

An Overview of the History of Library Science Teaching Materials

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FROM ITS BEGINNINGS, university-level library education has generated much literature on the subject of its own curriculum. This is not surprising, since that curriculum was subjected to a great deal of flux in its early years and some of the element of change has persisted throughout its development. One aspect of the literature has remained constant throughout, however, with all of the discussion of ways of teaching and what ought to be taught, the subject of the tools to be used in that work—i.e., primarily textbooks—has been nearly ignored. Even in Melvil Dewey's formative curriculum, where it is known certain works were used in the classroom to help the teacher instruct, the subject receives virtually no attention. For example, Mary Wright Plummer, in a commentary on her library school education, has a lot to say about its quality, but not a word—good, bad, or indifferent—about the books that helped her learn.¹ On a more sophisticated level, Tse-Chien Tai's 1925 proposal for a reform of the library science curriculum, in which he goes to great lengths to describe the structure that curriculum ought to take, breathes no mention of textbooks or any other classroom teaching materials.² These two examples could be multiplied many times, and they suggest that textbooks have been truly an invisible aspect of library science education. They remain largely so today.

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The Williamson Report

One very important exception is to be found—the Williamson Report.³ Among the points covered in the pivotal Williamson Report, two—each receiving one full chapter of attention—are of interest in the present discussion. Chapter five deals with “Methods of Instruction” and chapter six addresses the issue of the sufficiency of textbooks for teaching library science. Among the many criticisms he made of the way librarians were educated, Williamson cited “excessive dependence on the lecture” and the “acute” need for more textbooks in order to “save the students’ and teachers’ time and to improve the efficiency of library school teaching.”⁴

Although Williamson never defines what he means by the word *textbook*, he suggests by example what the term signified to him. By the time he prepared his report, many standard texts were available in the field, among which he mentions the *A.L.A. Catalog Rules*, Dewey’s *Decimal Classification*, the *ALA List of Subject Headings*, and—perhaps that which most looks like a textbook to modern librarians—Kroeger’s *Guide to the Study and Use of Reference Books*. None of these were labeled *textbooks* by Williamson, however; he called these works *manuals of practice* and *reference books*.

He identified two categories of publication he sought: the textbook and the treatise. The former is an elementary explanatory work to be directed strictly at the student, and the latter is an encyclopedic compilation of practice and procedure, not presumably directed strictly to the student. However murky the distinction between textbook and treatise may be, Williamson’s point about the difference between each category and the type of material he excluded from each is well taken. None of the works commonly available for library instruction made much of an effort to explain to a neophyte the procedures they codified.⁵ This was precisely the problem that disturbed Williamson.

He also noted the heavy use of mimeographed course syllabi. These were a direct result of the lack of suitable textbooks and the efforts of instructors to give students something to help them through their course work.⁶ He did not find it necessary to comment on the inadequacy of this practice, which was to continue for at least several more decades. Indeed, they are sometimes used in library school courses today, although perhaps not in the depth and detail of earlier periods. One other method Williamson noted for getting around the lack of textbooks was the use of assigned readings. He found that even in this case “on many important subjects...useful literature is not only inadequate but

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scattered and inaccessible." Oftentimes, noted Williamson, the instructor gave up on this procedure out of frustration.⁷

Undoubtedly Williamson was correct in his explanation for the lack of suitable textbooks: lack of sufficient demand resulting in no interest on either the part of publishers or perspective authors. One attempt to remedy the situation, the *ALA Manual of Library Economy*—a series of pamphlets on various subjects—he found entirely inadequate because of the brevity in the treatment of each topic. His solution was twofold: (1) to appeal to "professional interest and service" to write suitable books, and (2) the establishment of some sort of sabbatical fund to allow instructors time off to research and write.⁸

Williamson's implicit definition of the textbook appears to have been narrower than that proposed by others and certainly narrower than the one to be used in this paper. Here the meaning will be extended to include all types of material used in classroom teaching, however reproduced, and of more than transitory interest. Williamson's contention that library science lacked suitable textbooks was certainly accurate, but the field did not completely lack material to be used in classroom teaching, whether or not it might be precisely called textbooks. One must not forget that such material must be related to the style of teaching employed, and in the beginning of formal library education, textbooks (such as Williamson hoped for) would probably have been little used, if indeed knowledge in the field was sufficiently organized and developed to have allowed many to be written.

