

# A Century of Students

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WILLIAM LANDRAM WILLIAMSON

IN 1888, TWENTY-TWO students of the first library school class graduated from the New York State Library School.<sup>1</sup> They were the first of almost 200,000 who would complete a year of successful study at one of the leading library schools in the United States during the next century. This paper considers those students—their numbers, their qualifications, and their changing characteristics. It relies, by necessity, primarily upon published information: i.e., studies by C.C. Williamson,<sup>2</sup> J. Periam Danton and LeRoy C. Merritt,<sup>3</sup> Eugene Wilson,<sup>4</sup> and Louis Round Wilson,<sup>5</sup> the directory of the New York State Library School,<sup>6</sup> the reports of ALA's Board of Education for Librarianship<sup>7</sup> and Committee on Accreditation,<sup>8</sup> and reports of the Association for Library and Information Science Education.<sup>9</sup> To the extent that these publications do not adequately represent the facts about students, this article will require revision in the comprehensive study that so evidently needs to be done. Anyone who undertakes such a study will be frustrated, of course, by the gaps but also will be impressed by the richness of information that cries out to be analyzed. I am indebted to Denise Anton for her help in organizing the facts about the students at Albany. Readers should note the caveats detailed in the next section that are important to keep in mind when using the information and conclusions in this article.

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### **Caveats**

Certain caveats need to be kept in mind throughout the reading of this article. Rather than qualifying statements repeated throughout, these general cautions are given here. First, the students considered are only those who attended schools generally recognized by ALA. Large numbers of students have attended, and many have become capable librarians but they are not included here. In general, graduation is understood to mean completion of at least one year of study; not always was a certificate or a degree awarded. Even though the figures used here are based upon a loose definition of graduation, it is certain that the number enrolled was larger; some evidence suggests the number enrolled may have been half again greater than the number graduated. Modern-day readers should remember that it is only in the past thirty-five years that admission to a library school almost invariably required possession of a baccalaureate degree. Many graduates prior to that time possessed less prior education than four years of college. It was common in many schools for students in the certificate course to attend along with students in the degree course.

The second major warning is that the statistics are certainly not correct: complete and unambiguous information is simply not available. It is assumed that the general patterns, trends, and proportions are representative of reality even though the specific numbers are often wrong. An effort has been made to rely upon the same series of statistics for as many successive years as possible, on the assumption that the definitions and biases of recording and reporting will thus be kept constant. Unfortunately no single published series exists, and none of the three major sequences of statistics is complete. Some figures are inserted from isolated, single sources and others are simply extrapolated from available data. Thus the reader is warned not to rely literally upon this report, though the general picture and broad relationships are believed to be reasonably close to reality.

### **The Beginnings—1887-1900**

By 1900 the New York State school, with its thirteenth class, had graduated 269 students. Of those 269 graduates, 219 were women and 50 (19 percent) were men. Dewey's long-legendary welcome to women as librarians is well demonstrated by the record. Yet men too were welcomed and the New York State school over the years attracted more men than typically attended other schools.

In those early years a college degree was not yet an admission requirement. But the student body as a whole had substantially more

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preparation than the minimum required. Fully half of the students had a baccalaureate degree and another two in ten had at least some college work. Only one-third lacked any preparation at that level. Among the advanced degrees were eighteen master's degrees and four doctorates—two in medicine, one in divinity, and one in philosophy. It was a broadly educated student body, with the proportion of the college-bred increasing over the years. In 1900, only two of the entering students lacked any collegiate background. In 1902, when admission began to require a baccalaureate degree, the decision was essentially a reinforcement of a condition that was well on its way to realization.

Between 1887—when the first students came—and 1900, students arrived from twenty-four states and six foreign countries. The largest contingent (about ninety) came from New York. Second, with forty-six students, was Massachusetts. Contributing more than ten but fewer than twenty were Connecticut, Illinois, and Ohio. Indiana, Maine, Michigan, Missouri, Nebraska, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, and Rhode Island sent more than five. Other states represented were California, Iowa, Kansas, Maryland, Minnesota, New Hampshire, Vermont, and Wisconsin. One student each came from the states of Tennessee, Utah, and from the District of Columbia. Three students came from England and one student each came from Australia, Canada, Germany, and Sweden.

