Chapter 2
A field of study and research

Why comparative librarianship? Because it can uncover, in our professional discipline, neglected and hidden approaches to important technical approaches to important technical library problems; but even more important, comparative librarianship suggests a new and critical role for librarianship. Patently, political and industrial leaders of the world have been unsuccessful in promoting world understanding. It is just possible that the quiet force of libraries can succeed where governments have failed! (Shores 1966, 206)

What is international engagement in the library field? It can be very broad, witness my own involvement. Or it can be narrow such as one visit to an international conference or one assignment to help to modernise a library in a developing country. Whatever the case, such activities lead to the benefit of individuals and communities through exchange of experience and ideas. (Hopkinson 2014, 60)

Outline

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2.1   Introduction

In Chapter 1 some background was given on the development of international activities in librarianship. In the final paragraph I suggested that a distinction be made between international librarianship as a field of professional activity and the scholarly study of such activity. In this chapter I outline the development of a scholarly field that came to be referred to as international and comparative librarianship, with reference to the themes, genres, motives, and values reflected in the literature. I then outline the structure and current state of the scholarly research and literature in the two areas within the field, and attempt to define and delimit the scope of these interrelated areas. I conclude with some reflections on the possible impact on them of globalization.

2.2   Emergence of a professional literature

A professional literature on aspects of international librarianship arose naturally from the international professional contacts that were established during the nineteenth century, as described in Chapter 1. This literature included papers delivered at international conferences, their proceedings and reports on these events in library journals. There were also proposals for various international projects and reports on these, such as the literature relating to the initiatives of Otlet and La Fontaine, the Royal Society and other groups, not to mention the proceedings of the FID and later IFLA. Mention should be made also of reports by individuals who visited other countries. In addition to the British visitors referred to In Chapter 1, German and Scandinavian scholars and librarians come to mind who visited the USA and returned to their countries imbued with new ideas on American library philosophy and practices. Some of these are discussed in Chapter 8. The work of the Carnegie Corporation of New York in various British colonies and dominions between the two world wars and immediately after, as described in Chapter 9, generated carefully researched reports intended to inform Carnegie interventions in these countries. In a broadminded initiative to "see ourselves as others see us", the Carnegie Corporation also commissioned a report on librarianship in North America. The report, by Wilhelm Munthe (1939), a respected Norwegian librarian and then president of IFLA, has been widely hailed as a pioneering work of comparative librarianship. However, Munthe (1939, 3) himself wrote in the report, "It is quite likely that it will never be possible to build up such a thing as a comparative library science". Immediately after the Second World War interventions by UNESCO to promote library development worldwide and particularly in developing countries, generated further growth of professional literature, as described in Chapter 10.

However, it is no coincidence that, although international relations and international comparisons among libraries can be traced much further back, international and comparative librarianship made their appearance as identifiable albeit interwoven areas of study during the 1950s and 1960s. Following the rather deprecating comment by Munthe in 1939, the earliest mention of comparative librarianship occurred in the mid-1950s (Dane 1954a; Dane 1954b), coinciding with the growing Cold War competition described in Chapter 1. The early literature (e.g. Shores 1970; Asheim 1985) emphasized the value of these studies in terms of international cooperation and understanding, and had an idealistic and aspirational tone akin to missionary zeal (e.g. Swank 1960; Swank 1963).

2.3   Themes, genres, motives, and values

The preceding comment suggests that at this point it may be of interest to look more closely at the range of writings that were found in the growing literature on international LIS activities. Writing a critical overview of the literature a generation ago, Rayward (1979, 179–80) described it unflatteringly:

> The literature of international and comparative librarianship leaves much to be desired. It is by and large profuse, scattered, fragmentary, occasional and of low quality. Comparative librarianship is a relatively new field which is more written about than made the object of serious study.
> …
> As for the literature of international librarianship—as opposed to a more formal, scholarly literature of comparative librarianship – it is still, as it was as many as a hundred years ago, cumulated from the lucubrations of travellers and students with an eye for an interesting and useful technical detail, under the imperative of making a formal report or of "publishing or perishing," or merely having an idle moment on hand, an unusual experience to report, and a narrative itch.

In her dissertation on internationalism in library education, which was referred to in the previous chapter, Carroll (1970a) identified a number of motivations. Danton (1973, chap. 3) devoted a chapter to a chronological and critical review of "the dimension of purpose and value" as found in the literature up to that point. Foskett (1979, 41–46) contributed an ironic categorization of the literature of comparative librarianship, under the headings of "export" (influence of one system on another), "travellers' tales", "first aid" (technical assistance), "universal truth" (the borrowing of a body of theory from another country), and "big brotherly love" (assistance provided by international organizations). Maack (1985, 7–8) identified three broad categories of comparative literature: "foreign library science" (descriptions of librarianship in other countries, with some elements of comparison), "thematic anthologies" (essays on an aspect of library development, contributed by authors from various countries), and more scholarly, rigorous comparative librarianship, as will be discussed below. Taking into account the intentions, motivations, expertise and degree of scholarly rigour manifested in the contributions, we arrive at the following set of necessarily overlapping categories that can be found in what is broadly known as international and comparative librarianship, listed roughly in chronological order of their appearance:

- Travel and exoticism
- Philanthropy
- Missionary zeal
- Extending national influence
- International understanding
- Internationalism
- Internationalization
- Area studies
- Cooperation
- Policy and advocacy documents
- Innovation
- Advancing knowledge
- Self-understanding
- Conceptual and methodological literature

Travel and exoticism

Exoticism includes curiosity about how things are done in foreign countries, a love of travel and adventure, and the prestige that comes from having been where others have not. "Traveller's tales" were an early tradition that contributed to the development of comparative education. These descriptions of educational practices in other countries often provided ammunition for critiques of practices in the traveller's own country (Altbach and Kelly 1986, 3). In our own field Rayward (1979, 222–24) categorized works that arises from this motive as 'travelogues', describing this genre as "narrative and conversational in style rather than analytical, derived almost entirely from the direct personal experience which it reports", and of severely limited scholarly value. As examples of this genre he cited McCarthy's (1975) book on developing libraries in Brazil and Paraguay, as well as a book, *Library life – American style*, by the well-known American library humourist, Arthur Plotnik (1975), which might be of interest to non-American readers. Rayward also classifies here the well-known account of North American librarianship by Munthe (1939), referred to earlier. This genre is still very much alive and present in the less scholarly LIS magazines. An example is a special issue on international librarianship in volume 6, no. 4, 2000, of the *OLA quarterly*, the journal of the Oregon Library Association. It is also found in accounts of librarians from developed countries who travel to exotic locations on government-sponsored cultural diplomacy missions, for example a narrative by Salisbury (2011) of her visit to Kyrgyzstan.

In a discussion of early conceptions of travel in relation to comparative education, Gonon (2004) developed a typology of travel: pilgrimage, cultivated travel (the educational tour), and exploration, applying this to the travels of educationalists. He concluded that foreign travel contributed to the growth of scholarship and internationalisation. Given that comparative education initially served as a model for comparative librarianship, it would be interesting to investigate whether travel had a comparable influence in our field.

In the context of exoticism it is of interest to note the insightful classification of approaches of colonialists to foreign cultures, as outlined by Amartya Sen (2005) in his book *The argumentative Indian.* Sen wrote about British colonial attitudes to Indian culture over the three centuries or so that the British – first the British East India Company and from 1858 the British Crown – expanded their influence over that subcontinent and ruled over it. He distinguished between curatorial, magisterial and exoticist approaches in roughly successive periods. I will return to Sen's categories in Chapter 9, but here I note that in the third phase, Sen depicts the "fragile enthusiasm" of exoticism, exemplified by the late 20th century westerners who travelled to India to "find" themselves. In this connection it is interesting to consider the attitude of western scholars to eastern cultures as critiqued by Edward Said (1979) in his influential book, *Orientalism.* According to Said, orientalism – the way Western scholars approached their subject – purveyed a misleading and romanticized image of the East, particularly of Arab culture. Portraying other peoples as quaint and not to be taken quite seriously, provides a rationale for imperial hegemony.

Philanthropy and ameliorative motives

The second motive is *philanthropy*, love of, or concern for, our fellow humans. Here we find accounts by librarians and students who have travelled to other countries to assist in library development there. Accounts of their experiences also tend to be anecdotal and descriptive,

with occasional analytical and evaluative elements, as in articles by Bywater (1998) on her work in Cambodia, by Nixon (2003) on her work as a volunteer in a poor community in Kwa-Zulu-Natal, South Africa, and by Lee (2011) on a book donation project in Ethiopia, published in *Colorado libraries*, the journal of the Colorado Association of Libraries. This is not to say that these are not laudable efforts. The reports can be very insightful, e.g. an account by Camins-Esakov (2008), who described aid projects in Afghanistan..

Closely allied to philanthropy is what one might call *missionary zeal*. This is manifested in an article by Swank (1963), who identified "six items for export", namely characteristics of American librarianship that he considered deserving of emulation in other countries, for example the evolution of the library profession, the attitude of service, and the role of the library in promoting intellectual freedom. Swank particularly envisaged "exporting" these concepts to developing countries. The enthusiasm of American libraries to "spread the word"' and "assist library economy in other less enlightened or economically endowed countries" (Brewster 1976, 194–95) is reflected in the work of the ALA from the early 20th Century onwards. Writing two decades after Swank, Lester Asheim (1985) revisited this theme in a more nuanced and self-critical frame of mind. In his *Portrait of librarianship in developing societies*, Briquet de Lemos (1981, 1) wrote caustically:

> Much information about library and information services in the developing world has been produced by expatriates and foreign advisers reporting their impressions. Some have gone with the idea – either proclaimed or disguised – of reporting the idiosyncrasies of alien people and institutions to enlighten those who believe that the earth has not [sic] edges and ends a few kilometers away.

Extending national influence

Often interwoven with the previous two motives is that of *extending national influence* (cultural, economic or political) through foreign aid for library development. There is a huge literature on the work of the British Council (e.g. Gummer 1966; Kraske 1980; O'Connor and Roman 1994), the United States Department of State (formerly carried out by the United States Information Services, USIS) (e.g. Collett 1972; Brewster 1976; P. P. Price 1982; Richards 2001) or Germany's Goethe Institut (e.g. Reimer-Bohner 2000; Boyer 2012) in providing library and information services and in stimulating and assisting the development of libraries in many countries. For a critique of USIS libraries in the 1960s, see Asheim (1966). Such activities are not entirely altruistic, the intention being to extend or strengthen the influence of the country providing the assistance, and they should be seen against the background of the waxing and waning of the realist and liberal schools of foreign relations thinking referred to in Section 1.8. Accounts in this genre tend to be descriptive or promotional, but insufficiently evaluative. Among the goals identified by Carrol (1970a, 43–55) in the work discussed in Section 1.8, are two that are relevant here:

- To advance the objectives of US foreign policy (including the combating of communism and the strengthening of relations with the allies of the USA)
- To promote international understanding and appreciation of the United States

Area studies

In the same section it was suggested that area studies came into being in US universities thanks to generous funding made available by the US Federal Government for strategic reasons. According to Rayward (1979, 225) *area studies* has generated an "operational or

pragmatic" category of literature, which addresses practical issues of acquiring library materials from other countries, especially developing regions (e.g. Shepard 1968; Mirsky, Miller, and Lo 2000). It includes proceedings of conferences and specialist meetings. In the USA concern was already being expressed in the 1950s about problems experienced by libraries in identifying and acquiring materials from many foreign countries (Fall 1954; Wadsworth 1954), with solutions seen in various cooperative schemes and especially in the international acquisition activities of the Library of Congress (Lorenz 1972; Thuku 1999). These activities have given rise to a number of specialist organizations such as SCOLMA, UK Libraries and Archives Group on Africa,[1] formerly known as the Standing Committee on Library Materials on Africa, which since 1973 has published a journal, *African research and documentation.*[2] Its US counterpart is the Africana Librarians Council, which is affiliated to the Africa Studies Association (ASA),[3] and publishes the *Africana libraries newsletter.*[4] In support of area studies there are also regional microfilming and digitization programmes such as the Cooperative Africana Materials Project (CAMP).[5] Rayward includes here the literature on international systems of bibliographic control and availability of publications, which I have placed in the category of 'international cooperation', below.

International understanding

International understanding and the promotion of international peace have been significant motives for the international bibliographic and documentation projects of the liberal internationalists since the late 19th century, as indicated in the previous chapter, Section 1.8. It was also manifested in international library projects in the period following the First World War (cf. Witt 2013; Witt 2014). The International Committee on Intellectual Cooperation of the League of Nations involved itself in library matters. Similarly, UNESCO, which enshrined the promotion of international peace in its constitution, from the outset saw libraries as agencies for promoting peace through international understanding. This was stated explicitly in the *UNESCO public library manifesto* (UNESCO 1949):

> [Unesco's] aim is to promote peace and social and spiritual welfare by working through the minds of men. The creative power of Unesco is the force of knowledge and international understanding.
> This manifesto, by describing the potentialities of the public library, proclaims Unesco's belief in the public library as a living force for popular education and for the growth of international understanding, and thereby for the promotion of peace.

