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UNIVERSITY OF ILLINOIS AT URBANA-CHAMPAIGN

PRODUCTION NOTE

University of Illinois at
Urbana-Champaign Library
RETURN ENGAGEMENT;
THE ROLE OF AMERICAN LIBRARIANS AT THE
SECOND INTERNATIONAL LIBRARY CONFERENCE,
LONDON, 1897

by

BUDD L. GAMBEE

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INTRODUCTION

In 1877 a conference of librarians was called in London with the primary purpose of establishing a library association in the United Kingdom. While the idea for such a meeting was apparently first suggested in print by a British librarian, 1 the most immediate impetus was probably the success of a similar conference of American librarians held at the Centennial Exposition in Philadelphia the previous year which had resulted in the founding of the American Library Association (ALA). Understandably, the British librarians invited the fledgling American professional association to send representatives to their conference. Sixteen members responded,
including some of the most celebrated names in American library history, such as Justin Winsor, William Frederick Poole, Melvil Dewey, and Charles Ammi Cutter. Although the guests from the United States were not asked to read papers, they made extensive and enthusiastic contributions to the discussions, and it was a memorable occasion both professionally and socially.\textsuperscript{2} It was not, however, a purely Anglo-American affair; among the 217 participants were several from various European countries. The meeting came to be regarded as the "first international" conference of librarians, although it was not so called at the time. The 1877 Conference of Librarians accomplished its major purpose, the founding of the Library Association of the United Kingdom (LAUK), and the event was suitably commemorated in a handsome folio volume of transactions published the following year by B.F. Stevens at the Chiswick Press.\textsuperscript{3}

It took twenty years for the two organizations to meet again for a "second international" conference. While the idea for the conference had long been in the air, one concrete suggestion for holding it was rooted in acrimony. In 1893 ALA had attempted unsuccessfully to hold a "World's Congress of Librarians" in connection with its exhibit and conference at the World's Columbian Exposition at Chicago. Although most foreign countries failed to send delegates, the Library Association of the United Kingdom sent three, including James Duff Brown, Librarian of the Clerkenwell Public Library in London. When he returned, Brown gave his commissioners a report critical of some aspects of American libraries, which was reprinted in the October 1893 \textit{Library Journal} with an editorial protest. This resulted in an angry rejoinder from Brown. The subsequent claims and counterclaims aired in the pages of \textit{The Library} and \textit{Library Journal} served to make clear British resentment at what they felt was the chauvinistic boasting of American librarianship that everything worthy of mention in modern libraries bore the label "Made in U.S.A." In the April 1894 issue of \textit{The Library}, the irate Brown suggested:

\begin{quote}
It is certain that both British and American librarians stand in sore need of greater instruction in what has taken place and is being done in each country, and as a practical way to that end, I suggest the 1895 conferences be held at some convenient point in England, when an opportunity can be given British Librarians to show their work, and for American librarians to expound their views.\textsuperscript{4}
\end{quote}

In September 1894 the LAUK voted at its Belfast meeting to invite ALA to a conference in England the following summer. The Americans, however, felt that the invitation had been received too late for action and suggested postponement to 1896 (later extended to 1900).\textsuperscript{5} In answer to complaints that 1900 was too far off, ALA sent a questionnaire to its members asking how many persons (members and others) would be interested in a postconference trip to England in the summer of 1897 with the hope that a joint meeting with LAUK could be arranged. The result was that 270 persons answered in the affirmative: 147 of these were members, and 123 were trustees, friends, relatives, etc. This evidence of substantial interest settled the matter, and the two associations began to plan both the journey and the conference.\textsuperscript{6}

Thus, twenty years after its founding in 1877, the Library Association of the United Kingdom (the name was shortened in 1896 to Library Association) decided to celebrate the progress of the organization and of British libraries generally at a Second International Library Conference, to be held in London, July 13-16, 1897. It was a festive year in Britain: Victoria was celebrating her diamond jubilee, the empire was flourishing, and the librarians of both associations had seen many of their optimistic projects of twenty years earlier realized. The British librarians made
elaborate plans to entertain--and undoubtedly to impress--their American cousins. Everything was to be carried out with great pomp and ceremony. London's ancient Guildhall was secured for the meetings, a glittering social program was arranged, and guarantees of official receptions were obtained from each of the cities the Americans would visit.

For the Americans it was a triumphant return engagement; indeed, the holding of the conference was contingent on their acceptance. They came in generous numbers--although certainly not the 270 who originally indicated their interest. It is difficult to say exactly how many went to London because evidence is contradictory; it seems, however, that approximately 90 people attended, about 60 of these being librarians or library-connected persons, and the remainder their friends and "their sisters and their cousins and their aunts." 7

At this conference the Americans contributed 14 papers; 9 of the group were given the honorific title of vice-president; 3 were appointed official delegates representing the U.S. government (Winsor, Dewey, and Herbert Putnam); and probably many of them proudly wore their ALA badges which members had been urged to wear since their adoption in 1894. 8 For Winsor, Dewey, and Cutter, who had been at the 1877 conference, it was literally a return engagement.

This trip was not merely a hasty one made to attend the meetings in London and then return. On the contrary, it was an epic pilgrimage lasting over 8 weeks--from Saturday, June 26 to Monday, August 23. In addition to the week at the conference and the necessary 3 weeks at sea, it included a 1-week preconference trip and a 3-week postconference trip in England (and, for some, on the Continent). For the convenience of the travelers, the 1897 ALA conference was held in Philadelphia from Monday, June 21 through Friday, June 25. This brought the group together on the east coast and allowed envious friends to wish them a "bon voyage" when they sailed on Saturday, June 26. The journey to London was, in short, a "postconference trip." This combination of business and pleasure had become a tradition with American librarians, who generally arranged an excursion after their regular ALA meetings. (Indeed, this tradition started in 1877, for the first visit to London by the ALA delegation took place immediately after their conference in New York and had constituted the first "postconference trip.") The return to London in 1897 was a climax of this tradition. In fact, the custom was so strong that for the benefit of those who could not afford the England trip in 1897, ALA arranged a substitute postconference trip to the Delaware Water Gap.

The preconference trip to England began inauspiciously with the breakdown of the ship carrying the main party of American delegates--on the fourth of July. Nevertheless, the punctual British held an elaborate reception without them at the Liverpool library where, on July 6, nearly 700 British notables greeted 9 Americans who happened to be in the city early in connection with the preconference trip. The next morning the unexpectedly small group promptly embarked on the carefully planned succession of sightseeing and formal receptions, which progressed from Liverpool to Manchester, Birmingham (where the stranded Americans caught up) and Stratford. The American delegates finally arrived, with enthusiasm for the cause undampened, at the Inns of Court Hotel in London on Monday, July 12, and subsequently reported the whole trip in amusing detail in the August 1897 issue of the Library Journal.
The Americans could scarcely have been settled in their hotel when they were off to a "conversazione" given for all conference attendees by the reception committee at the Guildhall on the eve of the conference's opening. The festivities began with the reading of a scholarly paper, "The Introduction of European Printing in the East," by Richard Garnett, Keeper of the Printed Books of the British Museum. This was followed by a 3-ring entertainment for the nearly 1,000 guests which consisted of a program by the "Savage Club" in the council chamber, a concert by the students of the Guildhall School of Music in the library, and another concert by the "Blue Viennese Band" in the art gallery.

