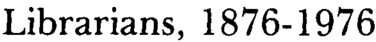

Librarians, 1876-1976

EDWARD G. HOLLEY

WHEN THE U.S. Senate Committee on Rules and Administration conducted hearings on the nomination of Daniel J. Boorstin to be Librarian of Congress in July and September 1975, one had a sensation of *déjà vu* about the arguments on "Who is a librarian?" and "What does a library administrator do?"[1] The organized library profession has, in fact, spent much of its first century discussing the qualifications of the librarian, how he or she will be trained, what salaries and other perquisites should be available, whether or not civil service and/or unions would help or hinder the development of qualified staff, the roles of women and minorities, and whether there is a shortage or surplus among the graduates of library schools.

Early contrasting points of view on the qualifications of the librarian may be found in the paper of Lloyd Smith at the 1876 ALA conference, the discussion of the librarian as scientist in the opening remarks of John William Wallace, and a section of William Frederick Poole's article in the 1876 report on public libraries.[2] Smith saw the librarian as the traditional gentleman scholar, a lover of books, aristocratic, steeped in classical and foreign languages and sensitive to the problems of scholarship. Wallace saw the librarian as not only a "valuable minister to letters" who stood between the world of authors and readers, but also as a professional who could bring to bear the chief qualities of science in solving the bibliographical problems then so clearly emerging. Thus, Wallace thought the time had arrived for a new science, "bibliothecal science," and that the promotion of this science through various bibliothecal conferences and congresses organized by a united profession would be of immeasurable benefit to the human race. As a distinguished practitioner of both the scholarly and practical side of librarianship, Poole felt strongly about experi-

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ence in a good library as the fundamental qualification of a new appointee, and he deplored the tendency of boards to employ only local candidates or those who had failed in other occupations:

> The directors, if they use the same good judgment which they apply to their own private business, will appoint a person who has had experience; and such a person can be obtained at a moderate salary if inquiries be made at some of the large libraries where young persons of both sexes have been regularly trained. The local prejudice that the librarian must be a resident is absurd, and one which the individual members of the board do not observe in conducting their own affairs. The business of a librarian is a profession, and practical knowledge of the subject is never so much needed as in starting a new enterprise. If a person of experience cannot be found, the best material that offers, resident or otherwise, must be taken. Persons who have failed in everything else are usually the local applicants for the position. Broken down ministers, briefless lawyers, unsuccessful school teachers, and physicians without patients, especially, are desirous to distinguish themselves as librarians. The same energy, industry, and tact, to say nothing of experience, which insure success in other avocations are quite as requisite in a librarian as book knowledge. A mere bookworm in charge of a public library, who has not the qualities just named, is an incubus and a nuisance.[3]

Arguments on such qualifications have raged vigorously over the past century as education for librarianship has moved from apprentice training in libraries, through library training schools in public libraries, and finally to professional graduate schools connected with universities, culminating in doctoral programs to educate librarians at the highest level of research. The library profession in the United States, which followed the pragmatic strain of Poole and the scientific strain urged by Wallace, has often been contrasted to the more traditional and scholarly approach characteristic of their Western European colleagues.[4] Whatever the successes and/or failures along the way, at the close of its first century most major administrative positions in American libraries reflect the increasing professionalization and standardization of librarianship. As John Darling noted in a recent master's paper comparing the changes in directorships of large academic libraries in the late 1960s and early 1970s with similar changes which took place in the late 1940s: "If one wants to be a director of a large university library, he should start early, earn a

professional library science degree, spend his career in academic librarianship at increasing levels of administrative responsibilities, and worry about it if he hasn't reached the top by the age of 46."[5]

When the 1876 conference was held, the number of librarians, however defined, was small. In a table compiled from the 1870 U.S. census, the Commissioner of Education reported that there were 209 librarians in the thirty-seven states and four more in the various territories.[6] Not surprisingly, the largest number (sixty-three) was found in Massachusetts, and the second largest number (thirty-six) in New York. Other states with ten or more included California (ten), Connecticut (sixteen), Pennsylvania (nineteen), and Rhode Island (eleven). Under the circumstances, the fact that 103 persons interested in libraries assembled at Philadelphia to found the American Library Association can be regarded as significant.

Despite the growth of libraries in the late nineteenth century, the number of librarians increased slowly. However, by the turn of the century, when the decennial census first began to provide more consistent data on librarians, the number of librarians was cited as 4,184, and in the intervening seventy-five years the number has increased rapidly (see Table 1). During the same period the number of librarians who were members of the American Library Association also increased dramatically (see Table 2). In 1902 ALA reached a membership of 1,152, its first time to surpass one thousand. That same year, attendance at the annual conference was more than 500 for the first time: 1,018 registered for the Boston and Magnolia (Massachusetts) conference. The largest attendance ever at an annual conference occurred in New York in 1974, when 14,382 persons were present. The membership that year was 34,010.

While census figures are not wholly accurate, they do reveal that approximately one-quarter of million persons are currently working in American libraries. Despite this large number, a recent article by Michael Cooper indicates that professional librarians represent only about 0.16 percent of all workers in all industries in the United States, and only 1.13 percent of the occupational group labeled professional, technical, and kindred workers.[7]

Another article recently analyzed the highlights of a Bureau of Labor Statistics bulletin, *Library Manpower—A Study of Demand and Supply,* and noted that of an estimated 115,000 librarians in 1970, about 45 percent were school librarians, 23 percent public librarians, 17 percent academic librarians, and 15 percent special librarians.[8] Library attendants and assistants, who constitute about one-half the