In comparative education the improvement of international education is a long-standing tradition. Altbach and Kelly (1986, 4) referred to a "humanitarian and ameliorative element" that motivated educators to contribute to world peace and development. As mentioned earlier, international understanding was one of the major goals identified by Carroll (1970a, 43–55), who distinguished three dimensions:

- Attitude (an affective dimension concerned with feelings of friendliness and willingness to co-operate)

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[1] SCOLMA, "About us", http://scolma.org/about/, accessed 2016-07-09.
[2] SCOLMA, "African research and documentation", http://scolma.org/category/ard/, accessed 2016-07-09.
[3] Africana Librarians Council, http://www.library.upenn.edu/collections/africa/ALC/, accessed 2016-07-09.
[4] Indiana University Bloomington Libraries, "Africana libraries newsletter",
https://libraries.indiana.edu/africana-libraries-newsletter-0, accessed 2015-09-13.
[5] Center for Research Libraries, "CAMP", https://www.crl.edu/programs/camp, accessed 2016-07-09.

- Knowledge (a cognitive dimension concerned with understanding the behavior of other people)
- Strategic knowledge (another cognitive dimension concerned with understanding the intentions of others with a view to decision-making, e.g. in foreign policy)

Internationalism, internationalization and international cooperation

In Chapter 1 various strands of *internationalism* were discussed. In international librarianship the term has been used quite loosely to refer to an idealistic, liberal internationalist motive. For example, librarians engaged in international co-operation are described by K.C. Harrison (1989, xv) as "citizens of the world with a strong faith that what they are supporting is really worthwhile and that both short-term and long-term good will come from it". Stueart (2007, 1) characterized internationalism briefly as "the sharing of concerns and the promotion of cooperation among nations", adding that "perhaps there is no discipline in which internationalism is more obvious than librarianship". Internationalism in this sense is an attitude in favour of international cooperation and it is difficult to distinguish from the motive of international understanding. It can also denote a more general international orientation and awareness. Thus internationalism can be summed up as an 'internationally minded' orientation which, in our context, gives rise to international scholarly exchanges, international cooperation among libraries, and international LIS education. In higher education generally the word 'internationalism" is often used in relation to internationalization.

Internationalization has both passive and active senses. In our field, in the passive sense it refers to what is happing to librarianship and information work as a result of various factors such as changes in international relations, communications, technological developments and information access – factors that impel LIS workers to take note of international developments and adapt their attitudes and practices in various ways (Stueart 2007, 1–2). In this sense the word is more or less synonymous with 'globalization'. In the active sense internationalization refers to the action of rendering something (more) international, for example by adding to it elements from other countries or extending its scope to multiple countries. It is in this sense that the word internationalization occurs frequently in higher education, being defined broadly by the American Council on Education (2012, 1) as "institutional efforts to integrate an international, global, and/or intercultural dimension into the teaching, research, or service functions of higher education". In LIS the term also occurs in relation to higher education for LIS. A substantial literature on this arose, especially in two phases: in the USA in the 1970s and 1980s, Europe in the first decade of the 21s century and later, and more recently again in the USA.

The work of Frances Laverne Carroll was noted in Section 1.8. Carroll followed up her dissertation (Carroll 1970a) with other writings (Carroll 1970b; Carroll 1972; Carroll 1979). In a later edited volume (Harvey and Carroll 1987) the topic was dealt with by various authors, the editors defining internationalization as "…the process by which a nationalistic library school topic, an entire curriculum, or an entire school is changed into one with a significant and varied international thrust, the process whereby it is permeated with international policies, viewpoints, ideas and facts" (Harvey and Carroll 1987, x). Other North American authors (e.g. Harry C Campbell 1970; Sharify 1972) also contributed, in some cases describing courses and curricula on international and comparative librarianship (e.g. Sable and Deya 1970; Boaz 1977). In 1988 a gathering of doctoral students at the University of Pittsburgh's School of Library and Information Science, provided a range of perspectives on the experiences of "international" (i.e. foreign) LIS students studying at US universities

(Tallman and Ojiambo 1990). Another education issue, that of the international harmonization of LIS qualifications, was discussed at an international symposium in Paris in 1984 (International Symposium on Harmonization 1984). The interest in internationalization of LIS education in the USA coincided with a period during which Federal funding was available for strategic programmes of international studies, including area studies, as referred to in Chapter 1.

Since the turn of the century the internationalization of LIS education has generated a considerable literature in Europe, where internationalization often means Europeanization in response to European Union initiatives such as the Bologna Process (dealt with in Chapter 8). These have given rise to much discussion on cooperation among LIS schools (I. M. Johnson 2000; Pors 2002; Mezick and Koenig 2008; Krakowska 2009; Tammaro 2014) including two volumes of conference proceedings edited by Tammaro (Tammaro 2002; 2006). From the literature and personal conversations with Italian colleagues I gained the impression that at least in Italy, if not in Europe more generally, Europeanization has given considerable impetus to international librarianship, but with the focus very much on processes taking place in the European Union. These processes are not limited to LIS education and the Bologna Process, but include standardization, benchmarking, and European harmonization and cooperation in various spheres (cf. Vitiello 1996a; Vitiello 2014).

Elsewhere too, internationalization of LIS education remains a significant topic (e.g. Abdullahi and Kajberg 2004; Abdullahi, Kajberg, and Virkus 2007; I. M. Johnson 2009).

Librarians have a long and honourable tradition of *international cooperation* (Wessels 1955; Jefferson 1977, chap. 9). Peter Havard-Williams (1972, 170) went so far as to make cooperation the central theme of international librarianship. He wrote: "I define international librarianship as co-operative activity in the field of librarianship done for the benefit of the individual librarian in the whole of the world, and done frequently by the likes of you and me". A good overview of early international library cooperation was given by Krüss (1961), supplemented by Breycha-Vauthier (1961), and by Wormann (1968). Most general works on international librarianship touch on the theme. Mudd and Haven (2009) presented a future-oriented view, while a recent edited book (Chakraborty and Das 2014) covers a wide range of cooperative LIS activities. There are many accounts of international cooperative schemes for particular types of libraries (e.g. Seidman 1993), types of materials (e.g. Ronan 2005), subject fields (e.g. Shibanda 1995; Butler et al. 2006), or regions (e.g. Aman 1991; Hazen 2000; Iivonen, Sonnewald, and Parma 2001). Mention was made in Section 1.8 of the IFLA core programmes of Universal Bibliographic Control (UBC) (Anderson 2000) and Universal Availability of Publications (UAP) (Gould and Watkins 1998), both of which were supported by UNESCO. In the UAP programme much use was made of Maurice Line's procedure (e.g. Line et al. 1980) of outlining typical national models, to be used in comparing the characteristics, requirements, benefits and disadvantages of various schemes (e.g. centralized vs. decentralized). The UBC and UAP programmes were terminated in 2003 (Parent 2004). International cooperation in respect of document supply, bibliographic standards, preservation and other technical areas, has given rise to a category which Rayward (1979, 231) has called "operational literature". These are documents that "attempt to specify the form and nature of cooperation involved" in international programmes. They include the various international cataloguing and other bibliographic codes, manuals and standards issued by international organizations. A great deal of standardization and norm-setting is taking place in Europe, in the European Union and also through the Council of Europe (Vitiello 1996c; Vitiello 2014).

Policy and advocacy documents

Given rapid developments in information and communications technologies and the accompanying phenomena of globalization and disintermediation, efficient cooperation among librarians worldwide is needed for the profession to participate effectively in the global forums that develop policy and international legislation in fields relevant to LIS. These are forums such as the World Intellectual Property Organisation (WIPO) and the World Trade Organisation (WTO) (e.g. Scott 2004; Agada et al. 2009) and the World Summit on the Information Society (WSIS) (e.g. Berry 2006; Haavisto and Mincio 2007), where far-reaching decisions are made that affect free and fair access to information resources in libraries serving the peoples of the world. Advocacy work in these fields has generated an ever-increasing volume of *policy and advocacy documents*, for example documents produced by IFLA, the European Bureau of Library, Information and Documentation Associations (EBLIDA), and Electronic Information for Libraries (EIFL) (e.g. Crews 2014; EIFL 2014; Marlin 2014). A recent example is the intensive lobbying by IFLA and other library organizations, as expressed in the Lyon Declaration (IFLA 2014) for the inclusion of access to information and libraries in United Nations post-2015 development agenda (IFLA 2016).

Up to this point, the themes, genres and motives that I have categorized mainly occur in the literature of international librarianship. In the categories that follow are more evident in comparative librarianship.

Improving practice

As is evident from Danton's (1973) review referred to earlier, improving practice in LIS by learning from good practice in libraries in other countries has been seen as an important motive in the advent of comparative librarianship. Collings (1971, 493–94) listed seven practical goals motivating study and research in comparative librarianship: to provide guidelines for proposed new library programmes, to help analyse and solve common library problems, to assess the possibility of adapting practices and solutions, to provide background for foreign library assignments and visits, to facilitate exchanges of library materials and information, to enrich LIS education, and to contribute to international understanding and library development. Collings dealt with the question of adopting practices in a particularly cautious and tentative way:

> …to stimulate and assist judicious consideration and possible adaptation of promising practices and solutions to library problems from one area to another while guarding against indiscriminate emulation (p.494).

Possibly Collings was trying to warn against too much emphasis on adopting practices, a motive which is very widespread in the early literature of comparative librarianship. An example is found in the second of three essays on comparative librarianship submitted for the (British) Library Association's Sevensma Prize in 1971. In his essay, R.K. Gupta (1973, 44) emphasized that the "higher end" of comparative librarianship is to

> ...act as a tool in determining the suitability of borrowing meaningfully the patterns under study *in toto* or partially. The main strength of the comparative librarianship approach, therefore, lies in its ability to lay bare the suitability/adaptability or otherwise of a library pattern or technique under study. The realm of comparative librarianship is not theory but application...

In tracing the origins of comparative librarianship, Krzys and Litton (1983, 8–12) traced this motive back to classical antiquity, but it seems that they were confusing the comparison of library techniques and processes with comparative librarianship as a systematic and scholarly activity.

Many statements similarly emphasize the practical value of both international and comparative librarianship in facilitating innovation through the borrowing and adapting of ideas from libraries in other countries. Harrison (1989, xii) stated that "…librarians with weather-eyes on professional practices in other countries have been able to adopt, adapt and apply many of these to their own library situations." Such transplanting has occurred particularly in technical library processes. This has led to writings of a technical and evaluative nature. In the introduction to a new column, "International perspectives on academic libraries" in the *Journal of academic librarianship*, the editors of the column wrote:

> It is hoped that this column will help broaden the journal's perspective outside North America; raise issues faced by academic librarians in the developing as well as the developed world; and identify issues that are common to all academic libraries, but to which the solutions must sometimes be modified to suit particular countries, cultures or economic environments. It should also be remembered that, although North American academic libraries are the driving force behind much innovation in the LIS field and are the source of much new thinking in the discipline, librarians in other countries have sometimes to deal with certain issues before they become critical in the United States or Canada; hence there will be times that the flow of information will travel in the other direction (Calvert and Cullen 2001, 394).

Although this statement strikes the non-North American reader as somewhat parochial if not self-satisfied, the recognition that the traffic of ideas and innovation can be two-way, is worth noting. It raises questions about who can borrow or learn from whom, and questions the assumption that learning and borrowing should always be a one-way process. Writing from an Italian perspective, Vitiello (1996a, 7–8) suggested that a distinction should be made between two comparative approaches. One seeks to graft concepts and models developed elsewhere in more highly developed systems (e.g. in the "Anglo-Saxon" countries) onto local traditions. The other gives consideration to less prominent models, such as that of public library development in Portugal, which nevertheless can serve as "reference models" because they are adaptable to local conditions.

A pragmatic desire to learn from other countries and 'borrow', adopt or adapt technologies, systems, or policies found there, has been a significant motivator for comparative librarianship. The motive of 'borrowing' ideas and policies occurs not only in LIS but in other disciplines, such as education (Altbach and Kelly 1986, 3–5; Hayhoe and Mundy 2008, 9) and social policy (Hantrais 2009, 9–11). This process is not without risks, as will be considered in Part III of this book.

Perspective

Related to the above is the motive of seeking to understand one's own situation. For example, Asheim (1989, viii) listed a number of factors outside of librarianship that determine who uses libraries, how and why, and what barriers inhibit their use. He pointed out that such factors operate everywhere, "…but somehow we can see and understand this much more clearly in a foreign setting than we can when we are looking at a phenomenon with which we

feel comfortably 'at home'". This motive is concerned with *self-understanding*, which represents considerable progress from the starting point of exoticism. This is also reflected in the last of Carroll's (1970a) minor goals: "to gain perspective on one's own values and traditions". In the broader context of comparative social policy, Jones (1985, 3–4) considered comparative studies as a necessity, since "it provides a better understanding of the home social policy environment". He added that the increasing use of international comparisons for political purposes makes it incumbent on professionals to understand and comment on such situations. Forewarned is forearmed.

