TWO STEPS FORWARD, ONE STEP BACK: IDEOLOGICAL AND HISTORICAL ASPECTS OF LIBRARY AND INFORMATION SCIENCE EDUCATION IN INDEPENDENT UKRAINE

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"Книга, могучее орудие общения, труда, борьбы. Она вооружает человека опытом жизни и борьбы человечества, раздвигает его горизонт, дает ему знания, при помощи которых он может заставить служить себе силы природы"

The book is a mighty instrument for communication, labor, struggle. It arms a person with life experiences and the toils of humanity. It expands his horizons and gives him knowledge to tame the forces of nature.

N.K. Krupskaya, wife of V.I. Lenin

ABSTRACT

This chapter examines historical developments and current trends in Ukrainian library education, based on a review of the Ukrainian literature, a survey of Library and Information (LIS) curricula, and
conversations with senior figures in Ukrainian LIS education. Ukraine became an independent state only in 1991 after the collapse of the Soviet Union. Prior to independence, Ukraine’s LIS education was integrated within the Soviet system. After independence the system evolved slowly, but with the recent Orange Revolution, reform efforts have increased apace. Ukrainian LIS education remains more vocational than in the United States, with a two-year nondegree certificate as the most common training, and a four-year bachelor’s degree offered by elite institutions. One emerging trend in LIS education there stresses the new opportunities for librarians and information professionals because of Internet technologies. Another trend is part of a more general shift, inspired by a new Ukrainian higher education law, stressing the country’s independent culture and formalizing standards for different degrees. Although Ukrainian LIS leaders advocate adoption of open access mechanisms, customer friendly practices, and electronic resources, my own experiences as a library user suggest that Soviet-era habits continue to shape library practices. LIS education has now reached a turning point as reformers grapple with the limited resources, the power of inertia, and remnants of Soviet culture in their efforts to meet current challenges and prepare a new generation of information professionals. In 1904, frustrated by the chaotic state of the exiled Russian revolutionary community, Lenin published the book One Step Forward, Two Steps Back (The Crisis in Our Party). Fundamental institutional change has never been a quick or easy process. More than 90 years after his eventual triumph in the October Revolution of 1917, Ukraine is now working to undo Lenin’s legacy. Its progress has been similarly indirect, but one can at least be sufficiently confident about its direction (to reverse the directions involved): in recent years the country has been making at least two steps forward for each one back.

Within Ukraine’s libraries, as in its other social institutions, attempts at bold reform and a decisive break with the Soviet past have struggled against the prevalent culture of passivity and corruption inherited from the Brezhnev era of the 1970s. Ukraine was one of the 15 Soviet republics and was fully integrated within the U.S.S.R until its collapse in 1991. Today, Ukraine struggles quite publicly with the legacy of its seven decades of Soviet misrule. Although the Soviet Union contained one of the world’s best-developed library networks, its libraries were charged with a very different task from their counterparts in liberal democracies. The ideology of
Marxism-Leninism was woven into every state institution and libraries played an important part in shoring up Lenin’s legacy. Librarians were educated to ensure that reading and research was conducted according to socialist principles (Kimmage, 1992). Very often libraries were part of the communist-led cultural and entertainment clubs provided by the Ministry of the Interior for the use of members of different occupational groups.

Ukraine’s history and geography present some particular challenges to librarians. The country has a culturally and historically diverse population, with several languages and national traditions. Today Ukraine has a population that has shrunk to 48 million, though it remains, the second biggest country in Europe (after Russia) in terms of land area. Ukraine borders Poland, Romania, and Moldova in the west, Belarus in the north, and Russia in the east. Until the borders of Europe were redrawn by the 1939 Molotov–Ribbentrop Pact (in which Poland was partitioned between Hitler and Stalin), most of present-day western Ukraine was Poland. In this region, Ukrainian (closely related to Russian but with many Polish elements) is widely spoken, and most citizens look toward the European Union for their political future. Eastern Ukraine was the traditional heartland of Ukrainian nationalism and Cossack traditions, but Stalin crushed most resistance through artificial famines, deportation, and the resettlement of ethnic Russians. And so, today, most in the region speak Russian and look toward ever closer ties with Moscow. The Crimean peninsula, in the south of the country, was only merged into Ukraine in a 1954 internal shifting of borders within the Soviet Union.

Since independence, the use of Ukrainian language has become a highly politicized issue dividing pro-Western politicians from their pro-Russian counterparts. Currently Ukrainian is the nation’s only official language, but the vast bulk of existing library materials, and indeed library patrons, rely on Russian. One challenge facing library education is the promotion of Ukrainian language and culture within libraries, a task involving many practical and political difficulties.