When it was time for the graduates to take jobs, they went generally to the same states but not exclusively so—nor, of course, was it true that an individual coming from a particular state was necessarily the one going to work there. The largest difference was that for the District of Columbia, which contributed only one student but recruited nine—a reflection of the federal libraries there. Pennsylvania too was a substantial gainer. Wisconsin, which sent three students, hired five. Georgia, Montana, and Virginia each hired a librarian without having sent a student at all. Illinois sent nineteen and got back fourteen. States that got back quite substantially fewer than they had sent included Maine, Vermont, and—rather dramatically—Ohio, which sent fourteen students but hired only three.

About half of the graduates went to work in public libraries, about one-quarter of them went to academic libraries, and about one in eight went to special libraries. Only two in a hundred went to school libraries. And more than one in ten took no library job—most frequently as a result of having gotten married.

The statistics conceal important particulars. Those first classes included many notables: Edwin H. Anderson, who succeeded Dewey at

the head of the school and later directed the New York Public Library; James I. Wyer, who succeeded him; Mary Wright Plummer, who directed both the Pratt Institute and the New York Public Library schools; Katharine L. Sharp, who founded the Armour Institute school that she moved to the University of Illinois; Phineas L. Windsor, who followed her at Illinois; and George Watson Cole, who, as the head of the Henry E. Huntington Library, became one of the premier librarian-bibliographers.

Along with the stars were some who left library work rather soon and were never heard from again. Many others occupied positions of considerable prominence. Isadore G. Mudge eventually became the reference librarian best known in the nation as the editor of the guide to reference books that had been inaugurated by her fellow alumna Alice B. Kroeger. Dorcas Fellows was highly influential over the years as editor of the *Decimal Classification*. Judson T. Jennings headed Seattle's public library as George Bowerman did the one in the District of Columbia. As a whole, the graduates of those years constituted an extraordinary group.

### **Expansion—1900-1921**

By 1900, the New York State school was no longer the only one and it was joined by others before 1921. Pratt Institute in Brooklyn (1890), Drexel Institute in Philadelphia (1892), and the University of Illinois (transferred in 1897 from Chicago where it had been founded in 1893 as part of the Armour Institute) had all begun to prepare librarians by 1900. Two decades later, new schools had joined in the task, though the school at the Drexel Institute had been closed in 1914 having graduated 371 students, 2 of them men. New schools by 1921 were the Carnegie Library School of Pittsburgh created in 1916 from a training school for children's librarians begun in 1901; the Simmons College school in Boston (1902); Western Reserve in Cleveland (1904); the Library School of the Carnegie Library of Atlanta (1905); the Library School of the University of Wisconsin (1906); the Syracuse University Library School (1908); the Library School of the New York Public Library (1911); that of the University of Washington (1911); the Riverside, California, Library Service School (1913); the Library School of the Los Angeles Public Library (1914); the Saint Louis Library School (1917); and the University of California—Berkeley (began in 1919 in succession to the California State Library School that had been established in Sacramento in 1913).

By 1921, in the landmark report associated with his name, Williamson reported that these schools had graduated almost 5000 students. Of

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the 4664 recorded, only 276 (6 percent) were men and 60 percent of them had come from the New York State school. Only three other schools had attracted any substantial numbers of men—the New York Public Library's school, Pratt Institute, and Illinois (which had become an important school serving the Midwest). Nearly half of the fifteen schools had never had a male student. More than 60 percent of all graduates were still working in libraries; the proportion of men remaining was slightly greater than that of women. In his analysis, *Training for Library Service*, Williamson studied the charge that educating women was wasteful for they were likely to marry and leave the work. Proving himself the worthy successor to Dewey that he was to become, Williamson rejected the charge entirely, pointing out that almost as large a proportion of the men too had left library work, though for other occupations. Besides, he said, even those women who did not remain in their library positions often continued to serve the profession in other capacities such as being board members of libraries. Still, he evidently thought it was desirable to have men in the field. He also argued strongly for increased salaries for qualified librarians, since only in such circumstances could the schools hope to attract a fair share of the best-qualified students.