Advancing knowledge

The quest for advancing knowledge includes description, analysis, classification and comparison in order to arrive at generalized statements that explain phenomena and yield greater understanding. In his Foreword to Harrison's *International librarianship*, Lester Asheim (1989, vii) pointed to the value of

> …learning-through-participation… not only through actual practice as a librarian in some other country, but also through the mutual exchange of ideas and viewpoints made possible through international associations… Both of these… provide the librarian with the opportunity to have direct contact with the practice and philosophy of library service in varying circumstances and at different levels of societal development, and from this insight, to identify and appreciate the many factors outside of librarianship itself that shape and define the nature of a library's services and its social role.

This suggests that international comparisons can provide insights that are less readily gained from the study of library conditions in a single country. It is a point quite frequently made in the literature of comparative as well as international librarianship. Collings (1971, 493) stated that "the basic purpose of comparative librarianship as a subject of scholarly concern is to seek full understanding and correct interpretation of the library system or problem under review". However, she mainly emphasized "pragmatic goals" such as providing guidelines for adopting programs from or in other countries. In their book, *World librarianship: a comparative study*, Krzys and Litton (1983, 5) cited the purely scientific objective of "formulating hypotheses, theories, and laws that will explain, predict, and control the phenomenon [under investigation]". Their expectation was that the diverse national practices found in librarianship throughout the world would ultimately converge into a "global librarianship" (1983, vii). Their book was intended to advance this evolution. The assumption that such a global homogenisation is desirable is, however, open to question.

A different angle was suggested by Volodin (1998, 125). In an article on the development of scholarly libraries in Russia, he described the evolution of Russian scholarly libraries during the Soviet period, making some interesting points about difficulties of understanding these libraries from a Western perspective:

> An accurate description of the processes which influence the development of libraries in contemporary Russia in the context of the development of library science globally would allow us to understand why this country reacts differently to the same problems of research library development existing in other countries. A deeper understanding of the domestic situation might help illuminate connections between political order and cultural tradition. At the threshold of the new century the problems faced today by our colleagues around the world are similar. But different societies respond differently to the same challenges.

Underestimation or ignorance of these processes cripples attempts at international cooperation.

Here an important interaction between studies at the national and international levels is suggested. We can make more sense of the way situations develop in individual countries if we can see them in a global context – but understanding of the global context derives from studies of librarianship within the political and cultural context of individual countries.

The theme of international librarianship, and especially comparative librarianship, as a field of scholarly study and teaching using rigorous scientific methods, made its appearance in the 1960s. Danton (1973, 3–5) outlined the development of comparative librarianship, referring to the appearance of the topic in bibliographies and in the curricula of North American and British library schools. Dorothy Collings is credited with designing and teaching (from 1956) the first course in comparative librarianship in the USA, at Columbia University (W. V. Jackson 2001). Collings also authored the first entry for "Comparative Librarianship" in the *Encyclopedia of library and information science (ELIS)* (Collings 1971). It is during the 1970s that greater attention began to be given to the conceptual and methodological aspects and to the distinction between international and comparative librarianship – aspects to be dealt with in the following sections. Progress in the development of international librarianship was reflected in the publication of further articles in *ELIS* on "International and comparative study in librarianship, research methodology" (Krzys 1974a), "World librarianship" (Carroll 1982), "International librarianship" (Bliss 1996), and International and comparative librarianship (Lor 2010).

Starting in 1953 at the University of Chicago, a number of "institutes" (i.e. specialist seminars of a few days' duration) on international and comparative librarianship were held at a number of US universities. The proceedings of the Chicago institute were published (Carnovsky 1954), constituting an early example of a collected work on international librarianship. It included chapters on such topics as UNESCO's library programme, problems of acquiring foreign publications, library development in certain developing regions, and US contributions to foreign library development. It is interesting to note that in several of the chapters the authors showed cultural sensitivity, warning against imposing American models without taking local context into account. The International Library Information Center, described by Krzys (1974b), was established in the Graduate School of Library and Information Sciences, University of Pittsburgh, in 1964 as a "clearinghouse of information on library development, documentation and book production and distribution and as a training and research center". The first of a number of institutes on international and comparative librarianship was held there in 1965 (Sharify and Piggford 1965, 73–74). The ILIC appears to have closed down in 1987.[6] In 1963 five US library schools offered some coursework in comparative librarianship; by 1972 the number had risen to 45 (Danton 1973, 4) and by 1975 to 56 (Boaz 1977, 167). While hard figures are hard to come by, it would seem that this number has declined since then.[7] A survey of 60 LIS schools in North America and Europe found that 65% of North American schools and 48% of European schools had some course

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[6] The ILIC last featured in the University of Pittsburgh directories in the 1986/1987 academic year. It appears that it was closed in 1987 (personal correspondence January 21, 2016, Zachary Brodt, University Archivist, Archives Service Center, University of Pittsburgh).

[7] The ICL Communitas, a web resource for research and teaching in international and comparative librarianship, in early 2016 listed only eight programmes, of which five were in the USA and three in Europe. See http://www.lisuncg.net/icl/educational-resources/database. While I am aware of courses not listed here, and while more can be found by using Google, it is also noticeable that several of these have not been taught for some years.

offerings in international studies (Abdullahi and Kajberg 2004, 350). On the other hand, Rudasill (2009, 512) claimed, but without adducing data, that "[a]n increasing number of library schools are offering courses related to 'international' or 'global studies' librarianship."

By the 1970s international and comparative librarianship was also being taught in the Soviet Union, Britain, Denmark, Germany and Nigeria. In Britain formal teaching of international and comparative librarianship as part of postgraduate LIS curricula had commenced in the mid-1960s (Boaz 1977, 167–69). The International and Comparative Librarianship Group (ICLG) of the Library Association was formed in 1967, following an initiative taken by LIS students. It published a quarterly newsletter, *Focus on international and comparative librarianship* (1967-2000). A report on its first ten years (Dewe 1977) reflected vigorous activity and healthy growth in membership, from around 100 in 1968 to almost 1,500 in 1977. The Group's *Handbook* (Whatley 1977) contained reports on various international activities, a 16-page directory of research into international and comparative librarianship (Biggs 1977) and a 13-page bibliography of over 120 "theoretical writings" about the subject (Simsova 1977). A decade later a new report on the work of the ICLG (I. A. Smith 1986) offered updated content covering much the same scope. It included a second bibliography of international and comparative librarianship, for the period 1976-1985 (Simsova 1986). By then two editions of Simsova's *Handbook of comparative librarianship* had appeared (Simsova and MacKee 1970; Simsova and MacKee 1975), each containing a modest methodological section, "Comparative librarianship and comparative method" (c. 70 pages in 1975), followed by a voluminous and elaborate "Guide to sources" compiled by MacKee. However, this was intended as a guide to sources of information useful for comparative and international studies, not a bibliography of comparative librarianship as such.[8]

The 1986 ICLG report also included a chapter on "British-based research in international and comparative librarianship" (Clow 1986), covering 371 research projects begun in the UK 1976-1985. It contained statistical analyses and evaluative comments, but did not list the research projects. Clow pointed out that the number of research projects was surprisingly large, amounting to perhaps 10% of total British LIS research. He also admitted to the problem of defining international and comparative research, which he took to include "studies concentrating on a particular country or countries outside the [UK]", and distinguishing in practice between "international" and "comparative" studies. Since it is difficult to determine whether a study is truly comparative without reading it, a distinction was made between "single" projects (61% of the total) and "combined" projects (39%), an unknown percentage of which may have been comparative (Clow 1986, 103–4). A more recent article covering the period 1967 to 2001 reflected a range of activities but seemed to be rather focussed on the past. Membership peaked in 1981 with 1,677 members. In 1991 the Group changed its name to "the International Group" of the Library Association (Ladizesky 2004). In 2002 *Focus on international and comparative librarianship* was renamed *Focus on international library and information work* when the ICLG changed its name to International Library and Information Group. The change of name reflects declining interest in comparative librarianship if not in the scholarly study of international librarianship generally.

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[8] The "Guide to sources" was described by Rayward (1979, 218) as "a prodigious amount of curiously arranged, heterogeneous material." A third edition of the "Guide to sources" appeared as a separate work in 1983 (MacKee 1983), confusingly designated as the third edition of the *Handbook*, while the methodological section, "Comparative librarianship and comparative method" (c. 70 pages in 1975) by Simsova that had appeared in the first two editions were replaced by a separate publication, Simsova's (1982) 95-page *Primer of comparative librarianship*..

The changing scene gave rise to considerable soul-searching concerning the relevance and future of the Group (ILIG 2005). The rise and subsequent decline of interest in international and comparative librarianship is reflected in its literature.

During the 1970s considerable discussion had arisen about the distinction between international and comparative librarianship. Definitions will be dealt with more fully below, but at this point it is useful to make a preliminary distinction. In the next two sections, international librarianship is understood as dealing with relationships and interactions between LIS entities, and descriptions of LIS conditions, in more than one country, while comparative librarianship is understood as the scholarly study including explicit comparison of LIS phenomena in more than one country, society or culture.

2.4   The literature of international librarianship

As issues of delimitation arose in the 1970s, the literatures of the two fields also diverged. In this section I give an overview of the literature of international librarianship. I include here literature that predates, or does not take cognizance of, the divergence of comparative and international librarianship.

Bibliographies and overviews

A number of bibliographies allow us to track the growth of the field. The bibliographies produced as part of the work of ILIG (Simsova 1977; Simsova 1986) were mentioned earlier. In an overview of international and comparative librarianship, Fang (1981, 372–74) offered a list of resources, including important journals, monographs, series and reference works. Rooke (1983) published an assessment of six major "international librarianship journals. These were *Focus on international and comparative librarianship*, *IFLA journal*, *International library review*, *Journal of library history, philosophy and comparative librarianship*, *Libri*, and the *UNESCO journal of information science, librarianship and archives administration*. A series of three annotated bibliographies covered the literature over several decades. A bibliography of librarianship and the Third World by Huq and Aman (1977) included a 63-page "international" section covering most of the significant literature on international and comparative librarianship of the period. It was followed by an annotated bibliography on "world librarianship" by Huq (1995), which covered the field of international and comparative librarianship for 1976–1992. This was continued by the selected bibliography compiled by Weintraub (2004) for the period 1993–2003. An annotated selective bibliography of 125 entries by Penchansky and Halicki-Conrad (1986) and a literature review of library aid to developing countries (Curry, Thiessen, and Kelley 2002) may also be mentioned.

A bibliometric analysis of the literature of international and comparative librarianship was reported in a doctoral dissertation by Bliss (1991; 1993b). This covered the literature from 1958 to 1990. The year 1958 was chosen because the subject heading "Librarianship – International aspects" was first used in in *Library literature*, a periodicals index for LIS published in the USA, in that year (Bliss 1991, 9). The term "Comparative librarianship" was added in 1970 (Bliss 1991, 61). In 1991 *Library literature* covered 227 journals, of which 137 were published in the USA and 61 in Europe (Bliss 1991, 59). It is unfortunate that Bliss limited herself to a single, US-published index. One consequence is that she did not include

in her study *Focus on international and comparative librarianship*,[9] quite a significant source in our field, but not covered in *Library literature*. The British *Library and information science abstracts* (1969–) had better coverage of countries other than the USA. In terms of development, Bliss charted the development of the literature from its origins in the late 1950s and early 1960s, to a growth spurt during the late 1960s and early 1970s, and a subsequent decline interrupted by "erratic" fluctuations. Although inspection of the literature shows that international and comparative librarianship were developing as identifiable fields, if not sub-disciplines, in the 1960s and 1970s, Bliss provided no thematic analysis, so that it is not possible to distinguish in her findings between international and comparative librarianship. Neither did Bliss provide an analysis of the literature by quality or genre, so that no distinction was made between anecdotal reports in the more popular professional journals and the more scholarly literature.

In contrast with the quantitative but ultimately superficial analysis provided by Bliss's dissertation, an essay on the literature of approximately the same period by Rayward (1979) provided a qualitative and critical assessment. Rayward was not impressed with the general quality of the literature of international and comparative librarianship, but tempered his occasionally acerbic comments with a sympathetic understanding of the need to affirm an international community. Writing about the conference papers that have found their way into print, he wrote:

> The articles in this class in general are not very long. Their purpose is simple and essentially reportorial; many are not even conceivably "useful." They are examples of an enormous literature, a broad rationalization for which, whatever the range of actual motives that drove its local or foreign authors' pens, is that it promotes international understanding. It is easy to be cynical about this, but such a literature is probably a necessary expression of the existence of an international community… (Rayward 1979, 221).