**BRIEF OVERVIEW OF LIBRARY AND REFERENCE EDUCATION IN THE SOVIET UNION**

Vladimir Ilyich Lenin, like George W. Bush, married a woman with a keen personal interest in the promotion of libraries. Nadezhda Konstatinovna Krupskaya was credited with defining the foundations of the content and
methods of Soviet Library education (Karetzky, 2002). After the 1917 Bolshevnik revolution, Krupskaya became the country’s director of adult education and propaganda and Deputy Commissar of Education. Krupskaya borrowed the German model of multiple tiers in Library and Reference education. This system offered two-year non-degree programs to prepare junior and middle level library specialists and four and five-year higher degrees to prepare higher level specialists (Raymond, 1979).

Under Krupskaya’s guidance, libraries were reborn as a crucial part of the ideological infrastructure of Soviet society. Krupskaya published a 1920 article in Pravda, the major newspaper of the new state, titled “Centralization of Librarianship.” In this article, she outlined the new place of public libraries in the Soviet Union “In order to provide everybody with books, we need to increase book publication hundred- or thousand-fold. Currently, given the overall collapse of the economy, this is impossible to achieve. Therefore, we have only one solution: to move from individual book ownership to collective book usage. Collective use of books is possible only with the development of the wide network of libraries” (Krupskaya, 1934). Books, like agricultural land and industrial resources, were to pass into common ownership. Soon after Krupskaya’s article appeared, the Bolshevik Commissariat issued a directive to confiscate and nationalize all private book collections with more than 500 books “belonging to the citizens whose professions do not require books as proletariat require their tools” (Verzhbizkiy, 1924). Confiscated books were supposed to be moved to the newly created libraries (Fig. 1).

The collectivization of books within library collections also facilitated Communist party control over their contents. From the very beginning, Krupskaya stressed that only certain books should be made available to the masses. In 1924, she wrote that “There are books that organize and there are books that disorganize” (Likhtenshtein, 1978). As Lenin’s wife, she put in place the practice of cleaning these “disorganizing” books from library collections (Verzhbizkiy, 1924). Throughout the Soviet period, librarians were responsible for maintaining up-to-date lists of forbidden works and removing them from public view. As Soviet rule spread to new states, librarians were trained in these techniques and were required to move unsuitable books into “special collections” (Abramov, 1974). Later in the Soviet period, some books purged from libraries would resurface illicitly as Samizdat, passed clandestinely between readers often as self-published copies in handwritten, manually typed, or carbon-copy form (Biriukov, 2000; Daniel, 2005).

Krupskaya initiated the founding of the first “Soviet Library Seminaria” (college), which opened in Moscow in 1918, just one year after the
revolution and several years before the final victory of Red forces in the ensuing civil war. This was the first sustained attempt to offer library education within the former Russian Empire, despite sporadic earlier initiatives to create textbooks and offer instruction in librarianship (Choldin, 1976). Librarians were formerly drawn from a variety of educational backgrounds and were often trained as teachers (Abramov, 1980). Library education became a required subject in the humanities departments of many Russian institutions by the end of the 1920s. At the same time, more than 20 library departments opened in Russian Institutes of Political Education, Pedagogical Institutes, and Academies of Communist Education (Kazanzceva, 1958). From the beginning of the 1930s, the library education system started to develop in other republics of the Soviet Union. Library departments were transformed into specialist educational institutes. The first library institute in Ukraine opened in 1934 in Kharkiv (Kharkov in Russian) in Eastern Ukraine. Like other early Soviet library educational institutes it was rechartered as a library school after previously serving as a Political-Educational
Institute to provide specialist ideological education to new Communist party members (Kazanzceva, 1958; Sheyko & Kushnarenko, 2004).

In the postwar years, the number of library higher education institutes continued to grow. The network of library institutes spread not only across Soviet republics, but also to the other countries of the Soviet bloc. In 1964, Soviet library institutes went through another transition and were reborn as Institutes of Culture, positioning library education as the institutional peer of theater, dance, circus, and cinema education. This reflected the shared role of these professions in providing propaganda mixed with culture and entertainment. By 1970, the Soviet network of library higher education institutions consisted of 10 Institutes of Culture and more than 20 library faculties (departments) within universities (Grigoryev, 1975).