Like the rest of Williamson's Report, this aspect of his criticisms received a mixed reception. Henry Bartlett Van Hoesen, assistant librarian at Princeton University, took exception to Williamson's definition of a textbook and included all of the texts meant to help the practicing librarian as well as the student. He found Mudge, for example, an exemplary textbook for the teaching of reference. Van Hoesen listed a number of works useful in the instruction of students, although not necessarily intended for that purpose. Most of these, it turned out, had been published in England.⁹

Teaching Materials, from the Early Columbia Days Onward

Early library training—whether in library schools or in the apprentice programs that preceded (and ran concurrently with) them—emphasized learning by doing and observing and using the documents and procedure manuals of other libraries.¹⁰ Clearly not much was needed in the way of textbooks for this type of instruction other than the

procedure manuals of other libraries. The one separately published volume that did serve as a textbook was the 1876 U.S. Bureau of Education publication entitled *Public Libraries in the United States of America*, edited by Samuel R. Warren and Major S.N. Clark.¹¹ The first part of this work discussed the history, condition, and management of public libraries, and part two was Charles Ammi Cutter's *Rules for a Printed Dictionary Catalogue*. The first part appeared only this once, but Cutter's *Rules* went through a number of editions, the second and third appearing in 1889 and 1891 respectively. Indeed, the occurrence of these two dates in the early years of Dewey's school probably reflects the students' increased demand for the work. After the 1876 edition, the word *printed* was dropped from the title, probably reflecting the increased interest in and use of the card catalog. Whether or not one considers Cutter's *Rules* properly a *textbook*, they certainly represent one of the pioneer works used in library education.

Melvil Dewey's attitude toward the curriculum of his library school is well known. He was interested in very practical instruction in the efficient implementation of established library routine. There was little published material that described these routines, and little need for any as long as these routines could be described to students by an experienced librarian—such as Dewey himself. One doubts very much that Dewey would have found any merit at all in Williamson's criticisms.

However, one area of the curriculum—cataloging—had developed a certain degree of complexity, perhaps beyond the level of other skills being taught. Indeed, Dewey's system for classifying books, the *Decimal Classification and Relativ Index*, was already becoming well known among librarians, and formed the basis for teaching classification at the new school at Columbia. Originally published in 1876 by the Amherst College Library where Dewey was employed, the system had been considerably revised and expanded by the time it had been republished by Dewey's own Boston firm, the Library Bureau, in 1885. Its appearance came just in time for it to be used in Dewey's teaching. By 1889 it had gone through six editions.

At about the same time, Dewey prepared a work more suited to being called a textbook, although it might also be looked at as something of a workbook, and corresponded to his ideas of practicality. This was his *Library School Card Catalogue Rules, with 52 Facsimilies of Sample Cards for Author and Classed Catalogs* (1889). In this work he was also assisted by Mary Salome Cutler. In 1890 this forty-eight page work was included in a larger text entitled *Library School Rules*, which included the section on the card catalog as well as rules for the accession book and the shelflist. This too was published by the Library Bureau,

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and went through five editions by 1905. Unlike the *Decimal Classification*, which was simply the outline of a classifying system, the school rules contained facsimiles of properly completed shelflists and other forms, so that students could learn the correct procedure. The question of why they were done that way received little or no discussion. Used in conjunction with these texts was Charles Ammi Cutter's *Alfabetic Order Table*, first published by the Library Bureau around 1887. Very little else was available to, or used by, the Columbia Library School or its reincarnation in Albany. Of course, works like Cutter's were not intended entirely for library school students; they were also used by practicing librarians in their daily work. Indeed, without sale to librarians there is little doubt that it would have been economically impossible to publish Cutter's *Rules*.

This state of affairs existed for a number of years. In 1898 a new version of *Library School Rules* was issued by the Library Bureau. Entitled *Simplified Library School Rules*, it covered the same topics as before plus other details of library cataloging practice, including library handwriting. This and the others mentioned continued to be virtually the only works that could be called library science texts during the period before 1910. They were clearly directed to the elementary practical level which Dewey espoused in library education, and they contained none of the elements of synthesis and analysis which Williamson was later to identify with the textbook.