The standard of qualification represented by the prerequisite of a baccalaureate degree was still not being met by most of the schools even by 1921. Only the New York State school and the University of Illinois had that prerequisite. Three other schools—i.e., Simmons, Washington, and California—made sure that their graduates held the degree by awarding it at the end of a four-year collegiate course that included library studies. In other schools associated with institutions of higher education, it was possible for a student to combine studies so as to earn a degree rather than the certificate received by others. Of the 1921 graduates, a bit fewer than half had a college degree upon graduation. In the schools other than the five that demanded a degree in advance or provided it at graduation, the proportions of admitted students holding a degree ranged from the low of 12 percent at Atlanta to the high of 54 percent at the New York Public Library. All of the schools that did not require a degree for admission sought to ensure a minimum in broad general preparation through an entrance examination, exempting applicants who held degrees. These examinations, concentrating on history, literature, current events, general information, and facility with foreign languages, reveal the nature of the subject background desired. Surely, as evidence about later students shows to have been true, the preponderance of library school students must have come from backgrounds in the humanities and social sciences. With schools spread

across the country from Boston, New York, and Atlanta to Los Angeles, Berkeley, and Seattle, students no longer were forced to travel long distances from their homes for library training.

More directly comparable to the facts about the first thirteen years of New York State Library classes than this generalized, national summary is the information about the classes of that same school during the twenty-one years from 1901 to 1921. The average number enrolled per class (twenty-one in the earlier period) grew to twenty-nine. The total for this longer period was 610 students of whom 129 were men—about the same ratio of one to five that had been true before 1900. With very few exceptions, students were admitted to the New York State school only if they had a baccalaureate degree. Advanced degrees earned before admission included forty-nine master's degrees, two M.D.s, and four Ph.D.s. The twenty-eight foreign degrees probably included a number that represented advanced study.

As had been true between 1887 and 1900, the largest contingent (179) came from New York, and again, Massachusetts (with 51) was second. Pennsylvania, Ohio, Indiana, and Michigan once more were leading contributors—more than twenty students. States sending more than ten students were Vermont, California, Iowa, Nebraska, Minnesota, Illinois, Missouri, Maine, Wisconsin, and Washington. In all, students came to New York from thirty-six states and Hawaii. Students came also from Canada (seven), Denmark (four), China (two), and from Norway (which sent a total of twenty-six students in those years).

When the graduates took jobs, about the same number remained in New York as had come from that state. Again, a disproportionately higher ratio went to work in the District of Columbia as well as in Connecticut, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, North Carolina, and West Virginia. States that did not send students but which employed graduates were Florida, Montana, North Dakota, Idaho, South Dakota, Georgia, and Virginia. States that sent substantially more students than they got back as librarians were Vermont, Maine, New Hampshire, Rhode Island, Wisconsin, and Tennessee. Only one of the seven Canadians went back home to work immediately and only sixteen of the twenty-six Norwegians. Probably many of those from foreign countries eventually returned to their homes after having had work experience in U.S. libraries, as some of the Norwegians did in emulation of Haakon Nyhuus, who in the nineteenth century worked in Chicago at the Newberry Library and the public library before returning to become Norway's great librarian-pioneer.

**Reforms—1921-1950**

In the years immediately after 1921, the patterns of library science education changed considerably. The Williamson report itself was the product of the Carnegie Corporation's shift of its philanthropy from constructing library buildings to improving the quality of the service within them. Some grants went directly to library schools but the main effort was directed toward fundamental change, much of it to be achieved through support of new programs of the American Library Association. One of the agencies created, the Board of Education for Librarianship, brought a new structure to the field, provided a means for the establishment of national norms, and encouraged the establishment and growth of library schools, especially within the framework of universities as Williamson had strongly recommended.