TABLE 1

NUMBERS OF LIBRARIANS AS DERIVED FROM
U.S. DECENNIAL CENSUS INFORMATION

	Total	Male	Female	Black Male	Black Female	Other
1900	4,184	1,059	3,125	Total Blacks: 99		6
1910	7,423	1,594	5,829	Information not given		
1910 (assistants)	3,299	507	2,792			
Total (1910)	10,722	2,101	8,621			
1920	15,297	1,795	13,502	32	9	1
1920 (assistants)	2,279	1,067	1,212	22	47	1
Total (1920)	17,576	2,862	14,714	54	56	2
1930	29,613	2,557	27,056	30	180	27
1940	36,347	3,801	32,546	Information not found		
1950	57,060	6,390	50,670	330	1,140	240
1960	85,392	12,357	73,035	533	3,294	953
1970	123,549	22,286	101,263	Only figure given: 92% white		
1970 (assistants)	126,207	26,207	99,337	1,201	6,735	2,040
Total (1970)	249,756	48,493	200,600			

NOTE: In the 1910 census catalogers were included as assistants. In 1920, catalogers were classified as librarians. It is not precisely clear what the term "assistant" meant, but it is perhaps helpful to note that in 1920, some 25 percent of them were under the age of 18. In 1970, the term "assistants" is taken to mean nonlibrarians (supportive staff).

total number of persons working in libraries, are employed chiefly in public and academic libraries. Projections for 1970-85 indicate that there will be an increase of about 139,000 persons working in libraries during the fifteen-year period, but the largest increase will be among attendants and assistants and not among librarians (see Table 3).

Throughout the century that librarians have discussed their role in society and have attempted to come to grips with problems such as the definition of various tasks to be performed in libraries, there have been cycles of growth and stability. The census data, however, clearly indicate a long-term increase in the number of persons employed. At various times librarians have stressed different facets of problems

TABLE 2

AMERICAN LIBRARY ASSOCIATION
MEMBERSHIP AND CONFERENCE ATTENDANCE

Year	Membership	Conference Attendance	Conference Site
1876	69	103	Philadelphia, PA
1901	980	460	Waukesha, WI
1926	8,848	2,224	Atlantic City, NJ
1951	19,701	3,612	Chicago, IL
1975	33,516*	11,662	San Francisco, CA

*As of August 31, 1975.

Source: ALA *Membership Directory; see also* Cory, John MacKenzie. "ALA Membership—Past and Future," *ALA Bulletin* 45: 197, June 1951.

NOTE: The 1976 Conference will be located in Chicago. The ALA Membership Committee has set a goal of 50,000 members for the Centennial Conference and the conference attendance may set a record for the century.

associated with library development. In the early period there was concern chiefly for the organization of book collections and buildings. Then personnel became a concern as the Carnegie Corporation shifted its attention to the staffing of the buildings it had funded. Finally, the profession began to look seriously at the role of the individual librarian within the environment in which he or she worked. This paper will attempt to highlight in twenty-five-year periods events which reflected concern for the librarian, and will conclude by calling attention to the in-depth studies of individual librarians. Some oversimplification is inevitable in such a process; the picture must be painted here with a broad brush.

1876-1900

Although it is not easy to generalize about the first twenty-five years of library history, perhaps it is safe to say that it was a period of a few giants in the profession. Among the founders, Justin Winsor, librarian of the Boston Public Library and subsequently Harvard, was ALA president for ten years, and was succeeded by William Frederick Poole and Charles Cutter, each of whom served for two years. All three librarians have been the subject of extensive studies in dissertation form, but so far only one has been published.[9] The other dominant figure of the period, except for nonlibrarian Richard

TABLE 3

PROJECTED EMPLOYMENT REQUIREMENTS FOR LIBRARIANS AND LIBRARY ATTENDANTS AND ASSISTANTS, BY TYPE OF LIBRARY, 1970-85

Type of Library	Librarians			Library Attendants and Assistants		
	1970	1980	1985	1970	1980	1985
All libraries	115,000	141,000	162,000	120,000	173,000	212,000
School	52,000	64,500	79,500	19,000	27,000	40,000
Public	26,500	30,000	33,000	45,000	67,000	85,000
Academic	19,500	26,500	27,000	40,000	59,000	62,500
Special	17,000	20,000	22,500	16,000	20,000	24,500

Source: Kahl, Anne. "What's Happening to Jobs in the Library Field?" *Occupational Outlook Quarterly* 18:24, Winter 1974.

Rogers Bowker,[10] was Melvil Dewey. Unfortunately, Dewey has not yet been the subject of a standard, substantial biography. To be sure, there were other librarians whose names deserve mention, but these figures dominate. William Foster's descriptions of the five are still apt enough to bear quotation: "They were all needed; the well-balanced wisdom of Justin Winsor, the mellow view of life of William Frederick Poole, the delicate and accurate scholarship of Charles Ammi Cutter, the unconquerable tenacity of purpose of Melvil Dewey, and the clear-headed perception and patient cooperation of Richard Rogers Bowker."[11] They and their protégés made the major decisions for the emerging profession; it was not until the end of the century that they were succeeded by the newer leaders like Herbert Putnam.

What were the library staffs like during this period? They were often presided over by a chief librarian who had been trained in one of the major libraries of the period, such as the Boston Athenaeum, the Boston Public Library, or the Chicago Public Library. By the end of the period, they were emerging from Melvil Dewey's New York State Library School at Albany, which had first been started at Columbia and then transferred when Dewey and the trustees couldn't agree on the matter of the admission of women. To meet the growing demand for public librarians, training schools had been established at Drexel, Pratt, and Armour Institute, as well as at the public libraries of Denver and Los Angeles.[12] Since these training schools could

supply only part of the demand, the rest of the staff tended to be recruited from the local area, and on-the-job training was a major fact of life for most libraries.