Here, as in its overall organization of library education, the Soviet Union followed the German system. Graduate study and the completion of a dissertation led to the Candidate of Sciences qualification (“Kandidat Nayk” – the equivalent of the American PhD). Studies for the Candidate of Sciences degree occurred in the consortia of universities belonging to the Academy of Sciences, where students took courses at a number of different institutions. Studies for the Candidate of Sciences degree in the humanities required courses in four areas: history, philosophy, foreign language, and profession. Librarianship was offered not as a self-contained discipline but as a specialized series of courses within the “profession” component of this broader educational program. People who studied librarianship as a professional specialization received the Candidate of Sciences degree either in history or philosophy, or pedagogy. From 1948–1956, Aspirantura (postgraduate study for Candidate of Science) took place at the Vernadsky National Library of Ukraine, the main information center of Ukraine. These studies ceased in 1956 after Soviet authorities accused this library of fostering nationalistic sentiment. After 1956, only the Moscow and Leningrad Institutes of Culture offered graduate research degrees with a librarianship component.

Subsequent completion of a second, larger, and more innovative dissertation, which is the equivalent of the German Habilitationsschrift, would grant the status of “Doctor.” “Doctorants” required strong national and international reputations, and usually headed departments or institutions. Doctorants did not have advisors or take additional courses or examinations, since they themselves often served as advisors to the students studying for Candidate of Sciences degrees.

These specialist library schools offering instruction to candidates seeking higher degrees were merely the top tier of a much larger system of library
education. This concept, too, can be traced back to Krupskaya. The tiered hierarchical system was adopted from the German model even though the content was changed. Within larger libraries, jobs were rigidly stratified according to the level of library education received. Vocational library education initially took place within the political–educational departments of Sovpartshkola (an abbreviation of “Soviet Party School”). Later, fully fledged library education departments opened within the political education faculties of vocational colleges which were two-year schools granting diplomas (Oleneva, 1961). From the beginning of 1929, separate vocational library education schools started to appear. By 1970, the Soviet Union reported a network of vocational library education institutions, which consisted of 12 separate vocational library education schools and more than 100 departments in vocational colleges. At that time, the total body of vocational library education students studying librarianship was said to be approximately 30,000 (Grigoryev, 1975). These vocational schools were educating far more librarians than their degree-granting counterparts. Soviet statistics reported that, in the 1968/1969 academic year, 4,000 librarians graduated with university degrees, and 11,000 librarians graduated with diplomas from vocational schools (Grigoryev, 1975).

As one might expect, given the ideological weight accorded to libraries within the U.S.S.R., the curricula developed for library students stressed the role of the library in the long march toward the eventual realization of a utopian communist society. Librarians were being educated to play an active part in the dissemination of ideological propaganda. All courses had some Soviet ideological components with more than a third of them devoted exclusively to Marxist-Leninist ideology. The curricula of Soviet Library education included the following core components for librarians educated in the institutes of culture and universities:

- History of the Communist Party of the USSR.
- Marxist-Leninist Philosophy.
- Political Economy.
- Foundations of Scientific Communism.
- Foundations of Marxist-Leninist Ethics and Aesthetics.
- Foundations of Scientific Atheism.
- Foundations of Marxist-Leninist Theory of Culture.
- Pedagogy
- Psychology
- History of the U.S.S.R.
- History of Foreign Countries
Elite librarians being trained to work within special libraries received additional courses. These included history of the Soviet economy, history of technology, fundamentals of modern natural sciences, fundamentals of modern industrial production, and "technical propaganda and information" (Grigoryev, 1975).

LIBRARY AND REFERENCE EDUCATION IN UKRAINE AFTER THE COLLAPSE OF THE SOVIET UNION

Opportunities to create national schools in library science presented themselves only with Ukraine’s independence, which took effect at the start of 1992. The new Ukrainian Constitution guaranteed the democratic principles of intellectual freedom and free and equal access to information. The new constitution had a positive influence on library democratization, expansion of professional contacts, and collaboration between librarians (Konyukova, 2002a, 2002b). Democratization of Ukraine became one of the driving forces in effecting changes in library science education. In 2002, a new law implementing new standards for higher education came into effect. This law established standard requirements for bachelor’s, master’s, and doctoral degrees. These replaced the old standards defined by the centralized system of the U.S.S.R.

With the collapse of the Soviet Union, the required courses in Marxist ideology rapidly vanished from Ukrainian degree programs. However, the creation of a modern and democratically inclined library culture required
rather more than simply jettisoning the overtly ideological chunks of the old curriculum. Rapid change would have required a rapid and fundamental shift in educational personnel, teaching materials, learning styles, organizational culture, and professional identity. This was not possible. In fact, the immediate effect of independence was a sharp drop in available resources for both libraries and education as the Ukrainian economy imploded and centralized Soviet infrastructure networks unraveled. During the chaos of the early 1990s, universities struggled simply to pay instructors and to keep the lights on. As one Ukrainian library specialist summarized the era, “Economic crisis in Ukraine led to a sharp decline in library networks, student enrollment and graduation of new specialists” (Khlynova, 2001).

