

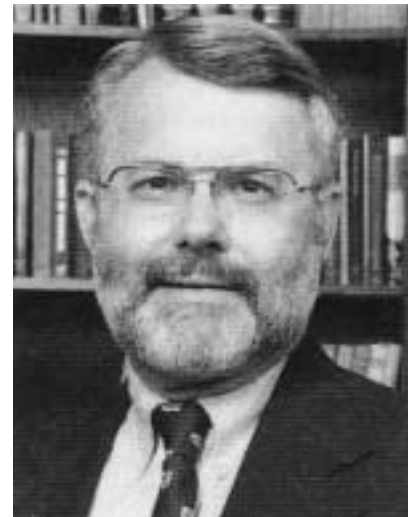
With Malice toward None: IFLA and the Cold War

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"He returned to the cellar, Hselected one of the volumes at random, opened it to be certain that it was one of the dangerous



books. He glanced at the page and saw the word Communist. Then he ripped the back cover off. The pages were thick and heavy, and while they ripped quite easily page by page they would not come loose in handfuls... So patiently he ripped the pages out, a few at a time...Hare opened the iron door and stuffed the paper bundle inside. The free edges caught fire and curled back in flame from the smoldering ashy remains of the morning's trash."¹

This passage from the soon to be blacklisted Hollywood Ten writer Abraham Polonsky's novel, *A Season of Fear*, delves into the crippling paranoia of infiltration by the ideological other that seized the world as the Cold War intensified in the years following World War II. As stern-faced presidents and commissars confronted each other a kind of bomb-shelter mentality enveloped citizens across the world. Naturally, as this fear and suspicion spread into many all occupations and discourses, librarianship was not spared; neither was the International Federation of Library Associations (IFLA), the prime international organization of librarianship, spared the turbulence of the Cold War. Claiming, and for the most

part maintaining, a stand of neutrality, IFLA still suffered from the verbal darts and political skirmishes of an international community undergoing tremendous postwar changes and of the stifling Cold War.

From the 1917 October Revolution until the demise of the totalitarian manifestation of communism in at the end of the 1980s, the main struggle engaging the political powers of this 20th century has been the conflict between capitalism and communism. There was a brief interlude during World War II in which the natural enemies formed an uneasy alliance to defeat the common enemy of Axis fascism. Almost immediately after the War, however, the primary struggle resumed with greater energy and purpose. By the time Winston Churchill fired what was, in effect, the starting gun for the Cold War, his Iron Curtain speech delivered on 6 March 1946, the world powers were already lined up in opposition to each other². In 1948, in London, IFLA President W. Munthe addressed this new political animosity. He stated:

The ideals we fought for seem farther away than ever. Shall our most urgent concern be to prepare bigger evacuation premises, to dig deeper anti-air raid - nay anti-atomic bombshelters in which we can bury the intellectual treasures we have in our custody? Shall we, the torch bearers of enlightenment, end as gravediggers of science and scholarship?³

By the time Munthe voiced these sentiments, IFLA had already weathered the storms of international depression, the rise of fascism, and the devastation of World War II. Now it was preparing to weather another era of uneasiness and calamity. In order to accomplish their goals and to create an international community of librarians, IFLA, under the leadership of Munthe, strove to "support all beneficial forces in shaping new modes of thought in accordance with Abraham Lincoln's famous words: 'with

malice towards none, with charity for all.'"⁴ With this ideal as a beacon, IFLA stepped into the Cold War era.

The International Federation of Library Associations came into being at the Fiftieth Anniversary celebrations of the (British) Library Association in Edinburgh, on 30 September 1927. The initiating members included groups from the United Kingdom, Germany, Switzerland, France, and the United States. By the outbreak of World War II, IFLA comprised member organizations from 31 countries, including such non-European nations as China, Japan, Mexico, the Philippines, and India. Reminiscing about the organization, ex-President Preban Kirkegaard stated that IFLA's "establishment and its internationalism is the cultural effort of men and women of good will after World War I to recreate what had been for hundreds of years the tradition for the scientific and scholarly layer of society...after the peace, cultural people, who appreciated their national situation, were open minded and could see that their nations could not master all things and needed cooperation and inspiration. This is the background on which IFLA grew.⁵

After surviving the destruction of the War safely in Bern, Switzerland, IFLA reorganized and began assisting damaged and decimated libraries around the world. It is appropriate that IFLA spent the war years headquartered in a neutral land since during the Cold War, IFLA became itself a kind of organizational Switzerland. It ignored the politics of its member states and allowed Britons to work with Russians to work with Germans to work with Czechs - and eventually to work with Nigerians and Cambodians. As IFLA President Frank Francis later said at the 1968 Frankfurt conference:

First, IFLA is an international association in which all members have equal rights to participate in the discussions and to influence the conclusions. Second, its power stems from its ability to facili-

tate and organize fruitful discussion of subjects of current interest in the world of librarianship. IFLA believes that the best service it can perform is to bring together periodically a worldwide variety of authoritative practitioners of the arts of library service, to provide them with the opportunity for comparing practices and experiences with each other, and on the basis of informed and matured discussion to make recommendations for action.⁶

This front of professionalism remained intact for the most part. IFLA held conferences, committees met, reports were issued and, overall, much good and useful work was accomplished. However, throughout the association's survival during the Cold War not surprisingly there were disagreements among the various factions that threatened the foundations of the Federation.

The geo-political structure of the world was transformed, in theory, when the ailing Roosevelt, Churchill and Stalin divided up the world at the Yalta Conference, and, in fact, with the surrender of Berlin and Tokyo. The Yalta Conference set the state for future disagreements that led to the Cold War. Soon, thereafter, library organizations from nations under the auspices of Soviet influence began queuing up to join the ranks of IFLA. Actually, Poland and Czechoslovakia boasted members from as early as 1929.⁷ These neo-Communist organizations were joined by groups from Yugoslavia, Rumania, the German Democratic Republic, and Hungary. Gradually, the Soviet satellite nations boasted a strong presence in the ranks of IFLA.⁸ By 1957, and since that time, Soviet (and later Russian) members have held a vice presidency on the Executive Board.⁹ In 1959 the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics Library Council joined IFLA.¹⁰ Now the two dominant ideologies of the world, capitalism and communism, were head to head in the prime international library organization. This inclusion of the feuding superpowers and their minion nations even affected the struc-

ture of the IFLA governing organization. In a 1972 conference report Victor Britannicus asks:

Why does an Executive Board opinion (added to the IFLA Statutes) specify that of six Vice Presidents there be a Vice President for North America, a Vice President for the socialist countries of Eastern Europe, and a Vice President for Western Europe? Why does international politics blow into the rules of this federation of library associations?¹¹

He then appends the territorial question, "Why do all the associations have a voice in electing a Vice President who represents one region, such as North America?"¹² By this inclusion, the whole line of questioning does not seem to be one of altruism, but one of geography and maybe even of a group suspicious of infiltration by the other. This is not surprising, as John Berry wrote after the 1985 Chicago conference: "Many Americans were uneasy with the overt way 'we' pursued political goals at IFLA. While much lip service is given to the notion that 'there are no national delegations to IFLA,' the reality is that the delegates from most nations vote en bloc and there is substantial politicking."¹³ Though the clashes and disagreements between the two primary sides would not escalate to the severity of the conflicts in the world theater, there were conflicts nonetheless.

The differences in governing philosophies trickled down to the differences in library philosophies. Upon induction into IFLA, V. I. Shunkow, President of the USSR's Library Council, explained that organization's library philosophy. "In our country libraries carry on a work of enlightenment among the people, disseminate knowledge, help raise the qualifications and social consciousness of the Soviet people. They participate actively in every political, economic or cultural campaign."¹⁴ At the 1971 Liverpool Conference, a Soviet delegate further explained that the mission of Soviet libraries was the "advance of

ideology, culture and science."¹⁵ At that same conference an ALA representative defined the main concerns of American libraries as "social responsibility, intellectual freedom and the freedom to read."¹⁶ This ALA representative [name?], in a none-too-stealthy example of American cultural imperialism, also offered to help other libraries around the world to achieve the same goals.¹⁷ All was not tension however, at the 30th IFLA Conference in Sofia, eleven librarians from the United States and an equal number from the USSR delegation met to explain and debate the advantages and disadvantages of their library systems. Although the attendees of the meeting walked away secure in the knowledge that their system was superior, Karl A. Baer, reporting on the gathering, commented that "this was a useful get together and follow-up in the future should, gradually, prove even more helpful."¹⁸ This early meeting led to many instances of Soviet and American librarians working closely and, for the most part, amicably together. Upon visiting a smaller committee conference in Moscow, Peggy Biggs contrasted the two governing ideologies as follows:

In the West we tend to think in terms of provision of materials the users want, and of making what the reader chooses as available as possible. . . In Eastern Europe the library has a primary responsibility for educating people and guiding users' reading. The word propaganda is used frequently in its original sense of to propagate, disseminate, which we have lost sight of since World War II and Goebbels.¹⁹

Reporting on a separate conference, P. Havard-Williams noted the "Russians have a great deal to show other nations in the organization of their libraries."²⁰ Preben Kirkegaard stated that the Soviets were "very positive and active."²¹ Yet, even when the global foes were getting along admirably there was still a tinge of the great conflict. Discussing Soviet librarian Margarita Rudomino, Frank Francis remembered her as "very friendly, modest,

[and] shy, partly because she was apprehensive that she might say more than she should."²²

IFLA grew from the predominant nations of imperialism in Western Europe and North America. Just as the nation-states of the Cold War era used the countries of the third or developing world to further their own game, so did the international cold warrior/librarians treat the libraries of the third world as backward and in need of a caretaker. In his brave and damning indictment of the treatment the so-called developing world had received in the IFLA organization, Indian library leader S. Ranganathan suggested "the old view that 'international' in IFLA is exhausted by Western Europe and Northern America persists. It may be unconscious and even unmeant on their part. But to us outsiders, it is clear as day light in the tropics."²³ One example of this influence is the United States's policies in Japan in its post-World War II occupation. Japan, Ranganathan stated, had made illustrious progress in the realm of librarianship on its own, but Japan's further progress as a nation of libraries was tethered by the policies and direction of the U.S. occupying forces.²⁴ Early on, before, and after the war, IFLA failed to attract representatives from the nations of Africa, Asia, and Latin America.²⁵ This was largely due to the limited "international" focus Ranganathan mentioned and the financial strain these poorer nations would feel in attending meetings and the other costs incurred by being part of such an organization. The weight of finances for the European majority spine of the Federation kept these early meetings in Europe. When China and India requested that the 1936 meeting be held in Asia, the "financial structures" of the organization forced IFLA to decline.²⁶ President Frank Francis even noted, "If [IFLA] had a weakness, it was that it did not manage to project itself as a spokesman for libraries in general but much more for European libraries and European points of view."²⁷ As time progressed, these views of the international library world changed and IFLA

developed healthy programmes to foster and encourage librarianship throughout the developing nations. However, even by the 1985 conference, only representatives from a quarter of the nations held seats on standing committees and 12 nations occupied 79% of the committee placements.²⁸

The literature and publications produced under the auspices of IFLA present a calm, united portrait. The little controversies and disputes are quietly ignored. Most of the reports focus on the accomplishments, and the dry details of meetings and discussions. The reports note advances and agreements, and indubitably, there were and are legions of valid, helpful, and useful decisions and discussions amongst the IFLA personal members and committees. The disagreements and disputes leak out mostly in reports on the various conferences published in an array of library journals. As I. F. Stone said, "[E]very people has committed its sins."²⁹ Yet sins are always measured by the judge and the sins of the other are always greater than those committed by the self. The other is always the threat, never the self, especially in the conflict between the supporting ideologies of capitalist and communist nations. The Soviet menace, in terms of IFLA, was one of propaganda, in both the "original sense" and in a post-Goebbels sense. Internationally, their librarians presented an exquisite version of their official doctrines. This came out most clearly at the conferences held behind the fabric of the Iron Curtain. The United States, saturated with the doctrines of the Marshall Plan and fearing the threat of Communist infiltration, saw itself as the policeman and big brother to all the other peoples of the world. Americans, as citizens of a democracy, were more vociferous about their beliefs and more arrogantly straightforward in their propagandizing. For example, the ALA representative generously offered to help all the libraries of the world "follow suit"; a "suit" tailor-made after the pattern of America's own outfit. *Library Journal* reported on a simi-

lar streak of America's cultural attitude:

When *LJ* asked a number of U. S. leaders what our goals [in IFLA] were, the response was almost always a version of: "We pay a big share of the IFLA budget, don't you think we should have some voice in how it is run?"³⁰

This sort of confident post-imperialist attitude has led many of the world's citizens to express disdain for "America." It has also provoked such cultural responses, such as that of Ranganathan mentioned above.

In 1957, as fear of the Communist menace filled U.S. society, Lucile M. Morsch addressed the American Library Association. Noting existing programmes dedicated to furthering U.S. foreign policy, she stressed "[t]here is every reason to believe that initiatives on the part of the ALA would be welcome by the Department of State in its search for the best ways to carry out this part of the government's programme."³¹ This comment followed her description of the minor role the library profession played in the cultural imperialism initiated by the federal government through such agencies as the Office on International Projects Abroad of the American Council on Education's International Cooperation Administration. These initiatives had featured many representatives in other educational fields, but only a minuscule number of librarians. She urged the American Library Association and its members to take action, as did two librarians who approached the State Department to suggest a programme of bringing certain international librarians to the United States for a year. Morsch encouraged librarians to assist the government which "recognizes its own limitations in carrying out its foreign policy, particularly in the fields of cultural affairs."³² In a June 1956 White House conference, President Eisenhower, rallying the cold warriors as he had once rallied soldiers, said:

...there will never be enough diplomats and information offi-

cers at work in the world to get the job done without the help of the rest of us. Indeed, if our American ideology is eventually to win out...it must have the active support of thousands of independent private groups and institutions and of millions of Americans.³³

Morsch further called for librarians to take an active part in fostering foreign librarians, because "[r]elatively few of them have had the experience of seeing a good public library, or a school library, or have any conception at all the qualifications required for a professional librarian."³⁴ This seemingly smug attitude of national superiority was not always appreciated in other parts of the world, needless to say.