Before the end of the decade, the number of schools had risen to twenty-five, including a new Graduate Library School at the University of Chicago. The changes were not revolutionary, however; the students were much the same in their general characteristics as their predecessors. Requirement of a bachelor's degree for admission became more general than it had been, but that stringency was ameliorated in two ways—(1) the recognition of a sort of library school (the so-called Type III school) that provided a major in library science within the framework of a four-year undergraduate program, and (2) the admission of students without a degree for a certificate course that was offered in parallel with the degree course. Students tended to choose library schools in their own states. With the very special exception of the Hampton Institute for black students, every school in 1938 had its largest single student contingent from its home state. Only Chicago, Columbia, Illinois, Michigan, and Peabody attracted students from as many as fifteen other states. In the mid-1930s, more than one in ten of the entering students possessed degrees representing five or more years of study, more than three-quarters had the bachelor's degree at admission, and more than nine out of ten had completed three years of undergraduate study. Even though those in leading positions in library education spoke often of the need to recruit students with mathematics and natural science backgrounds, close to eight in ten undergraduate degrees were in the social sciences and humanities, and English and history together continued to be the subject background of more than half of all students. Females constituted 86 percent of the students of the twenty-six schools in the academic year 1936-1937, and this proportion remained generally stable until the war halved the proportion of males as it reduced the numbers of all students in higher education. The students tended to be

in their mid-twenties. A substantial cohort of students entered the library schools directly from college, but the typical age suggests a year or so of work experience before entrance. A number of the schools discouraged applicants above the age of thirty, a policy that no doubt helps to explain the median age of twenty-four at California for the years between 1920 and 1948 and the mean age of twenty-seven at Illinois between 1926 and 1936. For those same years at California, the record of the first job by type of library showed a change from the proportions of the first years at the New York State school. Public libraries attracted 42 percent, academic libraries 30 percent, special libraries 18 percent, and school libraries 10 percent. A bit fewer than one in ten did not go to work at all or, if they did, not in libraries.

Following World War II, the library schools and their students changed gradually in response to underlying social and economic trends. The total numbers of students grew only moderately at first and then were set back a bit once again by the revival of the draft in reaction to the Korean War. In the 1940s, even though it was a war period, the number of graduates for the whole decade—about 14,000—was very slightly higher than in the 1930s. In the 1950s it increased a bit to 16,000.

About 1950 most schools switched to a new master's-degree program. This change was a response to the anomaly of a graduate program that resulted in only a second bachelor's degree. Under the 1933 standards, these so-called Type II programs confused employers and the profession about the significance of the degree—particularly for salary determinations in the schools, where pay scales tended to be closely tied to amount of academic study completed. In addition, many felt that professional librarianship required graduate-level preparation that should be recognized in the form of the degree awarded. With adoption of new standards for library schools, completion of an undergraduate degree before admission became, for the first time, not simply the customary background but essentially the universal requirement for ALA-approved schools. During the postwar years, the proportion of men rose above one-fourth of the total, a proportion that became the norm for total library school enrollments. As had been true in earlier years, there was a tendency for the schools with the larger proportions of men to be those—such as Columbia, Chicago, Illinois, and Berkeley—that had national constituencies. Even so, men became increasingly evident in the student bodies of schools that primarily served their own states and regions. Another group that increased appreciably during the postwar years was the part-time students who took more than one year to complete their degrees. Among these part-time students two major contingents were (1) the veterans and other men who, being already



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married, had to work to help to support themselves and their families, and (2) the women who found librarianship an appealing avenue of return to the labor force as their children reached school age.

When the graduates went to work full-time, about one-third began their careers in public libraries. Almost as large a proportion went to academic libraries. After 1950 about one in five went to work in school libraries and about one in six went to work in special libraries.

During these first postwar years, changes came only gradually. A particularly important influence was the involvement of the federal government in ways that increased the demand for librarians and made money available to library schools. Beginning in 1965, the federal programs accelerated into a massive commitment to educational programs at all levels. The impact upon libraries and library schools was far-reaching. The numbers of schools increased and the number of students enrolled in each grew similarly.