According to one Ukrainian observer, “Before [independence in] 1992 no periodical journal of librarianship existed [in Ukraine]” (Mozyrko, 2002). Scholarship in the field was centered in Russia. Soviet centralization left newly independent Ukraine without a single graduate library school (Mozyrko, 2000). As a result, the lack of library and information (LIS) science researchers with graduate research training focused on the discipline has been a particular challenge to the expansion of graduate education in the field. However, Ukraine inherited a reasonable complement of vocational and undergraduate library training programs.

The main structural difference between the Ukrainian and the American library education systems remains the multitiered hierarchical system of education in Ukraine, which contrasts dramatically with the American model in which the graduate MLIS degree is the main professional credential recognized by the field. Library and reference education in Ukraine still follows the German–Soviet model and consists of two tiers. The first tier prepares junior level library workers in vocational two-year schools. There are two levels of vocational schools. Vocational schools at the lower level (level I of accreditation) accept applicants at the age of 14–15. At graduation, students receive a vocational certificate and the equivalent of a high school diploma. Vocational schools at the second level (level II of accreditation) accept applicants at ages 17–18 from a variety of academic backgrounds. At the end of two years of studies, graduates receive a professional certificate for the middle level library worker (Golovko, 2003). There are many vocational schools in Ukraine to prepare junior and middle level library specialists. Programs are offered in different formats: day-study, evening-study, and correspondence classes (Demchyna, 2003; Golovko, 2003).

The second tier of Library and Reference education consists of four and five-year colleges and universities (III and IV levels of accreditation).
Library and Reference departments operate within a university, or Institute of Culture, or within degree-granting teacher training colleges ("Pedagogical Institutes"). After independence, many colleges that had previously been called institutes renamed themselves as universities. After completing these colleges, graduates receive the equivalent of a bachelor degree. Four Ukrainian schools grant bachelors’ degrees in Library Science, covering the main geographical areas of the country:

- The Kyiv National University of Culture and Arts (Central Ukraine).
- The Kharkiv State Academy of Culture (Eastern Ukraine).
- The Rivne State University of Culture (Western Ukraine).
- The Mykolaiv branch of the Kyiv National University of Culture and Arts (Southern Ukraine).

During Soviet times, the place of natural science and engineering at the top of the academic status hierarchy was unquestioned. Their prestige was boosted both by the state’s strategic commitment to science as a showpiece of Soviet accomplishment and to the relative lack of ideological distortion imposed on the work of researchers in these fields. Librarianship was grouped with other professional, artistic, and social science fields as part of “the humanities.” Even within the humanities it suffered from an unusually low level of prestige. The ideological mission given to libraries during the Soviet era cost them much respect in the eyes of both library users and librarians. Because undergraduate library schools were located within Institutes of Culture and were responsible for the creation and dissemination of propagandistic entertainment, they enjoyed a lower status than other professional disciplines. This mitigated against the emergence of a strong culture of research in the field (Mozyrko, 2000). From the 1950s onward, leading library schools and ambitious researchers in the United States remade themselves as practitioners of “information science,” embracing the mantle of science, the rigors of quantitative and experimental research, and the power of new electronic technologies in an attempt to legitimate the field as a modern and theoretically grounded endeavor. Information science eventually edged out librarianship as the dominant identity in the field. Library education in the Soviet Union, in contrast, remained closer to its vocational roots. Within the institutes of culture, it was institutionally allied more with the performing arts than with new ideas such as information retrieval or information theory that predominated elsewhere. Soviet library specialists do not seem to have enjoyed appreciable success in making a similar claim to scientific status for their field.
This situation has been slow to change. Today, Kyiv’s (Kiev in Russian) only undergraduate library education program is at the Kyiv National University of Culture and Arts, a former Soviet institute of culture. This university offers education in singing, dancing, hairdressing, and the hotel industry as well as professional studies, such as law and business. Library education, formerly one of the three main divisions of the institute, has been demoted to a Department (“kafedra”) of Information Resources and Services within the university’s School (“institute”) of Culture. Its peer departments within this school include the Department of Applied Cultural Studies offering degrees in stage training, fashion, tourism, and the rather cryptically titled “psycho-technology of the entertainment and recreation industry.” The university heavily promotes its performing arts programs, as evidenced by the photograph below of its celebrity president Mykhajlo Poplavsky performing alongside students in a showcase review (Fig. 2).