The first major ideological controversy to spring up at an IFLA Conference occurred during the 1968 conference at Frankfurt, when Soviet troops invaded Czechoslovakia. Elizabeth Welsh reported the way this news gripped conference goers: "The meetings continued after the news of the invasion, but at every break groups gathered around transistor radios."³⁵ The events of Prague Spring caused "feelings of sympathy, of fear for the future, and the instability of world relations made it clear to everyone that we must have communication and friendship with all countries."³⁶ IFLA president Sir Frank Francis later commented, "We were frightened of the potentialities."³⁷ Herman Liebaers, who attempted to calm Soviet and Czechoslovakian participants, spent his time "running back and forth between the hotels where the Soviet delegation and the Czechoslovak librarians stayed. The two groups were sad, silent, and bewildered. They could not make up their minds whether to stay or leave."³⁸ Eventually, all parties chose to stay at the Conference. The next IFLA conference was scheduled for Moscow, which might have caused an impasse had not the IFLA president responded in a diplomatic manner. "The members of the eastern bloc countries could not vote against Moscow; those from the West could not approve

it."³⁹ President Francis proposed that the voting on this matter be decided by the Executive Committee, once tempers had cooled. Thus, by an act of very political diplomacy, Francis was able to keep within the principles for IFLA he had stated at the opening of the conference: that IFLA is "an organization formed without consideration of political beliefs, bias or prejudice."⁴⁰

As it turned out the next conference was not held in Moscow, but in Copenhagen. By this time the outrage that followed the oppression of Czechoslovakia had slipped into memory. Out-going president Francis even praised the

...firm adherence of Canada, the United States of America and the USSR during recent years and...these countries as well as the European countries have been a significant factor in the establishment of IFLA as a recognized international forum for the discussion of matters affecting the effectiveness of library services.⁴¹

The 1970 IFLA Conference was held in Moscow. It is the policy of IFLA to hold meetings only in nations that will admit all delegates. Questioning whether the Soviet government would adhere to this policy, the United States was more than ready to withdraw from the Moscow conference. One week before the conference, the Israeli delegates were still without visas and withdrew from the conference on the same date that USSR officials contacted UNESCO to inform them that the Israeli's passports were on the way.⁴² Preban Kirkegaard remembered working closely with the Israelis to obtain the needed visas: "The visas were denied until the day before the meeting was to open. Two Israelis waited in the airport in Vienna but were not able to attend IFLA."⁴³ Many other participants in the conference did not receive their visas until days before or sometimes during their trip to the conference.⁴⁴ IFLA President Herman Liebaers interpreted the tardiness of his visa's arrival as harassment by the

Soviet government. All of this occurred too late for any group or nation to withdraw, so the conference proceeded with all delegations except for Israel's. IFLA's Board translated this action as "part of Soviet policy and it was therefore difficult for the Board to interpret whether entrance had been denied to the Israeli delegate."⁴⁵

Other conflicts and tensions developed as the Moscow conference progressed. The "theme" of the conference was "Lenin and Libraries". Librarians from across the world spoke on Lenin's contributions to library development, including Americans, who described the Lenin collections held in the United States. Although most of the speeches were laudatory and even propagandistic, U.S. delegate Foster Mohrhardt's presentation provoked "sharp commentary" on Lenin's relationship to censorship from the Swiss delegation.⁴⁶ Conference participants each received a kit of printed material, as they did at every IFLA Conference. In Moscow, delegates found that "no material in the kit was produced outside the USSR, a striking contrast with other meetings of IFLA, where much material is available from many countries."⁴⁷ Attempting to discover why copies of *Wilson Library Bulletin* (which had been sent to Moscow several weeks earlier) were not distributed with the kit, U.S. delegate William R. Eshelman ran into an insurmountable bureaucratic wall. He attempted to trace the shipment of journals through the Office of Foreign Literature, then through Pan American Airlines. Here he found a receiving record dated weeks before the actual conference. When confronted with the receipt Mme Rudomino, director of the Office of Foreign Literature, replied "It couldn't be," but acknowledged having received six copies of the magazine.⁴⁸ With this knowledge, Eshelman asked the readership, "Why wasn't one of these copies used in an extensive IFLA exhibit opened with great fanfare instead of the outdated materials in the case labeled 'Soviet Librarianship in the Foreign Press'?"⁴⁹ In his report on the con-

ference, Eshelman subtly hinted that Soviet suppression accounted for the absence of international materials, including the *Wilson Library Bulletin*. However, he did not let the mask of amiability drop too far and quickly returned to an upbeat chronicle of the conference's events.

More tension flared at the 1974 conference in Washington DC. Under the strong influence of UNESCO, IFLA dropped members that were viewed as troublesome for the entire international community. This action enraged President Liebaers. In a speech he blasted UNESCO for this action: "When we had to force resignation upon our members in South Africa and in Formosa, perhaps tomorrow in Israel, UNESCO was ruining the very purpose it stands for."⁵⁰ In discussing the banishment of South Africa, Liebaers commented:

The argument that was used in the discussions in UNESCO was that this was not a political question but a humanitarian one, a respect for human dignity. That was probably true, but it opened the door to the dangers of political acts. Six months later there was the question of Taiwan and Mainland China. That was purely political.⁵¹

By questioning the exclusion of the nation of South Africa, Liebaers exemplified just how apolitical IFLA hoped to remain. But with every speech and with every comment, the political differences were apparent. Contrasting the opening statements of Frederick Burkhardt, the chairman of the U.S. National Commission on Libraries and Information Science, and N.M. Sikorsky, of Moscow's All-Union Book Chamber, reveals some of the practical realities coming from these divergent politics. Sikorsky stated that

In the Socialist state, the libraries' activity is organically bound up with the economic, political, and educational tasks facing their country...The activity of Soviet libraries is based on clearest ideological and organizational principles...⁵²

He emphasized that the 360,000 libraries in the country reach "every community and family."⁵³ Conversely, Burkhardt said, "The quality of library and information services in different states [of the U.S.] and localities is very uneven - excellent in some areas and in others extremely poor..."⁵⁴ He also stressed the various paths of legislation, committees, and voting a national library initiative must traverse. He summed up the U.S. situation by saying that "[i]t begins and ends with the people."⁵⁵ Shirley Elder, comparing these two speeches, wrote "the United States has problems the Soviets never could imagine; they are the problems of an open society unknown to a closed one."⁵⁶

The intensity of Cold War animosity and tension waned through the 1970s. With the unilateral reduction in nuclear arms and America and the U.S. withdrawal from Viet Nam, the superpowers became less antagonistic. In fact, the U.S. as international public enemy became the non-Soviet aligned Iran. This development allowed the Soviets and Americans slowly, warily, to progress slowly in their relations. With the exception of the conflict in Afghanistan, all ideological fronts were relatively quiet. This all changed, however, with the dawning of the Reagan years. With Reagan's conservatism and comments on outlawing the "Evil Empire", the Cold War escalated once again, though one feels not to the level it was in two decades earlier. It was during the Reagan years, at the 1985 IFLA Conference in Chicago, that the ideological conflicts within the association became most pronounced.

At the Chicago conference, former ALA President E. J. Josey openly protested the inclusion of South African delegates whose hands were "dripping with the blood of thousands of innocent people", and snidely added, "We know that the [conference] theme of Universal Availability of Information is meaningless in that troubled land."⁵⁷ Then, John Brademas of New York University broke an IFLA taboo by

criticizing his own nation's government. He "blasted" the Reagan administration for reducing funding for the National Archives, restricting information and a "systematic assault" on aid for library programmes.⁵⁸ The most significant incidents, in terms of Cold War tension, was Librarian of Congress Daniel J. Boorstin's speech entitled "The Indivisible World: Libraries and the Myth of Cultural Exchange". In this address, Boorstin noted:

...all librarians must be saddened that a new Russian word recently entered our desk dictionary: *samizdat*... The secret publication and distribution of government-banned literature in the U.S.S.R.... The literature produced by this system. How happy we could be someday to see this word disappear from our dictionaries and to learn that the word had become obsolete!⁵⁹

He ended with the rally, "We can hope and must try everywhere to make the world of books more open - so that men and women everywhere may breathe freely the uncensored open air of ideas."⁶⁰ This speech caused such an immediate outrage that an IFLA staffer attempted to halt the distribution of Boorstin's paper at the conference itself.⁶¹ On the defensive, Valentina S. Lesokhina - head of the USSR Ministry of Culture Chief Library Directorate - answered Boorstin's words by turning the other cheek. She said that she envisioned the IFLA Conference as a place "offer[ing] a great possibility for exchange of experiences and constructive discussion of progress...only an atmosphere of mutual trust and good will among us, who represent one of the most humanitarian of professions, will allow us to unite and solve our common problems".⁶² More officially, the Soviet delegation protested Boorstin's "provocative" words to the IFLA Executive Board and referred to the remarks as an "unfriendly act".⁶³ Harold Granheim said that the Executive Board understood the Soviet's position and "resolved to prevent such actions in the future."⁶⁴ More criti-

cism came from the home front. A letter sent to *Library Journal* declared "...both the talks by Daniel Boorstin and John Brademas [were] totally inappropriate for this kind of meeting. Boorstin did not say much, but what he said clearly insulted the Russians. I don't mind insulting them in the appropriate setting, but this was not it."⁶⁵ For some the comments were a matter of principles, for others it was merely etiquette.

In another speech at the same conference, Stefan Kubow reported on the misfortune of the Polish Librarians Association. After having suffered its way through the horrors of World War II, the Association finally saw national library legislation pass and were able to establish a network of libraries. However, these advances lapsed under volatile postwar social conditions. In 1968, the State Library Council - subordinate to the Ministry of Culture and Art - began to ineffectively and nonchalantly manage the nation's libraries. Having joined the Patriotic Movement for National Revival and the Polish United Worker Party, the Association had lost autonomy and was unable to achieve much more than small victories as it struggled on.⁶⁶ This saga illustrated the trials a dedicated organization must face under the pressure of its government bureaucracy.

As the 1980s continued, Soviet Communism lost more and more ground. Finally, the system collapsed under the policies of Gorbachev and, and though the taste of the Cold War still lingers, the actual struggles and conflicts brought about by the global stand-off have mostly evaporated. In the last decade of the 20th century, the profession does well to remember and document the struggle and pain of the past half century.

At the 1970 Conference for the International Federation of Library Associations held in Moscow, Hans Peter Geh asked a constituent of the Soviet coalition if publications were universally available in the Soviet Union. The fellow replied that the universal availability of publica-

tions "existed to a certain extent, but some books [are available] only for certain people."⁶⁷ Twenty-one years later, at the 1991 IFLA Conference again in Moscow, Geh found that "information is easily accessible now".⁶⁸

Delegates at the 1991 IFLA Conference witnessed more than just a society with more accessible information. They witnessed the final unravelling of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics. While the conference was underway, the Communist hard liners attempted to overturn Gorbachev's glasnost initiatives,⁶⁹ but they failed in their attempt. Not only did glasnost policies close a chapter in Eurasian history; it ended an epoch for IFLA, as well. With the collapse of the Soviet Union and the demise of the Soviet Bloc, IFLA was finally able to acknowledge the elephant at the dinner table. This conference continues the explication of a painful period in human history, the later half of the 20th century.⁷⁰

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Managing Library Staff from a Different Cultural Background: The East-West Conflict in Berlin

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Introduction

Nearly ten years after the fall of the Berlin Wall on 9 November 1989, the differences between East and West in Germany have still not



completely disappeared. After Reunification in autumn 1990 Berlin's libraries were very quick to establish common associations and bodies between the East and the West. Many institutions which were once duplicated in the two halves of the city were unified. However it was only five years later, in autumn 1995, that the unification of the two central libraries of the city came about. The normal conflict which arises when two institutions are merged - as is commonly seen today in banks and businesses everywhere - was thus overlaid with the East-West conflict, marking the way the merger of these libraries developed and making particular demands on the management. Forward-looking changes at the Central and State Library had, therefore, three elements to take into account: 1) the history of the two libraries; 2) the East-West conflict that was generally present in Berlin; and 3) new approaches to conflict resolution.

A Short History of the Two Libraries which Merged to Form the Central and State Library

Berlin Municipal Library was founded as a central library for Berlin in 1901 in Berlin-Mitte, which later became part of East Berlin. In its early years it was supported by the enthusiasm among some German librarians for the public library system of the United States. When West Berliners were no longer allowed to borrow from the Municipal Library in East Berlin following the division of the city, the local authority in West Berlin gratefully accepted an offer from the Americans to donate a library. Hence the America Memorial/Berlin Central Library, which opened in West Berlin in 1951. Citizens of East Berlin were able to borrow from the America Memorial Library until the building of the Berlin Wall in August 1961 finally divided the city. In the following period, the two libraries pursued their separate paths but were still related to each other. In their openness, their vision of modern library practice, their user-oriented attitude, and the breadth of the services they offered, they each played a leading role in librarianship in their respective parts of the city and beyond. Until 1989 the two libraries had roughly comparable figures for service levels, with 1.2 million and 1.3 million volumes. After the fall of the Wall, East Berliners flooded to the America Memorial Library in West Berlin, as it was only there that they could find the contemporary Western literature that they wanted. Circulation at the Municipal Library fell to a few hundred volumes per day, while the America Memorial Library could scarcely keep up with demand, as users borrowed well over two million books and audiovisual items per year. The two sister organizations lost their family likeness: bulk transactions

and a high number of users in West Berlin, a sharp fall in usage in East Berlin - a factual situation, but one which reinforced the prejudices of the then 150 members of staff in East and West. When the Berlin authorities decided to unite the two institutions in October 1995, each began to work on its own ideas of what the library service should be in order to attract for itself the required finances and development opportunities. A common path thus became hedged with mistrust.

The East-West Conflict as Generally Present in Berlin

Since 1995 the differences in the Eastern and Western outlook have been increasingly discussed. Crucial to this were the feelings each side experienced in their dealings with each other. After a first brief phase of euphoria about unification, changes began to occur in the course of collaborative work which led to considerable amounts of friction, misunderstandings and problems. These were particularly prevalent in institutions where colleagues from East and West were united, as was the case with the Central and State Library. One study on the "German culture shock" listed five different stages of development in German-German relationships, beginning with euphoria, which was quickly followed by disillusionment and finally by recriminations. After that a first phase of understanding should begin, which accepts the fact that there are mutual misunderstandings. By accepting this fact, this can lead to a broader understanding in which different ethical systems can be understood, learned and respected. These phases of understanding between East and West and their effect could clearly be recognized at the Central and State Library, even if the problems generally resulting from the merger of two organizations were overlaid or used.

Euphoria

After the fall of the Wall, there was mutual euphoria in visiting each

other. East Berlin staff got to know the West German book market, the publishing houses and the statutory regulations governing Western libraries. Relationships were open and trusting, the West helped out the East with donations of books, equipment and extra money. Between the American Memorial Library and the Berlin Municipal Library it was also the Western example and Western help that ruled. Initial plans were made for a common future of equal partnership in one building. Due to retirements, both institutions acquired new leadership, from the West for the America Memorial Library and from the East for the Municipal Library.

Disillusion and Mistrust

Disillusionment with each other set in throughout the city. Everyone became conscious of the differences in speech and behavior between East and West. Similar concepts did not have the same meaning. The new common State did not only meet with approval in East and West. Economic enterprise was dominant in the West, but in West Berlin in particular many people were very critical of the free market and supported social justice. However, they seemed to agree in their rejection of "Ossis": the business world accused East Germans of wanting to preserve their old social system with its job security among other things and thereby of hindering economic development, while workers accused the East Germans of being worse than Western employers in concentrating on the pursuit of money with no thought for the social consequences. The East Germans had no chance, whichever way you looked at it. This West German superiority was unbearable for East Berliners. The situation with wages and salaries also promoted differences and prejudice. First of all the income supplement for West Berliners was cut. Then pay for East Berliners was matched to that of West Berliners - in return for longer hours of work and less holiday and Christmas compensation, however. So negative differentials remained. Just at this

point the decision was taken to merge the two libraries into one foundation, and each of the libraries began working to defend its own characteristic aspects for the future and to try to convince the other side.