Although the 1876 conference was dominated by men, women became prominent in the library profession quite early in ALA's history. The 1876 conference was reportedly attended by ninety men and thirteen women, but by the turn of the century, the sexual ratio of the profession had almost reversed itself. At the Boston-Magnolia Conference in 1902, women accounted for 736 of the total 1,018 present.[13] Women had been employed in academic libraries as early as 1858 at Harvard,[14] and 1852 at the Boston Public Library.[15] Despite stories of their having asked "Papa" Poole, Lloyd Smith or some other male librarian to speak for them in the deliberations at early conferences, they quickly learned to speak for themselves. As early as 1879, Caroline Hewins, Librarian of the Hartford Public Library, and Lucy Stevens, Librarian of the Toledo Public Library, were ALA councilors.[16]

At the 1877 International Conference of Librarians, the conservative Lloyd Smith had noted that a lady librarian was almost never encountered in England while the majority of librarians in America were women.[17] Both Winsor and Poole strongly supported the employment of capable women in libraries, and Winsor said it was the college-educated woman whom libraries ought to seek for employment in the future.[18]

Some years later, William I. Fletcher noted in his book, *Public Libraries in America* (1894), that "librarianship affords a fine field for woman's work, and a decided majority of all American librarians are women."[19] He added that precisely one-half of the 100 largest libraries listed in the appendix to his book were headed by women.[20] What Fletcher did not note was that women did not head the largest and most significant libraries. Of the five public libraries listed as having over 100,000 volumes, none was headed by a woman. Among the prominent women librarians in charge of sizable public libraries one must include Caroline Hewins, one of Poole's protégés at the Hartford (Connecticut) Public Library, which had 40,000 volumes; Theresa West, an ALA councilor and vice president the following year, at Milwaukee with 70,027 volumes; and Tessa Kelso at Los Angeles with 29,389 volumes. Incidentally, West was later elected the first woman president of ALA for 1911-12. The American Library Association was considerably ahead of other educational and professional associations in electing women to leadership posts.[21]

At the request of the ALA president, Salome Cutler Fairchild prepared a paper on "Women in American Libraries" for the 1904 conference at the St. Louis Exposition.[22] Although she did not read the paper, it was subsequently published in *Library Journal.* Fairchild had made a thorough analysis of the place women had occupied in librarianship and noted that although they had been quite active in ALA, with a "pleasing lack of self-consciousness," she found their position in the field to be quite another matter. In her survey of one hundred representative libraries of all types, she had asked for data on total staff, total number of women, and relative salaries. Among the twenty-one largest public libraries, nineteen were headed by men, with only Indianapolis and Minneapolis being exceptions.[23] In contrast, out of the thirty-three smaller public libraries, twenty-one were headed by women. None of the free reference libraries, governmental libraries, proprietary or subscription libraries were headed by women, and only four of the twenty-four academic libraries had women as chief librarians. There was considerable discrepancy in the salaries paid to women and men, although the women greatly outnumbered the men on the staffs of these one hundred libraries. Fairchild concluded that "they do not hold the positions offering the highest salaries, and broadly speaking, apparently they do not receive equal remuneration for the same grade of work."[24]

In a paper on the feminization of libraries, Dee Garrison has hypothesized that low salaries of librarians and their poor recognition by society have resulted from the fact that librarianship by the turn of the century had become largely a feminine profession.[25] Cheap female labor and low professional status reportedly go together, and statistical data in the intervening years have not much altered Fairchild's basic conclusions. In his foreword to Alice Bryan's study, *The Public Librarian,* published in 1952, Robert Leigh noted that: "like teaching and nursing, librarianship has been and still is carried on largely by women. The dearth of job opportunities of equal dignity and opportunity for able women in other occupations in the past undoubtedly accounted in part for the maintenance of relatively low library salary levels, which nevertheless retained good quality of personnel."[26] For an up-to-date review, Anita Schiller's "Women in Librarianship," published in the fourth volume of *Advances in Librarianship,* provides a thorough analysis.[27]

As the Michael Cooper study shows,[28] librarianship enters its second century still predominantly female and still predominantly underpaid. Affirmative action may eventually reduce the discrepancies and

make a reality of the ideal expressed by R.A. Peddie at the second London conference in 1897: "I believe that in America women often do the same work as men and I consider that if the work is equal the pay should also be equal."[29]

1901-1925

If the first twenty-five years of the American Library Association was a period of pioneers and giants, the second began at the Waukesha (Wisconsin) conference in 1901 with almost no attention that this was a significant celebration. That an association about which many had doubts could have survived for a quarter-century and have a membership which reached almost a thousand should certainly have been some cause for rejoicing. Strangely enough, though, the only mention of the twenty-fifth anniversary came in a few introductory remarks in Henry James Carr's presidential address, "Being a Librarian."[30] Carr, librarian of the Scranton (Pennsylvania) Public Library, took some pride in the association's success in attracting and holding its membership, but he spent most of his address on the fundamental question of whether librarianship was a profession. That was a question which would be raised often in the future and to which Abraham Flexner, who told the social workers in 1915 that they were no profession,[31] would give a frank "no" in his provocative book, *Universities: American, English, German* (1930).[32] The tenor of Carr's address was that librarianship has many of the characteristics of a profession and that it really was a profession on which other professions depended for the service of their literature. Carr, however, was fully aware of some of the unresolved problems of librarianship. He noted the necessity for delineating the functions of the librarian as generalist from those of the librarian as specialist. Moreover, he called attention to the fact that librarianship had not yet clearly defined the tasks of the chief executive and implied that many chiefs were still too concerned with details. Finally, Carr said that librarianship needed to formulate some ethical principles like other professions if it was to be regarded in the same light.[33] This last point was to be considered by numerous individuals and groups in the next three decades, but not until 1938 did ALA adopt its first code of ethics.[34] Moreover, the difficulty of changing such statements became clear as the century advanced and the 1938 code, long out of date, was superseded by a new Statement of Professional Ethics adopted at the ALA Midwinter Conference, 1975.[35] The Ethics Committee had been working on the revised statement for more than a decade.