Although explicitly ideological courses have been removed (to be replaced in a sense with proudly nationalistic courses on Ukrainian history, culture, and language), the curriculum is still skewed toward giving students a grounding in the content of different subject fields such as history, literature, and foreign languages rather than dealing in-depth with the specialist knowledge and skills required to function in a modern library. And, since

Fig. 2. The Kyiv National University of Arts and Culture’s Singing President, M. Poplavsky. Source: http://www.knukim.edu.ua/rector.htm
the degrees are at the undergraduate level, students cannot necessarily be expected to have satisfied general education requirements and mastered at least one specialist area before entering library education as is the case for those entering an American MLIS program.

The field of study is known officially as “Spezialist 6.020100: Knyhoznastvo, Biblioteka, Bibliographia” which may be translated literally as “Bibliography, Librarianship and Reference” but which I shall refer to below simply as librarianship. At the universities granting bachelor’s degrees, including the Kyiv National University of Arts and Culture, Ivan Franko Lviv National University, and Kharkiv National University, a Master’s Degree in librarianship was introduced as an option for graduate studies. The Master’s degree requires an additional two years of study after completing a four-year Bachelor’s degree. The fifth year of study grants a “specialist level” qualification, and the Master’s degree follows after a sixth year. These programs are aimed primarily at students who already hold, or are about to complete, a Bachelor’s degree in librarianship (a contrast with the North American model). The specialist qualification serves in practice to add back the fifth year of study present in the Soviet undergraduate degree but removed during curricular reform postindependence. The specialist qualification is expected for department heads in larger libraries and for librarians working in specialized technical institutions. It includes a significant fieldwork component.

Master’s degrees did not exist under the Soviet system, but have rapidly gained popularity in many fields as a new and Western-oriented qualification. They symbolize Ukraine’s participation in the “Bologna Process,” a major European initiative to restructure higher education, improve quality standards, and give greater international transferability of qualifications. The Master’s degree in librarianship is intended to prepare students for management positions in libraries, scientific research positions, and educational roles. The Master’s degrees include advanced courses on all aspects of librarianship, including theoretical areas, technological skills, and courses aimed at practical professional issues such as managing and marketing libraries.

Ukraine has retained its dual level German-inspired system, separating Candidate of Sciences from Doctor. Since its independence, several Ukrainian universities and institutions opened postgraduate studies for Candidate of Sciences and Doctoral degrees. A number of Aspiranturas (graduate studies programs) opened in independent Ukraine. As in Soviet times, graduate studies in librarianship exist as a specialized component within more general areas such as history, pedagogy, and technology. Since 1998, more than 70 students have received the Candidate of Sciences degree
with specializations in librarianship. For instance, the Vernadsky National Library of Ukraine, its leading scientific library, reopened its Aspirantura in 1993. It offers such specialized courses for doctoral students in librarianship within two tracks: (1) Book, Librarianship, and Reference and (2) Automated Control Systems and Progressive Information Technologies. Students interested in the former would usually enroll for graduate degrees in history or pedagogy, perhaps at the Kyiv National University of Arts and Culture. The second stream is usually integrated with a graduate degree in Technical Sciences. The Kharkiv State Academy of Culture started offering a Candidate of Sciences degree program with a specialization in Librarianship and Bibliography in 1994 and a Doctor degree program in 1996 (Sheyko & Kushnarenko, 2004).

CURRENT SITUATION IN UKRAINIAN LIBRARY EDUCATION: TWO STEPS FORWARD

The development of modern library education in Ukraine remains very much a work in progress. But a new connection between libraries and information science is an example of the progressive thinking that is gradually spreading among Ukrainian colleges and universities. Despite this, Ukraine’s librarians are not all well prepared for current and future demands. Most currently practicing librarians, particularly at senior levels, were trained under the Soviet system. Library work is not well paid, and the profession does not have a high profile among young people. Even those being educated today are largely studying under an educational system shaped by the Soviet experience.

Most of the existing libraries are specialized, whereas library education in the higher degree institutes is geared toward general public libraries. This has created a mismatch between existing demands from the job market and the preparation provided to the workforce. In many cases, the training and experience of a credentialed librarian does not correspond to the demands of the job. Library managers complain that recent graduates need a lengthy training period to prepare fully to meet their job responsibilities (Mozyrko, 2002).