Edited collections

A feature of the literature of international and comparative librarianship from the 1970s onwards has been the publication of edited collections of chapters by multiple authors. Some of these were published as Festschriften in honour of prominent personalities (for example Vollans 1968; Krol and Nachbahr 1969; Gidwani 1973; Rayward 1979; Gorman 1990). Often the chapters are very diverse or have little bearing on the matter announced in the book's title. A Festschrift for William Welsh, entitled *International librarianship today and tomorrow* (J. W. Price and Price 1985), contained nothing about international librarianship as such. Presumably the title had been chosen because Welsh, at that time Deputy Librarian of Congress, was well-known in international circles and had participated actively in forums such as IFLA and the Conference of Directors of National Libraries. Published proceedings of conference and seminars also offered a mixed bag. The proceedings of the institute held in 1953 at the University of Chicago (Carnovsky 1954) was the first to be devoted to international aspects of librarianship. Various other academic meetings dealt with aspects of international librarianship, at the University of Illinois (Bone 1968), the University of Wisconsin, Madison (e.g. Williamson 1971; Williamson 1976; Krikelas 1988), in Pittsburgh (e.g. Tallman and Ojiambo 1990) and elsewhere. Published conference proceedings have since then proliferated. In particular, the IFLA Publications series,[10] which reached number

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[9] Ironically, *Focus on Indiana libraries* was included, along with most other library magazines of US states.
[10] IFLA, "IFLA Publications Series", http://www.ifla.org/publications/ifla-publications-series. Accessed 2016-07-09.

173 in 2016, comprises mainly proceedings of international meetings organized by IFLA units.

From the 1970s onward edited collections of commissioned chapters became a characteristic component of the literature. Miles M. Jackson (1970) edited the first example of a genre of publications which became typical for international librarianship. In his book, *Comparative and international librarianship: essays on themes and* problems, an initial chapter setting out a theoretical approach to comparative librarianship (Shores 1970) was followed by a chapter on the public libraries of Western Australia. The following chapter, on public libraries in the inner city (Byam 1970) was entirely, and quite unselfconsciously, limited to the USA, as was the next, on school libraries and school librarianship (Whitenack 1970). A mix of further chapters included four regional (multi-country) surveys on specific library types. This pattern – an often indifferent introductory chapter on international and/or comparative librarianship, followed by a miscellany of contributions of the type 'Library Type X or Library Activity Y in Country or Region Z', and in most cases no attempt at a synthesis, comparison or conclusion --- was followed by later editors. Examples are the collections edited by Kawatra (1987), which contained two chapters of a theoretical nature, Kaula, Kumar and Venlatappai (1996), McCook, Ford and Lippincott (1998) and Liu and Cheng (2008). The fairly wide scope of Kesselman and Weintraub's (2004) *Global librarianship* and its inclusion of some substantial thematic chapters has led to its being used as a textbook for the teaching of international librarianship.

Similar to the edited collections of commissioned chapters referred to above, but focussing to a greater or lesser extent on a particular theme, are collections dealing with such matters as LIS education (Gorman 1990), international cooperation (Carroll, Harvey, and Houck 2001; Chakraborty and Das 2014), newspaper librarianship (Walravens and King 2003) and the impact of technology on libraries in developing countries (Sharma 2012a). A number of collections edited by Olden and Wise focussed on developing regions (Olden and Wise 1993; Wise 1985; Wise and Olden 1990; Wise and Olden 1994). Here we tend to find more substantial contributions by the editor of the collection, as in publications edited by Parker on library development planning (Parker 1983) and information consultancy (Parker 1986).

In a later publication, his large-format, over 600-page *International handbook of contemporary developments in librarianship*, Miles Jackson (1981) introduced another genre, the geographically organized collection consisting of chapters arranged continent by continent and country by country, the chapters themselves mostly following a set pattern, by type of library. This too lacked any theoretical introduction or conclusion. Further examples are collections edited by Abdullahi (2009) and Sharma (2012b). Further, more thematically focussed examples of the geographically organized genre also occur, for example Lowrie and Ngakura (1991) on school librarianship. When well organized and edited, such publications can be useful for teaching and as sources of data for comparative studies.

International and regional surveys

This brings us to the international and regional surveys in which one author, or a few co-authors, present descriptive country reports, e.g. Campbell (1967) on the planning of metropolitan libraries, Kaser, Stone and Byrd (1969) and Chandler (1971) on library development in Asia, and Vitiello (1996b) on European libraries. A book on library development in Southeast Asia by Wijasuriya, Huck-Tee and Nadaraja (1975) introduced the notion of "barefoot librarians" (but did little to develop it.) The regional surveys had their

heyday in the 1960s and 1970s, after which more highly structured and more narrowly focussed international survey reports replaced the earlier descriptive and discursive narratives. Examples of works in this large category are surveys of legal deposit legislation (Pomassl 1977; Jasion 1991) special libraries (Halm 1978), African public libraries (Issak 2000), and copyright legislation in Africa (Armstrong et al. 2010) and Latin America (Fernandez-Molina and Chavez Guimarães 2010). With studies such as that of Lajeunesse and Sène (2004) the question arises whether these fall within the realms of international or of comparative librarianship. But before I turn to the latter some further categories of literature on international and comparative librarianship generally will be considered.

Here mention should be made of country and regional reports by consultants commissioned by charitable foundations such as the Carnegie Corporation, for example the reports on library conditions in British colonies in East, Central and Southern Africa (M. J. Ferguson 1929; Pitt 1929), New Zealand (Munn and Barr 1934), Australia (Munn and Pitt 1935) and West Africa (Lancour 1958).

Single-country studies[11]

The ancestor of single-country studies is the often cited work of Munthe (1939). During the mid-1960s to mid-1970s the British library publisher Clive Bingley published a number of concise single-country descriptive studies in the series "Comparative library studies". The countries covered were mainly Commonwealth countries such as Australia (Balnaves and Biskup 1975), and South Africa (Taylor 1967), but there were also volumes on France (J. Ferguson 1971) and the USSR (Francis 1971). Three of the titles were reviewed by Thompson (1972). A country study of a different kind was the study of libraries in Senegal by Maack (1981). This was based on her doctoral dissertation and insightfully traced library development in Senegal in relation to French cultural and colonial policies. After the 1970s such country studies are not numerous, but to some extent this is compensated for by quite substantial entries for many (but by no means all) countries in the *Encyclopedia of library and information science*, especially in its first edition, 1968-2003.[12] Of course, as reflected in the bibliographies cited earlier, many thousands of periodical articles and book chapters on libraries in the countries of the world have appeared and continue to appear, some of which will be referred to in later chapters as appropriate.

Special topics

The involvement of UNESCO in the promotion of library services gave rise to many publications, including a series of ten UNESCO public library manuals published between 1949 (Danton 1949) and 1959 (Galvin and Van Buren 1959), after which the series was continued with the same numbering but under another title, "UNESCO manuals for libraries" to reflect a broader scope. Apart from these series, UNESCO published significant manifestos, manuals and guidelines which influenced library development world-wide, for example the *UNESCO library manifesto* (UNESCO 1949; UNESCO 1994), guidelines for legal deposit legislation (Lunn 1981; Larivière 2000), manuals for devising national information policies (e.g. Montviloff 1990), surveys of bibliographic services throughout the world (e.g. Beaudiquez 1977), and more recently important compilations on matters such as

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[11] As will be discussed in Section 2.6 below, single-country studies do not strictly speaking fall within international librarianship.
[12] The third edition (2010–) lacked entries for some countries that had been included in the first.

the preservation of digital heritage (UNESCO 2003), knowledge societies (UNESCO 2005), and endangered languages (Moseley 2012). On a smaller scale, international NGOs such as FID (until 2000) and IFLA have also contributed publications on these themes.

A number of doctoral dissertations on various topics in international librarianship also appeared during the 1960s to 1980s, on topics such as internationalization of LIS education (Carroll 1970a) and American influence on LIS in other countries (Danton 1957; Rochester 1981; Horrocks 1971). Maack's (1978) study of French influence in Senegal was mentioned earlier. A more recent example was a study of IFLA's core programme on Freedom of Information and Freedom of Expression (FAIFE) (Byrne 2007). Significant monographs during this period included those of Asheim (1966) on librarianship in developing countries. It was followed by critical assessments of Western influence by Briquet de Lemos (1981), Amadi (1981) and Gassol de Horowitz (1988). A slim volume on international dimensions of librarianship and documentation (Coblans 1974) was the nearest the field came to producing to a general textbook on international librarianship, as distinct from comparative librarianship, which is dealt with below. A small number of monographs on more specialized topics also appeared. These included a ground-breaking study on international influence (Danton 1957), a study of Indo-American library relations (Konnur 1990), a detailed study of UNESCO's role in library development planning (Parker 1985), and an influential reflection on the role of culture in library development (Benge 1979).

The current state of the literature of international librarianship

The literature of international librarianship appears to be overwhelmingly in English. In part this may be a reflection of the Anglo-American dominance in LIS generally. It may also reflect the biases inherent in the bibliographic databases available to the author. Requests were directed to colleagues in a number of other language regions. Colleagues in Latin America failed to respond. Responding to my request, the National Library of Singapore compiled a useful annotated bibliography of work about library development in Southeast Asia, but the items were overwhelmingly in English. Some literature in French, German, Italian and Spanish was located. More exhaustive efforts may have yielded more. Serious and sustained study in international librarianship requires the resources of large LIS schools offering a wide range of elective courses. Most of such schools are found in the USA.

The literature is highly fragmented. Although a number of journals can be identified in which relevant articles are frequently published (e.g. *Focus on international library and information work*, *IFLA journal*, *Information development*, *International information and library review*, *Journal of library history* (under its various titles, latterly *Information & culture*), *Library trends*, *Libri*, *New library world*, and *World libraries*), writings in the field appear in a wide range of journals, conference proceedings and other publications. Much of the literature is descriptive and operational, describing and discussing practical activities and programmes in the international arena. Scholarly research forms only a very small subset of the literature. As Rayward (1979, 224–25) pointed out,

> All of this literature strengthens the international community by spreading information about it, by encouraging changes and adjustments in it as a basis for wider support, and by promoting acceptance of and participation in it.

To this I may add that the descriptive and operational literature of international librarianship albeit often anecdotal and unsystematic, can be useful for in historical and comparative

studies for factual information about past developments that might not otherwise be readily available. But it has to be used with discretion.

No particular research method is associated with international librarianship. Given the nature and wide scope of the field, any research method applied in LIS can be applied in international librarianship, provided that researchers take into account the challenges inherent in international, cross-cultural and cross-societal research. However, much of the research is poorly conceptualized and fails to apply theory from LIS itself, or failing that, from other social science disciplines.

Reporting on her bibliometric study, Bliss (1991, 38–39) commented:

> As a body of literature, international librarianship is neither substantive nor analytical. It is more enumerative and factual. It appears to be suffering from the same ailments as the profession as a whole. While it purports to deal with the single most crucial resource of our time, it conducts itself in a parochial, myopic and inert fashion.[13]

Since this was written, there has been some improvement. It is the purpose of this book to promote that improvement.

2.5   The literature of comparative librarianship[14]

Conceptual and methodological literature

From the 1970s onwards attention was paid to conceptual and methodological aspects, but with the exception of a useful attempt by Parker (1974) to define international librarianship and delimit its scope, this concern was mainly limited to comparative librarianship. The importance and value of comparative studies were argued, emphasis was placed on the need for rigorous scientific methodology, and methodological guidelines were developed (Simsova and MacKee 1970; Simsova and MacKee 1975; Collings 1971; Harvey 1977). This continued in the early 1980s (Keresztesi 1981; Krzys and Litton 1983; Simsova 1982). Already in 1976 there was enough interest in comparative librarianship for the publication of a *Reader in comparative librarianship* edited by Foskett (1976b), which brought together commissioned chapters as well as reprints of articles. With some exceptions, e.g. Bliss (1993b) and Vitiello (1996a) most of the conceptual and methodological contributions that followed were derivative and added little substance.

The authors of the 1970s and 1980s publications in comparative librarianship tended to cite one another and comment on one another's work, so that during this period a discernible nucleus of literature could be said to exist in comparative librarianship. However, much of the literature was concerned with inconclusive attempts to distinguish between the comparative and international librarianship, a matter which is dealt with in the next section. By 1977 Danton felt that enough had been written *about* the two fields but that actual work *in* comparative librarianship was meagre. He suggested. "Let's call a moratorium on writing *about* the subject and devote our energies to doing comparative work" (Danton 1977, 13). Literature on international and comparative librarianship as fields of study (as distinct from work *in* these two fields) petered out in the 1980s.

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[13] Presumably the last sentence refers to librarianship as a whole.
[14] In this section I have made liberal use of an article published in *Journal of documentation* (Lor 2014).

