CHAPTER - I

INTRODUCTION
Chapter Objectives:

1. To provide historical perspective of ancient and modern libraries.
2. To follow the historical development of management of libraries.
3. To outline the account of origin of management movement in general.
4. To consider the relationship between organisation and group life.
5. To discuss the role of communication in organisational management.

This is the introductory chapter of the thesis. In this chapter, historical background of the library and its early management structure and style has been discussed. As related interest of the topic, it highlights on management in general, organisation; its relationship with group life, and the role of communication in management.
1.1. ORIGIN OF LIBRARY THROUGH ANCIENT CIVILIZATION
AND AT DIFFERENT PARTS OF THE WORLD

The library, from its beginning, is known as a social
instrument. It is older than book, older than paper, older
than print. Every society or culture produces a transcript of
its collective thought, a record in more or less permanent
form that can be passed from person to person and generation
to generation and can thus at least in a limited way,
transcend both space and time.

In primitive, nonliterate societies, this transcripts
usually took the form of verbally communicated ritual, ceremony,
myth, legend, song, even law. The transmission of the store of
common knowledge, information and belief became one of the
principal concerns of the group, exerted upon it a cohesive
force, affected and even dominated the thinking and actions of
individuals, and became a powerful brake upon innovation and
change.*

The formation of library presupposes the existence of a
literature, whether it is preserved on clay tablets, papyrus,
parchment or paper. In the ancient human history, it is found
that the materials used for recording were different from place
to place and from time to time. The preservation, processing
and organisation of these recorded materials and their use in

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*SHERA (JH), Information Storage and retrieval: Libraries. In
SILLS (DL), Ed. International Encyclopedia of Social Sciences,
any form existed even in the remote past of human civilization. Therefore, it proves the existence of the library in the very early stages of human history or civilization. There are so many libraries in those ancient times which has been growing progressively, are known through excavations. We are thankful enough to the continuing efforts of the archaeologists for throwing new lights on the progressive growth in our knowledge of history of libraries, the ancient and the medieval. As regards the formation of libraries, direct information is rather scanty.

In fact, the earliest forms of libraries do not fit with our present ideas and notions of library. This is not surprising, because the form in which records have been inscribed by human hands have changed over time. The present genesis of the library i.e., the birth of the idea or conception of a library in its simplest form was found when men first attempted to preserve in some permanent forms, on a surface external to himself, the contents of his inner thoughts, or a record of his own voice or speech, or a pictorial representation of any visual impressions he had in his mind. These could be in the shape of written (verbal) records or inscribed notation indicating sounds or graphic representations in the form of drawings, sketches or paintings. The fundamental constituent, the basic ingredient of a library, therefore, is any graphic inscription such as the inscribed words or inscribed sound-notes or inscribed maps, pictures, etc.
In ancient world we had four types of libraries, better to say repositories, as the inscriptive part of the ancient writings are divided into four major groups (Marshall 1983):

1) Pyramids,
2) Underground rock-tombs,
3) Temples and
4) Obelisks.

Pyramids constitute an important source of ancient written materials and here we found that ancient human records and also the ancient libraries, from the first to twelve dynasty i.e., from 4500 B.C, to about 2500 B.C. In the three pyramids which are near Gizeh, Khafre and Unas, we found lots of inscriptive records containing the moral teachings of the priests.

In the Sakkara group of pyramids (3rd dynasty, 4000 B.C.) we found some tablets, now famous as the Tablets of Sakkara. It was written over 2000 years after the pyramids of Sakkara were built in the times of Ramses II (1293 to 1233 B.C.). It aids us in establishing the chronology of ancient Egyptian events, giving as it does a list of forty-seven kings beginning with the first dynasty.

The ancient underground rock-tombs were the repository of early writings. These tombs came into fashion after the passing of the age of pyramids at the time of the twelfth dynasty. The passages, corridors, chambers and entrances were cut deep into living rock. In the rock-tombs we found tablets and manuscripts
as well. Marshall (1963) quoted Reynolds as,

"The ancient Egyptian tombs of the 18th and
19th dynasties were in fact the most prolific
known source of ancient writing in the M.E.A.
form". (p.15-16).

So, here we have the conception of the library - the well
or inscriptive libraries.

In the tombs of Beni-Hasan 170 miles above Caire, the
inscriptions and pictorial decorations of the high ranking
Government officials of the 11th and 12th dynasties (3000 B.C.-
2500 B.C.) were found. The most important tomb to mention here
is at Tell-el-Amarna, 200 miles above Caire where some price-
less inscriptions on clay tablets were unearthed. These were
ancient documents, 320 in all, found in a jar deposited at the
place. They were written in cuniform character and are actual
letters exchanged in Egyptian court of the 19th century B.C.,
and prominent personages of Babilonia, Asyria, Palestine and
other Asian countries. It may be well asserted that here must
be a record Office and a library somewhat in modern sense, the
first of its kind. Only in place of paper books and printed
characters they were then only of clay tablets and inscribed
characters (Saggs 1962).