The most pervasive effect of the new federal programs was a substantial increase in demand for librarians, giving the schools a ready market for their graduates. The Elementary and Secondary Education Act encouraged the establishment of school libraries with full-time librarians. The Library Services and Construction Act provided support for a multitude of new public library programs that demanded new staff members to carry them out. And the Higher Education Act brought new funds to academic libraries, which then required more staff members to procure the materials. Other federal programs, such as the National Defense Education Act and very substantial scientific research grants, had similar effects on the demand for librarians.

Some of these new federal funds went directly to library schools. Scholarships for master's-degree students helped them as individuals and encouraged the growth of existing schools and the establishment of new ones. The quantitative differences, however, were only part of the story.

For the first time on any large scale, library schools were able to compete for support for new advanced programs. Among these programs were those that were designed to educate disadvantaged and minority individuals, and that brought new cohorts of such students—both for master's-degree programs and for newly established or newly invigorated advanced and doctoral programs. In addition, financial support became available for research to be pursued by library school faculty members and students. Astute and aggressive library school directors put together proposals for federal support that enabled them to expand their schools both in size and in variety and complexity of

program. All of these developments changed considerably the atmosphere and the substance of library schools.

### **Diversification—1950s-1980s**

The inauguration of doctoral programs in library schools represented a very considerable change.<sup>10</sup> Until almost 1950, virtually the only active doctoral program was that established in the 1920s at the Graduate Library School of the University of Chicago. Measured by the record of completed doctoral dissertations, only a hundred doctorates in librarianship had been awarded up to the end of the 1940s, almost all from Chicago.

During the 1950s another hundred doctorates were earned, with Chicago still in the lead—though Illinois, Michigan, Columbia, and a sprinkling of other schools were represented as well. Substantial changes occurred during the 1960s, largely as a consequence of the newly available federal funding. The number of doctorates awarded more than doubled those that had been awarded before that decade. New schools joined those conferring substantial numbers of doctoral degrees, including Indiana, Rutgers, Florida State University, Pittsburgh, California—Berkeley, and Case-Western Reserve.

In the 1970s the number of doctoral degrees rose dramatically to top 1000 for the decade, produced by increasing numbers in the existing schools and by the entrance of institutions such as Maryland, Wisconsin, Drexel, Syracuse, Texas, Toronto, and others. For most library schools the number of advanced students was not sufficient to make them the dominant element in the student body; yet their presence made important differences in the general atmosphere of the schools where they were to be found. Often assignment as a teaching assistant or lecturer was a principal means of financial support for doctoral students, with a consequent change for the master's-degree students in giving them teachers who were different from the regular, full-time faculty members.

The students of the 1980s seem to be very much like their predecessors. In 1983 the men were only about one in five, a ratio only slightly lower than the one in four that seemed to establish itself in the postwar years. The median age rose above thirty, and library schools generally abandoned their policies of discouraging applicants above that age.

Many candidates for advanced certificates and degrees, of course, were even older. Even among the first-year students, however, substantial numbers of married or divorced women entered to prepare themselves for the work force when their children attained school age. Still

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others—men and women—were preparing for a new career in place of a previous one. Many students, however, continued to be drawn from among recent college graduates. Students' undergraduate degrees were distributed as follows. English and history degrees represented well over 40 percent; the other social sciences and humanities combined brought the total a bit above 90 percent; leaving about 7 percent for mathematics and the sciences. The students tended to come from the region in which the school was located, with the home state accounting for more than half of all the students and, together with adjoining states, proportions ranging upward to seven out of ten students. The great preponderance of home-state students held true even for schools generally thought to have national constituencies such as Columbia in the East and Berkeley in the West.

Even though many students have stayed close to home, a number have always traveled to faraway places for their education, both from within the United States and from abroad. From the very beginning foreign students have enrolled in American library schools.<sup>11</sup> Tracking them down and assessing their impact on their home countries is a formidable task not to be undertaken here. Danton's exemplary study of the impact on Norwegian librarianship is a model of a sort of investigation that should be carried out in relation to many countries. He demonstrates conclusively the very considerable influence exerted by the returning librarians, not all of whom of course had studied in library schools.