To address these problems, library schools of all tiers started changing their curricula. Today, several universities offer a specialization in “Bibliography, Librarianship, and Reference” intended to prepare graduates for the following professions: “bibliographer, manager of information
systems and technologies, international information manager, information manager, abstracting and indexing analyst, records management specialist, abstracting and indexing specialist of subject-based information services systems” (Kushnarenko & Solianyk, 2001; Zhuk, 2004). The Kyiv National University of Culture made its first steps in this direction during the 1991–1992 academic year when an archives specialty was added to the library degree. In 1993, a course on Foundations of Bibliographic Control was also added, and, in 1994, a new specialization in Documents and Information Services appeared (Konyukova, 2002a).

The Kharkiv State Academy of Culture provides another example of the conceptual restructuring of LIS education. In 1994, the Library Faculty at the Kharkiv State Academy of Culture was renamed the Faculty of Librarianship and Informatics. The faculty was reorganized to include the Department of Librarianship, the Department of Bibliography, the Department of Document Management, and the Department of Informatics, Information Systems, and Processes. In 1995, this school became the first in Ukraine to offer the new specialization of “Record Management and Information Services” (Sheyko & Kushnarenko, 2004). This attempt to link library education to management and information work outside traditional libraries is quite new for Ukraine and follows the model of Western education in LIS science.

Education in library science was traditionally focused on the humanities (history, literature, Marxist-Leninist philosophy). Library science education is gradually acquiring a new focus that reflects the conditions of the new information-oriented society. Information technology courses have been added to the core curricula at Ukraine’s leading centers of library education (Matvienko, 2000). As in the rest of the world, libraries in Ukraine have been shifting their attention to electronic sources, audio recordings, and other media resources. This has been accompanied by a new focus on information technology in library education (Filipova, 2001; Shvakina, 2001).

Another important driving force is the inclusion of new technologies (computer and telecommunications) in the processing of documents, document preservation, information search, and information exchange by using new technologies. “Due to the new technologies, the library transforms itself from a book storage into a social institution that ensures accumulation and preservation of knowledge to be widely used” (Khlynova, 2001).

Meanwhile, the ideological Marxist courses in the curriculum have been replaced with a new focus on Ukraine, including such disciplines as Ukrainian history, Ukrainian literature, and the “Culture of the Ukrainian language.” Under the Soviet system, Ukrainian culture was presented as a
lesser derivative of Russian culture, and Ukrainian history was taught very
selectively. Even the grammar of the Ukrainian language was modified to
make it more similar to the Russian language (Bilaniuk, 2005). Ukrainian
national sentiment was actively discouraged. Therefore, it is important in
the new democratic Ukraine to prepare qualified professionals who both
respect their profession and are proud of their heritage. “Reforms in the
Library education happen when history of Ukraine, culture and literature of
Ukraine, culture of Ukrainian language are taught; when previously banned
pages of history of Ukrainian librarianship, book, and bibliography are
told” (Mozyrko, 2002).

THE USER PERSPECTIVE: ONE STEP BACK

These shifts in the educational curricula have been accompanied by a more
general shift in the role of the library within Ukrainian society. Whereas, in
Soviet times, libraries were required to restrict and filter the flow of
information, their stated mission is now to facilitate and expand infor-
mation usage (Apshay, 2004). Librarians are beginning to see themselves as
part of the cycle of information distribution from author to publisher to
libraries and information centers, and, finally, to users (Kostenko & Soroka,
2002). Two specialists in the Vernadsky Library in Kyiv captured this new
spirit when they wrote

The Ukrainian Library System is a part of the world’s information resources and
cultural heritage . . . Libraries must take responsibilities of collecting, organizing, and
storing electronic information resources accessible to everyone . . . Libraries must take it
upon themselves to implement the digitization of the whole book heritage of the
Ukrainian people. Providing access to these Ukrainian resources to all users, without
restrictions on time or location, will ensure preservation and active use of these resources
to solve scientific, educational, and cultural problems. (Kostenko & Soroka, 2002)

In practice, this fundamental shift in the culture of librarianship is taking
place slowly. Despite the shifts in library rhetoric from information control
to information access and a user focus, and despite the shifts in library
education curricula to reflect that rhetoric, changes in personnel and
leadership practices are very gradual. My personal experience as a library
user during my Fulbright fellowship award in 2007 gave me an opportunity
to compare rhetoric with reality. My decision to use a trip to the library as a
tool to research the library itself as well as the topics I was reading about
reflect a recent focus in the study of organizational information systems
(Yates & Maanen, 2001), on the one hand, and science and technology
studies (Oudshoorn & Pinch, 2003) on the other, on user experiences as a key means of analyzing socio-technical systems and a valuable corrective to traditional top-down methods of understanding.