What was the nature of this conference to which the American librarians were to turn their attention? It lasted 4 days, from Tuesday, July 13 through Friday, July 16, with 8 morning and afternoon sessions, each lasting about 2½ hours. Four or five papers were read in whole or in part at each session, and discussion was permitted at intervals from the floor. With such time limitations, it is obvious that many of the 39 papers must have been read in versions drastically reduced from the texts printed in the transactions; in fact, the British librarian F.J. Burgoyne mentioned in his paper on library architecture that it was difficult to cover the subject in the fifteen minutes allotted to him. Seven papers were accepted but not read, apparently because of the time factor. Whatever may have been missed at the conference, however, could easily be made up in retrospect by reference to the 47 papers (including Garnett's) printed in the complete Transactions and Proceedings, which was published by the conference the following year as a companion volume to the transactions of the first conference of 1877.

While the conference was international (22 countries, including colonies, were presented among the 641 members listed in the transactions), it was strongly Anglo-American, if representation by the United Kingdom and the British Empire is defined as "Anglo" and by the United States as "American." When the countries represented are tabulated under the headings, "Anglo-American" and "Other," it will be seen that they balance:

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<td>1 - United Kingdom</td>
<td>10 - European countries</td>
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<td>9 - British Empire</td>
<td>1 - Japan</td>
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<td>1 - United States</td>
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The organizers of the conference were very proud that 14 "governments" sent official representatives. When these are analyzed in the same way, the totals favor the Anglo-American side:

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However, if active participation in the conference is judged by the 47 papers published in the transactions, and these papers are analyzed by country of origin, the evidence of Anglo-American dominance becomes overwhelming:
The two European papers were: "On the Aids Lent by Public Bodies to the Art of Printing in the Early Days of Typography," by C. Dziatzko of Germany; and "The Public Libraries of the Northern States of Europe," by A.S. Steenberg of Denmark.

The predominant subject emphasis of the conference was on public library work, although it did not appear as such on the list of topics suggested by the "Papers Committee" for the contributions to be made to the sessions. While some of the committee's topics implied a public library approach, such as "Libraries and Public Culture" and "Helps to Readers," other topics had no such implication; yet the papers written in many of these areas frequently interpret the subjects from a public library viewpoint. For example, writers on the topic of "Training of Librarians" were obviously interested in educating librarians to be pleasant and approachable to the public; the purpose of "Cataloguing and Classification" was interpreted as making the use of the library easier for the general reader; the British heading, "Library Committees," translated into American English as "Public Library Trustees"; and Burgoyne complained in his discussion of "Library Buildings" that architects design poor public library buildings because they thought of them as if they were "almost moribund cathedral and college" libraries.

The prevalence of this public library point of view is perhaps not surprising when the types of libraries represented by authors of the 33 non-American papers are considered:

| 14 - Public and "social" libraries |
| 7 - Special libraries |
| 4 - University libraries |
| 1 - British Museum |
| 7 - Nonlibrarians |
| 33 |

The American contributors represented public libraries even more strikingly:

| 9 - Public and "social" libraries |
| 1 - Special libraries |
| 1 - University libraries |
| 1 - State libraries (New York) |
| 2 - Nonlibrarians |
| 14 |

Of course, other aspects of library work were not ignored. There were papers on special libraries, university libraries, bibliography, the history of printing, and other topics of a scholarly nature—but they were in the minority. Indeed, if the conference had had a theme or slogan, it might have been "The Anglo-American Public Library Movement; Twenty Years of Progress."

Finally, what were the contributions of Americans to this conference? On the most basic level, it was recognized that the very existence of the Library Association, whose twentieth anniversary was being celebrated, probably resulted—at least in part—from the impetus supplied by ALA; this accounted for the special welcome given to the American contingent alone among the foreign visitors. Furthermore, while some
such as Brown may have questioned it, American leadership in many aspects of librarianship—e.g., cataloging, classification, library education and library furnishings—seems to have been readily acknowledged throughout the conference. More specifically, it would appear that more than 90 conference attendees were Americans, so the impact of numbers alone must have made an impression. Although probably only 55-60 of these were librarians, it is still necessary for the practical purposes of this paper to isolate those whose contributions were the most significant.

The detailed record in the transactions makes it possible to identify the Americans who were active in two essential aspects of the meetings: the papers and the discussions from the floor. (These were often the same persons.) Although the transactions, which reprint both the papers in full and an apparently stenographic record of the discussions, have been principally relied upon here, 3 other accounts summarizing the papers and discussions have also been consulted. The Library Journal, printed a readable and thorough account in its August 1897 issue; The Library published a similar description by James Duff Brown in its June-November issue; and The Times of London provided complete coverage, enlivened by indications of audience reaction, such as "cheers," "laughter," "applause," and "hear, hear." From the latter account it would appear that cheers and the like were particularly in order after remarks praising British librarianship.

Surely the eight who read their papers at the conference must have done the most to establish the image of the American librarian in the eyes of this international audience. Of this group, all but one (Bowker) were librarians; 7 also served as vice-presidents of the conference; and their ages ranged from Herbert Putnam's youthful 36 to Hannah James' matronly 62.

THE AMERICAN PAPERS

The fourteen American contributions may be classified into a few broad areas of library work, with public libraries and librarianship accounting for at least 7 of the papers. Dewey, Brett, Larned, and Iles dealt with this subject directly; the papers on work with children and young people by Crunden, Hewins, and Dana also fall within this category, as the conference antedated the development of school libraries. Technical problems, including cataloging, classification, and circulation systems, were treated in the papers of Andrews, Cutter, and Schwartz. Putnam and James discussed the growth of the library profession in their papers on library associations and library education. Bowker discussed American bibliography, and Richardson spoke on what might be termed library "philosophy." The papers were grouped by subject throughout the conference, scattering the American contributions in proper sequence by the topics covered.

PUBLIC LIBRARIES

The first American speaker was Melvil Dewey, probably the best known member of the group from the United States. He had been, at the age of 26, a prominent member of the first group which came to London in 1877. His role in the establishment of the Library Journal, the American Library Association, the Library Bureau, the first library school, and above all, the popular Dewey Decimal Classification, had carried his name wherever there were libraries and librarians. References to the man and his classification scheme were frequent in the papers read at the conference. In Albany (New York) he held positions of influence as secretary of the State Board of Regents, and director of the New York State Library and of the New York State Library School.
and this influence was wielded with ability and a crusader's zeal in behalf of library development.