Whatever the details and variations, it is clear that American library education has been one of the factors that has made American practice a pervasive part of librarianship throughout the world.<sup>12</sup> Danton's Norwegians were only one group. Another was composed of substantial numbers of Chinese librarians who, prior to World War II, were one of the large contingents. In contrast to many of the postwar Taiwan Chinese who have often remained in the United States, these earlier Chinese went home to create a substantial network of library education that is only now resurfacing on the international scene.

A multitude of instances could be cited of individual librarians who, after studying at an American library school, went home to establish American library practices in many different countries of the world. Typically such librarians became prominent leaders in their own countries, though it is important to realize that these successes have often been at least as much a consequence of the outstanding qualifications students brought to their studies as of the library school instruction. An especially notable case is the group of New Zealand librarians who came

to America in the 1930s under Carnegie sponsorship to study at Michigan. As Maxine Rochester has shown, they returned to reform New Zealand librarianship in important ways.<sup>13</sup>

In a different fashion, American graduates serving as consultants abroad have carried with them to a multitude of countries the ideas and practices of American librarianship. A very early instance was the work of Asa Don Dickinson (New York State, 1904) in the Punjab, but the large numbers date from the postwar period under many U.S. assistance projects sponsored by the federal government and by foundations such as those associated with the names of Carnegie, Ford, and Rockefeller. Some American library school graduates have gone abroad with the Peace Corps, though it appears that a greater number of Peace Corps workers have found an interest that led them to attend library school after returning home. Perhaps the largest contingent of all has been composed of American librarians who have served abroad with U.S. armed forces' libraries and USIS (U.S. Information Service) agencies.

In a multitude of ways, American library schools have affected the course of librarianship throughout the world. The most pervasive carrier of this influence has been the student who became the practicing librarian, whether at home or abroad.

### Summary

The library school that Melvil Dewey founded in 1887 began a process through which almost 200,000 librarians were prepared for their profession. The growth in the ranks of graduates was slow (see table 1). For the whole period up to 1920, the average number of graduates per year was only 141. Only in 1928 did the total yearly graduates of the eighteen schools top 1000. The rate of increase, however, accelerated during the decade of the Williamson report; during the 1920s, about 5500 new graduates more than doubled the 4664 who had graduated up to that time. Again in the 1930s, the numbers more than doubled, rising to 14,000 for those years. This number remained fairly constant during the following war decade and rose only slightly to 16,000 in the 1950s but again more than doubled to 33,000 in the 1960s and almost did so again in the 1970s to 63,000. In the current decade, the annual number of those graduating has receded somewhat to about two-thirds of the fast pace of the 1970s.

Although impressive in total, the numbers of graduates annually stayed at a moderate level for most of the years of the century. About half of the graduates of accredited library schools have completed their studies during the years since 1970. Indeed, nine out of ten of all

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graduates come from the years since 1935; some of that group are still serving the profession.

As the number of students rose, the number of schools to prepare them increased as well. The fifteen to eighteen schools of the 1920s rose above thirty by 1939 but then remained in that range for some years. Only in 1970 did a surge in new schools carry their number above fifty and then on to the high of sixty-nine. Ironically the time required to bring new schools into being resulted in their starting their work just as the demand for librarians and the federal funds at its base were receding. Very recent years, of course, have seen the closing or consolidation of a number of schools, some of them with long traditions.

The multiplication of schools kept so close a pace with the demands that library school classes remained small, particularly as compared with the size of other professional schools. Even in the peak year of 1974, the average number of graduates per school was only about 120. Throughout the century, a few schools have attracted considerably larger proportions of the total students than the average, with the result that the typical library school student has been a member of a small group. The character of the experience, for the most part, has been of membership in a cohesive student body, most of whom knew each other at least casually and usually were well known by their teachers.

It is important to realize, of course, that even the whole body of graduates has never constituted all of those serving libraries and librarianship. Library school graduation certainly was not a prerequisite to appointment in the early years, and it has never become a universal requirement. Always, some individuals have risen in libraries on the basis of experience alone. And instruction besides that in ALA-accredited programs has abounded. Even the membership of the American Library Association itself has welcomed as its leaders many individuals who had no library school background.