In Egypt every temple had its library and school. Traces
of temple-libraries are preserved at Karnak, Denders and Idfu
(Idfu). Incised walls at Idfu are full of a catalogue of all
hieratical works contained in that library. At Karnak, in one
temple we had the names of almost every ruler from the 18th to 20th dynasty with a record of historical events. Another important finding in this temple was the famous 'tablet of Karnak', now in the Louvre, at Paris. At Abydos, there was a group of temples. The greatest of them was the temple of Osiris, built by Seti I in the 14th century B.C. It still exists almost intact. It is also known as the great temple of Abydos and on the walls of one of its corridors is the famous 'tablets of Abydos'. It gives us a detailed list of all the kings from Menes, the first king of the first dynasty to Seti king of the dynasty, the builder of the temple in 1366 B.C.

The fourth type of repositories of ancient writings are the obelisks. The obelisk is a unique type of four-sided pillar, slightly tapering at the top where it is crowned with a small pyramid. All the four sides of an obelisk have polished surfaces and these are covered with hieroglyphic writings to provide an indurable record. The oldest known obelisk in existence is five miles away from Cairo, at the site of the very ancient city Heliopolis. At Heliopolis there is also the Palermo Stone, now carefully preserved in the museum at Palermo in Italy. An account of how a fleet of forty vessels sailed to Lebanon for Cedarwood and also an account of slave trade with Africa were recorded in the stone.

The inscriptions in some of these early cases were on fixed structures like walls of pyramids, tombs, temples and obelisks. They were static libraries and were not portable. But
they served as repositories and provided libraries in embryo, libraries in their earliest conception or stage.

Sargon I (2350 B.C.) is regarded by scholars as father of libraries in Asia, as libraries of dates earlier than this have not yet come to our knowledge. It was the library at Agade.

There was a library about 2000 B.C. at Kish, one of the earliest cities near Baghdad. This library was attached to the college at Kish.

We have an example of a school library from Sippar (now Abba Habba) in which a collection of hymns, syllabaries and other items were found.

The temple library at Nippur has the richest and largest collection of the early times of scientific, literary, mathematical, chronological and meteorological tablets. There was an index to the varied contents of this library. Reynolds tells us that Nippur was one of the most fruitful sources of ancient writings. It was an old Sumerian city and the dates of tablets found there range from 3000 B.C. to 500 B.C.

In the earliest days of recorded civilization in Mesopotamia, the material used for writing was wet clay, into which wedgeshaped, or cuneiform, letters were pressed with a square-ended stylus. Through these tablets we get glimpses of early epic poems and liturgical and magic texts, as well as commercial records, tribute lists records of administrative acts, astronomical compilations, sacerdotal archives and the like.
Thousands of tablets were unearthed at the palace of Ashurbanipal (reigned 668-626 B.C.) at Nineveh. Many of them bore the king's book-plate.

Points to be noted about the Ashurbanipal library at Nineveh that there was a magnificent building, with rich varied collection. There was some arrangement on the shelves; a catalogue - both general and class; arrangement of binding of the clay books/tablets. Another interesting item to note that as clay tablets of larger size were liable to crack and break, and to compress a long text in a small size tablet in minute form, tablets of small size were preferred. Some of these minute tablets are kept in British Museum which may claim that magnifying glass or other type equipments were used as micro reader at that ancient time at Nineveh. It was a public library in modern sense of the term.

The imperial Chou dynasty (770 B.C. to 222 B.C.) had in their capital at Loyang, an imperial library, now in the modern province of Honan. Lan-tse was the keeper of the books of that library. This was the most famous library of ancient China. In this Chou dynasty a noticeable development was the rise of schools of philosophy i.e., of Confucious (551-474 B.C.) and Mencius (372-289 B.C.).

Taxila was one of the most important seats of learning in ancient India. It was in existence from 700 B.C. onwards. Taxila was at that time the capital of Gandhara province, situated 20 miles west of Rawalpindi. The teaching was mostly
in Vedic literature, philosophy and eighteen silpas. Students came from Mithila, Ujjain, Rajagriha and Benaras. The great grammarian Panini and Kautilya were known to be the students of Taxila. There was a rich library and the monks were keen in building up its collection. It lost its glory with the end of Kushan rule by 230 A.D. (Kumar 1977).

We have a reference to the libraries formed by Pisistratus (650-527 B.C.) and Polykrates (d 522 B.C.) of Samos. Though these libraries were privately owned, but were accessible to all who cared to use them. Euripides (480-406 B.C.), a great tragic poet, wrote 92 plays, had a fine collection of books. Plato (427-348 B.C.) had his own collection. The first truly extensive library in Greece was founded and arranged by Aristotle (384-322 B.C.). The most important public library founded at this time was at Alexandria, the second public library in Athens dated from 330 B.C.

In 221 B.C. Antiochus the Great, invited the grammarian Euphresian to become the royal librarian at Antioch in Syria. A few years ago, an inscription was found showing how in the period, 200-175 B.C., well-to-do citizens subscribed to the creation of a library building and contributed to a book purchase fund, or else donated books.

As the civilization matured the recording of human thought changed, the cuneiform system changed in the scripty and the writing materials were changed. There were no more clay tablets in Iran. Instead of clay tablets we have the practice of writing
on specially treated leather i.e., parchment. In the time of
Darius, papyrus was employed also but was given up later. For
librarians it is more easier and simple to shelve parchment and
skin books to their libraries. Surviving records from Iran
discovered so far are extremely scanty. One reason may be that
the clay tablets always had the advantage of preservation for
long years compared with parchment.