However, it is possible to see the beginnings of the topics to be covered in more depth in later textbooks. While at Albany, Dewey's library school issued tracts on various subjects using the pages of the *New York State Library Bulletin*. Among them were Johnston's "Selected Reference Books" (1899), Walter Biscoe's "Selected Subject Bibliographies" (1899), and others. These works, as meager as they may have been, helped bridge the gap from the entirely practical curriculum to the more theoretical programs to come.

ALA Book-Publishing Activity

Even though the market did not exist for the publication of many books intended strictly for the use of library school students, a number of works were published after the turn of the century which were of use both to students and to practicing librarians, especially those who were working without the benefit of formal training. The American Library Association Publishing Board was especially active in providing these materials. The first formal organization within ALA for this purpose was the Publishing Section, established in 1886. In 1900 it was reorga-

nized as the Publishing Board, and in 1902 Andrew Carnegie gave ALA \$100,000 to help support the board's publishing activities. No doubt this largesse was responsible for the increase in the number of titles that followed, many of which were potentially useful in library school classrooms. Foremost among the new publications was Alice B. Kroeger's *Guide to the Study and Use of Reference Books* that appeared in its first edition in 1902 under the Houghton Mifflin imprint. In spite of the work's usefulness, it may not have been rewarding for the publisher, for the next printing in 1904 was issued by the ALA Publishing Board; as were the second revised edition of 1908, and all subsequent printings. Although filling a definite place as a bibliography to reference material, it also quickly found a use as the primary text for the teaching of reference work in library schools. Kroeger's work was the direct antecedent of later editions by Mudge, Winchell, and Sheehy.

Another title that was used both in libraries and library schools at the time was the *ALA Catalog*. The first edition of this work appeared in 1904 and listed 8000 volumes "suitable for a popular library."¹² Not only was this used as a means of selecting books, but it can be found in courses on acquisition, along with required reading in *Publishers' Weekly*. Several expanded later editions of the *ALA Catalog* continued to be used for these purposes.

The ALA Publishing Board began at this time also issuing two series of pamphlets, *Library Tracts* and *Library Handbooks*. Both were directed at librarians working in small libraries. They included such topics as "Traveling Libraries," "Essentials in Library Administration," and "Cataloging for Small Libraries"; and especially in view of their low price (five to fifteen cents apiece) and appropriate topics, they were very probably used in library schools, although course descriptions do not mention them. These pamphlet series were the forerunners of an unsuccessful ALA attempt to produce a comprehensive text by a fascicle system.

Library school catalogs occasionally mention the textbooks that were in use in their curriculum. An example is the 1917 catalog of the library school at Case Western Reserve University that mentioned "the more important texts" that were employed in its courses. These were the *ALA Catalog and Supplement*, *ALA Cataloging Rules*, the *ALA List of Subject Headings*, Bostwick's *The American Public Library*, Cutter's *Rules for a Dictionary Catalog*, the *Dewey Decimal Classification*, and Mudge's revision of Kroeger's *Guide to the Study and Use of Reference Books*, all in the latest editions. This list was updated every year for more than a decade, but the updates included mostly changes to the newer editions.¹³

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In spite of these few works, the state of availability of library science textbooks may be sensed by a paragraph which first appeared in the 1898 *Circular of Information* of the library school of the University of Illinois, then newly transplanted to Urbana from Chicago. In the 1910-1911 circular the statement was expanded to become more explanatory and advised:

There are few text-books on library economy, and instruction is given chiefly by lectures, collateral reading, problems and discussion, supplemented by a large amount of practical work in the various departments of the University library. In their class work instructors use illustrative material from the School's collection of printed forms and library fittings....¹⁴

After the 1913-1914 issue, the statement was dropped in its entirety, whether because the new *Manual of Library Economy* was alleviating some of the problem, or else to retreat into the bland generalities characteristic of the modern curriculum description, is impossible to say. Certainly the frankness of this paragraph represents one of the very few times the role, or lack thereof, of the textbook in its curriculum was clearly delineated by a library school. Nor was Illinois alone in this assessment. Case Western Reserve had a similar statement in its catalog about 1910, and dropped it at the same time the University of Illinois did.¹⁵

Undoubtedly the most ambitious effort—although it was not an entirely successful effort to produce a general text for library science—was the aforementioned *Manual of Library Economy* published by ALA. The plan was to issue each chapter of the work as a separate pamphlet as it was prepared, ultimately offering the work as a bound volume upon completion. The effort was partially successful, in that over thirty titles (or rather, chapters) were issued, but the volume was never published as a separate entity. Nonetheless, they were of use to the profession, and because of their low cost of ten to twenty-five cents a copy they were undoubtedly appreciated by library school students as well.