Mutual Recrimination

The third phase of mutual recrimination began. Reproaches began to be heard between the two libraries. The frank, highly critical and aggressive tone which had been used in discussions in the Western half of the city for many years, including in the America Memorial Library, alienated and was rejected by colleagues from the East, who were used to resolving their differences in a different way. The merger into one institution led to there being duplication at various levels in the management structure and this required decisive action to be taken. Staff from the West were repeatedly preferred to those from the East. Each side's particular attitudes hardened: thus the East Berlin Municipal Library concentrated on high-value academic collections and the Western part regarded its increase in lending figures as the decisive criterion of quality. The situation in the East Berlin library was worsened by the fact that many who had not fitted in in the old DDR system, many of whom had found a refuge in the library, criticized the others. The same people who had once supported the DDR party line had once again got hold of important functions or had managed to get the best jobs. They had a better education, since they had been allowed to study, and in the new Western State educational background had become a decisive factor in filling positions. Therefore, internal relationships in the East Berlin Municipal Library were also marked by these insecurities.

First Phase of Understanding

The first phase of understanding, where misapprehensions are recognized, began. Many attempts were made by both staff and management to alleviate the atmosphere of misunderstanding. A workshop at

which members of staff explained to each other their way of looking at things and how it had developed was poorly attended but was a beginning. A statement on problems in the library's organization at the beginning of 1997 allowed rather more of the unsuccessful initiatives and similar conceptions of the two organizations in the past to be seen, having been overlaid by current misunderstandings and prejudices. Such mutual exchanges of information slowly began to bring about changes in the situation. A careful phase of preliminary understanding began, even if there were frequent regressions to the third phase of recrimination.

Second Phase of Understanding

The second phase of understanding, in which the respective ethical systems are understood, learnt and respected, has not really come into effect yet. Nothing will just happen by itself here, but mutual tolerance must be brought into play. If unity is to be achieved, conscious changes must be made to the internal situation of the merged organizations.

Opportunities to Resolve Conflict

Elements in the merging of businesses from differing commercial cultures can act as examples for the unification of the two libraries. On the one hand the situation is worsened by the fact that all differences and also the private life of all the members of staff are constantly affected by the conflict between East and West in Berlin. Since the beginning of 1997 particular measures related to unification have been introduced which could mitigate the East-West conflict.

External leadership. The most important decision the political masters made was not to appoint the top layer of management from either of the two institutions. No matter how honorable and earnest anyone's intentions were, accusations of a takeover and of bias would have been around for years and would have skewed all discus-

sions. It was therefore necessary to choose someone from outside to be in charge.

Complete neutrality. When asked to manage two merging organizations of such opposing natures, even a leader from outside has to demonstrate neutrality and equal consideration for both sides. This was difficult to put into practice, but had to be strictly adhered to. Even so there were complaints that one side was being favored. Since they came from both sides, it seemed to balance out.

Common long-term goal. First of all a common objective, in this case a shared new building, had to be adopted, giving all developments a clear goal to aim for. Having one objective for everyone meant that the staff could begin to be reoriented in a new, shared, direction.

Short-term improvements in service with mixed staffing. The next decision was to establish common service provision in different locations and hence to merge departments. This decision was very important since a careful but consistent mixing of staff led to changes in attitude.

Reaching understanding of different points of view by working together. While staff from the East who moved West soon adjusted to new tasks and fitted in, Western colleagues did not always manage to do so. They were not as welcome as they had hoped and had problems with the different way of reaching agreement. There was no overt criticism and they only later discovered problems they had caused. Probably no one wanted to upset them, but this was completely misunderstood. They first had to learn that differences in opinion had been seen in the East as divisive and destructive rather than as a natural part of life in a democratic society.

Different clientele required different behavior. The introduction of a large open access area in the East quickly attracted new readers to the Municipal Library. They were no longer pleading and submissive, but

demanding and vocal. This behavior was not acceptable to the Eastern staff who responded negatively. In the West, mainly older clients complained about the lack of a reading room, and that they received a less generous and expert service than before. Staff in the West had to learn how to deal with this. Both sides had to cope on a daily basis with many new problems and challenges.

Clear decisions, anticipation of difficulties resulting from compromises. Decisions had to be taken about common structures, a common classification, cataloguing practice and new work processes. There was always a tension in the air as to whether an Eastern or a Western solution would be preferred. Universal approval was always available for compromises which united aspects of both - whether these will however lead to more problems in the long run remains to be seen.

Improving the information culture. An individual's access to information was very dependent on whom he or she knew. Therefore a new discussion culture with a clear structure was introduced, which included those levels which had not previously passed on information received from higher up and which were now expected to transmit questions and information up the structure from below. The implementation of this process must be continually monitored, or it will be blocked by the various levels of hierarchy.

Conscious fostering of changes in behavior to each other. After the first changes were put into effect, changes in behavior were also encouraged. Colleagues were to be treated in a friendly and equitable manner. This meant that the differences in the social significance of the West's critical discussions and the East's silent criticism had to be tackled. A new culture of discussion was therefore introduced, which immediately reprimanded any discussion that would hurt another person and fostered a friendlier yet open manner in dealing with each other.

Changing the nature of discussions. The different ways of discussing and of dealing with disagreements made a new way of conducting discussions necessary. The most important element is that a decision is not delayed by an exchange of opinions between those who are not directly involved in carrying it out, instead of the person responsible for implementing the decision receiving advice.

Delegating responsibility to the shop floor. To try to keep everybody happy, for a long time even matters of detail were referred to the top level for decision. If the differences between East and West are really to be set aside and staff are to partici-


pate actively in the process of changing their own library, decisions in the future should be taken at as low a level as possible. This will only become effective once decisions can be accepted irrespective of East and West.

Unanimity is neither achievable nor necessary; acceptability will do. In dealing with East and West and their different socialization, it became clear that decisions in the library could no longer expect to receive universal approval, for example after a long discussion in the West or surface agreement in the East out of fear of disagreement. It was therefore important that everyone understood and accepted


that people might hold very different opinions. The important thing is readiness to go along with a decision, to put it into effect and not to boycott it. We are still working on developing this, but we see it as offering a new way of managing that can guarantee that changes come into effect.

The Berlin Central and State Library thus began to turn the disadvantages of the East-West conflict into a new strength and to profit from the different capabilities of colleagues from East and West in making radical changes to the library, its organization and its services.

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Managing Multicultural Staff in a South African University Library

Heather M. Edwards

Heather M. Edwards received her BA from Rhodes in 1968, and her MA with distinction from Witwatersrand in 1985. She is Chair of GAELIC (Gauteng and Environs Library Consortium), the largest academic library consortium in South Africa, with 16 members. She is Chair of the DISA (Digital Imaging South Africa) Project Committee, a project initiated by the Andrew Mellon Foundation. The Committee is digitizing South African archival material of historical and socio-political importance, with a view to making it available globally on the Web. Ms Edwards' areas of special interest are library planning and design; and consortia, cooperation and resource sharing, and she has served as professional consultant on these topics. Ms Edwards is University Librarian at the University of the Witwatersrand and may be contacted at University of Witwatersrand, Private Bag X1, 2050 Wits, South Africa (fax: +(27-11) 4031421; e-mail: hedwards@library.wits.ac.za).

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Introduction

South Africa's labor history during the 46 years of rule by the Nationalist Party, was marred by apartheid, discriminatory legisla-



tion and exploitation. There were marked disparities in employment and income within the labor market, which created pronounced disadvantages for certain categories of people. With few exceptions, black people¹ in this country were poorly educated in segregated schools and were denied the opportunities and advantages that their white compatriots enjoyed.

Changes since 1994 in South Africa

Far-reaching changes have occurred in South Africa since 1994, when, for the first time in its history, a democratic election took place and a black majority government was returned to power. In its election campaign the African Nationalist Congress had promised its electorate a better deal and relief from the poverty that stalks the lives of a large percentage of our population. Expectations in the black community were high and the Government needed to deliver. It was not merely a case of repealing old discrimina-

tory legislation; there was an urgent need for positive action that would result in positive change.

Despite the fear of unrest and perhaps even civil war in the period leading up to the 1994 elections, South Africa was fortunate in having at the helm people of true stature. More goodwill emerged on both sides - black and white - than anyone would have thought possible, given South Africa's history. There was recognition in much of the labor market of the need to employ black people in other than low-level jobs. An early achievement of the Government was a new Labour Relations Act in 1995, which provided legislation for dealing with unfair labor practices. Although this Act did much to regulate the employer/employee relationship, it was felt by many that change was not occurring fast enough. Calls came for the demography of the country to be reflected in the demography of the company; counter voices argued that skills cannot be developed overnight. The South African economy, in the doldrums and not experiencing the anticipated degree of post-apartheid growth, was not assisting the process, resulting in more retrenchments than opportunities. The Government therefore decided to enforce change through the passing of an act that would provide for employment equity and equal opportunity.

The Employment Equity Act

The purpose of the Employment Equity Act of 1998,² is to promote the constitutional right of equality, eliminate unfair discrimination in employment, and achieve a diverse workforce broadly representative of our people. Chapter 2 of the Act - Prohibition of Unfair Discrimination - was promulgated on 9 August 1999, and Chapter 3 - Affirmative

Action - on 24 November 1999. The latter requires every designated employer³ to implement affirmative action measures through consulting with employees; conducting an analysis of employment policies, practices, and procedures in order to identify barriers affecting certain people; preparing an employment equity plan detailing the measures the employer will take to employ black people, women, and people with disabilities; and reporting regularly to the Department of Labour.

A Commission for Employment Equity has been appointed, and non-compliance with the Act may result in referral to the Labour Court, or the imposition of heavy fines. In a complete about turn, apartheid legislation has now been replaced by equity legislation.

South Africans have varied feelings on employment equity. Nhlapo⁴, a black South African academic, wonders whether racial harmony is possible in this country. He suggests that the most serious obstacle in the way of accommodation between black and white people is simply that we don't know enough about each other, and we don't much care! Human⁵, also an academic, states that although South Africa has undergone tremendous change in the years since 1994, living in a country can create a combination of optimism and myopia. One doesn't see the larger picture, which is that a change in dialogue doesn't always reflect a change of heart. A manager may think he or she is committed to affirmative action, but then explains how scarce really good candidates are, that affirmative action employees demand very high salaries and leave easily for even higher salaries, and that they require more training and are not "up to speed". Meanwhile, blacks have a very different perspective. They experience anger and frustration, and feel that nothing has changed. In 1999 Leon, the leader of the opposition Democratic Party in South Africa, has stated publicly that he regrets the Employment Equity Act as it serves only to divide the country along racial lines once more, emphasizing cultural

differences and underestimating cultural similarities. By focusing on differences, we tend to exercise "otherness".

Affirmative Action Programmes

Affirmative action programmes attempt to redress the imbalances of the past, but in themselves are not enough, perhaps because perceptions of culture and power linger on and impact on performance. More important is the actual management of the diversity created by affirmative action. Norris⁶ feels that for diversity to succeed it must form part of an organization's strategic management process. The historically white/Eurocentric male-dominated culture must change to reflect South Africa's diversity. Total quality management must take place to address fears that increasing diversity may lead to a lowering of standards. Participative management is required, and human resource development becomes a key issue. A manager who is prejudiced against people from a specific racial group is unlikely to manage those people effectively and to encourage their strengths and talents. Thiederman⁷ warns us to stay alert to the human tendency to judge harshly those who are different from ourselves. This is especially true when we are uncomfortable or afraid - for example, when the job market is tight, or when we feel someone is getting preferential treatment. She exhorts us to see people for who they are, not through the distorting screen of our own fears and judgments.

Managing Multicultural Organizations

Norris⁸ identifies three developmental stages in the move towards managing multicultural organizations. The first is *monocultural*. Hopefully there are not too many of these left in South Africa. The second is *non-discriminatory*, characterized by a sincere desire to eliminate the majority's unfair advan-

tage, but retaining its dominant culture. Thirdly, a *multicultural* organization is one in the process of becoming, or which has become, diverse in the most visionary sense - reflecting the contributions and interests of diverse groups in its mission, operations and services, and committing itself to eradicate all forms of social discrimination. The majority of organizations in South Africa are in the middle or non-discriminatory stage.

Policy at the University of the Witwatersrand

The University of the Witwatersrand is a multicultural organization. Its history of protest against discriminatory laws and unacceptable practices reflects its strong liberal ethic, and more recently, it has attempted to stay at the forefront of progressive change. An Affirmative Action Officer was appointed in 1994, and in the same year, an Affirmative Action and Equal Opportunity Employment Policy was issued.⁹ This document stated that while the University would continue to seek the best person for the job, efforts would be made to search actively for candidates from under-represented groups for selection and promotion. For existing staff there are programmes which give under-represented groups the opportunity to advance their skills so that they can compete more effectively. In the area of advancement, advertising is geared towards targeted sectors of the population in order to elicit applications from under-represented groups. In the selection process, although the best person for the job remains a basic principle, factors such as merit, potential, track record and redress are taken into account, with special cognizance taken of the disadvantages certain groups may have experienced in the past. In 1998 Wits revised its Mission Statement,¹⁰ and five of its six commitments deal with issues of tolerance, equality, freedom from racism and sexism, and cultural diversity.

Wits Library has for many years attempted to employ black people

across the range of job grades. When many so-called "advantaged" or "historically white" university libraries in South Africa had very few people of color on their staff establishments and few women in the top positions, we were attempting to create a more diverse workforce. For several years we have had more black people on the staff than white. However, despite this improvement in the staff profile, we recognize that there is still an urgent need to appoint and retrain more blacks in senior managerial positions. Our efforts in this area have been hampered by a university-wide rationalization process. We have had to become more cost-effective in the face of declining government subsidies, posts have been "frozen", staff numbers have declined, and there is not much movement amongst those remaining. A high unemployment rate in the country (40%) results in low job mobility, and the Library's staff turnover rate is only 2-3%. This limits opportunities to act vigorously in the employment and promotion of black people. Library staff profiles of 1989 and 1999 do however reflect positive change. Senior posts (14) 10 years ago were all held by whites with the exception of one oriental. By 1999, this had changed to 16 posts, held by 10 whites, 3 blacks, 2 coloureds and 1 oriental. Ten years ago the majority of black staff occupied the lower grades in the library. Now they are widely spread, with several in professional and managerial or supervisory positions. White staff have dropped from 88 to 49 full-time equivalent members, while black full-time equivalents have increased from 69 to 80. The Wits Library staff profile now consists of 58% blacks, 35% whites, 3% coloureds, 2% Asians, and 2% orientals.

Black Library staff are encouraged to study and improve their skills,

thereby placing themselves in a better position for advancement, and bursaries are granted for this purpose. This situation is not without tension, as people obtaining professional qualifications have high expectations, and do not wish to wait patiently for an appropriate position in Wits Library to become vacant. We lose promising staff in this way, yet cannot blame them for moving on. They have opportunities today that their parents never had in the past.

At Wits Library, we are conscious of redress, or creating equal opportunities, and of the need to ensure that our staff profile continues to improve in accordance with legislation. In the selection process, where two candidates appear to be equal, the post will normally be offered to the black candidate. Where a white candidate appears to have a slight advantage but a black applicant has the personality and potential to succeed, we will appoint the black person. However, if a white candidate is ahead of other applicants in all respects, the job is offered to that person on the basis of merit. We need to be able to justify our choice if questioned by the Equity Officer, the trade unions, the Library staff generally, and the candidates themselves. In some instances we have established mentoring, which has proved successful. Unfortunately, one or two of our staff still have difficulty in accepting that a minority person in a high level job is not just window dressing or tokenism. We are working on this problem through proving the capability and talent of such appointees.