In 1897 Dewey was at the top of his form and his presentation, which both Library Journal and The Library described as "extemporaneous," was an impassioned sermon entitled "Relation of the State to the Public Library."\(\text{13}\) His thesis was that government had provided public education, much of it free, from kindergarten through university levels, but should also recognize the need for continuing adult education for everyone, and that the key to this was the free public library. Needless to say, in New York he was providing the model. The state had passed a law--which he had helped to formulate--which provided a "public libraries department" to encourage and materially aid existing public libraries and to help establish new ones. This department, he pointed out, must be "in charge of a strong man who appreciates the almost limitless opportunities for usefulness which this new field affords."\(\text{14}\)

Much of Dewey's speech was a florid exhortation in Victorian rhetoric. Referring to a previous paper on library history, he dubbed the present the "Library Age" in which libraries are "fountains," compared to the "reservoirs" or "cisterns" of the past. This led him to a comparison between public library systems and the city water works: both have a duty to keep their output pure and unpolluted. Book selection, therefore, becomes "this great question of excluding the pernicious"\(\text{15}\) to protect the public. He particularly inveighed against sensational periodicals and newspapers, and managed to make journalism sound as evil as librarianship was good. "We apostles and missionaries of the book" are engaged in "the eternal conflict of good and the best with bad and the worst....The librarian must be the librarian militant before he can be the librarian triumphant."\(\text{16}\) Obviously the role of the librarian was envisioned as a forceful one. Dewey felt that already the deliberations of the conference had implied a question: "Who shall be greatest among librarians?" One gets the impression he may have had a personal answer to this question, but he asserted only a vague definition of the ideal librarian as having "a clear head, a strong hand, and above all a great heart."\(\text{17}\)

Because his enthusiasm and picturesque language are often unintentionally amusing, it is a great temptation to quote Dewey. Nonetheless, early in the conference he clearly defined two themes that recurred in many of the papers and were by no means limited to the American contributions: (1) the public library is an independent educational institution on a par with schools and universities and should be supported as such; and (2) modern libraries demand librarians who are forceful leaders. As usual, Dewey's exaggerations offended some of his listeners, and the brief discussion which followed dealt--as is so typical of discussions--not with the subject of the paper but with a defense of newspapers which he was accused of having maligned. In its column covering the conference, The Times allotted Dewey's speech barely an inch of space (9 lines) and no "cheers," after having reported on the previous British speakers in great detail (Tedder's address got 5½ inches of reportage). The Times alone, however (and perhaps inaccurately), stated that a vote of thanks was passed for Dewey's contribution.

A second paper concerned with aspects of American public libraries was submitted by William Brett of Cleveland, who intended to come to the conference, and was listed in the transactions as a member and vice-president; however, the revised list of Americans present in Library Journal did not name him, and his biographer explains that for personal and professional reasons he decided at the last minute not to attend.\(\text{18}\)
Brett was an Ohioan who showed such a precocious interest in books that at age 14 he was appointed "school librarian." He attended both the University of Michigan and Western Reserve University, but was not graduated from either. After having been employed in bookstores, he became the librarian of the Cleveland Public Library in 1884, and within a year had joined ALA. The Cleveland Public Library was an old but much neglected institution when he took over; he made it a model of "modern" library administration, adopting the Dewey classification, publishing a book catalog, and emphasizing service to children and schools. A major innovation was the "open shelf" policy; indeed, the bulletin of his library was called "The Open Shelf." In 1897 Brett at 51 was the immediate past president of ALA and a vice-president in absentia of the London conference. His paper was received late and postponed until Friday morning, when it was read by a British librarian, L.S. Jast, of Peterborough. Entitled "Freedom in Public Libraries," the paper might better have been called, "Freedom of Access in Public Libraries," as it dealt with the open shelf policy.19

Brett first admitted that the policy is a subject about which "diametrically opposing views are honestly held and earnestly maintained,"20 and pointed out that in all libraries there are books which are rare or apt to be mutilated or stolen, and which must be kept on closed shelves. "Open access" therefore referred to that portion of the collection intended for the general reader, school pupils, and advanced students--which in a public library is most of the bookstock. He also referred to large library collections; small 1-room libraries with limited clientele had long had open shelves. He discussed open access from 3 viewpoints: economic, educational, and moral. First, he admitted that open shelves require more room and are therefore more expensive, but because of the saving of staff time he felt that on balance it is probably not much more costly to provide open-shelf service. Educationally, the benefits are great because the user can browse among books without having to hurdle that grim barrier, the card catalog. It is also much easier for the librarian to help the user find the books he needs. He gave an amusing example of a ruse--worthy of a modern supermarket manager--used by a librarian (perhaps himself) to get young people to read more "worthwhile" nonfiction instead of novels. In this library, the fiction was arranged on the top and bottom shelves, while the nonfiction occupied the easily accessible center shelves. Obviously, this would appeal to a nineteenth-century audience with its suspicions about novels, and the device would be meaningful only in an open-shelf collection. As for the moral aspects of the scheme, he felt open access had a beneficial effect because the user is put on his honor; experience, he claimed, did not indicate that theft is seriously increased.

Brett's reading of library journals convinced him that open shelves had been increasingly accepted in public libraries over the past ten years. He believed, along with Dewey, that this would improve the usefulness of the library, making it "no longer a mere storehouse for books" but "an active educational force," and the librarian would be regarded not as "a mere custodian of the books, but rather a helpful assistant and friendly guide to those who need direction."21

The discussion of Brett's paper was lively and one of the longest of the entire conference. The first speaker from the floor called it a paper "in praise of anarchy," and added that an open-shelf library would diminish the prestige of the library and the librarian; however, he did add good-humoredly that as there had been no dissension, he hoped his remark would relieve the monotony. Ten speakers, all British save Putnam of Boston, agreed that "there are libraries and libraries" and in some of them open access is feasible, while in others it is not. In general, however, the British greeted open access with far less enthusiasm than American librarians.
Brett's paper had an added interest in that James Duff Brown, whose criticisms of American libraries must still have been ringing in the ears of many of those present, was an advocate of the open shelf, and his library at Clerkenwell was reputedly a model of that philosophy. No fewer than 5 of the discussants mentioned the Clerkenwell Library and Brown. Putnam went so far as to say that the conference would like to hear from Brown on this subject. There is no record, however, that Brown, one of the most prominent and vocal of the British librarians, contributed to the conference in any way except as secretary of the Papers and Discussion Committee. In this position he may have felt that partisanship on his part would have been inappropriate, and if, as was probably the case, he was substantially responsible for the secretarial record of the conference, he may not have had the time for further participation. According to Brown's account in The Library, the discussion threatened to go on so long that it had to be cut short by a vote of the meeting, a fact ignored in the record of the transactions.

A third phase of public library work was discussed in a paper, also contributed in absentia, by Josephus Larned. Born in Canada, Larned had lived mostly in Buffalo, where he was educated in the public schools—but only to the age of sixteen or seventeen. He was, however, a fine example of the self-educated man and rose to become political editor and co-owner with Mark Twain of the Buffalo Express. Ironically, despite his lack of education, he served as Superintendent of Education for the Buffalo schools, but left because of political interference.