Cyrus defeated the Medesian in a battle field where he
built the city Pasargade, now in ruin, there was a tomb of
Cyrus. Forty miles away from Pasargade, across a mountainous
range, was found the ruins of famous ancient city Persepolis.
Here was found the tomb of Darius Mystaspe, the Hall of
hundred columns, the world famous relic and many royal tombs,
all in ruins, round about. Fargamian (1881), as quoted by
D.W. Marshall (1983), ascribed thus:

"The noblest example of its kind to be
found in any part of the world". (p. 31).

Sir Percy Sykes in his work 'History of Persia' (1915) puts
it, as quoted by D.W. Marshall (1983):

"Even in its ruins the throne of Jamshed
challenges our wonder and admiration". (p. 31).

To a library at Istakhr, called Dise-i-Kapisht, King
Vishtasp sent the original of the Avesta (the sacred books of
the Zoroastrians) and a copy to Ganj-i-Shapigan, two famous
libraries of Iran. The whole city of Persepolis now lies in
ruins, burned by Alexander in 331 B.C.
In the meantime writing materials had changed. Wooden tablets were the writing materials with surfaces either whitened or hollowed and covered with wax. These wax tablets were not stored in libraries. Papyrus rolls were the principal material preserved then in libraries. To make a volume of roll, papyrus sheets were glued and to end to provide a continuous surface with page-like sections, placed side by side juxtaposition. The rolls were sometimes inserted into cylindrical cases known as capsules, in which a written label or ticket hung with the title of the volume thereon and these capsules were stored on shelves. The actual use of papyrus found in Egypt was mainly from grasses and reeds of the library collections but little of them has survived. The Dead Sea Scrolls found at Qumran in recent times are Biblical and sections they date from about 150 B.C. to 40 A.D. (Frye 1962).

Caius Asinius Pollio established (40 B.C.) the first public library in Rome. But the great public libraries of the Roman Empire were the Octavian Library for Greek books established in 33 B.C., and the library for Latin books established in 28 B.C. at Palatine Hill. But these two libraries were destroyed in 60 A.D. and 190 A.D. respectively. The other important library, Bibliotheca Ulpian, was founded during the region of Trajan (98-117 A.D.). In addition of these public collections there were fine private libraries - such as those of Cicero, Atticus, Scipio and Lucullus - by the time the Roman Republic was ended in 27 B.C. Of these there remain only
fragments of one at Herculaneum.

There were libraries attached to different learning centers in ancient India.

"References to libraries or storehouse of knowledge are very common in ancient Indian literature. In fact these were the libraries of ancient and medieval India. These libraries of course cannot be compared with modern public library in any way except that all libraries are storehouses of knowledge". (Mukherjee 1969, p.5).

These storehouses of knowledge contained only manuscripts or hand-written books only. The basic fundamentals of Indian learning of the bygone days was 'Sruti-Samitih'. Writing was not very common. The Vedas, The Upanishads, The Puranas, The Sastras and everything pertaining of art, culture and learning lived in the throat or 'Kanthya', i.e., entire realm of knowledge and learning was got by heart and was stored in the memory of the gurus and the pupils. The ancient Indian cultural centres, the Asrama Universities may be compared to the residential universities of our days. These institutions were equipped with regular libraries - not with printed materials but of manuscripts of different varieties and on different subjects for the use of students and teachers.

Nagarjuna (2nd century A.D.), a famous Buddhist monk, founder of Mahayana School of Buddhist philosophy and a famous
scholar scientist of those days, lived on a hill by the side of river Krishna in Pandalu area of the present Andhra Pradesh. He founded a 'Parvata Vihar' and a University therein. The main building of the universities is said to be a five storied one and a library was placed at the top floor.

Malandra University (4th century A.D.) was one of the biggest residential universities of the bygone days. There were about 3000 residents. The university had in possession of about eight halls and three hundred apartments. The area of the library used to be called Dharma ganja, i.e., Hart of Religion. The library was in three grandest buildings called 'Ratnasagar', 'Ratnodadhi' and 'Ratnaarajaka'. Of these 'Ratnodadhi' was nine storied and in it library was located. It was then considered the largest library in India.

Papyrus rolls came to lose their prominence between the 2nd and 4th centuries of the current era. The demand for Bibles was then growing, and as considerably more text could be included in a single codex than in a roll and as the codex had the advantages of strength, portability and convenience of quick reference, it gained popularity. Vellum replaced papyrus in book production in the 4th century A.D. Parchment and vellum came into use rather gradually. In Egypt, vellum established its prominence in the 4th century.

Libraries were not immune to process. While in the 2nd century A.D. public libraries in Rome were numerous, but in the 3rd century A.D. those libraries were scanty. And in 378 A.D.
a Latin scholar complained that "the libraries, like tombs, were closed for ever". Kings or Rulers of the ancient times were the founder of the largest libraries of the bygone times and they were the destroyers of the libraries also. For that reason recovered civilisation has no continuation.

The library at Constantinople, founded by the Emperor Constantine (323-337 A.D.) was a beacon light in the historical process of human civilisation. This library was one of the few libraries which survived till the capture of the city by the Turks in 1453.

1.2. DEVELOPMENT OF MODERN LIBRARIES:

Monasteries played a vital role in the development of library history. St. Columbances founded, the monastic libraries, Luxeuil in France about 520 A.D. and Babbie in northern Italy about 612 A.D. Irish and Anglo-Saxon monks developed the insular script and as a result of their missionary activity libraries were amassed, including those at Corbie, Reims, Reichenau and St. Gallen in the 6th and 7th centuries and at Fulda, Corvey, Würzburg, Hersfeld, Eichstht, Passau, Lorsch, Echternach, and Mainz in 8th century.