Conclusion

Fehnel of the Ford Foundation in South Africa,¹¹ speaking of tertiary education generally, said long-term answers to diversity issues lie in

finding the courage to steer our universities in new directions with a sense of urgency and expectancy. He advises us to look at ourselves and answer truthfully on questions of motives and values within the context of post-apartheid society. Perhaps, however, in the final instance, we should recall the words of Thiederman¹² that, although cultural diversity is a serious business, it must not become so serious that people forget to see each other as people first and foremost. We need to remember the need for simple respect and courtesy as we seek to understand the differences between people.

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The Growing Gap between the Information Rich and the Information Poor Both within Countries and between Countries: A Composite Policy Paper

Alfred Kagan

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Introduction

The IFLA Social Responsibilities Discussion Group was officially established in December 1997 to address the role of libraries in



society. It is currently affiliated with the IFLA Section on Education and Training. The group is initially concentrating on the following themes:

- Equality of access to library collections and facilities,
- The growing gap between library rich and poor both within and between countries,
- The "right to know."

This policy paper was developed from the six discussion papers prepared for the 1998 IFLA meeting in Amsterdam and the comments received at our first open meeting. Much of the following text is taken directly from the papers (see <http://www.ifla.org/VII/dg/srdg/pubs.htm>). The themes of the discussion papers were: rural library development (Kalpana Dasgupta, India); literacy in libraries (Josephine Andersen, South Africa); fees for library services (Kristine Abelsnes, Norway); human resource development (Dennis Ocholla, South Africa); the electronic information gap (Alfred

Kagan, USA); and North-South library cooperation (Ismail Abdullahi, USA). Each theme will be addressed in turn, including concrete proposals for action.

The information rich and poor are often defined in two separate and distinct ways: the North vs. the South (rich vs. poor countries) and the gap between the elite and the disadvantaged within countries. Our project seeks to unite these ideas. To a greater or larger extent all countries have information gaps. The United States and South Africa are examples of two countries that have extremely skewed distribution of wealth, resulting in excellent information services for some and poor or non-existent services for others. Although the United States is rich, its distribution of wealth and information is becoming more unequal. On the other hand, the great majority of South Africans are poor, but there are now efforts to equalize the standard of living that was constructed under apartheid. We believe that libraries, library associations, and those who work in libraries have a social responsibility to address these issues in whatever context they find themselves and in all countries. We hope that the IFLA Professional Board will endorse the following recommendations and provide administrative and monetary support for implementation.

Dennis Ocholla defines the information poor in five ways: 1) the economically disadvantaged populations of the developing countries (the South); 2) rural people who are often geographically isolated by lack of communication and transportation systems; 3) those disadvantaged by cultural and social poverty, especially the illiterate, the elderly, women, and children; 4) minorities who are discriminated against by race, creed and religion; and 5) the physically disabled. The following remarks are focused on

addressing the needs of these population groups.

Rural Library Development

The most extreme information gaps are between illiterate and neo-literate people in rural villages and rich urban populations. Kalpana Dasgupta reminds us that information is a prerequisite for all development activities. The goals must be to see that the right information reaches the right clientele in the most comprehensible format at the right time. For example in India, rural libraries have helped educate people in local history, village traditions, methods of cultivation, public health, and the message of the freedom movement against British colonialism. The diversity of the rural population must be analyzed in order to plan appropriate library services. Interpersonal forms of communication such as information exchange in marketplaces, water sources, and places of worship must be discovered.

It is necessary to find out how rural communities use information as an aid to the adoption of important innovations and new practices that are crucial with the development process. Before establishing libraries the following information should be developed: village environment (geography, livelihood, education, etc.); peoples' needs (physical, intellectual and psychological); availability of resources; infrastructure facilities; and attitudes of the people. It is important to pay special attention to women, students, young adults, children, and neo-literates. Rural libraries can act as information and community centres to improve living conditions and the quality of life. Local authorities must be empowered to create such institutions.

Recommendation. IFLA should develop a research programme on rural library development in coordination with national library agencies. The focus should be on

empowerment of local authorities to process appropriate information in comprehensible formats for diverse rural populations.

Literacy in Libraries

Another way to look at the growing information gap is to explore the extremes between illiterate and highly educated people. Josephine Andersen explains that illiteracy often results in unemployment and unemployability. She notes that 36% of the citizens of her country, South Africa, are illiterate. The problem is historical, and she quotes former Prime Minister Verwoerd (1958-1966) who said "There is no place for the Bantu in the European community above the levels of certain forms of labor." In fact, the acquisition of literacy and education has often been seen as a threat to those in power. This was just as true in the United States during slavery days as in apartheid South Africa.

Illiterate people often do not have access to an environment conducive for learning. Public libraries are ideal learning places and can provide the right surroundings and conditions conducive for human development, even in rural areas without electricity. Libraries must be involved in their communities, and literacy is a library responsibility. Public libraries must promote lifelong learning but often are not equipped to do so and lack librarians with appropriate skills. Literacy programmes can be based on Paulo Freire's revolutionary Language Experience Method. Freire advocates problem solving and dialogue between teachers and new learners to encourage critical thinking and creativity. This method contrasts with the "banking method" where teachers "deposit" information in the learners.

Recommendations. IFLA should urge library and information schools to promote adult basic education skills as a component of their curricula. IFLA should pro-

mote literacy training as a basic library service.

Fees for Library Services

Kristine Abelsnes quotes the UNESCO Public Library Manifesto: "The public library shall in principle be free of charge." The public library must be supported by specific legislation and financed by national and local governments. Libraries are an essential component of any long-term strategy for culture, information provision, literacy and education. Library service is a common good, and free access to information is the backbone of a free and democratic society. Publicly funded libraries are most of all political instruments; they are not businesses.

However, there is a conflict between ideals and economic realities. The dilemma is that library fees can exclude some users, but not charging fees may exclude some special services that in turn may create revenue for basic services. We strive for equal access but even small fees discriminate between users, decreasing library use especially among children and young people. We see a trend in rich countries to protect so-called basic services and charge for supplemental services. However there is no consensus as to what services are basic and what services are special. What is expensive today may be cheap tomorrow, and what seems extra today may be considered basic in the near future. Furthermore once a library charges for one thing, it is easier to decide to charge for something else. Some argue that fee-based services generate revenue to subsidize basic services. However experience has often proven the reverse. When supplemental services do not fully recover costs, they result in the poor subsidizing the rich.

Information is not free, but libraries can make it freely available to the community. Information is more than a commodity; wide access to information can empower citizens and therefore be a method of wealth distribution. Commercial

information providers have a social responsibility to their communities and public libraries. If we abandon free-of-charge public libraries, we can expect political support for our libraries to erode and even fade away. This could lead to libraries being eventually integrated into the market. This would effectively end any hope of equality of access and cede information access entirely to the commercial sector.

Recommendations. IFLA should take a strong position against fees for basic services broadly construed. IFLA should be an advocate for public libraries in their negotiations with commercial information providers, and promote a price structure based on ability to pay.

Human Resource Development

Dennis Ocholla discusses library and information education in Africa and the Third World generally. He compares LIS education to the political realm, quoting Ali Mazrui's insight that Africa has borrowed the wrong things from the West: the profit motive without entrepreneurial spirit and the acquisitive appetites of capitalism without creative risk-taking. Similarly, LIS departments are thrilled with modern information systems but apathetic to their development and maintenance. Instead of lavishly spending money on Western goods and services, it is necessary to address the plight of the information poor.

LIS departments are generally found in universities, and university graduates often dread working with the poor, the illiterate, and in rural areas. These graduates are alienated from the majority of the population who see universities as ivory towers. We must provide students with the knowledge that inculcates a service culture. Libraries can help empower the information poor in tackling their challenges and responsibilities. Graduates must understand their role in transforming the information poor into information con-

sumers, especially because the information poor are often fragile users who are easily discouraged by elitist information providers.

Such a reorientation begins with the selection of dedicated LIS students. Once enrolled, fieldwork is an excellent device for sensitizing students to work ethics and providing a sense of belonging and responsibility. Academic performance is necessary but not sufficient for advising students on various specializations. Such decisions must also take service attitude into consideration. Continuing education and informal education is a life-long process. LIS departments can reach out to their alumni and provide workshops and seminars. Keeping up these contacts can provide feedback for continuous revitalization and improvement of LIS programmes. Library and information schools can be catalysts in promoting information access and use by disadvantaged communities through their products, programmes and activities.

Recommendation. IFLA should encourage library and information science schools to adopt a socially responsible orientation, including the promotion of a strong service ethic towards all population groups.

The Electronic Information Gap

The Dakar Declaration on the Internet and the African Media (1997) called for creating a culture of online communications and ensuring African content on the Internet. Kagan cites the Declaration as just one example that people and institutions everywhere want electronic access to information and are working towards their goals. As opposed to every country's elites, most of the world's people must contend with all the barriers associated with poverty. Regarding electronic access, Zulu noted the following barriers: lack of adequate electricity; lack of good computer environments (dust, humidity, and heat); poorly developed telecommunication infrastructures; few qualified

people to maintain equipment; large illiterate or semi-literate populations; lack of foreign exchange; language barriers; lack of national information policies; and lack of ability to upgrade obsolete equipment. Let us be mildly optimistic that solar energy, microwave and satellite technologies may prove useful in addressing these enormous problems.

Herbert Schiller has described the phenomenal growth of corporate power in the rich countries including the deregulation of economic activities, privatization of functions once public, and commercialization of activities once social. To receive assistance, poor countries must contend with the World Bank's structural adjustment programmes that mandate privatization, currency devaluation, removal of trade restrictions, cuts in subsidies, and severe reduction of services such as health and education. And such aid comes with Eurocentric cultural strings attached. Corporate media has the power to choose what ideas to present, and regulate what people think and believe.

As opposed to a "public good", transnational corporations view electronic information as a commodity. Microsoft dominates personal computing and tries to control Internet content and commerce through the arrangement of selected icons on its desktop. Many have praised the Internet's diversity and profound democratic effect, but commercialization runs in a counter direction. There are also questions of language and local content. English is the dominant Internet language, and although most countries now have at least minimum presence on the Web, the great majority of content is still provided from Europe and North America. Furthermore, minorities within rich countries are also marginalized. For example, a recent study of United States students found that 73% of white students had their own computers as opposed to 32% of black students. Libraries have a social responsibility to try to equalize access to electronic information. We will need to

become much more politically active within our professional associations and our societies to promote universal access to information.

Recommendations. IFLA should promote the development of local content electronic resources. IFLA should promote policies and development programmes that equalize access to the Internet.

North-South Library Cooperation

Ismail Abdullahi begins from the premise that national development necessitates the cooperation of all sectors of a national economy and the integration of economic, social and cultural advances. Development therefore requires increased access to information. The countries of the North have recognized this and use information extensively. The rapid growth of information technology is further increasing the already large gap between the information rich and poor. There is a lack of sufficient cooperation and resource sharing between North and South and a lack of development infrastructure in the South. The goals should be to remove all barriers of library resource sharing and provide equal access by any individual from any geographical location to the sum total of the world's knowledge.

We have recently seen a high degree of interest and activity in library development and cooperation in developing countries. But Salman has recognized the following problems: lack of essential infrastructures for national information systems, shortages of skilled people, underutilized information services, unsatisfactory access to locally produced information, access to a very limited quantity of foreign and international information literature, and lack of application of new technologies. Furthermore, government monopolies have often stifled the flow of information due to unwise telecommunications policies and lack of resources. Policymakers in Africa and elsewhere

often do not perceive the importance of information for national development. Librarians must work to change these attitudes to information and technology transfer.

Recommendations. IFLA should promote greater resource sharing between the North and South, including Southern links to the information superhighway. IFLA should research the education and training needs of Southern countries in order to plan the development of appropriate information infrastructures. IFLA should urge appropriate government agencies to develop policies conducive to the development of information infrastructures.

The Profession, Library Associations, and IFLA Structure

The first open meeting of the Social Responsibilities Discussion Group was held on 16 August 1998 in Amsterdam. There were a number of comments addressing IFLA's structure and the need to mainstream the issues of social responsibility. One speaker asserted that IFLA's Regional Sections are marginalized within Division VIII (Division of Regional Activities), and noted that there was a proposal coming for changing the structure. It was noted that the Regional Section for Latin America and the Caribbean was holding a panel on the information gap in Amsterdam. This speaker noted that there is probably more support than we know about within IFLA. Another participant noted that such issues are pervasive in librarianship, and that many of us are librarians precisely to address such concerns. Another speaker lamented that information gap issues are hardly talked about in one of the rich country associations, the American Library Association. There was consensus that the Discussion Group should try to mainstream social responsibility issues within IFLA.

Recommendations. IFLA should re-evaluate its structure in order to

better address information gap issues. IFLA should compile a report on how various library associations are addressing these issues.

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Development of Library and Information Science Periodicals in Asia, with Emphasis on South Asia: Problems and Solutions

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Introduction

Libraries have been part of the world, including South Asia, for centuries. Who can forget the University of Taxila and Nalanda



Libraries which flourished in India during the fifth and seventh century AD respectively? Nalanda University Library was the largest in Asia during the seventh century and at its peak of reputation and international glory in the ninth century AD. These libraries had thousands of books and even hand-written manuscripts and other types of materials for the benefit of their users, including scholars from many Asian countries. It has not been established whether or not the Asian libraries during the ancient times had periodicals in their collections.

According to various dictionaries, a periodical is "a publication with a distinctive title which appears at stated or regular interval..."¹ The birth of the first periodical took place on 5 January 1665, at Paris, France. On this historic day, the first scientific journal, entitled *Journal des Scavans*, was published. It was the creation of Denys de Sallo, who was a counsellor of the French Court of Parliament. The first issue of this journal had only 20 pages

and included 10 short articles, a few letters and notes.² It is a well known fact that the field of library and information science is relatively new in the modern world. The first library school in the world, known as the Columbia School of Library Economy, was opened by the late Melvil Dewey in the United States in 1887 at New York.³ He was also the first editor of the *Library Journal*, which started publication in 1876 by R.R. Bowker from New York, and is still being published on a regular basis. The growth of journals in all fields of study was slow during the late 19th and early 20th centuries but it picked up rapidly in the second half of the present century, including the field of library and information science.

"Regardless of the publication medium, serials [periodicals] remain the key tool for scholarship and the primary source of current information and topical news in all fields of endeavor."⁴ According to the 37th edition of *Ulrich's International Periodicals Directory*, about 157,173 serials were published in the world during 1998, including 1,600 journals in the field of library and information science and computer applications.⁵ These figures include 110 journals published from Asia. According to my research, Asian countries publish over 200 journals in our field in English as well as in vernacular languages. Therefore, the information contained in *Ulrich's International Periodicals Directory* is not complete. Unfortunately, only 22 Asian titles have been abstracted in *Library and Information Science Abstracts (LISA)*,⁶ published in the UK, and *Library Literature*, published in New York, has only four titles published from Asia, and two Asian titles published in the UK and USA.⁷

Japan took the lead in Asia by publishing in 1907 the first library journal, entitled *Toshokan Zasshi*, which is still being published on a

regular basis. In 1912, India followed by publishing the first Indian library journal in English, entitled *Library Miscellany*. It was the brain-child of William Borden, an American librarian who was working in Baroda at the time. Unfortunately, *Library Miscellany* ceased publication in 1920.⁸ In 1916 Iyyanki Venkata Ramanayya started a publication in Telugu, entitled *Granthalaya Sarvastvamu*, which is still published on a regular basis.⁹

China, known for inventing paper and having a long tradition of scholarship going back to 26 BC,¹⁰ was behind in publishing library literature. The most populous country in the modern world, China published its first journal in librarianship in 1972 in the Chinese language. The title of this journal is *Tushu Gongzuo Tongsum* (Book Services Newsletter). At present, 92 journals are published in China, including 62 journals in library science and 30 in information science, the majority in Chinese. In the view of Cheng, "there are 12 excellent journals of library science in China. They are the most representative core journals in library science research in China."¹¹ During the first half of the present century, about ten library journals were published in Asia. But during the second half, from 1950 to 1999, about 200 new journals started publication, including titles like *Herald of Library Science*, *Pakistan Library Bulletin*, and *Eastern Librarian*. Many good journals such as *Modern Librarian* and *Indian Librarian* ceased publication for various reasons, which will be discussed later in the article. At present, Japan publishes 63 journals but only seven of them are in English.