Training emerged as a major concern during the second twenty-five years, culminating in the famous Williamson Report in 1923 and the establishment of ALA's Board of Education for Librarianship the following year. Indicative of the concern about personnel was an article, "Training for Librarianship,"[36] by Mary Wright Plummer, director of Pratt Institute, which appeared in *Library Journal* one month before the 1901 conference convened. Plummer discussed the instruction being given by training schools and the reasons for it, but her chief concern was the attitude of the profession toward training-school graduates. She took strong exception to those who counterpoised library training and personality as qualifications for library positions for she believed a librarian could have "common sense and sympathy" as well as solid school training.[37] There was considerable indication of prejudice in some libraries against employing library school graduates, and Plummer was also sensitive to the fact that many libraries discriminated against them in promotion. Unless such libraries developed a rigorous examination for entrance and promotion, she did not see how the librarian would know who was competent to fill the professional positions. Plummer's article was followed by a series of library examination papers from various libraries,[38] and the editor of *Library Journal* noted that "libraries have endeavored to apply the best civil service principles in selecting assistants, and in no profession has there been more marked growth in the standard set for entrance into practical work."[39] The argument over professional credentials would also be one which still haunted librarians as they began their second century. Could a librarian learn enough on the job to take examinations and demonstrate the same competence as a library school graduate for promotion purposes? The debate continues.[40]

Plummer was defensive about the training-school products and attempted to answer those who said common sense was more important than training. She thought rather that the profession should have both, and would be the better for it; nor was she happy that some administrators offered small or no salaries to the school-trained assistants and cited their lack of experience as sufficient reason. She claimed: "Nor can we have much sympathy with the board of the large library whose recognition of service ranges from the wages paid to cash-girls in stores, through a gradual advance of $25 per year, up to the salary of the primary or intermediate grade teacher, when it expects to secure for this the selected student of the schools."[41] If there was some maternalism in Plummer's defense of her students, it

was also a case of recognition that library salaries and benefits were disgracefully low in any case and that excuses for keeping them that way should not be accepted without something said on the other side.

Salaries and benefits, of course, were an early and continuing topic of concern to librarians. At the 1877 conference in London, E.B. Nicholson deplored the low salaries which some British librarians in the provinces were receiving.[42] In line with the perceived gentility of the profession, J.D. Mullins thought there was a reluctance to discuss such matters, but he also thought that the conference could make a major contribution by gathering a list of requirements for library positions and statistics concerning salaries paid in England and America.[43]

Both at the 1877 conference and at the second international library conference in 1897, regret was expressed over the inadequate salaries, especially since they discouraged bright young men from entering the profession. Melvil Dewey, the inveterate optimist, thought that the law of supply and demand would take care of the situation since there was a scarcity of good librarians in 1877;[44] twenty years later Dewey thought librarians would be better rewarded if they performed better.[45] On both counts he had disagreement. Some librarians were not reluctant to add that the prevalence of women in librarianship demonstrated that librarianship was an underpaid profession as much as it demonstrated the field's openness to capable women. The second twenty-five years would see increasing concern with such matters as salaries, working conditions, vacations, and other benefits. In one of the series, "Classics of American Librarianship,"[46] Jessie Sargent McNiece collected reprints of articles and addresses on *The Library and Its Workers* (1929).[47] Most of the articles on salaries, hours of work, vacations, standards, civil service, pensions, etc., appeared in library literature between 1901 and 1926.

One of the pioneers in the efforts for better salaries was William E. Henry, librarian of the University of Washington (Seattle), whose "Living Salaries for Good Service,"[48] published in 1919, compared the salaries of teachers and librarians to the disadvantage of the latter. Henry encouraged grading of positions, paying decent salaries, and attracting good people. He was one of the early academic librarians to work out a formula for library staffing, which achieved national recognition by being published in the ALA survey in 1926.[49] More importantly, as an indication of the lag in academic libraries, the University of Washington was the only academic library which reported a scheme of service similar to that reported for public libraries,

with a grade for clerical employees and three grades for professionals, including salary steps and descriptions of duties.[50]

As the ALA approached its fiftieth anniversary, several matters of concern to librarians were being addressed. In 1920, the council had passed a resolution on classification of library positions in the federal service.[51] With the passage of the Classification Act of 1923, federal employees became even more concerned with their relative ranking in the new scheme. The ALA council therefore created a new Committee on Classification of Library Personnel under the chairmanship of Arthur Bostwick. Working with Fred Telford, director of the Bureau of Public Personnel Administration, the committee was influential in the development of the *Proposed Classification and Compensation Plans for Library Positions,* an analysis of 170 library positions published in 1927 and subsequently known as the Telford Report.[52] This was a forerunner of numerous classification and pay plans for library personnel developed during the 1930s and 1940s.

At about the same time that these developments were occurring, the concern for training and adequate salaries led to the appointment in January 1922 of the ALA Salaries Committee. This committee was specifically charged with collecting statistics and making comparisons with other professional groups. The first report of the committee, which was chaired by Charles Compton, indicated the nature of the task: "The Salaries Committee's primary object should be to supply ammunition to the librarian in his fight for the development of a favorable community attitude toward better library salaries. The Committee, it would seem, can best do this by making available such facts bearing on salaries as have been indicated in this report."[53] The committee later expanded its efforts to include such personnel matters as pensions and tenure. It began the publication of statistics on salaries which lasted from 1922 to 1943, and was continued after that for academic libraries by the Association of College and Research Libraries. The committee's work included comparisons of librarians with social workers, as well as attention to the needs of library assistants.[54] Its work later embraced the development of classification and pay plans during the 1930s, 1940s, and early 1950s, and has been summarized in several articles, including an excellent one by Hazel Timmerman.[55]

Immediately after World War I, ALA made plans to conduct a massive national survey of libraries. The problem of funding delayed the study, but it was finally begun in 1924 under a grant from the Carnegie Corporation.[56] The director of the survey was C. Seymour

Thompson, who was assisted by a committee chaired by Arthur Bostwick. Publication of the survey was to be timed to coincide with the ALA fiftieth anniversary celebration. The survey staff distributed to all libraries holding more than 5,000 volumes a detailed questionnaire on the total range of library problems, from administrative through staff to services, both public and technical. Replies were received from about one-half of the entire number and included 1,243 public or semipublic libraries and 261 college and university libraries. Although Thompson regretted the omission of a few major public and university libraries, the data seemed adequate for analysis. Volume one, *Administrative Work of Public Libraries and of College and University Libraries,* appeared in 1926.[57] It contained extensive information on organization, administration, and staffs both of public and academic libraries.