In Germany, Otto (r.936-973 A.D.) surrounded himself with circle of learned men, whose influence is discernable in certain of the German monasteries. Bamberg and Paderborn were founded in the 11th century.

In England libraries were slowly being strengthened under royal patronage and the reforms of Benedictines.
In France, from the 11th to 13th century, Chartres, Paris, and Orleans were centers of intellectual movements.

The Muslim world also had its public and private libraries during this period. Throughout the vast Arab empire, from Bagdad to Cordoba, Caliphs, princes, and governors patronized science and learning, founded libraries, and fostered the production of books. From these Muslims there came in the 13th century, by way of Constantinople and Spain, the knowledge of paper that was to prove vital in the spread of Renaissance. In Constantinople, the house of the Palaeologoi fostered a revival in literacy studies from 1261 A.D. until their regime ended with fall of the city to the Turks in 1453 A.D.

In Naples, the kings had already been active, and the record of the royal treasury at the time of Robert of Anjou (r.1269-85), a friend of Petrarch, contain entries for the copying and purchase of manuscripts. Under Alfonso I of Naples (r.1463-94) with the stimulus afforded by such scholars as Panormita (Antonio Beccadelli) and Lorenzo Valla, the Neapolitan collection became one of the finest in Italy.

In Rome, Vatican Library was founded as early as the 4th century by Pope Damasus I, but it had long been static until Nicholas V (r.1447-55) and his librarian Giovanni Tartelli of Arezzo gave it new life. With Sixtus IV (r.1471-84) it became essentially a princely library, and under the care of Bartolomeo da' Sances (Platina) its holdings were materially increased.
By 1486 it had a total of 3650 Greek and Latin manuscripts, inventories, expense books, and registers of loans for this collection survive and make vivid for libraries to-day the actual working of the library. Julius II (r.1503-1513) carried on the tradition set by Sireus IV. Similar trends appeared in Germany, France, England and other countries also.

Many of the great university libraries e.g. Bologna, Prague, Oxford, Heidelberg, etc. were opened in the 14th century.

Modern library service has deep roots in the Middle Ages, but the forms and services found in 20th century libraries began to take shape in the early 17th century when older collections were incorporated into permanent ones that have largely survived to the present and new collections, government-supported and academic, were formed. In the 17th, 18th and 19th centuries most of these collections developed independently, but 20th century has forced rationalisation and integration of library services in all areas.**

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*Schullian (BM), History of libraries : beginning to 1600.*

**Thompson (LE), History of libraries : from 1600 to World War II.*
1.3. ADMINISTRATION AND MANAGEMENT OF A LIBRARY:

It is always a fundamental concern of a practicing librarian how to manage his library. This primary question is not a new one to 20th century librarians. In a forwarding note to S.R. Ranganathan's book 'The Five Laws of Library Science' (1931) W.C. Berwick Sayers comments about this topic in the following sentences:

"...'Laws existed in embryo from the Assyrian libraries and probably in earlier ones. The clay tablet catalogues in the British Museum prove to us that there were then not only libraries, but a systematic library science. In later but still early years the work of such librarians as Callimachus in the libraries of the Pharaohs shows methods of management, especially in the classification of books, that are the wonder of modern librarians who have considered them". (p.14).

We have a beautiful seal of one of the ancient librarians named Ibiisarru. He was the librarian of a great library at Agade, founded by Sargon I (2350 B.C.). A portion of the catalogue of the said library is available to-day. It is recorded by Marshall (1933) in the following way:

"From the instruction to the readers given therein, we find that a system very similar to the one followed at present was prevalent at
the time in this library. Each reader had to write on a piece of papyrus, provided for the purpose, his name and particulars of the work he wanted to consult; the librarian then took out the tablet and handed it over to him. Each tablet was classified and the perfection of the system had grown out of long experience*. (p.28).

These facts prove that how to manage the library is a very ancient problem and from that period librarians or library professionals are entrusted to solve this problem. We have some references to show the architecture and equipments used in these ancient libraries and details about their management in those times.

We may cite here the example of Ashurbanipal Library at Nineveh. It was a public library, housed in a magnificent building, panelled with bas-reliefs. It had a rich collection of tablets, arranged in the shelves with the proper care that the tablets forming a specific series in their proper sequences. There were binding arrangements of the clay books. To avoid crack and break of the clay tablets and to minimise space problem, tablets of small size were preferred. Long texts were compressed into a small size tablet and these were so small or minute that a micro-reader i.e., magnifying glass or something like that were used to read out the texts.
As regards the book issues and library working hours, we have evidence in an inscription recently found, in the library of Trajan at Athens.

Kings were the patrons of the libraries and there were also private libraries in early civilisation. But common peoples' efforts for the foundation of libraries were found in Hellenic culture in the period 200 B.C.-175 B.C. at Antioch in Syria. Well-to-do citizens subscribed for the creation of the library building and contributed to book purchase fund. In Hellenic society, the libraries and librarians performed an important role and both of them played a major part in creating and preserving the culture of that era (Johnson 1975).