Library Journals in South Asia

South Asia has a long history of excellent libraries dating back to the fourth century BC. This area includes Bangladesh, Bhutan, India, the Maldives, Nepal, Pakistan, and Sri Lanka.

India. The Republic of India is the largest country and occupies the major part of the South Asian region. India has the advantage over other Asian countries in publishing library journals in the English language because it has the largest English-speaking population in the world. It publishes 57 journals in the field of library and information science, a majority of them in English. According to my research, India is the leader in publishing journals in the field but only a handful of them are known and available outside India.

There are a few other good journals published in India, including the *Bulletin of ILA* (Indian Library Association). It was launched in 1933 when the ILA was formed, but it has changed its title many times. P.N. Kaula started his own journal, entitled *Herald of Library Science*, in Varanasi in 1962 and it also has been published on a regular basis for the last 37 years. Mr Kaula edits a few other journals, including *International Information, Communication and Education*; it is a multi-disciplinary journal, published semi-annually, and was launched in 1982. *Granthalaya Vijnana*, also published semi-annually, in Hindi, started publication in 1970.¹² In 1998, Mr Kaula launched another journal, *Ranganathan Research Bulletin: Supplement to the Herald of Library Science*. It is the only journal in Asia that is devoted exclusively to a particular school of thought in the field of library and information science. It seems that it will be an "effective medium to propagate Ranganathan's ideology and his school of thought."¹³ Other notable Indian journals in the field are: *IASLIC Bulletin* (1956-), *International Library Movement* (1979-), and *Journal of Library and Information Science* (1976-). In my view, one of the best Indian journals is *Library Science with Slant to Documentation and Information Science*. It was started by Ranganathan in 1964, and is a publication of the Sarada Ranganathan Endowment for Library Science in Bangalore. In addition, there are a few journals published in regional languages,

including Bengali, Gujarati, Hindi, Kannada, Malayalam, Marathi, Tamil, and Telugu.¹⁴

Bangladesh is situated in the north-east corner of the South Asian sub-continent. Before becoming an independent country in 1972, it was part of Pakistan from 1947 to 1972, and part of India until 1947, when the country was divided by the British at the time of independence. Bangladesh publishes only two journals in the field of library and information science. The *Eastern Librarian* is a publication of the Library Association of Bangladesh and has been published on a regular basis since 1966, though issues do not always appear on time. The last issue of this publication was a combined volume 20-22, published in the spring of 1998. A new journal was launched earlier this year in 1999: *Bangladesh Journal of Library and Information Science*. In addition, a few newsletters in Bangla are also published in Bangladesh, including Informatics.

Bhutan is a small country in the Himalayan region between India and Tibet. The development of libraries and librarianship is still very limited. According to my information, no library journals are published from this country.

The Maldives is the smallest country in the region, south of India. It publishes no library and information science journals.

Nepal is another small country, which divides India from China on the foothills of the Himalayas. There are no major publications reported in the field of librarianship, with the exception of an annual publication of the National Council for Science and Technology, which deals with libraries in the country.

Pakistan was created in 1947, when the British divided India in two regions at the time of independence. It is situated in the north-west of India. Pakistan has "1,500 libraries and 3,000 professional librarians . . . [and] six library schools."¹⁵ There were no major

library journals in Pakistan until the Pakistan Library Association was founded in 1964. The *Pakistan Library Bulletin*, a quarterly journal, started publication in Karachi in 1968. At present, there are 11 journals and newsletters published in Pakistan, of which 10 are in English and one in Urdu. It is possible that there may be a few journals published in regional languages such as Punjabi and Sindhi, but I am not aware of them.

Sri Lanka is an island to the south-east of the southernmost point of India in Tamil Nadu. It has a good working network of libraries and a few library schools. At present, four library journals are published in Sri Lanka. They are *Sri Lanka Library Review*, published semi-annually in English, and *Journal of University Librarians Association of Sri Lanka*, an annual publication in English, and two other quarterlies, which are trilingual (Sinhalese, Tamil, and English).

A limited number of journals (ranging from one to four) are published in various other Asian countries in both English and regional languages. They include two each in English and Indonesian from Indonesia; one in English and three in Malay/English from Malaysia; four (in English) from the Philippines; three from Singapore; two from Korea; one in English and four from Taiwan (including one in English); two from Thailand; and four from Vietnam.¹⁶

Problems and Solutions

It is certainly good to know that Asia produces over 200 journals in the field of library and information science which includes over 70 journals from South Asia. I have been editor of *Library Times International* since 1984, and associate editor of *International Leads* since 1996. I have been interested in research, writing, and publishing since my high school days. At present, I read many library journals regularly to enhance my knowledge, and to see the quality of the library journals from an editor's viewpoint. I have

examined a majority of South Asian and many other library journals for this paper. From an editor's view, I must say that there are many problems with Asian journals including South Asian journals which need immediate attention.

A majority of library journals in Asia, including South Asian countries, are published quarterly, a few semi-annually, a few yearly, and some even published irregularly. It is very disappointing that many journals do not appear on time. Sometimes a few issues, or even a few volumes, are combined. The editors are to be blamed for this unprofessionalism. They should know the importance of research and timely information needed by scholars, researchers, faculty members, librarians, students, and other users. A journal is a "primary means of scholarly communication . . . [it] offers authors and readers some advantages over the monograph: . . . [including] intensive study of very specific questions or aspects of large problems, and the timely publication of intended communication."¹⁷ Therefore, all library journals must be published on time for the benefit of interested users and readers.

The invention of printing in 1440 provided a new tool for sharing and communicating thoughts with others in a form which led to the birth of periodicals. Unfortunately, the paper used by a majority of publishers for printing library journals is of very poor quality. It becomes yellow within a few years. Maybe it is not acid-free, thus shortening the life of paper. Therefore, it is very important to use an acid-free quality paper to preserve the writings of all scholars in every language of Asia including English, and to make microfilm copies of all important library journals.

Many articles in South Asian English-language journals are of very poor quality. First, writers do not make sense and write poor sentences. Many times there is no link between paragraphs. It seems that the editors are desperate to get articles and publish them in their jour-

nals without looking at their quality. They need to be edited properly, and good proofreading should be done before the final copy of any journal is approved for printing. Perhaps poor quality of the paper, poor writing and poor editing are the main reasons that these journals are not subscribed to by many libraries, and as a result they have low circulation. Even *Ulrich's International Periodicals Directory* does not give circulation figures of many journals published from South Asia and other Asian countries.¹⁸

Many editors have started their own journals in South Asia without proper planning, finances, and marketing. This has resulted in the premature death of many journals. A majority of the editors are part-time, without any proper help, which makes it very difficult to run a quality and profitable business. Even many library associations have part-time editors for their journals. It helps to have full-time staff for those journals and newsletters that appear monthly or more frequently. It is important to include only the best articles on important topics to attract more readers and subscribers. It is always good to have a few referees to read manuscripts and act on their advice. I would like to know how many manuscripts are rejected by editors.

Another problem with a few South Asian journals is that their foreign subscription rates are very high, with the exception of a few journals and newsletters from Sri Lanka, making it very difficult for Western countries to subscribe to them. It seems that editors and/or publishers want to become rich overnight without delivering the product on time and in many cases without the necessary quality in their publications. If the price is right and you have a quality journal, you will certainly attract more subscribers, and you will make more money, if that is your motive. Otherwise, subscription figures will not improve.

Excellent marketing of library journals is the key to success. I have been very active in the field of

librarianship for over 25 years. During these years, I have not seen any letters or sample copies of journals from any editor or publisher from South Asia. I have not seen any advertisements for Asian journals in publications of South Asia and North America. It is very important to have a good plan to market a library journal. It should be done on a regular basis by advertising in various library journals, direct marketing by sending sample issues to prospective subscribers, distributing free copies to librarians at various regional and national conferences, calling people on the phone, hiring firms to do marketing for you, and even giving discounts to various subscription agencies to market and sell your publication.

Another problem with a few publishers is that lost and damaged copies of their journals are never replaced free. Often even authors do not receive free copies of journals and/or offprints of their articles.

Times have changed due to the introduction of technology. Many journals are available in full text on various databases on the Web and on CD-ROM. It helps readers to do research much faster. But I have yet to see a South Asian journal on any North American database on the Web and/or on CD-ROM. A majority of good South Asian and other Asian journals in the field of library and information science should be made available electronically as soon as possible for the benefit of researchers and other users. It will help in publicity also.

I have been an advocate of excellent service and quality journals. As editor of *Library Times International* since 1984, I believe we have succeeded because of our commitment to excellence, good marketing, and assistance from a team of 55 reporters. Our reporters from many countries, including a few from South Asia, send in their reports on a regular basis for every issue, our editors and staff work very hard to gather stories, and we publish each issue on time. We have subscribers in over 60 countries. We have heard

only good comments from libraries and librarians. Everything is possible in the world with hard work, determination, and goals, and we know that the sky is the limit.

Not all Western journals and newsletters are of top quality, but many of them have succeeded because of their excellent services, and publishing every issue on time with a few exceptions. There are 56 ALA-accredited library schools in Canada and the United States. I conducted a survey of the holdings of Asian library journals in their libraries. Only 32 schools responded by fax, mail, e-mail, and voice mail. Ten schools do not get any library journals from Asia. The University of Hawaii receives 54 journals, followed by the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign with 33, and the University of Pittsburgh with 28. Other schools subscribe to only a few journals. According to deans/librarians of these schools, budget is the main problem for not ordering any journals from Asia. A second reason is that there is no interest in the faculty or students to read these journals. Another reason mentioned was the Asian languages with which their students are not familiar.¹⁹ A few librarians and library educators have even mentioned poor quality of journals, and others mentioned self-promotion by one editor of an Indian library journal. It is unfortunate that a majority of these schools do not offer any courses in Asian librarianship, comparative librarianship, or international librarianship to their students. The American Library Association with its 57,000 members is the largest and the oldest library association (founded in 1876) in the world. It has been advocating "Local Touch and Global Reach." How can it achieve this goal when a majority of the accredited schools in North America do not offer any courses in librarianship in Asia, where over two billion people live, and do not subscribe to Asian journals?

Martin Richardson, Journals Director of Oxford University Press, is of the opinion that "both authors and readers of learned journals are

increasingly expecting their publishers to exploit the many advantages of online distribution. Important research can be disseminated faster, and relevant material can be found more precisely. But this will not happen if each publisher erects ring fences around their own portfolio of information."²⁰ He added, "Clearly, there is a need for a 'one-stop shop' where all the major journals from whatever publishers can be searched and accessed without time-consuming visits to a succession of different Web sites [or journals]...[Therefore, we should] maximize the exposure of our authors' research to the global community of academics, researchers, and practicing professionals."²¹ The publishers of Asian, including South Asian, library journals must work together and include their journals on major Web site databases. It will give them more publicity, and their material will be used by many interested scholars, researchers, students, and others for their needs. If no action is taken by publishers and editors, they will be left behind in this race on the Information Superhighway of the 21st century.

A few more observations from an editor's point of view. As noted earlier, many journals do not appear on time. The same is true of abstracts and indexes. For example, *Indian Library Science Abstracts*, *Guide to Indian Periodicals*, and *Index India* are also published late. All journals, abstracts and indexes should be published on time for the benefit of researchers. All journals should also include an index for each volume and letters to the editor. Publishers may consider including a few advertisements from other publishers, booksellers, vendors, and subscription agencies; this may give their publications more visibility, increase subscriptions, and improve cash flow. Perhaps it is time for commercial publishers to take the responsibility and start publishing a few quality monthly library journals and newsletters in South Asia and other Asian countries. Excellent products and services should be the main concern of all editors and publishers. It will

not hurt the editors and publishers to take a few courses in journalism and editing to enhance their knowledge. Even an internship with a leading journal and/or a newspaper would help present and future editors. There are many good books in the market on publishing including a new publication, entitled *Journal Publishing*²² which can teach all of us a few important and basic principles of editing and publishing, which in the long run will benefit everyone.

Finally, we must keep in mind that journalism in librarianship covers local, regional, national, and international news and scholarship. Journals will continue to play a major role in dissemination of...information²³ for a long time because they are indispensable. Therefore, we editors must present our quality publications in such a manner that they will have a positive impact on the field, and help every interested individual in the profession rather than only a few of us. Otherwise, we will not be successful in our efforts to improve the field of library and information science in the third millennium.

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Problems of Library and Information Science Research in Turkey: A Content Analysis of Journal Articles 1952-1994

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Introduction

The major purpose of this article is to provide a content analysis of the LIS research articles published in the journal, *Türk*



Kütüphaneciliği (Turkish Librarianship), between 1952 and 1994. Topical analysis of research articles and professional articles are presented. Research articles are also analyzed by organizations, by research strategies and by methods of data collection used.

Especially within the last two decades, many bibliometric studies providing analyses of library and

information science research publications have appeared mainly in the professional literature outside Turkey. Among the most-cited examples of these are Peritz,¹ Nour,² Feehan, et. al.,³ Atkins⁴ and Järvelin and Vakkari.^{5,6}

Beginning in 1980, several bibliometric studies which related to the analysis of LIS research were also made in Turkey. Two of these analyzed the research methods used in the graduate theses prepared at the three departments of library science in Turkey.^{7,8} A more recent article compared the results of main foreign and Turkish studies on the content analysis of graduate theses.⁹ However, until now, only one study¹⁰ analyzed the contents of the journal *Türk Kütüphaneciler Derneği Bülteni* (Turkish Librarians' Association Bulletin - later entitled *Türk Kütüphaneciliği*).

One of the common characteristics of all the studies made either in Turkey or abroad is the difference not only in terms of the methods used, but also in the types of data and the periods covered. This is a general characteristic which limits the comparability of various studies on similar subject fields. In both of their works referred above, Järvelin and Vakkari have tried to overcome this limitation by providing a more systematic approach than other researchers in analyzing the LIS literature. This is the main reason we have preferred to use their method in the present analysis.

The idea to analyze the LIS research literature in Turkey by using Järvelin and Vakkari's classifications began in 1994 when the IFLA Section on Library Theory and Research offered Ms Yontar the opportunity to prepare a paper on the subject. At the beginning, the author had planned to analyze all of the research materials published in Turkey from the 1920s up to 1994. However, for several reasons, books and journal articles were eliminated and the study was limited to analyzing only the graduate theses produced by the three departments of library science in Turkey between 1958 and 1994. Out of a total of 127 graduate the-

ses, 110 were analyzed by organizations, by topics, by research strategies and by data collection methods used.

