordan, Egypt and East Africa. These photos are of incredible quality and composition. They are currently being collected into a four-volume book entitled The Middle East in Pictures: A Photographic History 1898-1934 by Eric G. Matson.

The Prints and Photograph section has several catalogs allowing geographic and subject access to the collections, making the search for specific items or persons and places much easier. The Library also maintains a portrait file for tracking down pictures of individuals. Again, these can be reproduced, for the majority of them are in the public domain.

Turning from the national to the institutional level in Washington, the Middle East Institute operates a film library which distributes 16mm documentary films on the Middle East and North Africa for a nominal fee. Numerous additional institutions, colleges and universities throughout the country, including the University of California, Indiana University, Arizona State University, Syracuse University, the University of Texas, to name but a few, have small to large film collections with titles in the Middle East and North African area, who will also lend them for showings at institutions for a nominal fee.

The National Union Catalog of Film and Projected Materials lists a very large number of films and filmstrips on the Middle East, and volumes dealing with sound recordings list records varying in content from recitations of the Qur'an to folk music of individual countries.

Like the Matson Archives, other collections of early photographers who worked in the Middle East are also still available. The Harvard Semitic Museum holds a selection of one of these collections, the production of a French photographer, Felix Bonfils, who worked with his family in Beirut for many years producing prints of striking quality. Many of these pictures made use of models to portray various costumes and situations, but the scenes and landscapes are of use to both photographic historians and Middle East historians. The George Eastman House in Rochester, New York, also holds photos by Bonfils and other early photographers in its massive collection.

From the cursory discussion above of some non-print materials available in the United States, one sees that the true problem is not lack of materials in the United States but lack of control of this material in a way that would assist scholars and li-

brarians. But we are in a period of transition for mediagraphic control. The Islamic Teaching Materials Project, funded by the American Council of Learned Societies and the National Endowment for the Humanities, hopes to create better control of materials for teaching purposes in Middle East studies. Areas of its endeavors include a translation bank, an historical atlas, a teacher's guide for the whole project, and, in media, a film and recording catalog and a slide project. The slide project is divided into four major parts: Islamic ritual practices, lands and people, Islamic coins and medals, and art history. Slide packets will be made up for classroom use illustrating various topics, mostly identified and collected from existing collections. This will supplement the slide collections now available from UNESCO on the Middle East and the American Numismatics Society slides of coins. The film catalog will highlight some of the most-used films for use in the classroom. That will be in addition, on the college level, of the current Teacher's Resource Handbook for Near Eastern Studies by John Hawkins and John Maksik. This work is an annotated bibliography of curriculum materials for pre-school through twelth grade and covers not only books but also filmstrips, films, slides, records, tapes, cassettes and videotapes of interest on the juvenile level. The University of Michigan is also producing a film guide in Middle East studies for classroom use.

Most of these works are focused on creating control of a body of material useful for the classroom from pre-school to university level. To complement these current efforts, this author is currently working on a filmography on the Middle East and North Africa focusing on a more comprehensive and annotated listing of over 2300 films and videotapes of use for teaching and research. This will help to locate some of the more obscure titles and outdated films, some no longer available for general distribution but held in archives or libraries. These are the films which have helped form the image of the Middle East and North Africa through broadcasts on television, in theaters as short subjects, and in the classrooms over the last eighty years.

Films, regardless of quality, have done more to shape our images if for no other reason than they were viewed by such large numbers of people, who had less sophisticated information and background on the area. This is also the way in which many children were introduced to the Middle East. It is essential to collect and view as many of these films as possible, to see what really has been produced and which are the quality titles. This organizing effort

must be done also to identify footage which will be of use to film makers in producing library footage films on the Middle East--that is, films made of existing footage with narration tying the images together.

In conclusion, librarians and scholars are faced with two separate problems in the area of non-print resources on the Middle East and North Africa. The first is to locate, preserve, duplicate and use the incredibly large amount of materials available in film, videotape, slides, still photographs and sound recordings. Not only to preserve this material but to learn to use it and trace its influence must be a new goal. The second problem is to look at the material which has been produced, judge its volume and quality, and see how it has shaped our conceptions and the images of those around us. And if the basic images of the Middle East and North Africa are vague or distorted or misrepresentative, then it is also time to locate areas which have not been covered and work to produce new resources in non-print materials to correct that situation.

Marsha McClintock

1. This survey was a non-scientific sampling of television viewers conducted at the Warner QUBE cable television station in Columbus, Ohio. The sample, though demographics are available, was not balanced by those normal testing procedures for establishing random groups. The two-way cable tv system allows viewers to answer questions with up to five alternatives. Questions on the Middle East were asked on two consequtive weeks and resulted in information given in the text of this essay. The questions asked were meant to produce general information on attitudes, not a scientific survey of public opinion on the Middle East. The number of viewers who responded fluctuated between about 200 and 300.

2. Current research by this author, entitled The Middle East and North Africa on Film: An Annotated Filmography, still in progress, identifies a group of more than 2300 films dating from 1903 to 1979.