In the field of library management, one name must be considered as pioneer. He was a priest and his name was Cassiodorus. During his long life from 479-575 A.D., he proved to be one of the greatest individual contributors to the preservation of learning in the West. He collected valuable ancient manuscripts and got them copied by his monks. In 533-36 A.D. he founded a library in Rome. He prepared handbooks for the libraries for the use of the monks and methodically organised library activities in the monasteries.

One important point about the methods of library organisation in the ancient days is that books then were very few and written by hand. So, the contents of each library stacked closely guarded. Books were then thought more precious and to avoid loss and damage they were chained.
Library procedures in Medieval Islamic libraries were unique and up to date. In 'Darat-Khutat', at Cairo, rare books were available to scholars from the royal treasury. There was a sort of inter-library loan system and in some cases, books were issued only on a requisite security.

The library accommodation and arrangements of 'Madrasha-tus-sajariin', a famous library of Morocco, was very interesting. It had separate rooms for different subjects. Books were kept in almirahs or on wooden stands. There were separate rooms for students, scholars, copyists, debates and a hall for music. Windows had screens to control light.

The library of 'Adud al-Dawlah' at Shiraz (Persia) had 360 rooms. Books were arranged systematically, according to subjects and by name of authors. There were separate catalogues for subjects and titles. On the staff position of the library, there were a director, a librarian, library attendants, copyists, a manager and servants. For natural beautification there were gardens and canals.

In the arrangements, organisation and administration of libraries it must be noted that in early Islamic regions there were library buildings and sometimes these were erected specially, for this purpose. There were systematic and classified arrangements of books on shelves or in almirahs. There was catalogue for books. Some libraries had open access system. Books were acquired partly by purchase and partly by transcription, and so there were copyists among the staff members. The head of
the library was invariably an academic person of repute. There was regular budgeting. Libraries were open to all, the users used these libraries without paying any charges. Paper, ink and reed pens were supplied in some places. Sometimes special arrangements were made for the maintenance of the visiting scholars. Usually books were issued against some deposit, but in many cases, it was otherwise. There were also reference libraries.

The invention of printing process and book publications overflowed the library organisation. The librarians and the book collectors were then free to collect books from the publishers and were no more dependent on the copyists, as before. New thinking for organisation started from this period. The old plan of laying chained books on shelves was abandoned in favour of shelving books vertically in bookcases along with walls of room. To create more accommodation bookcases were built to the ceilings, balconies were constructed for easy access to the upper shelves.

After the Renaissance, scientific and other learned societies were established, and scholars in one country entered into exchanges of information and publications with other countries. This new order of intellectual activity with its specialisation, systematisation, and cooperation which still characterises Western scholarship gave to libraries a new direction and purpose. Libraries were founded to advance the work of scholars and the first functional research library in modern times, the
Bedleia Library at Oxford University, was opened in 1602.

In nineteenth century, the bloodless Industrial Revolution caused another great social upheaval. The application of machines introduced to factories. Families moved from farms to nearby cities or migrated to undeveloped areas where they hoped to improve their economic status, hours of labour were reduced, and literacy and education became more widespread. This new mode of life in cities and in factories increased demands for libraries. The great collections of renowned private libraries were absorbed or replaced by old and new university libraries, by national libraries which furthered the new nationalism. Different types of libraries were established from this period. Circulating and mercantile libraries which were established for the improvement of the workers, public libraries for the education and entertainment of adults, and special libraries established for the government bureaus, industrial concerns, historical studies and research. As the importance of libraries increased, or better to say, the importance of library was realised, the library became a complex organisation consisting of a conglomerate specialised activities.

Simen (1976) has noticed this change and writes:

"In the early years of the twentieth century, when the standard techniques and practices of library science were being worked out, the chief objective of libraries was that of building a scholarly collection without much thought for the people who
might be interested in using it. But to-day,... the predominant objective is, or should be to provide the user with the information he needs, not merely by calling upon the resources of the library where the request is made, but by tapping all the other resources that may be available elsewhere. This change in emphasis in the purpose of libraries, their growing size and diversification of activities, and their increasing involvement with new technical methods and equipment—a involvement often requiring the addition of staff with specialised skills and knowledge—pose the question of a possible need for a new look at the organisational structure of libraries”, (p.27).

The chief functioning of modern libraries are as follows:

1. Acquisition,
2. Processing,
3. Storage,
4. Delivery of document, and
5. Management.

The library is an organisation with a number of environments and its efficient functioning depends upon its ability to interact with those environments. There is a constant dynamic transfer and utilisation of organisational and environmental
energy. Members of a library team or working group are reliant
upon each other for the health and quality of the organization.
Services provided in libraries have become more active and
exploitative as opposed to passive and custodial. In the con-
text of this more dynamic approach to library organization and
function there has been the need of adjustment and updating of
policies and procedures and this is the study of library manage-
ment. Management is working with and through people in an effort
to accomplish organizational goals.

Modern library administrative organisation is based on the
science of administration as developed by Fayol (1949), Galick
& Urwick (1937), and others. The theories have been introduced
into library administrative organisation by such librarians
writers as Shaw (1954), Wilson & Tauber (1956), Rogers & Weber
(1971) and Thompson (1979).

Efficient library administration utilizes a simple organi-
sation scheme. Centralization in its many forms is used to faci-
litate co-ordination and communication. Library administrative
organization can vary from complete centralization to semi-
centralization, which depends upon the local circumstances.¹

Before the detail discussion about library management we
will look into management and organisation in general. There
are every reason to discuss about the concept of management,
organization and their development as they are basic in nature
and converted to library management later.