What specifically did the ALA survey discover? Among public librarians the arguments for and against civil service as a basis for employee selection were continuing. Nonetheless, by this time many of the large libraries were wrestling with questions on the criteria for appointment and promotion. A number developed personnel schemes for grading staff, while seven states had adopted some form of certification.[58] There were numerous examples of examinations from various libraries, efficiency or service records had become a part of personnel procedures, and the libraries of New York and Chicago were cited as examples of public libraries with specific analysis of duties, qualifications, and salaries for various grades. According to the statistics of full-time employees in public libraries, less than one-half had enjoyed as much as six months training of any kind. The range was from 55.38 percent in libraries of more than 100,000 volumes to 77.05 percent for those of less than 20,000 volumes. Fewer than one-fourth of the full-time employees in all public libraries were college graduates and only about one-fourth were graduates of either one- or two-year library schools (see Table 4).

Not surprisingly, the academic libraries made a better showing on collegiate education, but those with less than six months training ranged from 31.5 percent to 58 percent (see Table 5). The statistics are based on only 144 replies, and the percentages represent only the full-time staff as was true of the public libraries. Unfortunately, most academic libraries did not define their educational and technical qualifications for various positions, except for the single instance of the University of Washington, as previously cited.[59] Librarian W.E. Henry had worked out his scheme very carefully and had also

TABLE 4

PUBLIC LIBRARIES

LIBRARIES OF MORE THAN 100,000 VOLUMES	Number	Percentage*
Libraries represented	47	
Full-time employes	4,590	
Part-time employes	930	
College graduates	1,095	23.85
Two-year library school graduates	193	4.20
One-year library school graduates	812	17.69
Training class (at least 6 months)	1,043	22.72
Less than 6 months training	2,542	55.38
LIBRARIES OF 50,000-100,000 VOLUMES	**Number**	**Percentage***
Libraries represented	57	
Full-time employes	779	
Part-time employes	211	
College graduates	172	22.07
Two-year library school graduates	32	4.10
One-year library school graduates	165	21.18
Training class (at least 6 months)	135	17.32
Less than 6 months training	447	57.38
LIBRARIES OF 20,000-50,000 VOLUMES	**Number**	**Percentage***
Libraries represented	133	
Full-time employes	751	
Part-time employes	214	
College graduates	165	21.97
Two-year library school graduates	29	3.86
One-year library school graduates	165	21.97
Training class (at least 6 months)	98	13.04
Less than 6 months training	459	61.09
LIBRARIES OF LESS THAN 20,000 VOLUMES	**Number**	**Percentage***
Libraries represented	440	
Full-time employes	828	
Part-time employes	401	
College graduates	150	18.11
Two-year library school graduates	22	2.65
One-year library school graduates	94	11.35
Training class (at least 6 months)	74	8.93
Less than 6 months training	638	77.05

*Percentages computed on the number of full-time employees alone

Source: *ALA Survey, I*, 1926, p. 136.

TABLE 5

College and University Libraries

Libraries of More Than 100,000 Volumes

	Number	Percentage*
Libraries represented	30	
Full-time employes	582	
Part-time employes	271	
College graduates	337	57.9
Two-year library school graduates	48	8.2
One-year library school graduates	157	26.9
Training class (at least 6 months)	39	6.7
Less than 6 months training	338	58.0

Libraries of 50,000-100,000 Volumes

	Number	Percentage*
Libraries represented	36	
Full-time employes	206	
Part-time employes	143	
College graduates	140	67.9
Two-year library school graduates	24	11.6
One-year library school graduates	71	34.4
Training class (at least 6 months)	29	14.0
Less than 6 months training	82	39.8

Libraries of 20,000-50,000 Volumes

	Number	Percentage*
Libraries represented	41	
Full-time employes	124	
Part-time employes	134	
College graduates	80	64.5
Two-year library school graduates	20	16.1
One-year library school graduates	40	32.2
Training class (at least 6 months)	7	5.6
Less than 6 months training	57	45.9

Libraries of Less Than 20,000 Volumes

	Number	Percentage*
Libraries represented	43	
Full-time employes	73	
Part-time employes	93	
College graduates	53	72.6
Two-year library school graduates	8	10.9
One-year library school graduates	24	32.8
Training class (at least 6 months)	18	24.6
Less than 6 months training	23	31.5

Source: *ALA Survey, I,* 1926, pp. 263-64.

established a tentative basis for determining how many staff members an academic library needed. This formula for the adequacy of the number of staff was based on the number of volumes added and the number of patrons served. Henry's attempts did not gain a wide following, but by the 1950s a number of states attempted to develop such formulas for academic libraries.[60]