Initial inspiration for comparative librarianship had come from more established comparative disciplines. Danton (1973) reviewed work in comparative linguistics, law and education going back to the 19th century and including works in several European languages. In a wide-ranging and thoughtful essay on comparative librarianship from a European perspective, Vitiello (1996a) discussed the origins of comparative studies, with emphasis on comparative linguistics and anthropology and their development over time, mentioning the importance of evolutionism as a conceptual framework (1996a, 11–12). Foskett's (1976b) reader included reprints of articles from comparative social anthropology, religion, law, and linguistics, and several from comparative education. Elsewhere Foskett (1977) referred to comparative politics and law, but placed most emphasis on comparative education. Of all the comparative fields, comparative education was most often held up as a model for comparative librarianship. Lajeunesse (1993, 6) concurred, arguing that comparative librarianship is more closely related to comparative education than to any other comparative field. Both education and librarianship have many concerns in common, dealing with physical institutions, political and institutional jurisdictions, administrative issues, and public service. Comparative education is a well-developed field. A number of journals are devoted to it, e.g. *Comparative education review* (1957-), *Comparative education* (1964-) and *Current issues in comparative education* (1998-). Since 1970 there exists a World Council for Comparative Education Societies. Its membership comprises over thirty national professional associations concerned with comparative education.[15] Similar publications and forums exist for other comparative fields.

It is in methodology that the influence of comparative education is particularly noticeable. Three texts on comparative education, by Bereday (1964), Holmes (1965) and Noah and Eckstein (1969), appear to have been particularly influential, being not infrequently cited in the early writings on comparative librarianship by influential authors such as Simsova and MacKee (1970; 1975), Danton (1973) and Foskett (1965a; 1977; 1979). Simsova devoted three chapters (some 22 pages) to methodology, dealing with the choice of a topic, collecting and interpreting data, and "patterns of comparison" (Simsova and MacKee 1970). The latter, rather muddled, chapter dealt most specifically with comparative method. Here formulaic patterns of comparison inspired by Bereday were presented (1970, 53–60). This approach was developed somewhat in her *Primer* (Simsova 1982), which reflected the influence of Foskett as well as Bereday. It includes two comparisons of imaginary countries, intended to illustrate the method. The monograph by Danton (1973) included a 45-page chapter on methodology. It was considerably more scholarly, reflecting contemporary American thinking on the use of the scientific method in librarianship, as exemplified by Herbert Goldhor's (1969) text on scientific research in librarianship. Danton cited a considerable number of research methodology texts, including education methodology texts popular in the 1960s, e.g. Mouly (1963) and Van Dalen (1966), as well as the above-mentioned works of Bereday (1964), and Noah and Eckstein (1969). In his discussion of the scientific method, Danton emphasized the importance of hypotheses as a key step, to be followed by the collection and interpretation of data, then the more strictly comparative steps of juxtaposition and comparison, and finally the search for "causes, explanations, and principles" (1973, 122). The general tenor was that comparative librarianship, as a very young field of study, should emulate the more mature sciences in seeking to establish scientific laws. Somewhat later, in a monograph on comparative "world librarianship", Krzys and Litton (1983, 27–54) elaborated

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[15] The website of the World Council for Comparative Education Societies lists 42 members. Not all of these, however, are exclusively devoted to comparative education. See http://wcces.com/alphbetical.html, accessed 2016-02-04.

a research methodology comprising stages of description, interpretation, juxtaposition and comparison. This was illustrated by means of a diagram adapted from Bereday (1964, 28).[16]

Generally speaking, the methodological literature of the first two decades of comparative librarianship shows a rather rigid, mechanistic and formulaic approach, and great concern with following the example of what were seen as the more highly developed sciences, in the pursuit of the classic goals of natural scientists, namely explanation, prediction and control. As such this is not a problem. What is a problem, is that this is where methodological reflection in comparative librarianship ended. Newer thinking in comparative education and other comparative disciplines has somehow had little or no impact on comparative librarianship. More recent literature on international librarianship by Bliss (1993b), Vitiello (1996a), Lor (2008; 2010) and Tammaro (2009) has not added significantly to the earlier work. Examination of journal articles purporting to report comparative research during the period 2005-2009 (Lor 2014) and subsequently, reveals that it is rare to find references either to the earlier conceptual and methodological literature of comparative librarianship, or to any other conceptual or methodological literature from any field or period.

While there has been little or no new methodological discussion in comparative librarianship since the 1980s, other comparative fields have moved on beyond the essentially positivist perspective of Eckstein and Noah and their contemporaries. They have continued to develop the conceptual and methodological basis for comparative studies (De Cruz 1999, e.g.; Dogan and Kazancigil 1994; Hantrais 2009; Landman 2008; Pennings, Keman, and Kleinnijenhuis 2006; Przeworski and Teune 1970), and to sustain lively conceptual and methodological debates (Cowen 2006; Crossley 2002; Ragin 1987; Sartori 1991; Schriewer 2006). In contrast, comparative librarianship has failed to develop a conceptual and methodological basis.

Comparative studies

As Danton (1977, 13) had suggested, the output of actual comparative studies did not match the conceptual and methodological discussions. This is not to say that no interesting studies have been published in comparative librarianship. Here I omit the single-country studies, which I have mentioned under international librarianship. Most regional and international (i.e. worldwide) surveys also belong under international librarianship, unless they include a significant and explicit comparative analysis. There is a large body of *incidental comparisons*, which we typically find in reports of study visits (e.g. Kulish 2001; German 2006), internships and job exchanges (e.g. Bobinski and Kocojowa 1998; M. Johnson, Shi, and Shao 2010; Kintz 2011), international education programmes (e.g. Nekolova 2003; B. F. Williams, Rakhmatullaev, and Corradini 2013), library twinning (e.g. Griner, Herron, and Pedersoli 2007), aid projects (e.g. Gundersen and Kubecka 2011; Mayo 2014), and, in the case of colleges and universities, of the operation of libraries on campuses in other countries (e.g. Hammond 2009; Wand 2011).

Under *institutional comparisons* I place comparisons of libraries in more than one country, which do *not* contribute much to comparative librarianship because little or no attempt is made to relate the similarities and differences that are observed to social, cultural or other contextual factors in the countries where the institutions are located (e.g. Balagué and Saarti 2009; Lobina 2006; MacKnight 2008).

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[16] Krzys and Litton incorrectly attributed it to Van Dalen.

Having eliminated the above borderline categories, we are left with a much more limited corpus of true comparative studies. These include a few comprehensive comparisons and many studies of more limited scope. The latter are usually limited to a particular type of library or a library function, activity or an issue such as LIS education or legislation. The resulting literature can be roughly categorized as follows:

- Comprehensive comparisons (dealing with all aspects)
- Type of library
- Library function, process or activity
- Infrastructural or contextual factors or issues
- Combinations of the above

Comprehensive comparisons, in which all aspects of librarianship in two or more countries are compared, have proved in most cases to be too ambitious for successful realization. An early example by Duran (1976), then a doctoral fellow at the University of Wisconsin, Madison, compared library development in Jamaica and Puerto Rico comprehensively and systematically. Following on her study of Senegal, referred to earlier, Maack (1982) contributed an insightful comparison of two former French colonies (Senegal and Ivory Coast) and two former British colonies (Ghana and Nigeria), paying particular attention to the colonial legacies and various determinants of library development. The most ambitious attempt was *World librarianship: a comparative study*, by Krzys and Litton (1983), who attempted to formulate "a metalibrarianship, the philosophy and theory underlying the practice of librarianship throughout the world" (p.3). Their methodology (described in more detail in Chapter 5) was strongly influenced by Bereday (1964) and reflected an assumption that scientific laws can be formulated in librarianship and that all librarianship everywhere will ultimately converge towards a global librarianship. However, given the ambitious aim, the end result was rather disappointing. Krzys and Litton did not find followers, but it is interesting to note that some elements of the comprehensive approach reappeared in Europe in the 1996, with the publication of a book-length overview by Vitiello (1996b) of libraries in Europe, which included a more detailed comparison of the French, Danish and German library systems, chosen to counteract the pervasive influence of the "Anglo-Saxon" model. In a later book, Vitiello (2009) placed the national library models in the wider context of the European book industries.

Comparisons limited by *type of library* are more numerous. A nineteenth century example is an exhaustive study by the British librarian, Edward Edwards ([1869] 2010), entitled *Free town libraries, their formation, management, and history In Britain, France, Germany, and America; together with brief notices of book-collectors, and of the respective places of deposit of their surviving collections*. According to the author's Preface (p.v), it was intended primarily to serve as "a handbook for promoters and managers of free town libraries; especially of such libraries as may hereafter be established under the 'Libraries Acts'", but also to compare British and American experience in public librarianship. A number of early comparative studies were discussed by Danton (1973:106-108). It is interesting that some of those of which he wrote approvingly were studies of public libraries in various countries by French authors such as Pellisson (1906), Morel (1908), and Hassenforder (1967). These authors were motivated by a desire to prompt improvements in French public libraries, which were seen as lagging behind their counterparts in Britain, Germany, and the USA. This French *retard*, or backwardness, discussed in Chapter 8, features prominently in a much more recent French contribution, a perceptive comparison of the origins and development of public

libraries in the USA and France by Bertrand (2010). A wider range of countries was covered, albeit unevenly, by McColvin (1957), in a book with the avowed purpose of encouraging the worldwide development of public libraries. Public libraries are also the subject of a number of more scholarly studies by Ignatow, a sociologist who applied theories of globalization, culture and democratization to the development of community libraries in several groups of developing countries (Ignatow 2009; Ignatow 2011; Ignatow et al. 2012). Perceived outcomes of public libraries in three European countries (Finland, Norway, and the Netherlands) were compared in a more quantitative study by Vakkari, Aabø, Audunson and colleagues (Vakkari et al. 2014), subsequently extended to South Korea and the USA (Vakkari et al. 2016). An early comparative study of school libraries mentioned by Danton is that of Overduin (1966), whose aim in studying school libraries in a number of European countries was to improve school libraries in the then Transvaal Province of South Africa. In her study of school library provision in Great Britain and the USA, Knuth (1995) the aim was to contribute to theory development, in this case by the identification of two basic models of school library provision. Lauret (2006) compared school libraries in Quebec with documentation and information centres in French schools, as very different models. Among other comparative studies of types of libraries a wide-ranging book on European national libraries by Vitiello (2002) may be mentioned. Baldoni (2013) dealt with an unusual library type, the private libraries of eminent historical figures, comparing Italian practice with that of member libraries of the (American) Association of Research Libraries. With a few exceptions a strong ameliorative strain runs through the international comparisons of specific types of libraries. In many cases they are motivated by a desire to prompt remedial action in the authors' home countries by publishing comparative data which shows libraries in their own country not measuring up to their counterparts elsewhere.

The largest category of international comparisons comprises *studies of library functions, processes and activities*. Here only a few examples can be mentioned. An early example is an exhaustive international comparison of library classification by a Russian scholar (Samurin 1955; Samurin 1959). Other examples of fairly technical comparisons are studies of English and Spanish language databases (Villagra Rubio and Roman 1981), subject cataloguing in Slovenia and the USA (Šauperl 2005), cataloguing of Chinese language material in a number of East Asian countries (Pong and Cheung 2006), and virtual reference service in ten countries (Olszewski and Rumbaugh 2010). On a broader canvas studies of library cooperation (Caidi 2003), national union catalogues (Caidi 2004b) and national information infrastructures (Caidi 2004a) proved to be conceptually quite rich in that the author attempted to develop typologies and theoretical models to account for the attitudes and behaviour observed in library cooperation in a number of Central and Eastern European countries. Most of the studies in this category are limited to a particular type of library. Thus they fall within the category of *combinations* of library type/library function studies. Before publishing his oft-cited *Dimensions of comparative librarianship* Danton (1963) had published a quite rigorous comparison of book selection policies in German and US academic libraries. Another extensive book-length study (Verheul 2006) on digital preservation in national libraries, falls in the grey area between international surveys and true comparative studies. Dalbello (2008; 2009) applied theories of culture and organizational rationality, social-choice systems, and strategies of organizational behaviour to construct a theoretical framework for a study of digital library development in five European national libraries. Of more limited scope are studies such as that of Sapa (2005) of academic library web sites in the USA and Poland, Willingham, Carder and Milson-Martula (2006) of library instruction in the USA and Canada, and Walton, Burke and Oldroyd (2009) of second-tier managers in Australian and UK university libraries.

International *comparisons of infrastructural or contextual factors or issues* are less numerous. They include studies of such matters as library legislation (Gardner 1971; Lajeunesse and Sène 1984; Lajeunesse and Sène 2004), freedom of expression (Barrett and Lynch 1998), LIS education (Lajeunesse 1979; Virkus and Harbo 2002; Ocholla and Bothma 2007), scholarly communication (Xia 2007), and codes of ethics of library associations (Koehler 2006; Zaïane 2011; Koehler 2015).