¹JACKSON (MH), Libraries & College and University, in ROSENBerg (7) and
POSTLETHAITE (TN), Eds., The International Encyclopedia of
Education; research and studies, Volume V, Oxford : Pergamon
1.4. A BRIEF ACCOUNT OF THE ORIGIN OF MANAGEMENT MOVEMENT

Management theory, principles and practices are not recent developments. The concept of management has been of considerable interest throughout civilised history. It is fact that much of the contributions to management were made by practitioners rather than theorists. It may be seen from the contributions of Taylor and Fayol, that management theory started emerging. The collaboration of practitioners with theorists to develop management is though of much recent origin, has got many benefits.

Keenly and O'Donnell (1972) have provided a lucid analysis of early contributions to management principles. They trace the origin of management as back as 1300 B.C. in the bureaucratic states of antiquity. Socrates defined management as a skill different from technical knowledge and experience. In the authority of the Roman magistrates, there are indications of a scalar relationship. In addition there are also symptoms delegation of authority in the Roman Empire. The Roman Catholic Church has been the most effective formal organisation. Military organisations have been the source of modern principles and practices of management and developed 'unity of doctrine' in the organisation. The staff concept has been started to the French Army of 1790. The Cameralists, a group of German and Austrian public administrators, stressed systematic administration as a source of strength and advocated the university of management techniques.
Specially, they stressed specialization of function, selection and training of administrators and simplification of administrative procedures.

Frederick W. Taylor (1911), the founder of scientific management, was primarily concerned with increasing productivity through greater efficiency in production and increased pay for workers through the application of scientific method. However, his management was in reality to contain certain principles of factory management or production management. The immediate disciples of Taylor were Henry L. Gantt, Frank Gilbreth and Lillian Gilbreth. Gantt is famous and well-known for his development of graphic methods of depicting plans and making possible better managerial control. Frank Gilbreth is perhaps best known for his time and motion studies. Lillian Gilbreth is known primarily as she focused on the human aspects of work and the understanding of workers' personalities and needs (Kosats and Weirich, 1988).

It was the French industrialist, Henri Fayol (1916), who has been referred to as the father of modern management theory, who provided a practical and clear approach to the job of managers and a perception of the university of management principles and divided industrial activities into six groups:

1) technical,
2) commercial,
3) financial,
4) security,
v) accounting, and
vi) managerial.

The managerial activities included planning, organisation, command, co-ordination and control. He also stressed managerial qualities and training and enlisted fourteen general principles of management and these are primarily based on his experience.

Koons and O’Donnell (1972) further mentioned many other management pioneers to the emergence of modern management thought and its development. The contributors include public administrators, business managers, behavioural scientists and system scientists. The public administrators stressed organisation, personal practices, budgetary control and planning to accomplish economy and efficiency and these public administrators included Luther Gulick (1965), White (1970). In addition to them, Simon (1947), one university scholar who also provided insight into administrative behaviour.

Business managers have made significant contributions to management theory. These business managers included Sheldon (1924), Mooney and Reiley (1939), Barnard (1938), Urwick (1944), Follett (1918), and others. Sheldon (1924) described management as the determination of policy and co-ordination of functions. He also described the social responsibilities of managers and functional fields of management are also described by him.

Mooney and Reiley (1939) combined the elements of organisation into principle, process, and effect stressing co-ordination, scalar organisation and functionalism. Barnard (1938) analysed
the theory of organisation and functions of executive stressing
group co-operation, formal organisation, leadership and communi-
cation. According to him, the task of managers is to maintain a
system of cooperative effort in a formal organisation. And,
finally, he suggested a comprehensive social system approach to
managing. His work is influenced by sociology and psychology.
Likewise, the others, those are mentioned above, have provided
significant insight into the practice and theory of management.

The Hawthorne studies in Western Electric Company illu-
minated the researches of behavioural scientists in management.
Mayo (1949) and Roethlisberger (1941) stressed social attitudes
and relationships towards working people and allied human
factors on performance. Sociologists such as Weber (1947),
Homans (1950), Dubin (1958), Dalton (1959), and Katz and Kahn
(1978) provided insight into the anatomy of organisations
through their studies on groups, cultured patterns, group exhaus-
tiveness and co-operation. Psychologists such as McGregor (1960),
Sayles (1970), Tannenbaum and associates (1961), Dennis (1966),
Fiedler (1967), Stogdill (1974) and Marsbury (1966) have
provided significant contributions through the analysis of
rational behaviour and influences, the sources of motivation
and leadership.

The system approach to management attempts to view the
organisation as a unified, purposeful system composed of inter-
related parts. The system scientists have provided analysis of
the managerial process and environment as a series of systems.
A significant contribution in system research has been made by
operation researchers in the analysis of planning and control.
Specially, their contributions relate to measures of effective-
ness and mathematical models. The operations researchers
include Churchman and his associates (1960), McCleeskey and
Coppinger (1956). Katz and Kahn (1978) have contributed to the
analysis of social systems. Likewise, Forrester (1961) has
analysed industrial systems. The systems theory has been expan-
ded by Bertanfly (1971). Boulding (1956) has extended this
theory with reference to management while Johnson, Koast and
Rosenweig (1973) have linked it with management.