Initially, I visited the Vernadsky Library as a guest of one of its staff members, meeting its staff and surveying its departments and operations. I was given a tour of modern facilities in the library. The library has extensive collections of scientific literature, copies of all Ukrainian publications, many special and archival collections, and several reading halls equipped with computers. To facilitate access to scientific information abroad, the library subscribes to many electronic databases, among them Science Direct and Ebsco. Within Ukraine it has pioneered online catalogs, electronic databases, electronic indexing of dissertation abstracts, and electronic access to articles in full text (Fig. 3).

Impressed by this spectacle of technology, efficiency, and customer service, I decided to return to conduct research for my forthcoming article on the Ukrainian library system. I had selected 10 relevant journal article citations and planned to acquire full text copies for my research. I arrived at 10 a.m. to the library hoping to accomplish the task before lunch with a colleague on the library’s staff.

As the first step in what proved to be a long process of acquiring copies of the needed articles, I had to queue up for 15 min in the library lobby to

Fig. 3. Reading Hall Equipped with Computers. Photograph by Author.
register for a pass. The library is not open to the public. Passes are issued to
to provide access according to status. Students with suitable letters of intro-
duction receive limited access, with additional privileges provided for faculty
and for distinguished scientists. For my pass, I had to present a passport and
proof of having earned my doctorate – in my case it was letter from the
Fulbright office. This entitled me to a special foreigner pass, enabling me to
browse and request materials but not to borrow them. I had to stand in line
for 40 min before my application was approved.

I then tried to enter the library beyond the lobby, but I was stopped
because I did not register my laptop. Use of registered laptops is permitted,
but only when operated under battery power. A policy that laptops cannot
be plugged in to the plentiful power outlets is in place that is rather
unfriendly to researchers by American standards, and I have since been told
that this policy exists to discourage the use of personal laptops connected to
the network to download masses of text from commercial databases, and
thereby running up large bills for the library. Scanners and cameras may not
be used in the library. Registering the laptop yielded another pass
authorizing its passage into the library. I noticed that the lobby and other
common areas lacked seats or other points for social congregation.

I also was issued a “control ticket” of my own which I had to present at
each entrance to a different room as I was moving within the library. The
control ticket was stamped in each room by attendants stationed at the door
of each of its 16 reading rooms. At the end of the day, I had to return it with
a trail of stamps from the reading halls I had visited during my visit.

After receiving permission to enter the library, my first step was to go to the
card catalog to retrieve call numbers for the publications I wanted. I struggled
with the unfamiliar catalog system and politely asked for help from one of
two idling librarians chatting nearby (Fig. 4). I was taken aback by the rude
response “What? Do you want me to search the catalog for you? Here are the
cards, go and find it yourself.” Senior library staff later explained that the
frontline personnel are significantly underpaid and suggested that this might
explain their attitude. This recalls the classic Soviet-era aphorism, “They
pretend to pay us, and we pretend to work.” Generations of communist party
rule left the USSR with one of the world’s worst customer service cultures,
and, in libraries, as in shops, hotels, offices, and restaurants most Ukrainians
are accustomed to being treated as annoyances. However, I did find the call
numbers for two journals. The next step was to obtain a request form to
retrieve the appropriate issues. For each requested item (i.e., a single journal
issue), a library patron must complete a form in duplicate. A patron can
submit a maximum of four requests every two hours.
While waiting for two hours to receive the first batch of journals and to file another request, I went to the current periodicals room seeking one of the current articles. I got my ticket stamped and retrieved one journal issue. Fortunately I had the right kind of pass since a prominent sign at the desk warned that only those with permanent library cards would be served there. However, even those patrons trusted with a recent journal issue cannot make copies of articles themselves, an echo of Soviet times in which photocopiers were carefully guarded and every copy made had to be authorized and accounted for to limit the spread of samizdat materials. The only legal way to copy an article is to leave the reading room and join the line in the basement to submit a copy request. In the middle of the day, I was lucky to wait only 20 min. Later in the day, queues were much longer. Although the logs of materials copied are no longer tallied they have persisted out of institutional habit (Fig. 5).