On a trip east in 1876, Larned met Melvil Dewey and became a charter member of the American Library Association. On his return, he was appointed head of the Young Men's Association Library, whose 30,000 volumes he promptly classified by the Dewey Decimal Classification. He gained prominence for his work at the Buffalo Library, his activities in ALA (including the presidency), and his writings in popular history, particularly his History for Ready Reference (1893-1895). As was typical during this period, Larned shepherded his private library into the fold of public libraries, and it became the Buffalo Public Library in 1897, but Larned differed from the city fathers on the running of the library and resigned the same year. He then left with his family for Europe, but for some reason decided not to attend the conference; indeed, he never returned to librarianship, building instead a second career as popular historian. A British librarian read Larned's paper on "The Organization of Co-operative Work among Public Libraries."22

Cooperation was a dominant theme and ever-present fact in nineteenth-century American librarianship; indeed, such were the finances of ALA that it was only by volunteer cooperative effort that major bibliographical works needed by librarians could be published at all. Larned described some of the very considerable results of this cooperation: in book selection, the "A.L.A. Catalog" of 1893; in cataloging, ALA's printed catalog cards; in periodical indexing, Poole's Index; and in analyzing parts of books, the A.L.A. Index to General Literature. He further pointed out that the librarians of England and America, by each donating a small portion of time, theoretically have an almost unlimited potential for the continuation and enlargement of such efforts on what he called "the labour side."

In another aspect of bibliographical work, i.e. the editorial side, volunteer cooperation fails:

For the scale as well as the quality of the work depends peculiarly upon the organisation and direction that are editorially given to it. No important undertaking in it can be properly planned and conducted as a casual task, by one who gives night hours and odd moments to it only as he is able to snatch them.23
Lamed commended the cooperative efforts to date, but stated that "they only skirt the field." The solution, he suggested, was to establish a "subject index society" to be supported by subscriptions from English and U.S. libraries (and perhaps those worldwide); this society would maintain a central office under the guidance of a full-time editor "of the first order of ability" to coordinate the results of volunteer labor and to finance the publication of the indexes. Lamed concluded that he hoped the conference members would discuss his suggestion, and he may also have had himself in mind as an ideal editor.

The conference did not discuss Lamed's suggestion as such, but at the conclusion of the reading, Paul Otlet, secretary-general of the International Institute of Bibliography in Brussels, was introduced. He described the institute's plan for the publication of Bibliographia Universalis, to be made up of many subject bibliographies prepared by expert editors. This vast bibliographical project was to be published both in book form with printing on one side of the page only so that entries could be added, and on "library bureau" cards for those who preferred them. The Dewey Decimal Classification was to be used. Otlet listed 7 subject bibliographies which had already been produced, and suggested that ALA's printed catalog cards could easily become part of this international program. He concluded by inviting the audience to attend the conference of the institute beginning August 2.

The selection of books for public libraries, touched on briefly by Dewey, was elaborated by George Iles of New York City in his paper, "The Appraisal of Literature." Iles was a businessman of independent means who had become interested in libraries, when in 1891, as secretary of the Society for Political Education, he worked with R.R. Bowker on the preparation of a selective bibliography on political science. After that he became a missionary in the cause of readers' advisory bibliographies, presenting papers on the evaluation of books at ALA meetings and library schools. In 1895 he collaborated with A.H. Leypoldt on a list of books for girls and women, and in the year of the conference a bibliography of the fine arts was published by ALA with Iles as editor. He donated personal funds to help ALA publish these reading lists. Iles was not present, but he had had his paper printed and distributed to the members of the conference, and, as it was scheduled for the last session when time was at a premium, it was read "in outline" only by Gould, librarian of McGill University. It was one of the more thought-provoking of the American papers, and one that touched on many of the recurrent themes of the meeting.

On the theme of the "modern" library served by the "modern" librarian, he credited ALA with making the public library an acknowledged "centre of intellectual life" and with changing the image of the librarian:

A grim warder of alcoves was he, grudgingly dispensing his stores to a favored few, reluctant in his step, suspicion in his eye. To-day we have no more turnkeys of literature, but bankers, rather, whose capital is accumulated in the sole aim that its value be multiplied fifty- or a hundred-fold by the freest using.

Iles then turned to another concern of the period: the pervasive influence of science, particularly applied science, on the culture of the day. He pointed out that it had resulted (1) in floods of books (80,000 new titles in the United States alone since 1876), (2) in establishing the scientific method as the mold and criterion of modern thought, and (3) in profound changes in all areas of literature. On this last point he gave specific examples of the influence of science on biography, history, art, music, science writing itself, fiction, and belles lettres. Indeed, the implication
was strong that most "prescientific" literature is misleading and dangerous. In a somewhat McLuhanesque vein he saw in the rise of the scientific approach in education a challenge to the book itself:

In our best schools, all the way from the kindergarten to the university, books are being gradually withdrawn from work they should never have been allowed to perform. No longer is memorising the printed page the be-all and the end-all of instruction. Anything that should be observed is observed; anything that should be done is done, instead of being merely talked or written about.27

A new literature permeated by science would require "standards of literary criticism heightened and sharpened by that world movement whose citadel is science,"28 and he suggested that critics with the necessary background might be drawn from professorial ranks.

On a more practical level, Iles saw in the Publishing Section of ALA the possibility of a "central superintendency...which shall oversee this whole business of appraisal,"29 One way ALA was taking steps in that direction was by publishing highly selective reading lists for public library users and others. Even more important, he felt, was the addition by ALA which already was publishing catalog cards for books, of critical annotations to these cards--or on separate review cards--for distribution to its subscribers. Such signed and dated annotations would include a description of the contents of the book, a critical evaluation (perhaps two, for debatable books), comparisons with similar books, and references to more detailed reviews. These cards would then be placed in the card catalogs of public libraries, and in the books themselves--a sort of "book reviewing in source."

Iles echoed Dewey's "filtration plant" theory while explaining that the purpose of this would be to present only the best literature to the public in their libraries: "the chaff winnowed from the wheat, the gold divided from the clay."30 He exhibited complete confidence, probably typical of this period, that he and librarians and critics could be trusted with the winnowing, even in the area of fiction where he speaks disparagingly of "scrofulous" naturalism and of: "novels of the Satanic school, deliberately produced to contaminate. Against these it is high time that danger signals were set up, so that neither carelessness nor accident may allow their intrusion."31 As for the "demand theory" of book selection, Iles had a prompt answer: "To the demand, Why cannot we have what we like, instead of what you think we ought to like? the answer must be, Read Austen, Cooper, Scott, Thackery, Dickens, Hawthorne, and Stevenson, and you will soon thank us for withholding Mrs. Holmes and Mr. Roe, your appetite for their screeds being irrecoverably lost.32 As with so many of the suggestions made at this conference, fruition for at least part of them was not far off. While reviews on cards did not develop until long after this period, there were within a decade or so great improvements in the "appraisal of literature" for libraries, such as the second "A.L.A. Catalog" (1904), Booklist (1905), Book Review Digest (1905), and the beginning of what was to become the "Standard Catalogs" in 1908.

CHILDREN'S WORK

Library work with children and young people was a growing aspect of public library service in the 1890s. Libraries in the United States were beginning to include "children's rooms" in their plans, and the visitors on the preconference trip had seen a separate "boys' reading room" at the public library in Wigan. There were three papers on this subject, all by Americans.
Frederick Morgan Crunden had not been at the 1877 meeting, but it had been a memorable year for him; that year he had entered the library profession over the strong opposition of ALA. ALA had been indignant over political interference at the Boston Public Library, which had resulted in Justin Winsor's resignation. Consequently, when the news reached Boston that the librarian of the St. Louis Public School Library had been dismissed and replaced by Crunden, ALA officially (but, fortunately, ineffectively) protested. Crunden, however, held no grudge; he joined ALA in 1879, took an active part in its affairs, wrote for its journal, became its president in 1889, and showed his complete devotion by making the 1890 ALA meeting (at Fabyan's in the White Mountains) the scene of his honeymoon. As for the St. Louis library, he quickly turned the old subscription institution into a model free public library with special programs for the schools, disadvantaged laborers and the foreign-born. At fifty, he was a prominent member of the American group, and a vice-president of the conference.