1926-1950

Although library education is treated in another article in this issue,[61] one should note that the third quarter-century of ALA's existence saw extensive Carnegie Corporation grants for improvement of library schools, the affiliation with universities of those schools associated with public libraries (as recommended by the Williamson report), and the founding of the Graduate Library School of the University of Chicago. The last named event may have been the most significant of all for the long-range upgrading of library personnel. Under the leadership of Louis Round Wilson from 1932 to 1942, the GLS not only pioneered in a new research-oriented approach to library education but also produced studies of fundamental importance to the library profession. Whatever the critics might say (and they were numerous), and despite the extent to which some librarians might talk about "common sense" and "experience" as opposed to education, the Graduate Library School would educate library leaders whose influence on the profession during the post-World War II period would be profound.[62]

Also emerging during the 1930s was a concern for work with Negroes and attention to the need for training Black librarians. The history of this development has yet to be written, but a significant event happened at the 1936 Richmond, Virginia, ALA conference as a result of discrimination against Black librarians.[63] The association adopted a policy that it would not again meet in cities which could not guarantee equal accommodations for all ALA conference attendees; twenty years would pass before ALA met in the South again. Some of the perceptions of Black librarians concerning discrimination in the profession can be found in essays in two books edited by E.J. Josey, *The Black Librarian in America* and *What Black Librarians are Saying.*[64] Table 1 in this article indicates that the number of professional librarians from minority groups is extremely small. Although fellowships under Title II-B of the Higher Education Act of 1965 have somewhat ameliorated the situation, much remains to be done to recruit Black librarians to the profession.[65]

In a forthcoming article on "Library Services to Afro-Americans, 1876-1976," A.P. Marshall has termed the period from 1925 to 1950 "The Sleeping Giant Awakens,"[66] and notes that there was a consciousness among Blacks during this period that they must demand the rights of citizenship. Black literacy had increased to 83.7 percent by 1930 with the concomitant necessity to improve library services and extend them to all citizens. There had been some earlier efforts, including the establishment of a Roundtable on Work with Negroes in 1922 and a training program at the Louisville Public Library's Colored Department, which had trained assistants to work in libraries.

Two major figures among Black librarians during the early period were Edward Christopher Williams, librarian at Western Reserve University (1894-1909), and subsequently at Howard University (1916-29), and Thomas Fountain Blue at the Louisville Public Library. Williams has been the subject of a lengthy and impressive essay by E.J. Josey,[67] but Blue's life has not yet been treated in similar fashion. Marshall has noted, however, that Blue's impact upon Negro librarianship was significant. In Blue's thirty years with the Louisville Public Library:

> He made his department such a model of service that his contributions there brought him wide recognition. He established training workshops for the library employees, welcoming interested persons from other cities which were interested in the establishment of branch libraries to serve the black population. Such cities as Houston, Birmingham, Atlanta, Evansville, Memphis, Knoxville, Nashville and Chattanooga sent workers to Louisville to receive basic training in library techniques.[68]

Also important in the training of Black librarians was the library school at Hampton Institute, which flourished from 1925 to 1939 and was succeeded by the school at Atlanta University in 1941. Under the deanship of Virginia Lacy Jones, Atlanta University has produced more Black librarians than any other library school. Many of the current Black library leaders are graduates of Atlanta's program.

Significant also in this third period of American librarianship was the awarding of the first doctoral degree in library science to a Black person, Eliza Atkins Gleason, whose dissertation was published in 1941 under the title *The Southern Negro and the Public Library*.[69] Gleason's study documented the extent of poor or nonexistent library service for four-fifths of the Negro population in the Southern states.[70] Despite some good work in North Carolina, where Mollie

Houston Lee was a leader,[71] progress was slow, but the foundation was laid for further progress during the fourth quarter of ALA's first century.

1951-1976

Marshall calls the 1951-76 era "The Responsive Period,"[72] but it is apparent that much remains to be done. There did emerge in the 1960s a strong professional stand on free access to all public libraries for all citizens. However, Robert Wedgeworth has indicated that few Black librarians had been appointed to ALA committees in the 1960s and few had been elected to the council.[73] His own subsequent appointment as the first Black executive director of the ALA in 1972, and the election of Clara Jones to the post of vice-president and president-elect in 1975 indicate that the struggles of the 1930s, 1940s, and 1960s were not without positive results. If, as A.P. Marshall has suggested, it has taken one hundred years for the Afro-American to become visible in librarianship, perhaps he is also right in asserting that "the second century should make his color invisible by absorbing him into the mainstream of American life, and allowing release of his pentup abilities and emotions, exploding 'the dream, no longer deferred.' "[74]

The 1930s saw the continued work of various ALA committees concerned with the welfare of librarians, but the depression also gave rise to criticism that library schools were producing too many graduates who could not subsequently find employment. In response to the critics, the Board of Education for Librarianship (BEL) in 1932 adopted a policy of discouraging new library schools and also encouraged the accredited library schools to reduce their enrollments.[75] This ultimately was to have unfortunate consequences. As Charles Churchwell has noted, the primary cause of unemployment among librarians was not an oversupply, but rather the economic crisis caused by the Great Depression.[76] While the BEL's action led to a reduction in librarians trained by the accredited schools, there was no comparable action to reduce the number of teacher-librarians from unaccredited programs. With economic recovery and World War II, which saw many librarians leave the profession for either military service or better-paying jobs, a shortage of trained librarians developed.[77] Much of the post-World War II period was to be concerned with the recruitment and training of librarians. The expansion of libraries in the 1950s and 1960s would cause severe personnel shortages before leveling off in the late 1960s and early 1970s.

One of the major problems along the way was that of the school-librarian. Although everyone recognized the need for libraries in elementary and secondary schools, and although they were included in state and regional accreditation standards as early as the 1920s and 1930s, their relationship to the main body of librarians remained nebulous at the end of the century. From the beginning, many of the school library leaders have proclaimed that school librarians should be trained as rigorously as other kinds of librarians, since they needed to know far more than just the principles and practices of librarianship. The problem is how this can be achieved.