The first chapters of the ALA *Manual of Library Economy* appeared in 1911, and included eight titles. Further titles were added until, by 1922, all but one of the projected chapters had been published. Chapter 28 remained a hole that was apparently never filled and perhaps contributed to the fact that the set was never published under one cover. Actually by the time the "last" chapter saw the light of day, several of the others had been revised and reissued—one or two under different authors—and a few had even gone out of print.

Many leading librarians contributed to the series, which contained coverage of nearly all important topics in the field, although one wonders how thorough the coverage could be, given the eight to thirty pages allotted to each. James I. Wyer was the leading contributor—writing four titles, among them one on government documents. Topics of special interest to library school students included the high school library, library administration, classification, and many others. The pamphlets comprising the *Manual of Library Economy* were a bargain, and it represented probably the first attempt in this country at a systematic codification of library knowledge and procedures.

One of the more important textbooks of the period which saw the beginning of the publication of the *Manual of Library Economy* was Arthur E. Bostwick's *The American Public Library*. Moreover, it was one of the few to be published by a private firm—D. Appleton and Company—in 1910. Its 393 pages carried it clearly beyond the scope of a pamphlet. The *ALA Catalog* described Bostwick's book as a comprehensive survey of the public library movement in the United States, and called it "of special value to the student."¹⁶ Of course, it clearly was not intended entirely, or even primarily, for the student. The work's importance is attested to by the fact that it went through four editions and a couple of revisions by 1929, with an increase in length each time.

The other materials that were available for use in library school curricula were reflected in the 1921 list of ALA publications. In addition to the *Manual of Library Economy* there were two editions of the *ALA Catalog*, and a third edition was forthcoming. Kroeger's *Guide to the Study and Use of Reference Books* had been reissued and revised in 1917 by Isadore G. Mudge. That same year the University of Wisconsin library school issued a syllabus for *An Apprentice Course for Small Libraries*, in effect taking the curriculum to the library school student if he or she could not come to the university. Several books and pamphlets were available on the subject of cataloging, but without a doubt the bulk of the training was still carried on by practical exercises in the library school's cataloging laboratory. Other than these ALA publications, little was available except one other set of pamphlets edited by John Cotton Dana entitled *Modern American Library Economy*, and published by the Elm Tree Press. This series described the methods used at the Newark Public Library and covered many of the standard subjects of the library school curriculum. This series did not have a long life, but its potential utility in library schools is apparent.

In the main then, Williamson's criticism of the availability of teaching texts in library science seems to have been reasonably accurate. Indeed, only one or two of the titles mentioned, Kroeger and Bostwick in

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particular, appear to have made any sort of lasting impression on the curriculum in library schools. Van Hoesen was probably accurate in his view that most of these works were written for the high-school-educated but the students entering library school showed increasing sophistication and nearly all possessed the bachelor's degree by this time. "But," Van Hoesen remarked, "almost all our textbooks that would survive elimination on the criterion of suitability for students of college graduate education would fall by the criterion of comprehensiveness and relative values or proportional treatment of topics." "And," he added, "most of the few remaining would fall short of being interesting, of course."¹⁷ Van Hoesen identified several works which he felt could be used as textbooks in library science. Some of them were foreign works, written from a viewpoint not always useful for American librarianship, and many more treated rather narrow topics.