Crunden's topic was "Books and Text-Books: the Library as a Factor in Education." The paper, however, had comparatively little to say about libraries; it was instead an attack on the traditional textbook recitation-type of school which he had endured in his youth, as well as a ringing defense of a romantic philosophy of progressive education. One of the longest papers given, it paraphrased remarks from some 25 writers on education whose ideas coincided with Crunden's. The curious thing is that he did not quote from John Dewey, who by this time had set up his famed experimental school at the University of Chicago.

Crunden began by promoting the Rousseauian philosophy as expressed by the sociologist A.W. Small: "Every child already is a philosopher... until conventionality spoils him. More than that he is a scientist, poet, and artist in embryo, and would mature in all these characters if we did not stunt him with our bungling." Crunden sounded very modern when he accused the American common school as being the bungler that destroys this native genius. Reminiscing from his own experiences, he described the horror of the school where reading anything but the required text was a punishable offense. He felt the child should not be forced to learn until he is ready, and should then be allowed to study what he wishes. The role of the teacher is to inspire, not to "goad and criticize." Not being a scientist, he resented a system in college that required him to study Latin, Greek, mathematics and science. The gist of Crunden's paper was that the purpose of education is to teach students to read and write well, and then to allow them to educate themselves in public libraries. It was the hope that he might help others to educate themselves in this way which had led Crunden himself to become a librarian. His was a fascinating, eloquent and rather surprising paper in the midst of all the discussions of purely library matters.

Although (according to the Times) his audience rewarded him with "cheers," his thesis was too much for the chairman of the session, the Earl of Crawford, who had entertained the librarians at his estate Haigh Hall during the preconference trip. In rebuttal he made a brief but crushing statement that in his opinion, the day was far distant when Crunden's dream of progressive education might come to pass, and that he doubted the validity of the philosophy even then. Whereupon, without further debate, he introduced the next speaker.

If Crunden was determined to mold the public school into a training ground for readers, Caroline M. Hewins was the expert on making the public library attractive to the young trainees. After a pleasant suburban childhood in West Roxbury (Massachusetts), education at private schools and a Boston high school, a year's apprenticeship under William Frederick Poole at the Boston Athenaeum, and a few years as school teacher,
in 1875 Hewins had at age 29 become the librarian of the Young Men's Institute at Hartford (Connecticut), a private subscription library. As had Crunden in St. Louis, Hewins succeeded in transforming it into a free public library. At the Hartford Public Library, her great emphasis was on service to schools and to children. For them she made the library a friendly, attractive place, supervised by a capable, sympathetic librarian who must be, as she phrased it, "sunshiny." Besides books, there were story hours, clubs, dramatics, nature walks, and Maypole festivals. In common with many leaders of the library movement, she was especially concerned for what is now called the "disadvantaged" child, of poor, often immigrant parents. To serve these children better, she had established a library branch at a settlement house in 1895, and had gone to live there herself in order to understand those who most needed the public library. She devoted her career to children's library work, and was untiring in speaking on the subject and preparing booklists. No librarian in America was better qualified than Hewins to address an international conference on "Books that Children Like," and she had an added honor in being one of the two women who spoke, the other being Hannah P. James, also from the United States.

Hewins paper was very long, but she struck on a device to make it more interesting: she discussed children's books in the words of the children themselves. One way she had encouraged her young library patrons to read was to have them write book reviews for her, then receiving firsthand information as to what they liked, and she used these reviews to annotate the books she discussed, interspersing her own comments on children's books based on her years of experience. She gave examples of books in many areas—including science, where she managed to mention the book *Ants, Bees and Wasps*, written by the president of the conference, Sir John Lubbock. She found *Uncle Tom's Cabin*, *Black Beauty*, and *Ramona* particularly important as "books which excite children's compassion for the cruelly treated, and have the best influence upon them." Hewins' enthusiasm for children's library work, however, did not blind her to the realities of the future of her ghetto clients. The use of the public library could not guarantee that every child would become a discriminating reader: "Do not expect too much of children at first. Out of a hundred such as we have to supply books for, ninety leave school before they can do more than read the daily newspaper, nine can be trained to enjoy the best authors, and one has the true book-hunger that Sir John Lubbock counts as one of his 'pleasures of life.'"

Hewins's paper was immediately followed by John Cotton Dana's "Our Youngest Readers." Dana was 41 years old, from Vermont and a graduate of Dartmouth. He had tried a variety of occupations until 1888, when he married and settled in Colorado. There his expressed interest in education led to his appointment as librarian of the Denver Public Library. His quest was over. He had found a career into which he could pour his energies and at the same time benefit society. At Denver he bought the books people would read, not the ones intellectuals thought they ought to read; he advertised the library as if it were a business; and he established medical and business branches, school classroom libraries, and one of the first children's rooms (1894). In less than 10 years he had risen to the top of his profession, serving as ALA president in 1895-96. Unfortunately, in 1897 Dana—as had Lamed in Buffalo—resigned for political reasons, which probably accounts for his absence from the conference.

Dana's paper was read by an English librarian always referred to as "Mr. Ogle from Bootle." A very brief paper (two pages to Hewins' six), it paid tribute to Samuel Swett Green of Worcester (Massachusetts) for calling the attention of public libraries 20 years earlier to the need to give special service to schools. Dana stated, however, that it was only within the last 5 or 6 years that American libraries had begun to act on this idea to any great degree. He indicated some of the progress that had been
made: annotated booklists of children's books, special loan privileges to teachers, deliveries of classroom libraries, and the establishment of the new "Library Department" in the National Education Association. He cited unidentified research which indicated that children from 6 to 9 years of age are in a formative stage as readers, making essential their exposure to the best in children's literature. These, then, were "our youngest readers," and as elementary school libraries were at that time virtually nonexistent, Dana felt that "the free public library...must be, to a very large extent, and to a much greater extent than it has commonly been heretofore, the library for the very young."39

The discussion of the papers by Hewins and Dana followed immediately. The discussion was one of the longer ones at the conference, involving 10 participants, 6 British and 4 American. From the British librarians it was learned that: (1) thriving children's rooms existed in Manchester and Chelsea; (2) the London School Board had installed school libraries, however inadequate; and (3) the public libraries in Plymouth, Norwich and Leeds had programs in cooperation with the schools. American participation in the discussion included Crunden's opportunity to vindicate the position taken in his paper; Putnam's announcement of a bequest to the Boston Public Library to be used for children's services; and a description by Katherine L. Sharp, head of the Illinois State Library School (formerly Armour Institute), of "home libraries" for children. Sir John Lubbock augustly put in a good word for science in the schools. In general, the subject of library service to children proved a very popular one at the conference.