At first the school-librarian was the solution, a sort of intermediary point between teaching and librarianship. An individual could obtain a teaching certificate with an option in librarianship by taking some minimum number of courses at the undergraduate level. Many school librarians were trained in teachers' colleges and their relationship to the main body of the profession was minimal at best. Although the profession has grappled with the problem over the years, it has not been solved. In late 1967, the ALA received a grant of more than $1 million from the Knapp Foundation for a study of the varied tasks performed in school libraries and the appropriate training and education to prepare for their performance.[78] The first report of this five-year project, *Curriculum Alternatives: Experiments in School Library Media Education,* appeared in 1974. As a recent reviewer has noted:

> While this project represents another major step in school library development, it suggests many significant questions yet to be addressed seriously by the library profession. "Should library education at the undergraduate level be eliminated or continued and improved? Should it be designed chiefly for school media specialists or should it prepare personnel for positions as library associates in all types of libraries?"[79]

The final assessment of the Knapp School Library Manpower Project, which appeared in 1975, listed many unresolved issues, but ended on a hopeful note: "the School Library Manpower Project set out to produce changes in the profession. It has done that, but at a considerable cost in time and effort. The development of new educational programs is a slow, time-consuming, and often painful process. But it can be done and it is worth doing."[80]

The post-World War II period was a time of rapid growth for libraries. With the encouragement of the federal government through the GI bill, thousands of veterans returned to campuses and

swelled college enrollments. The expansion of higher education, stemming in part from the research efforts conducted by universities during the war, would continue for three decades. Among the concerns of academic librarians was their place under the higher education sun. Arguments on the virtues and drawbacks of faculty status had risen to a crescendo by the end of the fourth period. ACRL published two monographs on the subject, numerous articles, and in 1975, a collection of policy statements.[81] Included in the last-mentioned document was a Joint ACRL-AAUP "Statement on Faculty Status" which was adopted in 1973.

Collective bargaining was also emerging as a factor in the academic librarian's struggle for status and salaries comparable to the perquisites of his teaching colleagues. Much of the union activity to date has occurred in public libraries. Theodore Guyton, in his recent book, *Unionization: The Viewpoint of Librarians*, notes that library union activity has gone through three stages in this country: 1917-20, 1934-49, and 1960 to date.[82] By far the most significant of these periods in terms of membership, agreements negotiated, and impact upon the profession, has occurred since the mid-1960s. Although union membership is still relatively low among librarians, the degree of unionization is increasing and the decision of AAUP to enter the collective bargaining arena will undoubtedly have a major impact on academic librarians.

In 1951 the American Library Association celebrated its seventy-fifth anniversary just after the publication of several volumes of a survey called the Public Library Inquiry. Directed by social scientist Robert Leigh under the auspicies of the Social Science Research Countil, the Public Library Inquiry was intended to provide a thorough and comprehensive analysis of the American public library. It reportedly was to provide more data than any yet collected on major topics of interest to public librarians. Because of widespread interest in the results, the Graduate Library School of the University of Chicago devoted its 1949 conference to a forum on the inquiry. Among the reports discussed at that conference was Alice I. Bryan's *The Public Librarian,* although the book itself did not appear for another three years. As Amy Winslow noted in her comments on the study, "Most of us will find the results depressing."[83] Although there had been progress in the education of staffs since the 1926 survey, many of the same problems remained.[84] The library profession was still 92 percent female, the shortage of librarians was compounded by the inadequate salary levels, clerical duties continued to predominate,

and public librarians were rarely community leaders. Moreover, only 58 percent of the professional librarians held college degrees and, in spite of pressures, only 40 percent held a fifth-year degree in library science. Not surprisingly, administrators responding to the survey admitted that their major personnel problems were securing qualified persons, and low and inadequate salaries. Foreshadowing the debates that would accompany subsequent discussion of the ALA Manpower Statement, Bryan noted a lack of definition of the middle-level position (between the professional librarian and the clerical workers) which had been designated "subprofessional librarian" and recommended that it be eliminated. She also suggested a new nonprofessional category called the "library technician," who would hold a four-year degree and have some courses in library science. Thus did Bryan deal with the perennial problem of how to define supportive staff and create levels of responsibility in which they could work creatively.

During the 1950s and 1960s librarians continued to be concerned about the problem of attracting the "best and the brightest" to the library profession. Library schools expanded, salaries improved, but the perennial problems of adequate definition of the various tasks performed by librarians remained. At the 1961 Chicago GLS conference on "Seven Questions about the Profession of Librarianship," Ralph Parker read a paper on "Ports of Entry to Librarianship."[85] Parker noted that there was only one recognized entry: the graduate library school. However, people became librarians through many other avenues, e.g., the undergraduate library science programs, from faculty positions either in colleges or schools, and from nonprofessional library positions into which some capable people had often drifted. He accused professional training of being educationally unsound without an undergraduate program; perhaps more important, however, was his concern that delayed entry to graduate work often meant that the best students were lost to librarianship.

Agnes Reagan, who was to review the following year the reasons people became librarians,[86] was the discussion leader for Parker's presentation.[87] She did not agree with his emphasis on undergraduate study in librarianship, and noted that there was demonstrated value in recruiting older individuals as well as the bright youngsters to the profession. The difference between the performance of the library school graduate and the non-library school graduate had not been determined objectively, but she did note that the former group seemed to be more mobile and more active professionally.

In her own research Reagan cited the earlier data of Alice Bryan, as well as numerous other studies.[88] Librarians chose their profession for a variety of reasons: love of books and people have been traditional reasons and still predominate on most library school applications. However, Reagan noted that a number of studies indicate that some persons enter librarianship because it will supplement or satisfy a major interest they could not pursue otherwise, and the field itself offers a reasonable possibilities for good positions and advancement.[89] Those reasons which emerged in the 1950s have particularly appealed to some recent Ph.D. holders who cannot find jobs teaching English or history. One should note that such reasons did not first appear in the early 1970s. Intellectual stimulation for such individuals also ranks high, and this is often allied to the desire to use previous academic training.[90]

One new category of personnel which emerged in large academic libraries in the 1960s was the subject area specialist, an individual with training in a subject discipline as well as in librarianship, who could provide bibliographic or reference service in greater depth than the traditional librarian.[91] Whether or not steady-state financing will affect the continuation of such expertise in libraries is a question, but a number of those now switching to librarianship from other disciplines hope to use their previous training in their second professional choice.