When I met my Ukrainian colleague, he revealed the existence of a computer catalog of call numbers covering materials from 1994 onward, so I no longer needed to struggle through the card catalog anymore. Searching the catalog required determination, as the librarian on duty in the computer room wanted to know exactly what I was planning to do on the computer and then insisted that I would not find what I needed. Fortunately, the system worked well and saved me much time. By then, my first four journal issues had arrived in the reading room. I had time to repeat the cycle once more before the library closed at 6 p.m.: submitting request forms, waiting...
to retrieve the journals, and queuing up to make copies. Unfortunately, the
copy room closed an hour earlier than the library. Hiding behind a pillar in
the lobby, I used my camera to photograph the text of the retrieved articles.
After eight hours in the library, I had found seven journal articles and
had copied just three of them legally. To accomplish this I had filled out
15 forms, and received four stamps on my control ticket (Fig. 6).

The contrast between the bold hopes expressed in the articles I retrieved
and the process by which I procured them was jarring. The articles depicted a
determined drive to open library collections to a broader population of
researchers, to create user-focused culture, and to provide access to
information. Technology to provide this change is available in Ukraine,
and has been deployed more extensively in the Vernadsky than in any other
library. However, the practices and assumptions of the Soviet era are
embedded in many aspects of the library: its physical organization, service
culture, limitation of access by user type, and proliferation of forms and
permits. Librarians were more concerned with limiting access than facili-
tating it, actively discouraging the use of its ballyhooed electronic resources.
To Western eyes, this library appeared hugely overstaffed, yet the staff
members seemed to resent the presence of library patrons as an intrusion on their routine. The Soviet-style control forms required to enter each room and stamped to log the patron’s every move, provided particularly striking evidence of this micro-level continuity of practice despite a polar reversal of official ideology. This was also evidenced by the centralization of copy machines and the barriers to their use confronting users.

CONCLUSION

Attempts to restructure Ukrainian library education remain at the experimental stage, with different approaches coexisting among the country’s institutions of library education. Impressive efforts are underway to shift structures of LIS education toward Western European models, including the introduction of master’s degrees and a more modular approach to course requirements. Explicitly ideological courses have been removed, but Soviet culture, assumptions, and practices continue to exert their influence in a subtle way. Although new approaches are being taught, they have had a limited impact on practice as real change in the service philosophy await the creation of a new generation of information professionals. My examination of the actual user experience at the country’s most advanced library showed that shifts in rhetoric and an impressive
commitment to the adoption of international electronic resources have yet to fully shift practices from the ingrained habits of the Soviet era.

Institutional cultures and practices can perpetuate themselves indefinitely. So far, the Vernadsky’s institutional inertia has imposed its own patterns on the use of new technology, rather than being somehow transformed by the mere presence of computers, Internet connections, and databases. Yet my own opinion is that change is coming to Ukrainian libraries, albeit slowly. The new curriculum foregrounds electronic resources, and many Ukrainians are enthusiastic about the potential of open access digital libraries and journals for this relatively poor country. Within the country’s largest libraries transformation may take place slowly, as a younger generation currently in mid-level positions gradually takes over. Smaller, more nimble libraries may be adapting more quickly, in terms of organizational culture if not in their technological infrastructure. Traveling the country in 2007 as part of my Fulbright fellowship, I was impressed by the commitment shown by many regional library directors to improve user services and make the physical layout of their libraries more welcoming. Improvising in an environment of scarce resources they recognized the importance of libraries as community centers and public institutions in a newly capitalist world. Struggling for survival has forced them to care about their users in a manner unimaginable during the Soviet era. For many smaller libraries the choice is between rapid evolution and extinction.

Ukrainian library educators face many of the same challenges and opportunities as their American counterparts, but they must guard against the assumption that the imposition of an American-style reliance on graduate MLIS education is the only way forward. In the longer term, appropriate education for Ukraine’s librarians will depend on the young nation’s conception of what the purpose and mission of a library should be. Although Ukrainian library culture continues to reflect Soviet heritage, it already diverged dramatically from those prevalent in Putin’s authoritarian Russia. I noticed at a recent major library conference in Crimea (14th International Conference “Crimea 2007: The Role of Digital Information and Digital Libraries in Advance to the Knowledge-Based Society”) that Russian participants often began presentations by personally thanking Vladimir Vladimirovich Putin for his leadership and nurturing of libraries, a direct echo of Soviet rhetorical practice unknown in today’s Ukraine. Ukrainian presenters at the same conference openly debated shortcomings and challenges with a well-founded skepticism toward the capabilities of their own government. As time passes, the shape of Ukraine’s information institutions will both reflect and shape the efforts of its people to forge a
consensus as to whether the Ukraine will finally be a liberal European
democracy, a loyal satellite of a resurgent Russia, or something uniquely
Ukrainian.

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