The current state of comparative librarianship

In the foregoing, many examples have been referred to. These are by no means the only examples. Others will be referred to in later chapters. Over a period of some ten years, I have followed up every reference that has come to my attention in the LIS literature, of which the title and abstract have suggested that the content may be of a comparative nature, for example by mentioning the names of two or more countries. In the majority of cases these items turn out not to be comparative. Many describe survey findings, or simply discuss some LIS phenomenon in two countries (e.g. Australia and New Zealand) or in a region (such as Southern Africa), without any comparison. In many of the remaining items, the comparative element is not well developed, in the sense that no sustained attempt is made not only to describe similarities and differences but also to analyse them and relate them to national, societal or cultural contexts (e.g. demographic, economic, social, cultural, or political). Thus there is a large body of literature on library phenomena in more than one country, but a great deal of it is marginal, as far as comparison is concerned; even less of it makes any contribution to theory. Earlier I indicated that comparative librarianship is not limited to international comparisons, but may also include cross-cultural and cross-societal comparisons. Although this is theoretically the case, and although there is a considerable literature on multicultural librarianship, no significant examples of systematic cross-cultural and cross-societal comparisons in LIS have to date come to my attention.

There is a large body of literature on library phenomena in more than one country, but a great deal of it is marginal, as far as comparison is concerned. There are two further deficiencies. Inspection of the literature shows that only very occasionally (mainly in theses and dissertations) do authors refer to the conceptual and methodological literature of the 1970s and 1980s that was discussed above, nor do they refer to any other such literature. Comparative studies appear to be undertaken without reference to earlier comparative literature. Authors seldom cite one another or any other comparative studies in LIS. Already in 1993 Bliss (1993a, 94), writing without distinguishing between international and comparative librarianship, remarked, "Ignorant of the efforts of either predecessors or colleagues, individuals are proceeding without an adequate history or contemporary context" (Bliss, 1993b, p. 94). Much of this literature is also largely atheoretical in that most studies are conducted in a theoretical vacuum. Although in Asheim (1966) and Benge (1970) we already find quite exhaustive lists of economic, cultural, social and other factors that are put forward as influencing library development, and while Williams (1981) suggested theories of public library development that might usefully be applied in international comparative studies, few studies make use of theory from LIS or other subject fields to develop conceptual frameworks, hypotheses or research designs, or to interpret results (Lor 2014). Writing about the development of community libraries and the need for rigorous comparative studies, Ignatow (2009, 424) found current library scholarship inadequate and observed that there has been little use of sophisticated social theory or social science methods.

In contrast with comparative education, comparative librarianship lacks a scholarly infrastructure of institutions, associations and journals. The only serial publication with a title referring to comparative librarianship was the newsletter of the ICLG/ILIG. As mentioned earlier, it was renamed in 2002, when the word 'comparative' was dropped from its title. Although there are various LIS journals which publish articles in comparative librarianship, there is currently none specializing in the field.

The deficiencies pointed out here apply *a fortiori* to international librarianship. At least three possible explanations for this failure to develop a sound disciplinary core present themselves. First, librarianship, library history and related library-related courses generally have lost ground in library or LIS schools as the emphasis has shifted to information science and related offerings (Kajberg 2009, 2). Second, in the USA the generous federal funding for language and area studies and for technical assistance in Third World countries was drastically reduced during the Vietnam War (Steiner-Khamsi 2006, 30). It is likely that this also impacted funding for international and comparative librarianship. Third, as has happened in other social science disciplines, the advent of globalization has cast doubt on the validity of the more conventional approaches to international and comparative studies (Katzenstein 2001, 790). The latter point is addressed in Section 2.10 below.

2.6   Definition and scope of international librarianship

International librarianship and comparative librarianship first appeared under their respective names in the 1950s and their literatures continued to overlap during the 1960s through the 1980s, during which time much energy was devoted to defining each and attempting to distinguish between them. Clearer definitions were developed during the mid-1970s by J. Stephen Parker (1974) and J. Periam Danton (1973) respectively. However, some confusion persisted until the early 1990s, by which time interest in the field had declined. In practice the two areas are often grouped together as "international and comparative librarianship", "international-comparative librarianship" (Sable and Deya 1970), or "international and comparative library science." Nevertheless, for our purposes it is necessary to distinguish between the two areas. In this section the focus is on international librarianship. Comparative librarianship is dealt with in Section 2.7.

The origins and early definitions of international librarianship have been articulated by authors referred to in Section 2.4. Other contributions and attempts at clarification were by Havard-Williams (1972), Vickery and Brown (1977), Keresztesi (1981), Sami (2008), and Liu (2008). Having studied these I find that the definition of Parker (1974, 221), which has been widely cited, remains a good point of departure:

> International librarianship consists of activities carried out among or between governmental or non-governmental institutions, organizations, groups or individuals of two or more nations, to promote, establish, develop, maintain and evaluate library, documentation and allied services, and librarianship and the library profession generally, in any part of the world.

This definition deserves closer scrutiny. In the following paragraphs I also use the definition as a framework for delimiting the scope of this book.

As the term 'librarianship' indicates, international librarianship is concerned with *libraries*. In this book the term 'libraries' is interpreted broadly to include related information service

agencies such as documentation centres, community media centres, community information centres, telecentres, bibliographic and resource sharing networks, consortia and utilities. Although the convergence of libraries, archives and museums is touched on in Chapter 8 in relation to European policies, galleries, archives and museums fall outside the scope of this book. Thus the scope corresponds roughly to what is usually understood by 'library and information services' (LIS). When this acronym is used here, it will generally refer to 'library and information services' except where the context implies 'library and information science'.

International librarianship is a *field of activity*, rather than a scientific discipline. The term 'librarianship' fell into disfavour a generation or more ago, and was widely replaced with 'library science'. Today, however, we seem to be a bit embarrassed by the presumption the phrase embodies. Is library science really a science? In what used to be called 'library schools' there has been a gradual migration to 'library and information science' or 'library and information studies'. Information science is more quantitative and looks more like a 'science' as it is understood in the English-speaking world.[17] This leaves 'librarianship', freed from scientific pretensions, to denote the activities in which librarians (and by extension information workers in the related information agencies mentioned above) are engaged. That is how the term is used in this book. This does not, of course, prevent the international activities in LIS from being studied systematically and with scientific detachment and rigour.

The activities are conducted in a *relationship* "among or between" parties at various levels, ranging from individuals to governments. Such activities, among others, include resource sharing, standardization, development aid, political and cultural influences, relations between and/or among national associations, and exchanges of staff, students and scholars.

These parties are located in *two or more nations* (countries). This stipulation raises the question of what is meant by "international." Strictly speaking, relations between two countries are referred to as "bilateral" and purists would restrict the use of the term "international" to refer to relations between more than two countries (Keresztesi 1981, 438),[18] but in international librarianship this distinction is seldom observed. That point disposed of, is 'international' the most appropriate word? Other candidates are:

- 'World' as in 'world librarianship'. The title of the monograph by Krzys and Litton (1983) is *World librarianship: a comparative study*, the title being explained as referring to "world study in librarianship' and to 'the worldwide aspects of our profession' (p.ix). The use of the term 'world' suggests phenomena that are worldwide in nature or worldwide studies of such phenomena. This does not adequately describe our field, which may include studies of LIS in just two countries.
- 'Global' as in 'global librarianship'. 'Global' occurs in the titles of several recent books in the field, notably in those by McCook, Ford and Lippincott (1998), *Libraries: global reach – local touch*, Kesselman and Weintraub (2004), *Global librarianship*, and Abdullahi (2009), *Global library and information science*. Stueart (2007) included both words ('global' and 'international') in the title of his book,

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[17] In continental Europe this would not be a problem. Library science, theology or art history can all be *Science* (France) or *Wissenschaft* (Germany).

[18] Keresztesi's (1981, 439) point of view is that "the proper subject matter for the history of international librarianship is the multilateral, supranational organizations and institutions that were brought into existence through some joint effort with a view to promoting and developing library and information services, as well as the profession as a whole, all over the world." This is a quite narrow approach, which has not been generally accepted.

> *International librarianship: a basic guide to global knowledge access*. Currently the term 'global', with its derivatives 'globalization' and 'glocal', is in common use and thus its use in this context is not surprising. However, like the term 'world' it does connote phenomena that are worldwide in nature and 'span the globe'. This is true of some themes in international librarianship, but not in all. The work of IFLA or UNESCO in promoting libraries is global, but library cooperation between the Nordic countries is not. The word 'global' also implies globalization and global phenomena. As LIS progresses to the sixth, global horizon (cf. Chapter 1), this needs to be rethought. Generally, international LIS activities today take place against a background of globalization. More on this in Section 2.10 below.

- 'Foreign' as in 'foreign librarianship'. A great deal of the literature in our field can correctly be designated as 'foreign librarianship', but this point is dealt with separately below.

In American English the word 'international' is commonly used (as in 'international student' or 'international visitors') where British English would use 'foreign' (as in 'foreign student' or 'foreign visitors'). This gives rise to much conceptual confusion. American authors frequently use the term 'international librarianship' when they mean librarianship in countries other than the United States. In terms of Parker's definition a report on librarianship or information work in a country other than the writer's own is not *ipso facto* considered to be a contribution to international librarianship. To qualify as a contribution to international librarianship a book or article should not merely describe conditions in another country. An article about school libraries in Lombardy, Italy, is no more international than an article about school libraries in Wisconsin, regardless of where the author is based and of the country of publication. Thus the nationality of the author, the author's place of residence or the place of publication should not be the criteria for categorizing a contribution as international librarianship. Parker's definition implies that there should be an international dimension in terms of relationships between countries. Such relationships could take the form of joint activities, influences of one country on another, flows of information between countries, participation in international organizations, partnerships, receiving library development aid from international or foreign organizations, and the like.

In practice this requirement is often ignored. The bulk of the literature is about foreign librarianship: librarianship in other countries – countries other than that of the author. There is some merit in the argument that an author from one country may bring fresh insights to library conditions in another country and therefore the work qualifies to be regarded as a contribution to international librarianship. The book of the Norwegian librarian, Wilhelm Munthe (1939), on American librarianship is often cited as such an example. This may provide much insight as well as raw material for international and comparative studies, but it is not a contribution to international librarianship in the sense that that term is used in this book.

As suggested above, this book also deals with the activities of international organizations that are concerned with librarianship and information work. Intergovernmental organizations such as the World Intellectual Property Organization (WIPO) and international non-governmental organizations such as IFLA can be said to fall within Parker's definition because they conduct multilateral international relations. The library and information units that serve such organizations are also often dealt with as part of international librarianship. This is stretching Parker's definition somewhat, but can be justified on the basis that such units commonly

provide bibliographic and other services world-wide. For the purposes of this book they are considered to fall within the scope of international librarianship.

In summary for the purposes of this book I paraphrase and expand Parker's definition to define international librarianship as encompassing:

- activities, processes, influences, interactions and other phenomena
- relating to libraries and the allied information agencies commonly referred to as 'information services'
- at any level of aggregation, including governmental or non-governmental institutions, organizations, groups or individuals
- in a relationship
- involving two or more countries,
- where 'two or more countries' may refer to international organizations active in the field of library and information services or the libraries of international organizations.

This translates into a number of themes which can be outlined as follows:

- International influences on librarianship and information work: Transatlantic, Anglo-American, Continental European, Soviet, European Union, etc.
- International diffusion of LIS theories and techniques: technology transfer; adoption of innovations, policy borrowing
- Colonial and post-colonial development: LIS development assumptions and concepts; development aid to libraries in the emerging and developing countries; book donations; international programmes; literacy, reading and book development policies, national information policies; Westernizing and globalizing influences
- Responses to colonization and development: critiques of Western librarianship; alternatives to Western science, indigenous knowledge; orality and literacy; alternatives to libraries
- International information relations: the international political economics of information; scholarly communication; language issues; intellectual property issues, North-South, South-North and South-South power relations and information flows; barriers; digital divide; freedom of access to information and freedom of expression; ethical considerations
- International cooperation in library and information services: international resource sharing, bibliographic control, preservation, advocacy; standardization
- Responses to threats, disasters and conflict affecting libraries; traffic in looted property; restitution & repatriation
- Internationalization of LIS education
- Agencies involved in the above aspects of international library and information work; governmental aid and cultural diplomacy agencies; intergovernmental organizations, international nongovernmental organizations and civil society; charities and philanthropic foundations; corporations
- International librarianship in professional practice: professional development; careers in international LIS, library-to-library relationships, international work of national and local library associations and institutions

In this book, most of these are be addressed.