This study is a continuation of the previous work by Ms Yontar. Both studies taken together will give a much more representative picture of LIS research in Turkey and this is the major contribution of the present study.

The Data

As stated before, the database of the study consists of the journal articles published in a specific journal in Turkey over a definite period. The reasons for limiting the data not only to journals, but also to articles in one journal, are summarized below.

Clearly, journals constitute one of the major sources which include research data in the LIS field as well as in other fields. Järvelin and Vakkari¹¹ indicate that "...many articles with characteristics of, for example, social and humanistic research, are published in LIS journals. The most significant research, regardless of the LIS subfield, is published in international journals. Moreover, journal articles have been the almost sole source of data in recent studies on LIS research publications."

But although journals are an important source of research data, there are also other categories of sources, like monographic research, graduate theses, or research reports, etc., which provide data that may not be totally reported in journals. For this reason, we assume that journal articles will give a representative picture, instead of a complete picture, of LIS research in any country, an assumption which has also been shared by Järvelin and Vakkari. Obviously, even the level of representation of the journal articles will vary according to the extent of coverage of journals.

With the above considerations in mind, the database of this study is inclusive enough to make highly reliable inferences about the research articles published in

Turkey, though our database includes only the articles of one journal. The major reason for this assumption is that there are two professional journals published in Turkey, excluding several newslike periodicals issued by either various branches of the Turkish Library Association or by some libraries. The oldest and the most widely known journal is *Türk Kütüphaneciliği (TK)* which is preceded by the *Türk Kütüphaneciler Derneği Bülteni (TKDB)* published between 1952 and 1987. Beginning in 1987, both its title and its volume numbering changed. (In library operations, each of them would be considered as separate journals, but for the sake of this study, we preferred to consider the two journals as one.) Until 1996, the editorial policy of this quarterly journal was "to include any piece of writing related to the profession, that is either research or non-research items."¹² Beginning in 1996, the editorial policy has changed and the journal has become a refereed publication.

The second journal, entitled *Kütüphanecilik Dergisi (KD)* (Journal of Librarianship) has been published irregularly since 1987 by the Department of Library Science of Istanbul University. Up to now, only three issues of the journal have been published and presently preparations are underway for the publication of the fourth issue. This journal aims to be a more scholarly one, but since only a few issues of it have been published, it can hardly represent the LIS research picture in Turkey. Therefore, although at the beginning of our study we planned to include it in our analysis, we later changed our view, first, because elimination of this journal would not make a noteworthy effect on the results of our analysis, and second, because by eliminating a negligible part of the data, we would be able to give a total profile of at least one journal.

Selection of the Articles and the Periodization of Data

Out of a total of 817 items published in *TK* between 1952 and

1994, we decided that only 644 items should be included in the study. Of this total, 517 were professional articles and 127 were research articles. We eliminated not only the editorials, newslike reviews, professional news, texts of speeches delivered at professional ceremonies, etc., but also the reprinted articles and translations. Included were only the full-length professional and research articles. In determining the research articles, we used the same criterion mentioned in Järvelin and Vakkari's studies, that is, only the articles presenting some new facts, concepts or ideas by means of a defined goal and method were considered research articles. Meanwhile, we had to examine almost all the articles one by one, because abstracts of articles began to appear irregularly in *TK* since 1985.

As for the periodization of data, we used four different time divisions. The first period covers the years 1952-1964. The second, third, and fourth periods cover the years 1965-1974, 1975-1984, and 1985-1994 respectively. We could not divide the whole period equally, but we find the periodization quite meaningful, because each period represents characteristic developments, specifically those which have directly influenced the growth and the dissemination of the research activities.

The first period represents a 13-year interval characterized by two major events, namely, publication of the first professional journal, *TK* (in that period entitled *Türk Kütüphaneciler Derneği Bülteni*); and the foundation of the first department of library science at Ankara University in 1954. Beginning from the second period, all the rest were divided into 10-year intervals. During the second period, two other departments of library science were founded, the first one at Istanbul University in 1964, and the second one at Hacettepe University in Ankara in 1973. Though the foundation of the latter department had to be included in the second period, its real impact on research activities would normally be felt in the third

period. The third period is also characterized with the enactment of a new university law (The Higher Education Law of 1981), which has brought about many changes in the Turkish higher education system. In relation to our topic, one of its results was the foundation of many new universities and a second result was the introduction of master's programmes in between the undergraduate and the doctoral programmes at all universities. Naturally, the results of this new law would also be observed better in the fourth period. Among other major developments in this last period were the publication of a second professional journal, *Kütüphanecilik Dergisi* in 1987, and the adoption of a new policy by the editorial board of the journal *TK* to publish articles through a refereeing process.

The Method

We have already indicated that our analysis is based mostly on Järvelin and Vakkari's classifications, which are described in more detail in the authors' earlier work of 1990. In our opinion, the most noteworthy characteristic of these classifications is that they provide a holistic as well as an analytical approach to LIS research, a characteristic which is lacking in former studies and which allows a more universal application.

Järvelin and Vakkari^{13,14} have provided several classification schemes which can be grouped under three different categories. The first category includes a topical classification, dividing all the LIS topics into 11 major fields and their subfields. The second category of classifications aims to determine the approaches used in each study in terms of both the "viewpoint on information dissemination (e.g., the intermediary's or end-user's viewpoint) and the social level (e.g., individual, organizational) of the object of study." The third category allows, in general, the analysis of methods used in studies of LIS research. More specifically, different classification schemes are provided to analyze the data with the variables

research strategy, data collection method, type of analysis and type of investigation. By using these classification schemes, the authors have analyzed the contents of international LIS journals published between 1965 and 1985.

In analyzing our data, we used only the topical and methodological classifications mentioned above. The methods used in the research articles were analyzed by only the two variables, the research strategies and the data collection methods. Therefore, we have excluded certain variables, but we have not modified the classifications. The analysis of the research articles by organizations was based on Kumpulainen's classification.¹⁵

In a more recent study concerning content analysis of LIS research in China, Järvelin and Vakkari's classifications were used with some modifications.¹⁶ We did not make any modifications in the classifications mentioned for two reasons. First, our study is a continuation of the previous study of Yontar. In that study, Järvelin and Vakkari's classifications were used without any modifications. Therefore, any modifications made in the same classification schemes used in the present study would limit the comparability of both studies. Second, although Järvelin and Vakkari's classifications can be modified and/or refined, at least in principle, we believe that until such a refinement is realized, it would be better not to modify them in order to also obtain truer comparisons of similar studies at the international level.

Finally, in the topical classification, each item was classified under only one topic. An article dealing with more than one topic was classified only under the main topic. The same method was followed in the classification of the articles by organizations and by methods. As in Yontar's previous study, the greatest difficulty also experienced in this study was to determine the research methods used in the research articles, because in most of the articles the research strategies and data col-

lection methods were not indicated clearly enough.

Findings

A total of 644 professional and research articles published in *TK* between 1952 and 1994 were included in the study. Out of this total 517 are professional articles and 127 are research articles. While in the first period, the percentage of research articles was 4.6%, in the last period this percentage increased to 42.7%. (See Appendix, Table 1). This is a positive trend because it means that the journal *TK* represents an increasing share of the research articles. However, as the proportion of the research articles especially in the first two periods is very low, comparison of the professional and the research articles for these periods is less objective than the comparison of the articles in the last two periods. This is an inevitable limitation of the study, because our database includes only the articles of one journal.

The results of the analysis of articles are presented below. First, the professional and research articles are analyzed by topics. Then research articles are analyzed by organizations, by research strategies and by data collection methods used.

Topical Distribution of Professional and Research Articles

Professional Articles

Analysis of the articles by main fields and subfields is given in Table 2a and Table 2b in the Appendix. As can be seen from both tables, in professional articles the topic "L&I service activities" was most popular in each period and its percentage (49%-63%) was relatively steady. Within this area, the articles focused mostly on either "several interconnected activities" (14%-26%) or on "administration or planning" (5%-22%), though with a decreasing interest in the former

topic and an increasing interest in the latter one. In the same area, topics like "circulations or interlibrary loans" (1%-2%), "user education" (1%-3%), "other L&I service activities" (1%) and "library buildings and facilities" (1%-2%) appeared to be the least popular. The percentage of "information and reference services" was quite modest (3%-5%). Meanwhile, there was a remarkable decrease in the percentage of "collections" from 13% to 5% and an increase in the share of "automation" from 1% to 9%. This must be the result of a growing trend towards newer topics in the last period.

Among the main topics, the second most popular was "IS&R", though its share (5%-24%) was not steady. Whereas interest in this topic declined to 5% towards the third period, it grew to 16.8% in the last period. Within the area of "IS&R", the articles focused mostly on classification, cataloguing and bibliographic studies. The topic "bibliographic databases/bibliographies" lost in popularity with a percentage decreasing from 20.1% to 5.3% towards the last period. On the contrary, the topic "classification and indexing" gained popularity, with its share increasing from 2.1% to 6.3% and the topic "cataloguing", also, growing from 0.7% to 5.3%. Unfortunately, "information retrieval" was the least popular topic with a share of 0.8% and it was dealt with only in the third period.

As for the trend in the other main areas, "library history", for example, was another popular topic, with a relatively steady share between 15%-20%, though it lost in popularity towards the last period. Interest in topics such as "publishing" (2%-8%), "professions" (1%-5%), and "other studies" (1%-4%) also declined.

On the other hand, "information seeking" became more popular, with its share increasing from 1% to 6.3%. Within this area, the articles focused only on the topic "use and users of channels and sources of information" (1%-4%) and to a lesser extent on "use of L&I ser-

vices" (2%). Unfortunately, there was only one article on "information-seeking behavior" whereas no article appeared on the topics "dissemination of information", "use of information" or on "information management".

Among the least popular topics within the main areas were "other aspects of LIS" (1%), "analysis of LIS" (1%), "education in LIS" as well as "methodology of LIS" (both with equal percentages of 1%-3%). Interestingly enough, the topic "methodology of LIS" seemed to be relatively popular in the last period. Meanwhile, there was no article on the topic "scientific and professional communication".

Research Articles

Trends in the topics of research articles indicated interesting similarities with the those of the professional articles. As in the professional articles, in research articles, too, the most popular main area was "L&I service activities" (43%-60%). The second most popular main area was "IS&R". However, a closer analysis of the topics within these main areas also showed some dissimilarities of interests.

Within the area of "L&I service activities", the most popular topic was "administration or planning" (26%-31%). It was followed by "several interconnected activities", though the share of this topic decreased from 14% to 8%. The share of "automation" (3%-10%) was high, too. In fact, this topic seemed to be the second most popular in the last period. The topics "collections" and "circulation or interlibrary loans" had equal shares (6%-14%), though the interest on these topics declined. The share of "information and reference services" was highest (7%) in the second period and after a small decline, it increased to 4% in the last period. Among the least popular topics were "user education" and "library buildings and facilities", with equal shares of 3% only in the third period. There was no article on "other L&I service activities".

As indicated above, the second most popular main area was "IS&R", with the percentages of 9%-50%. Interest in this area was highest in the second period, declined sharply in the third period and increased to a percentage of 11% in the last period. Within this area, the topics "cataloguing" (6%-14%), "classification and indexing" (1%-29%) and "bibliographic studies" (3%-7%) seemed to be most popular. However, they all lost in popularity, though the shares of "cataloguing" were still the highest (6%) in the last two periods. The least popular topic was "information retrieval" (1%).

Interest in the other main areas changed considerably. For example, though "library history" seemed to be quite popular, its share decreased from 43% to 7% towards the last period. Similar decreases of interest appeared in the areas of "publishing" and "professions", too. While the percentages of "publishing" and "professions" reached 9% and 5% respectively in the third period, they both dropped to 1% in the last period. On the contrary, though the area of "information seeking" was not dealt with in the first two periods, its share increased to 10% in the last period. In this area, the percentages of the topic "use and users of channels and sources of information" (6%-8%) was highest while the shares of "use of L&I services" (1%) was lowest. No research article appeared either on the topics of "dissemination of information", "information seeking behavior", "use of information" or on "information management".

Researchers did not deal scientifically with the areas of either "education" or "methodology of LIS" in the first two periods. Later the percentage of "education" reached 3% and that of "methodology" to 6%.

In research articles, the least popular main area was "scientific and professional communication" (1%) and in this area only one article was published concerning "citation patterns and structures". On the other hand, no article was published in

the areas of "analysis of LIS" and "other aspects of LIS".

Distribution of Research Articles by Type of Organizations

Analysis of the research articles by organizational type was found meaningful for two reasons. First, this kind of analysis can give an idea about which types of libraries or information science organizations are studied most or least and also which types are not studied at all. Second, as the variable "type of organizations" was used in Yontar's previous study, we thought that we should also use the same variable in this study for a better comparison of both studies.

Organizational analysis of the research articles was based on Kumpulainen's classification, which consists of 7 categories. (See Table 3 in the Appendix). As can be seen from the table, the shares of the articles included in the categories "organization type irrelevant" (34%-50%) and "several types of libraries" (20%-57%) are higher than the percentages of articles in the other categories. This means that interest in the various operations or activities carried out within libraries is much higher than the interest in the changing roles of the libraries or in the library systems. The percentages in the categories "academic and/or special libraries" (15%-21%) and the percentages in the "public library" (7%-17%) are relatively high. There seems to be less interest in other types of libraries, as the shares of articles in this category are rather low (3%-10%), though interest in this area seems to have increased to 10% in the last period. On the other hand, the category "other organizations" (1%-3%) is the least popular. Interestingly enough, there is no research article in the category "information service organizations".

Distribution of Research Strategies in Research Articles

Research strategies (methods) used in research articles are given in Table 4 of the Appendix. According

to this table, the shares of "empirical research strategy" (21%-57%) and "literature review" (14%-57%) appear to be much higher than the others. However, in the last period, use of "literature review" was higher than the use of "empirical strategy".

Of the "empirical strategy", the most frequent ones were the "survey method" (14%-31%) and the "historical method" (4%-29%). Also, there was an increasing trend towards using the survey method, while the use of the historical method dropped in the last period. On the other hand, "experiment" and "content or protocol analysis" methods were the least frequent ones, each with around 3%. Other empirical methods, like "qualitative method", "evaluation method", "case or action research method" as well as "citation analysis" or "other bibliometric method" were not used at all.

Use of the conceptual research strategy is also high, with total percentages of 9%-21%. Of this method, the proportion of "verbal argumentation or critique" was higher than the proportion of "concept analysis" in the last period. Also, "mathematical or logical method" (6%) was only used in the last period. On the other hand, "bibliographic method" (1.4%) and "system and software analysis and design" (1.4%) were those least frequent.

Distribution of Data Collection Methods Used in Research Articles

Table 5 in the Appendix indicates that the shares of "several methods of collecting" (24%-71%) and "use of the data collected earlier" (14%-65%) are the highest, though the proportion of the latter (65%) is higher than the former in the last period.

Among the other data collection methods used were "questionnaire and interview" (6%-14%) and "historical source analysis" (3%-14%). Again, proportion of the former (6%) is higher than the latter (3%) in the last period. "Content analy-

sis" (1%) and "thinking aloud" (1%-3%) were those least frequent and they were used mainly in later periods. The methods of "observation" and "citation analysis" were not used at all.