TECHNICAL SERVICES

Details of cataloging and classification and other technical procedures in libraries were favorite topics of nineteenth-century library meetings and this was no exception, with American librarians contributing 3 papers. One of these, on "Printed Card-Catalogues," was delivered by Clement Walker Andrews, head of the John Crerar Library in Chicago.40 The 39-year-old Andrews, born in Salem (Massachusetts) and graduated from Harvard, had entered librarianship by the unusual route of chemistry. While teaching that subject at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, he had been in charge of the chemistry library, and this had led to his appointment as librarian of M.I.T. Leaving chemistry behind, Andrews had become an enthusiastic librarian, very active in ALA and an obvious choice for librarian of the new John Crerar Library of science in 1895.

One of the services of the Crerar library was the printing of catalog cards for its new accessions, and it was on this subject that Andrews addressed the conference. He explained that in addition to John Crerar, the New York Public Library, Boston Public Library, Harvard University Library, and the Publishing Section of ALA were all issuing printed catalog cards. He marshalled the arguments against printed cards, and those in favor, and came to the conclusion that the advantages far outweighed the disadvantages. He felt the ultimate purpose of printed cards and other "practical methods is to so economize the time of librarians, assistants, and readers that all may do more work with less drudgery."41

The discussion of this paper largely centered around the cost and printing equipment used, particularly the linotype. The modest success of ALA Publishing Section's cards was described, and Bowker pointed out that with the proposed reorganization of the Library of Congress, catalog cards might be issued by the Copyright Office. (Actually, of course, this was to happen the following year, and these cards would become available to libraries in 1901.)
Far better known in cataloging circles than Andrews was Charles Ammi Cutter. Cutter was one of the three Americans who had been at the first conference in 1877, where his *Rules for a Dictionary Catalog* had established his fame as a cataloger. Since then he had pursued a distinguished career at the libraries of Harvard and the Boston Athenaeum, and had completed the monumental catalog of the Athenaeum and the first 6 tables of his *Expansive Classification*. He was at the time of the conference the librarian of the Forbes Library in Northampton (Massachusetts), and was working on the seventh expansion of his classification system. At sixty, he was one of the oldest of the American speakers, a vice-president of the conference and one of its best-known members. His topic was "The Expansive Classification." He introduced his paper with a somewhat oblique statement: "There is a system for classifying books on the shelf, taught in the five library schools of the United States, and used in a number of libraries there, which I believe is entirely unknown in this country." He then explained his classification system in considerable detail. It was being published in a series of 7 "tables," the first being merely an outline of the system and suitable only for a very small library. Each of the subsequent tables kept the outlines of the previous one but added further classes and subdivisions, thus expanding the classification. The table chosen by a library would depend upon its size. Six of these tables had been published; the seventh, which was in the process of publication, Cutter described as "full and minute enough for the British Museum." With obvious reference to the Dewey Decimal Classification, he further explained that by using the 26 letters of the alphabet for his main classes and for subsequent subclasses, his system could express a great many more classifications with a shorter notation than could the decimal system. His paper gave many examples of his notation, and he appended a lengthy notation scheme for a Shakespeare collection. Published portions of the system were on exhibit at the conference.

The reception of Cutter's paper was polite, but he was 20 years too late. Dewey had introduced his simple and easily remembered system at the 1877 conference, and since then it had been widely accepted both in the United States and abroad. Cutter's system never won many converts from Dewey, and he did not live to complete the seventh expansion; however, some aspects of it, notably the use of the letters of the alphabet for the main classes, live on in the Library of Congress Classification.

At a later period in the conference, Cutter had the dubious privilege of reading (in outline only) a paper by Jacob Schwartz, librarian of the Free Library of the General Society of Mechanics and Tradesmen in New York City, more popularly known as the Apprentices' Library. This paper, entitled "An Indicator-Catalogue Charging System," described a circulation system which combined the British "indicator" systems with the American "book card" systems and at the same time provided a classified catalog which library patrons could consult.

In this system, book cards for all books were kept in individual envelopes (like book pockets) at the circulation desk and were filed by call number (essentially a shelf list or classified catalog). The library user consulted the library's book or card catalog to locate a book he wanted and then located the book card by call number in the "indicator-catalogue" file. If he found the book card without a borrower's card in the envelope with it, this "indicated" that the book was on the shelf and a clerk got the book for him. He then surrendered his borrower's card which was placed (after stamping with the date due) in the envelope with the book card, thus "indicating" to any future searchers that the book was out, who had it, and when it was due. The system was designed for small, generally closed-shelf libraries, where borrowers were permitted to take out only one book at a time.
Over the years Schwartz had proposed many ingenious ideas for libraries, including his own classification system. He was particularly proud of his "indicator-catalogue" scheme and viciously attacked others who implied that the idea was not originally his.45 Unfortunately, no sooner had Cutter finished the description of the Schwartz system than an English librarian arose to say that this scheme had been in use in his library for many years. (The Library account calls it the "Bradford card charging system.") Later, after correspondence with British librarians, Schwartz ruefully had to admit that his system had been originated by others unbeknownst to him.46

PROFESSIONAL ASPECTS

What might be termed the "professional aspects" of librarianship, library education and library associations, were discussed by two Americans, the first being Hannah Packard James.

In 1897 James was a prominent public librarian with 27 years of experience, 17 of them at the Newton (Massachusetts) Free Library, and the last 10 years as head of the Osterhout Free Library at Wilkes-Barre (Pennsylvania). Her published catalog of the latter library had been used as a basis for the first "A.L.A. Catalog" of 1893, and her Library News Letter of the same library was soon to carry a lengthy account of her travels to and from the London conference. Active in many aspects of ALA since becoming a member in 1879, she was by 1897 its vice-president, and she was also a vice-president of the present conference.

James was not one of those self-trained librarians who resented graduates of library schools. Quite the contrary, she was a great admirer of Dewey and his library school, and had been a guest lecturer the year it opened at Columbia in 1887, and subsequently employed some of its graduates at the Osterhout Free Library--not without some local opposition. It is not surprising, therefore, that her presentation at the conference dealt with library education and was entitled "Special Training for Library Work."47

The bulk of her paper was a factual report on library education in the United States, and Dewey must have been pleased to find her a veritable oral bulletin of the New York State Library School's 2-year program. She described its history, requirements and curriculum, with interesting sidelights on the field trips, practical work in the state library, the "bibliothecal museum," and, of course, the program of guest lecturers. In less detail she outlined the programs of other schools, rather unflatteringly introduced as schools designed for those who could not meet the rigorous standards at Albany; these included Pratt, Drexel, and Illinois, the public library training classes at Los Angeles and Denver, and summer schools at Amherst, the University of Wisconsin, and Albany.