2.7   Definition and scope of comparative librarianship[19]

The definition of Danton (1973)

During the 1960s and 1970s the origins and definitions of comparative librarianship were discussed by various writers, including White (1966), Foskett (1965b; 1976a; 1977), Shores (1966; 1970), Simsova & MacKee (1970; 1975), Collings (1971), Harvey (1973) and Yayakuru (1974), with later contributions by Wang (1985) and Kumar (1987). Much of the discussion has been inconclusive and repetitive. Having systematically and critically reviewed all prior attempts to define comparative librarianship and delimit its scope, Danton (1973; 1977) in effect refined the definition of Collings (1971, 492) to arrive at what remains the most authoritative and appropriate definition of the field to date. He stated that comparative librarianship is an:

> …area of scholarly investigation and research [that] may be defined as the analysis of libraries, library systems, some aspect of librarianship, or library problems in two or more national, cultural or societal environments, in terms of socio-political, economic, cultural, ideological, and[20] historical contexts. This analysis is for the purpose of understanding the underlying similarities and differences and for determining explanations of the differences, with the ultimate aim of trying to arrive at valid generalizations and principles (Danton 1973, 52).

Danton's definition emphasizes four essential aspects, of comparative librarianship.

- Comparison entails an analysis of library phenomena across "national, cultural or societal environments"
- The phenomena are considered not in isolation but in "socio-political, economic, cultural, ideological, and historical contexts"
- It focuses on "underlying similarities and differences".
- Its ultimate aim is the construction of theory.

These can be used as criteria to determine what constitutes comparative librarianship.

First, library phenomena are compared across nations (or countries), cultures or societies. As in other comparative fields, this is a contested issue. I deal with it in more detail below.

Second, the comparison is conducted in a broad context. This is important because the context can provide explanations for similarities and differences. For example, the websites of two university libraries can be compared using a checklist of technical criteria, but the comparison only becomes of interest as a contribution to comparative librarianship if culturally, politically and economically determined factors such as the size and scope of the universities, their governance (state-controlled or autonomous), their funding and resources, and the accepted teaching and learning philosophy are taken into account.

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[19] In this section I draw heavily on the entry 'International and Comparative Librarianship' which I contributed to the *Encyclopedia of library and information Science*, 3rd ed. (Lor 2010).

[20] In a later essay, Danton (1977:4) responded to comments received on this by replacing 'and' with 'and/or'. This does not seem to make much of a difference, but was presumably done in deference to those comparativists who eschew the historical dimension, preferring a purely synchronic approach to comparison. This will be touched on in Chapter 5.

Third, there has to be real comparison, which goes beyond mere descriptions or juxtaposition of data. Comparison implies the analysis of the similarities and differences in the sets of data collected, in relation to the contextual factors already referred to. This is discussed in detail in Chapter 5.

Fourth, Danton states that an attempt should be made to explain the observed similarities and differences with a view to building theory, as implied by "trying to arrive at valid generalizations and principles". This implies that comparative librarianship should be a discipline which employs a rigorous scientific methodology, on the pattern of other, older comparative disciplines such as comparative education. (This is looked at critically in Chapter 4.)

National, cultural or societal environments

Danton's criterion that comparative librarianship requires analysis of library phenomena in "two or more national, cultural or societal environments" is critical to delimiting what is to be included. His insistence on a "cross-national, cross-societal or cross-cultural element" has not been accepted by all authors in the field. In most cases this implies cross-national (or international) comparison, but the comparison can be conducted within a single country, provided that the societal, cultural or ideological differences are such that they can give rise to differences in the nature of the library as an institution. Hence a comparison of public libraries in the German, French and Italian speaking cantons of Switzerland can legitimately be classified as comparative librarianship. Lajeunesse (1993, 7) suggested that within Canada, a comparison of libraries in the Francophone province of Quebec and the Anglophone province of Ontario would fall within the scope of comparative librarianship.

While Danton, basing his position on the example of disciplines such as comparative education, comparative law and comparative sociology, insisted on the cross-societal, cross-cultural or cross-country element, other writers such as D.J. Foskett (1976a), Simsova & MacKee (1970; 1975) and Sami (2008) opened the door to comparisons (1976a)(1976a) that are not cross-societal or cross-cultural in scope. In a contribution to the same volume as Danton's (1977) essay, Foskett (1977, 17) used the example of comparative studies in botany and zoology to argue that no international element is necessary in comparative librarianship, and that "one might study the working of a special library and a public library in the same town, or the effectiveness of a dictionary catalogue and a classified catalogue in the same library". This argument is questionable, since there are significant differences between phenomena in the biological and social sciences; the biological sciences do not deal with social phenomena taking place in socio-cultural groups. Kumar (1987, 5) suggested that comparative librarianship "has two aspects, namely: (a) comparison of library situations; and (b) comparison of librarianship and library development in general in different geographical situations." He thought that studies of the former kind would be useful in bringing about "qualitative change in library service". In current parlance this would be referred to as benchmarking. Studies of the latter kind (which would be in line with Danton's concept of comparative librarianship) would be helpful in bringing about "quantitative change in library service", where his concern is with stages and factors in library development.

I too (Lor 2008) have argued that not all comparative librarianship needs be international, cross-societal or cross-cultural. However, I have since modified my position. Comparisons of one sort or another are inherent in all empirical research. Writing about international social

research, Øyen (1990; cited in Kennett and Yeates 2001, 41) asserted that "no social phenomena can be isolated and studied without comparing them to other social phenomena". If Foskett's argument is followed the greater part of research in library science could be labelled as "comparative librarianship" and the scope of the field would in effect expand to include the scholarly study of most of librarianship. It is worth noting, however, that Vitiello (1996a, 18–19) has pointed out that Foskett's approach was based on Bertalanffy's general systems theory, and that it has the merit of encouraging a thorough study and description of both the wider context ('super-systems') in which libraries are embedded, and the subsystems within libraries. Description is essential for proper interpretation of differences and similarities. One should not start comparing before a thorough description has been undertaken. In addition, Vitiello argued that focusing on systems will add to the practical value of comparative librarianship.

In the literature of other comparative disciplines such as comparative education and comparative social studies, this issue has not been settled, more recent texts tending again to a more liberal interpretation which accommodates a greater range of studies (cf. Hantrais 2009, 3–5). However, Hantrais (2009, 2) has stated that "[s]ocial scientists in general agree that international comparative studies require individuals or teams to compare specific issues or phenomena in two or more countries, societies or cultures." Perhaps the key word here is "international", which is implied but generally omitted from such labels as 'comparative politics', 'comparative education', 'comparative social policy', and 'comparative librarianship.'

Cross-, inter-, trans-…cultural, national, societal

At this point it is necessary to pause briefly to consider the range of terms used in comparative studies. In the social science literature the prefixes 'cross', 'inter', and 'trans' precede the adjectives 'cultural', 'national' and 'societal' in various combinations to denote research approaches and emphases that differ among languages, disciplines, and schools of thought within disciplines (Hantrais 2009, 2–5). Comparisons between (or across) countries are often referred to as 'cross-national', but the prefix 'cross-' is avoided by some scholars who see it as implying that the settings compared are functionally equivalent, an unwarranted assumption if one were to compare the British and French public library systems, for example. The term 'cross-national' also tends to be associated with quantitative studies, such as statistical comparisons. In contrast with the prefix 'cross-', 'inter' implies that context is taken into account. In continental Europe there is no direct equivalent for 'cross-', and social scientists use 'inter-', for example in 'intercultural'. The prefix 'trans-' is less frequently used and often refers to phenomena that transcend nations, cultures or societies, placing them within larger systems, as in 'transnational' governance. This is touched on in Section 2.9.

The three adjectives, and the nouns from which they are derived, also convey various nuances. 'Culture' is a loaded term; it is discussed in Chapter 3. I note that in English the word 'country', unlike 'nation', 'culture' and 'society' does not have an adjective derived from it, so that the word 'national' is used of countries as well as of nations. (The adjective 'cross-country' is seldom used as it has different connotations.) The term 'nation' is problematic, as it can mean 'country' (a defined territory), 'state' (an autonomous political entity) 'nation-state' (a state inhabited mainly by a people with a shared culture or ethnicity) or 'people' (who share the same culture or ethnicity but lack their own territory). British and American usage also differs somewhat. For example, Americans refer to "developing

nations" when the British equivalent would be 'developing countries'. In this book the adjective 'national' is used in respect of countries.

Hantrais (2009, 4–5) uses the term 'international comparative research' to refer to "comparisons across national, societal and cultural boundaries conducted within international settings, most often by international teams". If we were to apply this to comparative librarianship, we would not have much literature to review. Omitting the limitations implied by international settings and teams, we are left with "comparisons across national, societal and cultural boundaries". It is in this sense that I use the term 'comparative librarianship', the adjective 'international' being understood.

Working definition

In summary, for the purposes of this book I paraphrase and expand Danton's definition to define comparative librarianship as follows:

Comparative librarianship is:
- an area of scholarly study
- that analyses
- and explicitly compares
- LIS phenomena
- in two or more countries
- or significantly different cultural or societal environments
- in terms of contextual factors (social, economic, political, cultural, etc.)
- in order to distinguish and understand underlying similarities and differences
- and arrive at valid generalizations

2.8   Distinction between international and comparative librarianship

As Danton (1977) pointed out, a considerable literature about the definitions of international and comparative librarianship arose more or less at the same time that Parker's definition of international librarianship and Danton's own (1973) definition of comparative librarianship appeared. The result is a literature in which there is much discussion but no clear consensus on the distinction between international librarianship and comparative librarianship. Attempts to distinguish between the two have generally taken one or more of the following approaches:

- Hierarchical: comparative librarianship is a species of the genus international librarianship or vice versa (Liu 2008). For example, Harvey (1973, 296–97) subsumed "comparative library science" (along with "foreign library science" and "international institutional library science" under "international library science". Krzys and Litton(1983) subsumed both "international library science" and "comparative library science" under "world library science". Kawatra (1987, viii) appeared to think that comparative librarianship includes international librarianship. Against this it has to be pointed out that attempts to impose such hierarchical relationships are problematic if the concepts belong to different categories: "international" denotes a geographic scope, whereas "comparative" denotes a research strategy.

- Study – Activity: comparative librarianship is the scientific study, while international librarianship is the field of professional activity, often conceived in a rather soft and idealistic manner as aiming to promote international understanding and cooperation (Kumar 1987). A more rigorous distinction was made by Miles Jackson:

    > International librarianship is limited strictly to those activities that involve librarianship and all its aspects across national boundaries. It would thereby exclude comparative analysis, but include such activities as exchange of librarians, books, ideas, and the study of the library systems in different countries. ...comparative librarianship should lean on the tradition of comparative studies found in other fields such as political, government and legal studies (M. M. Jackson 1981, xxxi).

    Against this it should be pointed out that the "activities" included under international librarianship can and should also be subjected to systematic and rigorous investigation.
- Subject – Methodology: international librarianship is the subject field while comparative librarianship is its methodology. According to Collings (1971, 493) comparative librarianship is a "scholarly method of investigation". Keresztesi (1981, 437) stated that "comparative librarianship is essentially a method of enquiry". Against this it has to be pointed out that more than one methodology can be used to study international librarianship. Parker (1974) described comparative librarianship as a tool, the most appropriate one, for international librarianship. However, it is not the only tool.

In my view international librarianship comprises activities in which librarians and information workers are engaged. These activities and related phenomena can be subjected to scholarly investigation, but international librarianship is not *per se* a scholarly or scientific discipline. Comparative librarianship on the other hand is a scholarly field in which specific – comparative – methods are applied for the primary purpose of extending our understanding of library phenomena of all kinds. International librarianship provides raw material for comparative librarianship. Comparative librarianship yields theoretical insights that *inter alia* help provide a sounder basis for international activities.

In practice the terms "international librarianship" and "comparative librarianship" are often used interchangeably or in combination, as in "international and comparative librarianship." This combination of subject matter has also been taught under this name in a number of US library schools. It is my view that, although their literatures overlap, the two can be clearly distinguished conceptually. But we should not get bogged down in sterile debate. Concluding a review of the discussion up until 1977, Danton (1977, 13) challenged the profession to stop writing *about* comparative librarianship and to start *doing* it. In this spirit no new definitions are offered here. Instead, the definitions of international librarianship by Parker and of comparative librarianship by Danton have been cited and expanded above for explanatory purposes. In any case, discussions of definitional issues have become less frequent since the 1970s.

This discussion underlines the need for a further conceptual exploration of our field of study, which is developed in Chapter 3.