Discussion

This study analyzed the articles published in the single most current Turkish journal *TK* between the years 1952 and 1994. Distribution of the articles over four different periods was given. In the classification of the articles, Järvelin and Vakkari's as well as Kumpulainen's classification schemes were used.

Two main findings were obtained from the study. One was that the percentage of research articles was rather low as compared to the percentage of professional articles, since their average share amounted to only 19.7% of the total data. This percentage was much lower in the first two periods and was higher in the last two periods. Although the increase in research articles towards the later periods is a positive trend in terms of the growth both in the production and the dissemination of LIS research in Turkey, this result should be approached cautiously. Because, though the journal *TK* includes most of the LIS research articles in Turkey, the total number of research articles published in this journal within a period of 43 years is only 127. On the other hand, the total number of the graduate theses prepared at the three departments of library science between 1958 and 1994 also amounts to only 127.¹⁷ Therefore, although the largest body of LIS research is represented by the journal above and by the graduate theses in Turkey, the research represented by both groups of materials is less than 300. Therefore, immediate provisions are needed to increase the production and dissemination of LIS research in Turkey.

Another main finding is that similarities between the results of this study and the former study of Yontar is much higher than the similar-

ities between this study and Järvelin and Vakkari's study of 1993.

Topical analysis of the professional and research articles indicated that in both groups of articles, the most popular main areas were the "L&I service activities" and "IS&R", respectively. Similar trends of interest were also observed in graduate theses.¹⁸ In this respect, a reverse trend of interest was obtained by Järvelin and Vakkari's study. So, in general, the focus of LIS research in Turkey has not changed for almost 40 years. Therefore, more research is needed in the main area of "information storage and retrieval" to realize at least a reasonable balance between research made in the two main areas mentioned.

Within the main area of "L&I service activities", the topic "several interconnected activities" was most popular in professional articles, whereas "administration or planning" was most popular in research articles, though interest in "administration or planning" seemed also to increase in professional articles. Again, in both group of articles, interest in "automation" was higher than the interest in "reference or information services". This must be the result of the increased trend towards automation of library services especially in the last two decades. However, as professional reference and information services are lacking in many libraries in Turkey, more research is needed in this field. Among the less or the least popular topics were "circulation or interlibrary loans", "collections", "library buildings and facilities" and "other L&I service activities" in Turkey. Similar trends in terms of both the most and the least popular topics within the area "L&I service activities" are also mostly observed in the graduate theses. In Järvelin and Vakkari's study of 1993, "administration and planning", "automation" and "collections" appear to be the most popular topics. However, contrary to our findings, the topic "automation" seems to have lost in popularity, while there is a revival of interest in the topic "collections".

According to Järvelin and Vakkari, the decline of interest in automation may be explained by the integration of this topic into other topics.

Of the main area of "IS&R", the most popular topics in both group of articles were "cataloguing", "classification and indexing" and "bibliographic databases and bibliographies". However, while in professional articles there was a sharp decrease of interest in "bibliographic databases/bibliographies" and an increase of interest in the two other topics towards the last period, in research articles interest decreased in all of the three topics mentioned above. Still, the share of "cataloguing" was higher than the other two topics in research articles. Again, "information retrieval" was the least popular topic in both group of articles. In graduate theses, "classification and indexing" as well as "bibliographic studies" seemed to be most popular whereas "cataloguing" seemed to be least popular with no research on the topic "information retrieval". On the other hand, Järvelin and Vakkari's study reveals different results, as in their study "information retrieval" is the most popular topic within the area "IS&R". Therefore, research especially in "information retrieval" should be encouraged in Turkey.

As for the other main areas, though "library history" seemed to be quite popular in both groups of articles, it lost in popularity towards the last period. Interest in topics like "publishing" and "professions" also decreased. More research is needed in all these areas. On the other hand, attention paid to the area of "information seeking" increased sharply, especially in research articles. Within this area, the topic "use and users of channels or sources of information" was most popular and "use of library and information services" was least popular. No research or professional article appeared on the topics "dissemination of information", "use of information", "information management" and "information seeking behavior", except one professional article on the last topic mentioned.

In graduate theses, while "library history" was not studied at all and the topic "professions" was studied little, interest in "publishing" was high and interest in "professions" was moderate. In Järvelin and Vakkari's analysis, while interest in "professions" and "library history" seem to have increased, interest in "publishing" and "information seeking" seem to have decreased, though not much.

In general, research in the fields of information management, retrieval and use are needed in Turkey. More research on library history, professions and publishing should also be supported.

Within the main areas, "analysis of LIS" as well as the "education and methodology of LIS" were least popular in professional articles, though interest in the topic "methodology of LIS" began to increase. Meanwhile, interest in "other studies" decreased sharply and no professional article appeared in the area of "scientific and professional communication". It was also remarkable that no research article appeared on the analysis of LIS as well as on the education and methodology of LIS until the third period. Interest in the last two topics increased in research articles towards the later periods, though there exists no research article on the "analysis of LIS". Again, "scientific and professional communication" is one of the least popular areas in research articles, too and no attention was paid to "other studies". Trends in the above-mentioned topics are mostly similar to the trends in graduate theses.¹⁸ Though Järvelin and Vakkari's study also gives different trends, the authors draw attention to the need for "more methodological discussion and analysis of the discipline".

Analysis of the research articles within the organizational context showed that the articles were mostly concentrated in the categories of "organizational type irrelevant" and "several types of libraries". This means that more attention is paid to the various activities or opera-

tions of the libraries than to the functions or the roles of the different types of libraries in society, in general. Also, the proportion of the articles in the categories of "public library" and "academic and/or special libraries" were higher than the proportion of articles in the category "other library". Almost all of the articles in the category of "academic and/or special libraries" deal with the academic libraries, though this is not reflected in the table concerning organizational analysis. Meanwhile, no research article was published on "information service organizations". Trends in the graduate theses were also almost similar in the organizational context. Therefore, immediate attention should be paid especially to the problems of the special libraries and information centres since there is a trend in the increase of the number of these libraries in Turkey. Also, research should be directed to other categories of libraries.

As for research strategies and data collection methods used in the research articles, the most popular research strategy appeared to be the "literature review". Because this strategy was used in almost 50% of the research articles, developments in LIS research can hardly be realized unless radical measures are taken to change this trend.

The second most popular strategy was the "empirical research strategy", whereas it was the most popular one in the graduate theses and in the journal articles abroad. The "survey method" appears to be the most popular empirical method in international LIS, as has been indicated by the studies of Yontar and Järvelin and Vakkari. On the other hand, in research articles, the least popular methods of the empirical strategy were the "historical method", "content or protocol analysis" and "experiment". Moreover, "qualitative method", "evaluation method", "case or action research method" or "bibliometric method" were not used. The other two studies mentioned before also reflect different findings in this respect. What can be argued, however, is that in Turkey more use of

various methods of empirical strategy is needed and from the international perspective use of the "qualitative method" as well as evaluative and experimental methods should be encouraged, as these methods seem to be among the least popular ones in Järvelin and Vakkari's study.

As for the other main strategies, "conceptual strategy" is quite popular. It is followed by "mathematical or logical method". The least popular strategies were "systems analysis and design" and the "bibliographic method". Different findings are obtained by the other two studies mentioned, although in international LIS research, conceptual strategy seems to be the second most popular strategy. In research articles, however, "verbal argumentation" appeared to be more popular than the "concept analysis" method. In fact, more use should be made of the latter method, since science works with concepts in general and a deeper involvement with the conceptual analysis will positively affect the quality of LIS research in Turkey, as elsewhere. At the same time, the increase especially in the trend of automation of libraries in Turkey necessitates more use of the systems analysis method.

In terms of the data collection methods used, the category "use of data collected earlier" was the most popular. The proportion of the articles in this category was more than half of the total research articles. This is followed by the second most popular category of the "several methods of collecting". Although, the use of more than one method can be regarded as a positive trend, the use of the first method above has increased while the use of the second method has decreased. Clearly, much less use should be made of the first method. Meanwhile, use of the methods "questionnaire and/or interview" and "historical source analysis" decreased considerably towards the last period and more attention should be paid to the use of these methods.

As was indicated, the trends of LIS research as reflected in Turkish research articles are more similar to the trends in the graduate theses and less similar to the findings of Jarvelin and Vakkari's study of 1993. This result is not very surprising since Turkey is a developing country, a characteristic which is also reflected in the quality of both the LIS service activities and the LIS research. However, since the developments in many areas are fast, reorganization of the structure and the traditions of the LIS research is necessary in order to find solutions to the changing problems of the profession in Turkey.

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APPENDIX

Table 1. Distribution of Professional and Research Articles, 1952-1994

Type of article	1952-1964		1965-1974		1975-1984		1985-1994	
	no	%	no	%	no	%	no	%
Professional	144	95.3	152	91.5	126	78.2	95	57.2
Research	7	4.6	14	8.4	35	21.7	71	42.7
Totals	151	99.9	166	99.9	161	99.9	166	99.9

Table 2a. Distribution of Professional and Research Articles By Main Topics, 1952-1994

	1952-1964				1965-1974				1975-1984				1985-1994			
	pr	pr	res	res	pr	pr	res	res	pr	pr	res	res	pr	pr	res	res
TOPICS	no	%	no	%	no	%	no	%	no	%	no	%	no	%	no	%
Professions	2	1.4			3	2.0			6	4.8	2	5.7	1	1.0	1	1.4
Library history	22	15.2	3	42.8	30	19.7			19	15.0	3	8.5	10	10.5	5	7.0
Publishing	5	3.5			12	7.8	1	7.1	4	3.2	3	8.5	2	2.2	1	1.4
Education in LIS	2	1.4			4	2.6					1	2.9	1	1.0	2	2.8
Methodology					1	0.7			3	2.4			3	3.1	4	5.7
Analysis of LIS	1	0.7														
Library & information service activities	70	48.6	3	42.9	81	53.2	6	42.8	80	63.5	21	60	55	57.8	42	59.1
Information storage and retrieval	35	24.3	1	14.3	12	7.9	7	50	6	4.8	3	8.6	16	16.8	8	11.3
Information seeking	1	0.7			2	1.3			3	2.4	2	5.7	6	6.3	7	9.8
Scientific and professional communication															1	1.4
Other aspects of LIS								2	1.6							
Other study	6	4.2			6	3.9			3	2.4			1	1.0		
Totals	144	100	7	100	152	99.	14	99.	126	100.	35	99.	95	99.	71	99.

Table 2b. Topical Distribution of Professional and Research Articles in Detail, 1952-1994

	<u>1952-1964</u>				<u>1965-1974</u>				<u>1975-1984</u>				<u>1985-1994</u>			
	pr	pr	res	res	pr	pr	res	res	pr	pr	res	res	pr	pr	res	res
TOPICS	no	%	no	%	no	%	no	%	no	%	no	%	no	%	no	%
The professions	2	1.4			3	2.0			6	4.8	2	5.7	1	1.0	1	1.4
Library history	22	15.2	3	42.8	30	19.7			19	15.0	3	8.5	10	10.5	5	7.0
Publishing	5	3.5			12	7.8	1	7.1	4	3.2	3	8.5	2	2.2	1	1.4
Education in LIS	2	1.4			4	2.6					1	2.9	1	1.0	2	2.8
Methodology					1	0.7			3	2.4			3	3.1	4	5.7
Analysis of LIS	1	0.7														
Library and information service activities	70	48.6	3	42.9	81	53.2	6	42.8	80	63.5	21	60	55	57.8	42	59.1
Circulation or interlibrary loans	3	2.1	1	14.3	1	0.7			3	2.4	2	5.7	2	2.2		
Collections	10	6.9	1	14.3	14	9.2			17	13.4	2	5.7	5	5.3	4	5.7
Information/reference services	7	4.9			7	4.6	1	7.1	2	1.6	1	2.9	3	3.1	3	4.2
User education					1	0.7			4	3.2	1	2.9	1	1.0		
Library buildings and facilities					3	2.0			1	0.8	1	2.9	1	1.0		
Administration/planning	7	4.9			29	19.1	4	28.6	22	17.4	9	25.7	21	22.1	22	31.0
Automation study					2	1.3	1	7.1	3	2.4	1	2.9	9	9.5	7	9.9
Other L&I service activities	5	3.5			1	0.7			1	0.8						
Several interconnected activities	38	26.3	1	14.3	23	15.1			27	21.4	4	11.4	13	13.7	6	8.4
Information storage & retrieval	35	24.3	1	14.3	12	7.9	7	50.1	6	4.8	3	8.6	16	16.8	8	11.3
Cataloguing	3	2.1			1	0.7	2	14.4	1	0.8	2	5.7	5	5.3	4	5.7
Classification & indexing	3	2.1	1	14.3	4	2.6	4	28.6					6	6.3	1	1.4
Information retrieval									1	0.8					1	1.4
Bibliographic databases/bibliographis	29	20.1			7	4.6	1	7.1	4	3.2	1	2.9	5	5.3	2	2.8
Other types of databases																

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	<u>1952-1964</u>				<u>1965-1974</u>				<u>1975-1984</u>				<u>1985-1994</u>			
	pr	pr	res	res	pr	pr	res	res	pr	pr	res	res	pr	pr	res	res
Information seeking																
Dissemination of information																
Use/users of channels/sources of information					2	1.3			3	2.4	2	5.7	4	4.2	6	8.4
Use of L&I services													2	2.2	1	1.4
Information seeking behavior	1	0.7														
Use of information																
Information management, IRM																
Scientific and professional communication																
Scientific and professional publishing																
Citation patterns and structures															1	1.4
Other aspects					1	0.7										
Other aspects of LIS									2	1.6						
Other study	6	4.2			6	3.9			3	2.4			1	1.0		
Totals	144	100	7	100.	152	100.	14	100.	126	100.	35	100.	95	100.	71	100.

Table 3. Distribution of the type of organizations in research articles, 1952-1994


	<u>1952-1964</u>		<u>1965/1974</u>		<u>1975/1984</u>		<u>1985/1994</u>	
ORGANIZATIONS	no	%	no	%	no	%	no	%
Public library	1	14.3	1	7.2	5	14.3	12	16.9
Academic and/or special libraries	-		3	21.4	5	14.3	12	16.9
Information service organization	-	-	-					-
Other library	-	-			1	2.9	7	9.9
Several types of libraries	4	57.1	3	21.4	11	31.4	14	19.7
Other organisation (no library or information service organization)	-	-			1	2.9	1	1.4
Organization type irrelevant	2	28.6	7	50.0	12	34.2	25	35.2
Totals	7	100	14	100	35	100	71	100

Table 4. Research Strategies Used in the Research Articles, 1952-1994

	<u>1952-1964</u>		<u>1965-1974</u>		<u>1975-1984</u>		<u>1985-1994</u>	
STRATEGIES	no	%	no	%	no	%	no	%
Empirical research strategy	4	57.2	3	21.5	19	54.3	17	23.9
Historical method	2	28.6	1	7.2	6	17.1	3	4.2
Survey method	2	28.6	2	14.3	11	31.4	12	16.9
Qualitative method								
Evaluation method								
Case or action research method								
Content or protocol analysis					1	2.9	2	2.8
Citation analysis								
Other bibliometric method								
Experiment					1	2.9		
Other empirical method								
Conceptual research strategy	2	28.6	3	21.4	3	8.6	15	21.2
Verbal argumentation, critique			3	21.4	3	8.6	9	12.7
Concept analysis	2	28.6					6	8.5
Mathematical or logical method							4	5.6
System and software analysis and design							1	1.4
Literature review	1	14.2	8	57.1	13	37.1	33	46.5
Bibliographic method							1	1.4
Other method								
Not applicable								
Totals	7	100.0	14	100.0	35	100.0	71	100.0

Table 5. Data Collection Methods Used in the Research Articles, 1952-1994

DATA COLLECTION METHODS	1952-1964		1965-1974		1975-1984		1985-1994	
	no	%	no	%	no	%	no	%
Questionnaire, interview					5	14.3	4	5.7
Observation								
Thinking aloud					1	2.9	1	1.4
Content analysis							1	1.4
Citation analysis								
Historical source analysis	1	14.3			2	5.7	2	2.8
Several methods of collecting	5	71.4	6	42.9	9	25.7	17	23.9
Use of data collected earlier	1	14.3	8	57.1	18	51.4	46	64.8
Other method of collecting								
Not applicable								
Totals	7	100.	14	100.	35	100.	71	100.