Managers are recently approaching to find out a unified
global theory of management. This recent approach seeking to
integrate the various schools of management thought essentially
focuses on the interdependence of the various factors involved
in the managerial situations. Managers often found that methods
that were highly effective in one situation would not work in
other situations. Therefore, one question may naturally arise: why
did an organisational development programme work brilliantly
in one situation and fail miserably in another?

The contingency approach had a single and logical answer to
such questions: results differ because situations differ. The
technique that works in one case will not necessarily work in
all cases. According to Stoner & Wankel (1988) the contingency
approach is:
"The task of managers will, in a particular situation, under particular circumstances, and at a particular time, best contribute to the attainment of manager management goals."

(p. 46).

The managers who have studied the contingency approach would not be satisfied with simply analysing a particular problem. They must be aware of the complexity in every situation and must take an active role in trying to determine what would work best in each case. Those writers and scholars who have emphasised situational or contingency approaches have done the field of management theory and practice a great service by stressing that what the intelligent managers actually does, depends on the realities of a situation.

1.4.1. Importance of Management

It is a fact that men are living as members of one or several organisations. He may be the member of a religious group or civic association or sports, musical team, or business or industry or any professional group or Government agencies. These organisations differ from one another in many ways, some of them may be organised very formally and other may be more casually structured. Yet all the organisations have some basic common things. These common things are:

1) Goal or purpose.

ii) Some programmes or methods for achieving their goals, i.e., planning.
iii) Environment, and

iv) Leader or manager who is responsible for helping the organisation to achieve its goal.

Regardless of the size or complexity of an undertaking or organisation, six groups of activities or essential functions are always present (Fayol 1916):

1. Technical activities (production, manufacture, adaptation).
2. Commercial activities (buying, selling, exchange).
3. Financial activities (search for an optimum use of capital).
5. Accounting activities (stock-taking, balance sheet, costs, statistics).
6. Managerial activities (planning, organisations, command, coordination and control).

The above six managerial activities are the basis of modern management process.

Organisations are essential to our society. But modern organisations are not simple, they are more complex in nature. Every organisation tries to perform its essential functions in its highest degree, but there are so many limitations which restrict us to reach goals or even impossible to reach goals.
To overcome these limitations is the challenge of modern management.

Management is 'the art of getting things done through people'. It is a fact that managers achieve organisational goals by arranging for others to perform whatever tasks may be necessary and not by performing tasks themselves.

Management is a process because all managers, regardless of their particular aptitudes or skills, engaged in certain interrelated activities in order to achieve their desired goals. According to Stoner and Wamsley (1968),

"Management is the process of planning, organising, leading and controlling the efforts or organisation members and of using all other organisational resources to achieve stated organisational goal". (p.4).

Managers use all the resources of the organisation - its finances, equipment and information as well as its people - to attain their goals. People are the most important source to any organisation.

The modern concept of management according to Mee (1964) is that it is:

"Flow-process for setting and achieving predetermined objectives in an environment by the intelligent use of human effort and facilitating resources". (p.XIX).
According to him there are seven essential steps in carrying out this flow process:

i) the decision making process,

ii) the policy making process,

iii) the planning process,

iv) the organizing process,

v) the motivating or directing process,

vi) the controlling or measuring process, and

vii) the innovating process.

According to Simon (1976) the management process never ceases. "This process involves research and development and generates new proposals for future action from which management again reaches, the point where choices from among alternative courses of action must be made, and the whole flow-process is set in motion once more. In a dynamic organisation, business or library, the flow process never ceases - at every level of management". (p. 21).
This process may be shown in the following flow chart:

```
Decision making
  ↓
Policy making
  ↓
Planning
  ↓
Organising
  ↓
Motivating or Directing
  ↓
Controlling or Measuring
  ↓
Innovating
```

Fig. 1.1 Flow Chart showing the essential steps of management process

From the above discussion it may be noted that management process is a continuing process. The above model of management was developed at the end of the nineteenth century and is still in use to-day.

1.9. ORGANISATION AND GROUP

Management theories and practices are primarily based on the understanding of the nature of organisation or the groups within organisation. Obviously, majority of the studies in organisation and group have been conducted in connection with the industries. Some researchers have attempted to classify
the groups in an organisation on the basis of their characteristic behaviour pattern (Furman 1964; Luthans 1968; Asharya 1968). Some early works were concerned with the general nature of groups and group behaviour (Coeley 1911; Shaw 1971; Kolasa 1969).

Walker and Guest (1952), Parsons (1954), Dubin (1956, 1958), Waller (1960), Sayle (1970) and many others extensively studied the groups and their interrelations including the characteristics in large number of organisations. Although, they did not specifically concentrate on the communication within and between groups, but a careful scrutiny of the studies would reveal that a major aspect of the characteristics behaviour and interrelations of the groups in an organisation is the mode of communication within and between groups.

1.6. ROLE OF COMMUNICATION IN ORGANIZATIONAL MANAGEMENT:

Man lives in the society. This society is the sum total of many organisations. These organisations are ever increasing, they are growing not only larger, but also more and more complex. Drucker (1974) puts it thus:

"Our society has become, within an incredibly short fifty years, a society of institutions. It has become a pluralist society in which every major social task has been entrusted to large organisations - from producing economic goods and services to health care, from social security
and welfare to education, from search for
new knowledge to the protection of the
natural environment". (preface).