2.9   The nation state, methodological nationalism and globalisation

The advance of globalization, as discussed in Section 1.9, has been accompanied by rethinking of the central place that the nation state has occupied in research in the social sciences since the 19th century. Writing about the comparative social sciences, Schriewer (2006, 319–22) pointed out that the nation state has not always been regarded as the necessary and immutable unit of analysis in comparative research. During the nineteenth century the development of the various social sciences disciplines as well as history and linguistics happened to coincide with the "full realization… of the modern nation state". It then came to be accepted that the nation state was the normal setting for comparative studies in a world which "seemed to consist of clearly distinguishable entities defined as nation states" (2006, 321). It was assumed that these entities were distinct and internally coherent. As a result, many processes of interaction between cultures (mission, colonization, migration, conquest etc.) were overlooked. Steiner-Khamsi (2010, 327) has also stated that in the context of globalization it is "…problematic to exclusively use nations as the units of analysis". Writing about the borrowing of educational policies among nations, Zymek and Zymek (2004, 27–29) cast doubt on the existence of "national education systems" during the formation of nation states. Although there were traditions and patterns, one should not assume that there were national systems. They also question the validity of the notion of "national character", which was frequently cited in debates about educational systems.

This rethinking is not limited to comparative studies. A development theorist, Nederveen Pieterse (2010, 1), has argued that, while the nation has been seen in the past as the standard unit of development, it is being overtaken by globalization and regionalization. And as international institutions and market forces become more influential, the role of the state as the agent of development is being eroded. Furthermore,

> The *boundaries* between what is internal and external are by no means fixed. Development discourse and its implicit assumptions of the 'country', 'society', 'economy' as the developing unit paper over this issue and assume much greater national cohesiveness and state control than is realistic (Nederveen Pieterse 2010, 46).

As the focus on the nation state in the social sciences, education and related fields was called into question, we saw the term 'international' being problematized and the appearance of alternative terms such as 'transnational', 'cross-national' and 'supranational'. Generally, 'transnational' is used for processes (such as migration) that cross national borders; and 'cross-national' for comparisons of countries, as indicated earlier. The term 'supranational' is used to denote multinational organizations with powers over member states, as in the European Union. The term ''multinational' has multiple meanings. It refers to entities involving multiple nations, such as the multinational peace-keeping forces that are sent to trouble spots. It is also used in the context of 'multinational corporations' (MNCs). MNCs are generally based in a country of origin and have subsidiaries in multiple countries. True global companies are referred to as 'transnational corporations'. [21]

Wimmer and Schiller (2002, 302–8) have used the label "methodological nationalism" to refer to "the assumption that the nation/state/society is the natural social and political form of the modern world". They identified three forms of methodological nationalism:

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[21] Wikipedia, http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Multinational_corporation#Transnational_corporations, accessed 2014-07-14

(1) Ignorance: The nation-state is taken for granted to the extent that it becomes an invisible background to social science research. The result is an inability to understand the paradoxical co-existence of globalization and nationalism.

(2) Naturalization: The second form of methodological nationalism "is taking national discourses, agendas, loyalties and histories for granted, without problematizing them or making them an object of analysis in its own right". An example is the barely questioned assumption that in newly independent states "nation building" is an obvious corollary of modernization (2002, 304).

(3) "Territorial limitation" or "territorialization": This refers to an obsession in the social sciences with "describing processes within nation-state boundaries as contrasted with those outside". As a result, social scientists have "lost sight of the connections between such nationally defined territories"(2002, 307). Various processes and phenomena such as migration, diasporas and long-distance nationalism[22] are overlooked as a result of thinking within the boxes of nation-states.

While the place of nation state in social science research has been challenged, some caution is also called for in embracing globalization. Green (1997, 13), cited in Tikly (1999), has warned that in studies of postcolonial education an over-emphasis on globalization can lead to "…many issues relating to race, culture, diaspora and identity" [being] ignored or marginalized". Schriewer (2000, 310) warned that the subject matter of comparative education is unravelling as the notion of the division of the world into separate, distinct entities is abandoned in favour of "historical reconstructions of wide-reaching processes of cultural diffusion or by global analyses of transnational dependence". This has far-reaching methodological implications. There is a danger that globalization simply becomes a smokescreen for shoddy comparative research. Another danger is that globalization may embody an unquestioned assumption that society – or education systems, or libraries – must evolve along predetermined lines to become increasingly homogenized and Westernized. A probably unintended example is found in a comparison of academic libraries in Ireland and Mexico, where the authors stated that they

> …hoped to profile characteristics of change, which the new technologies and philosophies of service bring to libraries, which have developed independently in different cultures and societies. It aims to place these changes and their implications in the context of what is now emerging as a common definition of the profession worldwide. This commonality defines the characteristics of a global profession i.e. one of common thinking, common technologies and common patterns of service delivery (J. P. McCarthy and Tarango Ortiz 2010, 506).

This may be well meant, but is symptomatic of what D.G. Smith (2003, 39) calls "Globalization One", a deterministic neoliberal vision that assumes a single universal logic.

2.10   Towards global library and information studies

If the international horizon and internationalism gave rise to international and comparative librarianship, can we assume that the global horizon and globalization will give rise to 'global

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[22] Schiller (2005, 570) has defined long-distance nationalism as "a set of identity claims and practices that connect people living in various geographical locations to a specific territory that they see as their ancestral home.. Actions taken by long-distance nationalists on behalf of this reputed ancestral home may include voting, demonstrating, lobbying, contributing money, creating works of art, fighting, killing and dying."

librarianship'? This depends on what we are talking about: the practical professional activity or its theoretical analysis.

As indicated in Section 1.9, the practice of librarianship and information work is already widely affected by globalization. The question that remains is whether a corresponding development is taking place in the scholarly study of global library and information work – are we developing a field that we might name 'global library and information studies' – or, if we need to de-emphasize the L-word, 'global information studies'? I suspect that the main reason for the displacement of 'international' in 'international librarianship' by 'global' or in some cases 'world', is that globalization is fashionable. It is simply *de rigueur* to use the word 'global' or its derivations in current writing in our field. This does not necessarily signify a real change. Although some texts and many articles and chapters claim to concern themselves with global LIS or global aspects of LIS, this often simply means contemporary or modern LIS, in which we are all connected in ICT-enabled networks. The emphasis is often on the impact of information technology. It seems that globalization is seen as more or less synonymous with the 'information society', 'knowledge society', 'knowledge economy', etc.

Rudasill (2009, 513) has pointed to semantic differences between international studies and global studies. International studies are *multi*disciplinary, bringing scholarship, teaching and methodology from multiple disciplines, such as political science, economics and history, to bear on a particular region. Global studies tend to be *inter*disciplinary, looking at "the effects of political, economic, historic, and environmental aspects of [on?] many societies and how these societies interact with one another". They provide a "macro-view" of the world. Following the definitions formulated by Stember (1991, n.p.), in a multidisciplinary approach, people from different disciplines work together on a problem or issue, each contributing their disciplinary perspective. An interdisciplinary approach requires integration of the contributions of several disciplines to a problem or issue. Thus there is a more thorough-going synthesis of approaches.

Thus, at a first level, global studies in LIS implies studies of global phenomena in LIS and of the effects of globalization in our field, examples of which were presented in Section 1.9. If we are to develop a field of global librarianship, however designated, at least a shift in emphasis is needed, if not entirely new subject matter. But at a second, higher, level, it means bringing multidisciplinary perspectives to bear on global phenomena and globalization effects in LIS. This calls for a greater, critical awareness of the many dimensions of globalization, beyond our concern with the technological dimension. There is no lack of critical theoretical literature in various disciplines on which we can draw, as for example in the recent article by Witt (2014). From my own reading I would add theoretical work in development studies (e.g. Rist 1997; Haynes 2008; Nederveen Pieterse 2010) and comparative education (e.g. Thomas and Postlethwaite 1984; Steiner-Khamsi 2004; Phillips and Schweisfurth 2008; Schriewer 2012). In development studies we can gain insights from theories on modernization, dependency and world systems which could be put to work in studies of library development in developing counties. In comparative education, Schriewer, writing about comparative social science more generally, has suggested that more emphasis be placed

> …on *trans*-national, *trans*-cultural or *trans*-societal relations, transfers and interconnections… as an alternative to the social scientific mainstream of comparative enquiry traditionally conceived as *cross*-national, *cross*-cultural or *cross*-societal analysis (Schriewer 2006, 323)

He specifically pointed to studies focussing on "trans-societal structures" such as cross-border relations, migration movements, exchange and transfer processes among nation states, regional processes at the levels above and below nation states, 'world cities', and transnational networks and organizations (Schriewer 2006, 323–24). If we apply this to LIS, interesting possibilities are opened up. For example one could look at national libraries and at their treatment of exile literature as well as their responses to diasporas and long-distance nationalism, in a transnational perspective. Other transnational phenomena worth exploring in relation to libraries and information are cultural and linguistic diffusion, dominance and imperialism, the A2K movement, intellectual property issues, civil society movements, and also regional and supranational phenomena, such as various aspects of European integration. From these examples it is clear that naïve approaches based solely on findings and theory from LIS will not suffice. It will be necessary to seek collaborators in other disciplines. For example, in a study of the role of international NGOs such as IFLA and EBLIDA in advocacy, perspectives from such fields as international politics, political economy and intellectual property law will be called for.

The shift to transnational processes does raise questions about the future of *comparative* library and information studies. In comparative education the early, rather mechanistic country comparisons on which we modelled comparative librarianship and which I myself put forward as the norm for the field (Lor 2008; Lor 2010) have long passed, making way for a wider range of studies such as those suggested above by Schriewer, with much emphasis on educational policy borrowing. We will continue to employ comparative strategies, but there then seems to be little point in insisting on comparative librarianship as a separate field.

2.11   Conclusion

This chapter has dealt with the development and status of international and comparative librarianship as fields of scholarship, as reflected in their respective literatures. In FIGURE 2.1 an attempt is made to map – inductively, on the basis of the literature – the relationships between the various manifestations of international and comparative librarianship that have been discussed above. As suggested in this figure, these are not of equal magnitude. International librarianship is primarily a field or arena of activity. Such activity can be subjected to scholarly study, but the vast proportion of its literature is descriptive, operational, reportorial, or anecdotal. A great deal of it can more accurately be described as 'foreign librarianship'. It has little scholarly value, except as raw material for a smaller core of scholarly studies. These studies are suggested by the smaller circle enclosed within International Librarianship. Similarly, the much smaller literature of Comparative Librarianship consists of a small core of scholarly studies (also suggested by a smaller circle) and a larger periphery of incidental, institutional and survey studies in which some comparison occurs, but which are not primarily comparative, and which overlap with similar studies in International Librarianship. The two central cores are enclosed by dotted lines to indicate that their boundaries are not rigid, but a matter of judgment.
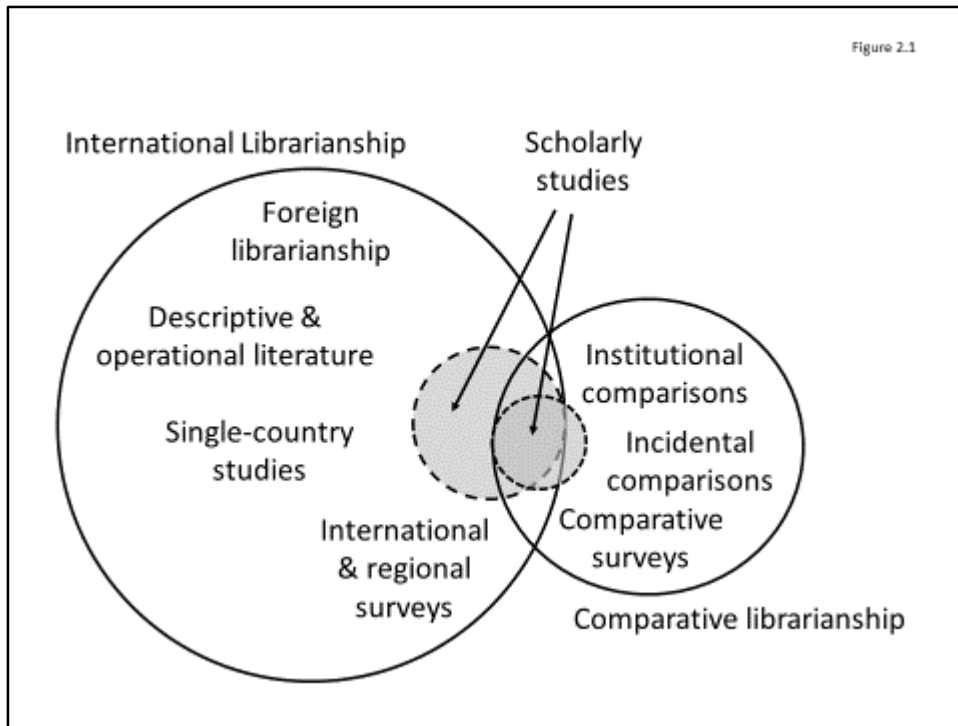
FIGURE 2.1: Manifestations of international and comparative librarianship

This book concentrates on the central cores of the two fields as manifested in the literature. I leave here the old questions about the formal relationships and boundaries between international and comparative librarianship as fields or subfields. These relationships will shift in the future. The rest of this book is devoted to more substantive topics. In preparation for this, Chapter 3 presents an exploration dealing with a number of basic concepts and theoretical issues that are helpful in the study of international and comparative librarianship.

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