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International Collaboration on Internet Subject Gateways

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Introduction

A number of libraries in Europe are involved in the development of Internet subject gateways - services that aim to help



users find high quality resources on Internet. Subject gateways such as SOSIG¹ (Social Science Information Gateway) have been available on the Internet for some years now, and they offer an alternative to Internet search engines such as Altavista² and to directories such as Yahoo.³ Distinctively, subject gateways draw upon the skills, practices and standards of the international library community and apply these to Internet-based information. This article will suggest that librarians are ideally placed to play a major role in building Internet resource discovery services and that subject gateways offer a means to do this. It will outline some of the subject gateway initiatives in Europe and will describe the tools and technologies developed by the DESIRE⁴ project to support the development of new gateways in other countries. It will also discuss how IMesh,⁵ a group for gateways from around the world, aims to work on an international strategy for subject gate-

ways and on developing standards to support this.

Background

"The Web is quickly becoming the world's fastest growing repository of data."

(Tim Berners-Lee, W3C director and creator of the World Wide Web (WWW))

This is a time of upheaval for the library profession, as the Internet becomes a major medium in the information world. The Internet offers access to myriad information resources but the fact remains that it is still very hard for people to locate high quality information amid the general chaos. In the past few years the issue of resource discovery on the Internet has been the focus of much work by many different communities.

Search Engines

The Internet Search engines, such as AltaVista, and Excite, rely on automated solutions to resource discovery. They send out robots or Web crawlers to trawl the Internet and automatically index the files that they find. These indexes can then be searched by keyword and return records which contain automatically generated descriptions of the resources, usually the first few paragraphs of the resource itself. Search engines are good for finding lots of information - a search often yields thousands of resources. However, the results can be overwhelming, unmanageable, full of irrelevant references and are often too prolific to meet user needs.

Web Directories

Web directories such as Yahoo and The Open Directory⁶ are, in a sense the Internet equivalent of a public library that is not staffed by librarians! They rely on human input to create directories on the WWW that

list Internet resources, with each one described briefly and classified under a subject heading. These directories aim to describe large numbers of Internet resources and include both serious and recreational sites.

The Open Directory is a remarkable project, since, in a sense, the general public are invited to build their own library on the Internet - selecting, classifying and "cataloguing" resources. The Open Directory has a *volunteer* work force of Editors (currently over 6,000 of them), who spend time adding resources and resource-descriptions to the directory (currently over 100,000!). Both Yahoo and The Open Directory aim to be the biggest Internet directories, with a high level of coverage and popular appeal as high priorities.

Internet Subject Gateways

Subject gateways offer an alternative to the Internet search engines and Web directories. What is the definition of a subject gateway? In some sense they are the Internet equivalent of an academic or special library. Subject gateways are Internet-based services designed to help users locate high quality information that is available on the Internet. They are typically, databases of detailed metadata (or catalogue) records which describe Internet resources and offer a hyperlink to the resources. Users can choose to either search the database by keyword, or to browse the resources under subject headings. Subject gateways are characterized by two key factors:

- They are selective, pointing only to Internet resources that meet with quality selection criteria
- They are built by subject and information specialists - often librarians.

Quality Selection Procedures

Formal quality selection criteria are used to guide collection development within the gateways. Examples of the selection policies of gateways have been collected by the DESIRE project.⁷ DESIRE has also

produced an online tutorial called "Internet Detective"⁸ that aims to teach the skills required to evaluate the quality of resources on the Internet and this gives some insight into the sort of work that gateway staff do in evaluating and selecting Internet resources.

Classification of Internet Resources

Classification schemes are used by gateways to set up the browsing option for users. Many gateways use traditional library classification schemes such as Dewey Decimal classification or Universal Decimal classification. A report on the use of classification schemes in Internet services has been produced by the DESIRE project, which describes this usage in more detail.⁹

Standard Metadata Formats

Standard metadata formats are used when describing an Internet resource in a database record. These formats support effective information retrieval from the databases, but also ensure that gateways can interoperate with each other and, potentially, with other databases such as library OPACS. These standards also give the option of converting and mapping one format to another, which could be important as Web metadata standards develop and change. In 1997 DESIRE produced a comprehensive review of metadata formats.¹⁰ In the UK, UKOLN (The UK Office of Library Networking) has a Metadata Group that conducts ongoing research into metadata formats, especially in relation to library cataloguing formats such as MARC. Their Web site offers software tools for handling metadata and information on mapping between metadata formats.¹¹

Strategy and Sustainability

It should be noted that the gateways described in this article are all large-scale projects with significant funding behind them. Many small-scale and/or volunteer-effort gateways have emerged on the Internet, but with the explosion of the number of sites these have not been sus-

tainable and have either been discontinued or have only been able to maintain very limited coverage with many broken links and outdated descriptions. Gateways require considerable staff time and investment to develop and maintain. Only organizations that develop a long-term strategy for their gateways can provide a service that is sustainable.

European Gateway Initiatives

A number of Internet subject gateways have been developed in Europe and a significant community of libraries involved in gateways is developing.

United Kingdom - The Resource Discovery Network

In the UK a number of subject gateways are being funded by the UK government's Higher Education Funding Council and are organized under the Resource Discovery Network (RDN).¹² All the UK gateways are based in universities and involve input from librarians and information professionals:

- BIOME - Health and Life Sciences
- EMC - Engineering, Mathematics and Computing
- Humbul - Humanities
- PSIGate - Physical Sciences
- SOSIG - Social Sciences, Business and Law

The Netherlands - DutchESS

The National Library of the Netherlands (Koninklijke Bibliotheek) has built a subject gateway in cooperation with seven university libraries called DutchESS (Dutch Electronic Subject Service)¹³ - a national gateway, covering all subjects.

Finland - The Finnish Virtual Library Project

In Finland the government's Ministry of Education has funded the large-scale development of national subject gateways. The Finnish Virtual Library project¹⁴ was launched in 1995 and involves collaborative

work between eight university libraries.

Sweden - EELS

EELS¹⁵ covers the broad subject area of Electronic Engineering. It is a cooperative project of the six Swedish University of Technology Libraries.

Denmark (and other Nordic Countries) - NOVAGate

NOVAGate covers forestry, veterinary, agricultural, food and environmental sciences and is produced by the libraries of the NOVA University in Denmark, Finland, Iceland, Norway and Sweden.

The DESIRE Project

DESIRE is an international project funded by the European Union. The project aims to facilitate use of the World Wide Web among Europe's research community and one of the ways it is doing this is by developing and promoting the Internet subject gateways model. SOSIG, DutchESS and EELS are all partners in the DESIRE project and have been working with other gateways (including the Finnish Virtual Libraries project and NOVAGate).

DESIRE Workshop for Europe's National Libraries

There is considerable scope for the library community to be involved in Internet subject gateways. As illustrated in the gateways described above, many libraries in many countries are already seeing work on gateways as an important part of their remit. Once a country has a gateway structure in place, librarians from across that country can work collaboratively to build the collection. The subject gateways model offers strategic and standardized methods for doing this. DESIRE aims to support the development of new gateways in Europe, especially large-scale national gateways. In September 1999 there was a DESIRE workshop for the national libraries of Europe:¹⁶ "Building National and Large-scale Internet Information Gateways: A Workshop

for the National Libraries of Europe". At the time of writing, 17 European national libraries have signed up for the DESIRE workshop, and together we hope to make some important steps towards building a European network of gateways.

As the Internet continues to expand so quickly it is clear that no single gateway or country can hope to catalogue all the Internet resources available. A distributed model is required, where each country takes responsibility for describing the high quality resources available on its national network. Imagine the scenario where librarians from every country work at building a gateway to the best of their national Internet resources. Imagine then, that it is possible to cross-search any combination of these gateways - to find high quality Internet resources from around the world. In fact, the technologies and standards already exist to make this vision a reality. What still requires a lot of work is the development of the human networks that can maximize the potential of these standards and technologies - and the library community is perfectly placed to take up this challenge! Building an international network of gateways takes time, but the library community has both the expertise and the commitment to develop these valuable Internet search tools.

Distributed Teams of Librarians

Subject gateways provide a successful model for involving the library community in Internet resource discovery. Existing gateways have invested effort in developing systems that support the work of distributed teams, so that librarians can work on a gateway from anywhere in the world as long as they have access to a networked PC and a Web browser. Distributed Internet cataloguing means that libraries can contribute to a shared service, rather than having to each build a local service. This is an efficient way of working - it avoids duplicated effort and collaboration means large-scale gateways with much

better coverage can be developed. Many of the gateways described above benefit from the input of a distributed team of librarians. A DESIRE report "Distributed and Part-Automated Cataloguing"¹⁷ describes the different models being used by existing gateways. The ROADS software supports distributed cataloguing by providing a Web interface to the database. Records can be added, deleted or edited remotely. All this work can be done via the Web - the teams can work from their own offices using their own workstations and fit this "Internet librarianship" in alongside their usual work in the library.

Distributed Databases

The technologies also exist to support cross-searching of distributed databases. Interoperability has been the focus of much research by DESIRE and ROADS and other communities. If different databases of metadata records can be cross-searched this offers the potential for different communities to work at describing different sections of the Internet and for end-users to cross-search all these collections simultaneously. On a national level both the UK gateways and the Finnish Virtual Library project are working on cross-searching distributed gateway databases. The end-user remains blissfully unaware of the complex organization behind their search - from their point of view they are making a single search from a single Web page and get a single page of results.

SOSIG and Biz/ed have already implemented cross-searching into their working services. When users search SOSIG they are, in fact, also cross-searching the Biz/ed database - results from the two databases are returned on the same page. The technologies used to achieve this are described in a paper published in *Dlib* magazine.¹⁸ Databases located in different countries can also be cross-searched simultaneously - DutchESS (in the Netherlands) has been working closely with SOSIG (in the UK) to set up a cross-search mechanism, so that

both the collections can be accessed simultaneously by users from both countries (and indeed elsewhere!). This is pioneering work and when it is in place, it is hoped the same mechanism will be used by other gateways to set up similar systems. Demonstrations of the cross-searching work being done by DESIRE and ROADS is available on the DESIRE Web site.¹⁹

Tools for Building Large-Scale Internet Subject Gateways

DESIRE is developing tools and methods for the development of large-scale Internet subject gateways. It is also working with both library and Internet standards organizations to develop standard practices for developing gateways, to ensure that they are interoperable and can work together to form large-scale, collaborative services.

The DESIRE Gateways Handbook. In October 1999 DESIRE published the *Information Gateways Handbook* - a guide for libraries interested in setting up large-scale subject gateways of their own. The Handbook is made freely available on the WWW and describes all the methods and tools required to set up a large-scale Internet subject gateway. It draws upon over three years of research into subject gateways and includes case studies and examples from many of the gateways described earlier in this article. It is hoped that the Handbook will assist other countries to set up their own national gateway initiatives so that more libraries and more librarians can begin to play a role in Internet resource discovery.

ROADS. ROADS²⁰ is an open-source set of software tools which enable the set up and maintenance of Web-based subject gateways. It was developed as part of the UK's Electronic Libraries Programme but is now freely available for anyone to use. The software includes the database technology required to set up a gateway, the administration centre required to facilitate remote cataloguing via the WWW and everything else needed to run a gateway. Many of the gateways

described above use ROADS, notably SOSIG and the Finnish Virtual Library project. The ROADS open-source software toolkit is being produced by a consortium of developers with expertise in network-based resource identification, indexing and cataloguing. This has resulted in a standards-based approach to software development, making it compatible with current and developing indexing and cataloguing requirements. In addition, there is ample documentation and online support for people interested in using the software for either experimental purposes or service provision.

IMesh: The International Gateway Community

IMesh is a collaborative network, involving key players in the world's subject gateway community (not only those in Europe). It is likely that IMesh will be the key player in future gateway developments internationally.

IMesh was formed as a result of a meeting at the Second European Conference on Research and Advanced Technology for Digital Libraries, held in Crete in September 1998, attended by 25 delegates from 15 countries. One of the main aims of IMesh is to explore the potential for collaborative development of gateways internationally. It would require significant investment of effort and resources for a single country to attempt to create a gateway that pointed to the best of the Internet from all countries, in all languages in all subject areas. The IMesh group is looking at ways in which the effort can be shared through international collaborative agreements. Many of the technologies required for cross-searching different gateways and for remote cataloguing into gateways already exist. What is lacking is the strategic organization between gateways and IMesh aims to address this. In June 1999 the first IMesh workshop was held in Warwick in the UK and was attended by gateway providers from around the world. A report of the meeting is available on the

iMesh Web site.²¹ An IMesh discussion list exists and those interested in international collaboration amongst subject gateways are invited to join. The list provides an open forum for exchanging ideas and technology for promoting the subject gateway movement.

Future and Conclusions

In many ways the Internet is still a bit of a building site! Many things are still under construction, including the basic architecture of the Web. The World Wide Web Consortium²² is still working on building a structure that can support resource discovery on the Internet. They have recently released the Resource Description Framework (RDF) model and syntax specification, which aims to provide a basic infrastructure on the Web to support the transfer and processing of metadata. This marks a new age on the Web as in effect, it allows anyone to "catalogue" a Web resource in a machine understandable way. Different people will want to use RDF in different ways - it is simply the structure within which different people can work. Gateways are working with the W3C to see how RDF can support these high quality metadata collections. Potentially, librarians could forge the same role for themselves on the Internet that they have had traditionally - as third party information providers that end-users can learn to trust and rely on when searching for information.

Although the structure for the Internet library is not yet complete, it does not mean that librarians have to wait to start building their Internet collections. The human networks required to effectively catalogue the Internet will take many years to build. Libraries can work on creating metadata records for Internet resources and on finding their place in the metadata community. They can also start becoming familiar with the new metadata and Internet cataloguing standards so all the records are compatible. Although this paper was presented to the open meeting of the IFLA

Section on Information Technology, in many ways the technologies are the least of our worries - it is the human factor that now requires significant development.

In this article I have described services that already involve input from large numbers of libraries and librarians. Perhaps the IFLA community can help us to take this work forward and to promote Internet Librarianship as an important new role for the profession.

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IFLANET: IFLA's World Wide Web site available in the Asia Pacific Region

Visit our new IFLANET Mirror Site for the Asia Pacific Region hosted by the National Library Board of Singapore

<http://www.ifla.org.sg/>

IFLANET is now available from:

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<http://www.ifla.org.sg/>