Men are associated with the above organisations in terms
of work. Men are not merely the workers here, they are more
than that. They work for a fixed hour, and within this working
hour they talk, learn, receive and send information, relax and
often feel that they are the members of a large group. These
working individuals may expect to receive some basic needs from
the organisation. Again, each organisation has certain goals,
purpose and objective and the organisation may expect to receive
some services from its working group of employees. Therefore,
there exists a reciprocal relationship between the organisation
and its employee (Nandy 1985).

Only with an effective communication system, needs of
these individuals and those of the organisations are fulfilled.
The absence of an effective system of communication may cause
misunderstanding, frustrations, and eventual alienation and
presence of such a unique system of communication contributes
greatly to better interpersonal relationship, productivity
and organisational efficiency (Chatterjee 1986).

The need for a unique system of communication is stressed
for the unionisation of workers, competitive business activi-
ties and better utilisation of human resources. In the words of
Knoets and Weihrich (1988) :
"It is no exaggeration to say that the communication function is the means by which organized activity is unified. It may be booked upon as the means by which social inputs are fed into social systems. It is also the means by which behaviour is modified, change is effected, information is made productive, and goals are achieved. Whether we are considered a church, a family, a scout troop, or a business enterprise, the transfer of information from one individual to another is absolutely essential". (p.461).

The communication is meant by which people are linked together in any organisation to achieve a common purpose. According to Knotts and Weirich (1990):

"... the purpose of communication in an enterprise is to effect change - to influence action toward the welfare of the enterprise. Communication is essential for the internal functioning of enterprises because it integrates the managerial functions. Especially, communication is needed to
1) establish and disseminate goals of an enterprise,
2) develop plans for their achievement,"
3) Organise human and other resources in the 
most effective and efficient way,
4) select, develop, and appraise members of 
the organisation,
5) lead, direct, motivate, and create a climate 
in which people want to contribute, and
6) control performance". (p.461).

Communication is the most consistent activity of all the under-
takings. Schneider & others (1973) have remarked about 
communication thus :

"This process is intertwined and interwoven 
throughout the entire web and weave of the 
organisational activities and touches everyone, 
from the president, vice-president, or 
general manager down through the mail messenger. 
These communication activities run through 
every department, whether it be line or staff, 
and flow through all segments of the operation. 

.... Communication is to the business organisa-
tion what electric current is to a wiring system. 
Communication is the activating force". (p.5-6).

According to Davis (1981) communication has a great role in 
each and every organisation. In his own words :

"Organization cannot exist without communication. 
If there is no communication, employees cannot 
know what their associates are doing, management
cannot receive information inputs, and management cannot give instructions. Co-ordination of work is impossible, and the organisation will collapse for lack of it. Co-operation also becomes impossible, because people cannot communicate their needs and feelings to others. We can say with some confidence that every act of communication influences the organisation in some way. (p.399).

From the management's point of view, a manager's plans may be the best in the world, but until they are communicated to the organisation they are worthless. Management is the most important of all the factors of production. Managers work with and through other people. The term people includes not only subordinates and supervisors but also other managers in the organisation and also includes individuals outside the organisation - customers, clients, suppliers, union representatives and so on. To achieve organizational goals, managers work with anyone at any level within or outside their organizations. In addition, managers work with each other to establish the organizations long-range goals work together to provide the accurate informations needed to perform tasks in the organisations. Thus, from the above discussion, it may be said that managers act as channels of communication within the organization.
For the improvement of the effectiveness of the organisation and of the individuals associated with the organisation communication plays a prime role, in the words of Schneiders & others (1975). According to them:

"It is well recognised by management theorists and practitioners that communication is a fundamentally important factor in effective management. Awareness of communication, per se, as one of the basic management ingredients dates back only to recent decades. There are a number of reasons why this important aspect of management has received increasing recognition. Chief among the reasons may be cited such factors as the increasing complexity of the business structure, depersonalisation of the workforce, the development of behavioral sciences, the development of the science of communication, including semantics, the increasing role of professionalisation of the managerial function, the need for meeting employee aspirations, and, finally, the demands upon the organisation to communicate with its customers, the general public, and the vast number of governmental agencies on the local, state, and national levels". (p.6).
In this chapter it is found that library exists since the
dawn of civilization and now it takes a complete shape of
complex organisation. The foundation of well-planned library
with a great collection is urged from the long past. It is no
longer a one-man business. It is the challenge of the modern
library how efficiently it can store the information of all
the branches of human knowledge and to retrieve successfully
these knowledge as and when required.

Now, the libraries are established as unified systems.
It has so many sub systems to fulfil its goal and objectives.
It has all the opportunities of management activities including
planning, organisation, command, co-ordination and control. At
present, library has three working categories of employees,
viz. management groups, supervision groups and working groups.
Therefore, group studies are essential here. The study of
organisational communication naturally, becomes essential in
the perspective of ever growing library organisation.

With the realisation of the necessity, the present investi-
gation has been planned to study the nature of communication in
big libraries with a view to understand the process and to
correlate the function of library management with the prevailing
communication process.

Here, one point must be made clear that although the title
of the thesis intends to study the communication channel, we
actually keep the whole process of communication in our purview.
This is essential because, study of the communication channels may be piecemeal approach to a problem which is, presently, only at a very early stage.