Only in 1910 was the first graduate of a library school elected president of the association. He was James Ingersoll Wyer, the director of the Albany school. Three years later a second library-school product was elected in the person of Edwin Hatfield Anderson, Wyer's predecessor as director of the school and, by then, director of the New York Public Library which had its own library school. After an intervening year, the head of that school, Mary Wright Plummer, was elected, the second woman to hold the presidential post. Four years later, Chalmers Hadley, a New York State graduate, was elected. He was succeeded by Alice S. Tyler, director of the library school at Western Reserve University. Two more years intervened before Judson T. Jennings was elected in 1923 and Herman H.B. Meyer in 1924. Five more non-library-school

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TABLE I  
LIBRARY SCHOOL GRADUATES 1921-1983  
ANNUAL AND CUMULATIVE

<i>Year</i>	<i>Number of Graduates</i>	<i>Cumulative Total</i>	<i>Number of Schools</i>
1921	.	4664	15
1922	729	5393	
1923	729	6122	
1924	500	6622	
1925	100	6722	
1926	509	7231	14
1927	512	7743	
1928	1086	8829	
1929	336	9165	
1930	993	10158	
1931	1100	11258	25
1932	1874	13132	
1933	1875	15007	
1934	755	15762	
1935	1188	16950	
1936	1961	18911	26
1937	1058	19969	
1938	1790	21759	
1939	424	22183	
1940	1648	23831	
1941	2101	25932	30
1942	1625	27557	
1943	1016	28573	
1944	919	29492	
1945	824	30316	
1946	1612	31928	36
1947	1355	33283	
1948	1289	34572	
1949	1580	36152	
1950	1581	37733	
1951	1698	39431	36
1952	1698	41129	
1953	1856	42985	
1954	1510	44495	
1955	1731	46226	
1956	1317	47543	31
1957	1297	48840	
1958	1383	50223	

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TABLE 1  
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<i>Year</i>	<i>Number of Graduates</i>	<i>Cumulative Total</i>	<i>Number of Schools</i>
1959	1477	51700	
1960	1714	53414	
1961	1779	55193	33
1962	1926	57119	
1963	2094	59213	
1964	2500	61713	
1965	2827	64540	
1966	3337	67877	37
1967	3897	71774	
1968	4378	76152	
1969	4941	81093	
1970	5506	86599	
1971	6071	92670	57
1972	6877	99547	
1973	7112	106659	
1974	7494	114153	
1975	7282	121435	
1976	7070	128505	64
1977	6856	135361	
1978	6008	141369	
1979	4090	145459	
1980	3899	149358	
1981	3993	153351	69
1982	4228	157579	
1983	3945	161524	

Sources: American Library Association. Board of Education for Librarianship. "Annual Report." See issues of *ALA Bulletin*; ALA Committee on Accreditation. *Statistical Data from Annual Review Reports Submitted to Committee on Accreditation*. Chicago: ALA, 1970/71- Association of American Library Schools. Library Education Statistics Committee. *Library Education Statistical Report*. State College, Pa.: AALS, 1980- .

graduates served before Adam Strohm was elected in 1930 and Josephine A. Rathbone in 1931. In 1934, Charles H. Compton took office and in 1936 Malcolm Wyer.

With the election of Milton J. Ferguson in 1938, library-school graduates took continuous place in the presidency of the association, interrupted only by the terms of Milton E. Lord in 1949, Frederick H. Wagman in 1963, and William S. Dix in 1969. All three were of the older tradition of scholarly preparation for a library position but all three had become active members of the profession in positions of leadership both in their own libraries and in the association. It took a full fifty years before library school background for the leadership of the professional association became the norm. It is indeed noticeable that heads of library schools were elected to that post perhaps more often than their numbers would have predicted. As early as 1892 at the Lakewood Conference, it was noted that Dewey's clique of library-school students and graduates enabled him to exert considerable power, and some have observed even to the present that library school connections seem to give a special advantage to candidates for office in the association. Throughout a century of growing and changing librarianship, library schools have powerfully influenced the profession, primarily through the students whom they prepared to do the work and to exert the leadership.

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