The American Library Association had for a long time encouraged the preparation of basic books that might be used as texts for library schools. In 1924 ALA's Editorial Committee announced that, in cooperation with its accreditation agency—the Temporary Library Training Board—it had prepared a plan for producing textbooks on various aspects of library service. Only one of these books reached publication, *Public Library Administration* by John Adams Lowe. Under the leadership of the Board of Education for Librarianship, the Library Curriculum Study was set up under the direction of W.W. Charters, then professor of education at the University of Chicago. The study was subsidized by the Carnegie Corporation of New York. The project continued from the fall of 1925 until the fall of 1928, when Charters became director of the Bureau of Educational Research at Ohio State University. As a result of the study, and through the cooperation of the ALA Editorial Committee, seven books were published:

1. Flexner, Jennie M. *Circulation Work in Public Libraries* (1927).
2. Wyer, James I. *Reference Work* (1930).
3. Mann, Margaret. *Introduction to Cataloging and the Classification of Books* (1930).
4. Fargo, Lucile F. *Library in the School* (1930).
5. Drury, F.K.W. *Book Selection* (1930).
6. _____ . *Order Work for Libraries* (1930).
7. Power, Effie L. *Library Service for Children* (1930).

Materials for the books were assembled through analysis of activities, problems, and traits involved in several aspects of library work, and through interviews and observation of practice in libraries of many types and of widely different geographical location. An advisory com-

mittee and experts in each special field were called upon at appropriate stages of each study to assist the author in the solution of problems met in the preparation of each book. Experimental use in library schools and revision by the author preceded final publication in each case. One of the series (Fargo) was revised by the author in 1933 and again in 1939.¹⁸

Media Enter the Curricula and Library Schools Publish Syllabi

It is in the period between 1910 and 1920 that the first inklings of the use of what is now called "media" are to be found in descriptions of library school curricula. Like textbooks, media are an area on which the literature is largely silent, but some hints may be found. The 1910/1911 circular of the University of Illinois, in the same place as the remark about the lack of textbooks, stated that "one of the rooms [in the school] is equipped for the use of the stereopticon."¹⁹ It did not say anything about the subjects of the slides, but probably they portrayed library buildings and rooms, the most logical subject for the stereopticon. Seven years later the information brochure from the library school at Saint Louis Public Library showed an instructor using slides to present an illustrated lecture to the class.²⁰ Thereafter, and in the 1930s and 1940s increasingly so, it was not too unusual to find a picture of a class being shown a film. Not until the 1960s, however, was it common for the library school curriculum to include instruction in media.

In the 1930s and 1940s, it gets more and more difficult to determine exactly what textbooks were in use, primarily because even the occasional mention of these in library school catalogs went out of fashion. Thus it is especially helpful that occasionally an observer of library education happened to say a word or two about textbooks. One such person mentioned in 1939 what the most popular textbooks in library school happened to be. First and foremost among them was, of course, Mudge's *Guide to the Study and Use of Reference Works*. Hosteter also cited the series from the University of Chicago as "useful." Clearly these had found their place in library schools. Then came a heterogeneous list which provided a clue to which of the increasing number of works on library science topics—not necessarily intended as textbooks—were finding a place. These included W.S. Gray's *What Makes a Book Readable* (1935); Carleton B. Joeckel's *The Government of the American Public Library* (1935); W.M. Randall's *Principles of College Library Administration* (1936); Douglas Waples's *The Library, National Libraries and Foreign Scholarship* (1936) and *What People Want to*

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Read About (1931); and finally Louis Round Wilson's seminal *The Geography of Reading* (1938).²¹

In spite of the apparent progress since the Williamson report, Keyes D. Metcalf—writing along with two others in 1943—found the state of overall textbook availability much the same as it had been twenty years before. Even the “Library Curriculum Series,” he found, failed for the most part to satisfy the need for better texts. Margaret Mann's *Introduction to Cataloging and the Classification of Books* was the sole exception. The others had a number of defects. These included the author's lack of freedom to follow his own plan, the lack of awareness of some authors of the needs of library schools, excessive verbiage, too little graphic material, and a style that was neither scholarly nor popular. This was a rather severe indictment of these textbooks, although one wonders if those authors who did not understand library school needs would have been any better off if they had had more control over their work. A further criticism of the series was the lack of a work on library administration. The only other text that Metcalf found worthwhile was not a part of that series: Helen Haines's *Living with Books*, which he said “stands out as the kind of textbook a library school instructor can produce if left free from editorial and other restraints.”²²