James managed to touch on 3 of the themes recurring in so many of the papers: the age of science; the "modern" librarian; and the status of women in the library profession. On the first point she said that "technical schools...are the outgrowth of the scientific spirit of the age," and that they must supply training in "more scientific methods of organization and administration."48 On the second theme, she suggested that library schools, by careful selection of students, were endeavoring to change the negative image of the librarian of the past by providing librarians who show "gentleness, sympathy, tact, and public interest." As for the bearing of librarianship on the status of women, James herself was an excellent example of its beneficial effects, being one of only two women contributors and a vice-president of the conference. She was almost triumphant on the subject--and well she might be, if her statistics were accurate.
After pointing out the prominent role of women in the major American library schools—Cutler at New York, Plummer at Pratt, Kroeger at Drexel, and Sharp at Illinois—she pictured trained professional librarians in America as a group of almost Ivory-soap purity when she said of these schools, "over 99 percent of the students and graduates have been women." James was a true follower of Dewey in that she had that almost visionary attitude toward her subject, which she, too, expressed in fervent prose. Her concluding sentence, for example, expressed her implicit faith in library schools: "In the broad, judicious, enthusiastic, training of the library schools lies our hope for the future."50

Her paper was only 1 of 4 on library education, the others presented by English librarians. These were given consecutively in one session and discussed together. At the time, library education in Britain was in the "apprenticeship" stage, and the greatest handicap to an improvement in the situation was believed to be low salaries in libraries, which was blamed largely on the "penny rate." The role of women in libraries was also covered by one of the British papers, which saw their growing prominence as resulting mainly from the fact that for women, a "lower rate of remuneration is a matter of course."51 A librarian from Newcastle was quick to observe, however, that he believed that "if the work is equal, the pay should also be equal."52 Dewey summed up what was probably the American point of view by stating that well-trained librarians would in the long run command higher salaries, and that thus that currently low salaries should not be used as an argument against library training.

The second paper on professional aspects was by Herbert Putnam, son of the publisher George Palmer Putnam, a graduate of Harvard, and a lawyer. Librarianship had originally been a temporary expedient as he prepared for a law degree, but he became librarian of the newly formed Minneapolis Public Library and promptly made a name for himself in library circles. This led in 1895 to his appointment as librarian of the Boston Public Library. A year later he was one of a group of prominent librarians to testify in Washington on the future of the Library of Congress, which probably accounted for the fact that he, with Dewey and Winsor, was one of the 3 official U.S. delegates to the conference and one of its vice-presidents.

His topic, "Local Library Associations in the United States,"53 was presented in a very pedantic, legalistic style with numbered lists of arguments in favor of local library associations to supplement the work of the national association. He had investigated the topic thoroughly, reporting on 25 such groups which had been formed in the United States since the first one, the New York Library Club, was established in 1885. He particularly felt that local associations might stress historical and cultural subjects which ALA (unlike LAUK) neglected at its meetings. He also had the curious idea that they should promote high standards of book selection and "lend the organised support of the association to the rejection by its members of any book not falling within their province as so defined."54 The paper has 2 appendices: a statistical table covering the 25 associations he had studied, and an extended list of the more unusual topics discussed by them as culled from the Library Journal (which then ran a regular column entitled "State Library Associations").

Putnam's paper reflected that curiously militant quality of the nineteenth-century library movement in America which saw librarians all over the country, not content to join only their national association, banding together in local groups as well. In 1877 surprise had been expressed at the first London conference that 16 American librarians had attended. In 1895 the Americans and their cohorts had descended on London almost 100 strong. That all of this may have seemed a bit overwhelming to
the quieter librarians may be reflected in a comment from the floor on Putnam's paper made by an English librarian: "With regard to local associations, I suppose we have a few in England, but one feels almost afraid to mention our associations in the same breath as those of America."55

BIBLIOGRAPHY AND PHILOSOPHY

There remain 2 unrelated papers by American librarians: Bowker's paper on bibliography and Richardson's paper on the philosophy of librarianship.

Richard Rogers Bowker was a man of many parts. Born a decade earlier than Andrews in Salem (Massachusetts), he was 49 at the time of the conference. Upon graduation from New York's "Free Academy" (later City College of New York), he became a journalist and critic, and by 1875 was editor of Frederick Leypoldt's Publishers Weekly. Bowker, Dewey and Leypoldt formed the triumvirate responsible for establishing Library Journal and for calling the conference of American librarians in Philadelphia in 1876. Over the years he had become increasingly involved with the Leypoldt company, as well as in an incredible variety of other activities, including publishing, writing, politics, economics and business. In fact, he was in Europe in 1897 studying alternating current as a representative of the Association of Edison Illuminating Companies.

Bowker could have addressed the conference on any number of topics, but he appeared in his role as editor of the Library Journal, was made a vice-president of the conference, and chose to speak on "Bibliographical Endeavours in America,"56 His paper a long, scholarly history of various types of bibliographies published in America from earliest times to the 1890s. He described the great retrospective works, the trade bibliographies such as Publishers' Weekly and the American Catalogue, library catalogs, periodical indexes, and even the editorship of George Iles. The Library of Congress, he felt, had failed as a great bibliographic center; however, he explained that the library was to be reorganized in its new building, and that there was a distinct possibility that the Copyright Office would issue cards for all newly copyrighted books, and these cards might be sold to libraries. In conclusion, he repeated a theme found in several papers—-that centralized cataloging was needed, because "the more 'the librarian of the future' is freed from mere record work, the more chance he will have for the useful exercise of his individuality."57

Ernest Cushing Richardson entered librarianship as assistant librarian at Amherst under Walter S. Biscoe, who in turn had been assistant under Melvil Dewey. He had a master's degree from Hartford Theological Seminary, where he had also served as librarian until he became librarian at Princeton in 1890. His contract gave him a semester off with pay each year to pursue bibliographical research in Europe to the greater glory of the Princeton library. Therefore, he might logically have been expected to be at the conference, but the Library Journal account states that "he was not present"58 and that his paper was read for him by a British colleague.

Richardson's theological training had given him a philosophical bent, and to him the library was an institution which permeated society. The title of his paper, "Libraries, the Primary Factor in Human Evolution,"59 was typical of Richardson, however much it might have surprised Darwin. His thesis was that primitive, pre-literate cultures could exist on an oral tradition stored in the minds of elders and priests; the priest thus became a human library, storing, classifying, and disseminating knowledge essential to the tribe. All civilizations which had measurably advanced did so, however, because they were able to record their thoughts...
and discoveries, and to store them in archives and libraries from which they could generate further progress. Thus, the evolution—he was careful to use the then-fashionable term—of civilization and of the mind of man is directly the result of libraries.

Richardson's lofty philosophical theorizing probably impressed his listeners and gratified their professional egos. As had other librarians of the time, Richardson had created his own classification system, which he applied to the Princeton library; in the last paragraph of his paper he therefore managed to bring his remarks to a rather unexpected close by stating that all of this proved the need for close classification in large "scientific" or university libraries.

OTHER ASPECTS OF AMERICAN PARTICIPATION

While the papers read at the conference constitute its most important aspect, the discussions from the floor reveal many additional insights; and, although relevant discussions have been mentioned in connection with the papers, a few additional notes may further clarify the American involvement. For the industrious reader, the transactions preserve an apparently stenographic record of these discussions in 24 pages, with 2 columns of dense fine print per page.

Judging by the space taken in the transactions, the most extended discussion followed the addresses by Hewins and Dana on children's books and services (nearly 5 columns), and that by Brett on open shelves (5 columns). Various papers on aspects of bibliography, cataloging and classification were dispersed throughout the sessions, and therefore discussion on these topics was less concentrated, but in total accounted for a large share of comments. While the amount of discussion was an indication of the importance of and interest in the topics presented, too much emphasis should not be placed on this evidence, as time limitations often curtailed discussions which might have developed further.