Throughout its history the library profession has been plagued with an inability to define precisely what differences exist between the responsibilities of the professional staff and those of other persons who work in libraries. In 1965, through a grant from the H.W. Wilson Foundation, the ALA established an Office for Library Education, one of whose objectives was to try to determine these differences and to develop guidelines for the training and education of library personnel at all levels.[92] The eventual result was a policy statement, *Library Education and Manpower,* approved on June 30, 1970.[93] For many librarians who had long struggled with this problem, this seemed to be the answer. Categories of personnel, both professional and supportive, were delineated in considerable detail (see Table 6). The statement defined the first professional degree for all librarians as being the master's and indicated that henceforth the title "librarian" should no longer be used indiscriminately to designate all who work in libraries. Despite the fact that regional hearings were held and voluminous correspondence took place before its issuance, the policy statement continues to evoke controversy and its proposals

have by no means been accepted by all librarians.[94] In view of the years of struggle involved in the writing of such a document, such disagreement appears unfortunate as librarianship enters its second century.

Much of the foregoing discussion has dealt with how librarians have looked at themselves, their roles, and their perquisites in society. Yet that kind of approach must be supplemented by a humanistic look at the individuals themselves, who provide fascinating glimpses of our professional history.[95] Unfortunately, there have been few biographical studies which really interpret the lives of library pioneers; even the long biographical essays often leave much to be desired. As Michael Harris has noted in his book, *A Guide to Research in American Library History,*[96] most of the substantial work along this line has been accomplished in pursuit of the doctoral degree. He lists some thirteen librarians or library benefactors who have been the objects of such doctoral research. Of those thirteen, only four have yet been published: Holley's *Charles Evans,* William L. Williamson's *William Frederick Poole,* Laurel Grotzinger's *Katharine Lucinda Sharp,* and Charles H. Baumann's *Angus Snead MacDonald.*[97] John Cole's work on Ainsworth Rand Spofford has been published in several articles, and Peggy Sullivan's biography of Carl Milam is scheduled to be published in 1976.[98]

Not to be overlooked in any discussion of major library figures is the earlier biography of Richard R. Bowker by E. McClung Fleming and Maurice Tauber's work on Louis Round Wilson.[99] Because of their impact on American librarianship, the biographies of two English librarians, *Edward Edwards* by W.A. Munford, and *Antonio Panizzi* by Edward Miller should also be mentioned.[100]

In deploring the absence of monographic treatment one can only note that the situation has improved during the past decade. The library historian welcomed the perceptive sketches of William Brett and Linda Eastman in C.H. Cramer's history of the Cleveland Public Library, as well as the important study of William Fletcher by George Bobinski.[101] Moreover, 1976 promises the publication of the *Dictionary of American Library Biography,* which will include some 300 biographical sketches written by experts in the field.[102]

It is regrettable that the profession enters the second century without a definitive biography of Melvil Dewey, and that major work on Justin Winsor and Charles Ammi Cutter remains embalmed in dissertations. Library biography has gone through the stage of sketches by friends and colleagues, memoirs and collected letters, and

TABLE 6

CATEGORIES OF LIBRARY PERSONNEL—PROFESSIONAL

Title For positions requiring: Library-related qualifications	Nonlibrary-related qualifications	Basic Requirements	Nature of Responsibility
Senior Librarian	Senior Specialist	In addition to relevant experience, education beyond the M.A. [i.e., a master's degree in any of its variant designations: M.A., M.L.S., M.S.L.S., M.Ed., etc.] as: post-master's degree; Ph.D.; relevant continuing education in many forms	Top-level responsibilities, including but not limited to administration; superior knowledge of some aspect of librarianship, or of other subject fields of value to the library
Librarian	Specialist	Master's degree	Professional responsibilities including those of management, which require independent judgment, interpretation of rules and procedures, analysis of library problems, and formulation of original and creative solutions for them (normally utilizing knowledge of the subject field represented by the academic degree)

a few short works to celebrate either the fiftieth or seventy-fifth anniversary of ALA, but we shall continue to have only the skeleton of our professional history, and not the personality, until we have more good interpretive studies. In view of the contributions of some of these men and women, our lack can only be a matter of profound regret. Perhaps aspiring library historians in our second century will do better.

CATEGORIES OF LIBRARY PERSONNEL—SUPPORTIVE

Title		Basic Requirements	Nature of Responsibility
Library Associate	Associate Specialist	Bachelor's degree (with or without course work in library science); OR bachelor's degree, plus additional academic work short of the master's degree (in librarianship for the Library Associate; in other relevant subject fields for the Associate Specialist)	Supportive responsibilities at a high level, normally working within the established procedures and techniques, and with some supervision by a professional, but requiring judgment, and subject knowledge such as is represented by a full, four-year college education culminating in the bachelor's degree
Library Technical Assistant	Technical Assistant	At least two years of college-level study; OR A.A. degree, with or without Library Technical Assistant training; OR post-secondary school training in relevant skills	Tasks performed as supportive staff to Associates and higher ranks, following established rules and procedures, and including, at the top level, supervision of such tasks
Clerk		Business school or commercial courses, supplemented by in-service training or on-the-job experience	Clerical assignments as required by the individual library

Source: American Library Association, *Library Education and Manpower,* Chicago, ALA, 1970, p. 2.

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