The Americans by no means monopolized this part of the conference, although 11 of them arose at least once to comment on matters before the delegates. Not unexpectedly, Dewey was the most loquacious, speaking 8 times, often quite extensively and with his usual fervent eloquence. In fact, all the American men who read papers also contributed to the discussions; only Hewins and James refrained from comment.

The contributions of the most distinguished of the American librarians can only be unearthed by reading the discussions, for he presented no paper. He was, of course, Justin Winsor, who, as the first president of ALA in 1877, had led the Americans at the first London conference. At that time he had been internationally known for his work at the Boston Public Library, but in the same year he had left to become librarian at Harvard, where he had gained fame as a historian. In 1897, now 67 years old, he had again been persuaded to accept the presidency of ALA so that he might head the American delegation to the second London conference. His contributions to the conference were as elder statesman, proposing a vote of thanks to President Lubbock, serving briefly as chairman in the third session, and commenting on various topics, including cataloging and the heating and ventilating of libraries. Perhaps his health did not permit him to take a more active part; his death was to occur in October 1897.

William Coolidge Lane, 38 years old, was another prominent American librarian whose oral contributions to the conference were limited to the discussion periods. He
had been an assistant to Winsor at Harvard from 1881 to 1893, and was presently librarian of the Boston Athenaeum and chairman of the travel arrangements for the Americans. He was probably too busy to prepare a paper but did offer his opinion on several aspects of library work, especially the Publishing Section of ALA in which he had been long active.

Two remaining aspects of the conference, discussed in full in the original version of this paper, may only be mentioned here. During the week of the conference, a brilliant program of social events filled the late afternoons and evenings, including receptions at 7 of London's stateliest town houses, an evening with Henry Irving and Ellen Terry at the theater, a ceremonious Lord Mayor's reception, and finally, on Friday evening, July 16, a sumptuous banquet replete with toasts by Dewey, Winsor, and Crunden, and brief remarks by Hewins and James.

The following morning about 50 indefatigable Americans set out on the postconference trip, which consisted of a week in western England, followed by a week of "free time," and concluded with 10 days in northern England and Scotland. They received red-carpet treatment everywhere and at least 3 exuberant accounts testify to their enthusiasm for the trip. After this trip, about one-half of the party elected further travel, and only a nucleus of 24 conferees returned to Boston on August 23, only one day behind the schedule arranged many months before.

SUMMARY

To summarize, it might be well to reemphasize some of the dominant themes which recurred in the papers and discussions regardless of the topics being considered. There was, for example, constant reference to the "modern" library and the "modern" librarian. It would be interesting to compile a list of all the metaphors used to contrast the librarianship of the past with developments since 1876. Closely allied to this idea was the realization that the world of the future would belong to science, and that science would need to dominate library training. Indeed, the long reign of the book and library might be seriously challenged by the experiment and the laboratory. It was seen that this would have an effect on education, and that the student would be less tied to classrooms and more free to follow his individualized curriculum through study in libraries. To prepare the student for this eventuality, the public library was to work closely with schools in order to train the readers and investigators of the future. This, in turn, would raise the status of the library to an essential, independent educational institution in its own right, deserving generous public support.

The concept of librarianship as an ideal profession for women was discussed for the most part in British papers, the Americans being more content to preach by example; but the subject permeated many aspects of the conference, from papers read to toasts made. Another recurring theme was the idea that a major responsibility of the public library is to work with the poor. In fact, some of the discussions recounted the work of labor unions in supplying village libraries; conversely, however, the fear was expressed by some British librarians that any agitation for better library salaries might brand them as "trade unionists." Centralized book selection to protect the public from pernicious books was strongly implied in some papers, probably an outgrowth of centralized cataloging and other cooperative efforts of the time. Then, of course, there was the enthusiasm, Dewey's brand of missionary zeal--not as prevalent as in the earlier days, but still there in many papers. All movements have their rhetoric, and the library movement borrowed theirs from the evangelical
pulpit. At the opposite extreme were those practical papers, carefully explaining methods to relieve the librarian of drudgery, so that he would be free to work even harder at more worthwhile tasks.

The conference supplied a setting not so much for new ideas, but for publicizing what had been accomplished, with the hope that this would smooth the way for future progress in libraries. Without implying a direct relationship, it should be noted that the conference was held on the eve of the realization of many projects suggested at its sessions. In the British Isles, with The Times publishing full daily accounts of the meetings, the conference must have had its greatest impact. In the United States as well, however, librarianship must have had its moment of glory as in many cities and towns as returning librarians reported on this splendid meeting.

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REFERENCES

1. For an explanation of the fact that Professor Max-Müller, former curator of the Bodleian, had suggested the idea of an international library conference in an article in *The Academy*, London, March 18, 1876, see: MacLeod, R.D. *The Anglo-American Library Association* (Library Association Pamphlet, no. 19). This may well have been a prime mover for both the American conference of 1876 and the British conference of 1877.


For a list of 87 Americans attending the conference (56 appearing to be definitely connected with libraries), see: "Americans Present at the International Conference," Library Journal 22:407-08, Aug. 1897. For a list of 106 Americans appearing as members, see: Transactions and Proceedings of the Second International Library Conference held in London, July 13-16, 1897. London, [Printed for members of the conference], 1898. This list, however, is probably a high estimate, as investigation for this paper uncovered 4 Americans listed who were not in fact present: Brett, Lamed, Richardson, and Green. The number in the postconference trip is generally referred to as 50. Incidental comments by James and Bowker mention 60 as the number of librarians present. For a list of 68 Americans "booked for attendance," of whom 43 are identified as library-connected, see: Public Libraries 2:272-73, June 1897.


15. Ibid., p. 19.

16. Ibid., p. 20.

17. Ibid., p. 22.


20. Ibid., p. 79.

21. Ibid.

23. Ibid., p. 121.


27. Ibid., p. 168.

28. Ibid., p. 169.

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41. Ibid., p. 128.

42. Cutter, Charles A. "The Expansive Classification." In Transactions and Proceedings..., op cit., pp. 84-88; for discussion, see pp. 235-36.

43. Ibid., p. 84.

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57. Ibid., p. 153.
62. Osterhout Free Library. Library News Letter, vol. 7, nos. 6-12 (Sept. 1897-March 1898); vol. 8, nos. 1, 3-8 (April, June-Nov., 1898). (Grateful acknowledgment

VITA

Budd L. Gambee holds an A.B. degree in English from the University of Rochester, and earned the ABLS, MALS and Ph.D. degrees from the University of Michigan. He has held positions in the public libraries of Aurora (Illinois) and Detroit (Michigan); in university libraries at West Virginia University and Ball State University (Muncie, Indiana); as teacher of library science at Ball State University, State University of New York at Albany, University of Michigan, University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill; and he has also held Fulbright lectureships in Egypt and Iran. Mr. Gambee is currently Professor, School of Library Science, University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill. His teaching specialization areas include the audiovisual, history of books and libraries, art librarianship and bibliography, and publishing. He has authored several articles on audiovisual materials and the history of books and libraries in library periodicals.
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