Metcalf also provided a helpful assessment of the position of *visual methods* (perhaps sometimes a better term than *media*) in the library school curriculum. This, according to Metcalf, was one of the “weakest phases” of the curriculum. (As we have seen, there were indications of the use of film and slides in the curriculum, but apparently that use was not very prevalent.) He suggested that films would be especially useful in teaching administration. Although bulletin boards with pictorial and other materials were frequently used in library schools, Metcalf found this insufficient. He called for the production of more films just as he called for the writing of more, and better, textbooks.²³

One of the most important ways (as Williamson noted) in which library schools got around the inadequacy of textbooks was by using published syllabi. There seems to be no way of getting an accurate view of how many schools published these documents, or in what numbers, but *Library Literature*—the H.W. Wilson index—included some of them. It is possible to suggest the range of subject matters considered by these syllabi. Columbia University seems to have been the most prolific in the late 1930s. Columbia's syllabi covered such subjects as bibliographical method, reference, book selection, and cataloging and classification. Some of these went through a number of editions; most often they were mimeographed assemblages of typescript. Some of the topics were not covered by available texts, but it would seem that others were.

Other schools too published their course syllabi. The University of Chicago published some syllabi, as did Wisconsin, Denver, and other important library schools. One finds them listed in *Library Literature* as late as the mid-1970s, but at the end of the 1940s their numbers decreased. No doubt the increasing availability of a wide variety of textbooks, along with the rapidly changing nature of the curriculum, made the effort which went into the production of syllabi unnecessary. They are still used in a small way in some schools, but syllabi are not nearly as important as they were a few decades ago.

The period after World War II until the beginning of the 1960s seems to have been a rather quiet time in the development of library science texts. Very little new material was introduced, but many of the old classics were reprinted or appeared in new editions. The major developments occurred at the latter end of this period and consisted of the use of the introduction of media into the curriculum and the appearance of information science as a subject matter for library schools to teach.

Commercial Publishing of Textbooks

A great change in library science textbook production took place in the late 1960s and early 1970s. This change may be directly related to the increase in library school enrollment brought about by the influx of federal money that was appropriated by Congress in an effort to alleviate the shortage of librarians. The change also involved the wholesale entry of commercial textbook publishers into the library science market. Indeed, there had always been a few trade publishers in library science, but by and large the great majority of library science textbooks had been issued by professional or academic presses, such as the American Library Association and University of Chicago Press. The commercial market for library science textbooks scarcely existed, because, before 1960, the number of students in accredited library schools never exceeded 1800.

With the influx of federal funds and students, circumstances changed radically. The number of library school students shot up from a little less than 1800 in 1960 to over 5500 by 1970. In addition, the number of library schools with accredited programs increased in the same period from thirty-two to fifty-two.²⁴ All of this increase, while probably miniscule in relation to many other academic programs, proved to be attractive to many major textbook houses, and they began to enter the market. Along with the increase in governmental funds for education of all kinds—and probably as a result of it—textbook firms

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were seen as attractive takeover prospects by larger firms. The resultant influx of capital may have helped publishers to make the most of the educational market.

One of the first firms to enter the library science market was also among the largest publishing houses: McGraw-Hill. Its contribution was a series of widely used textbooks, "McGraw-Hill Series in Library Education," under the editorship of Jean Key Gates. She was also the first contributor to the series; her *Introduction to Librarianship* appeared in 1968, and appeared in a second edition in 1976. As the title implied, this was a general overview of the field of librarianship. Other examples in the series focused on more specific areas of library practice at the time. John Boll's *Introduction to Cataloging*, in two volumes, had first been published by the University of Wisconsin—Madison in 1966, and shortly thereafter was included in the new McGraw-Hill series. The second important area of librarianship, reference work, was covered by what turned out to be probably the most widely used work in the series, William A. Katz's *Introduction to Reference Work*, in two volumes. It first appeared in 1969 as well, with subsequent editions in 1973, 1978, and 1982. Other titles included the 1971 book by Edward Heiliger and Paul Henderson entitled *Library Automation; Experience, Methodology, and Technology of the Library as an Information System*. This was issued at a time when the subject of computers and automation was just beginning to enter the library school curriculum. If this work looked to the future, Sidney L. Jackson's *Brief History of Libraries and Librarianship in the West* (1974), looked to the past. The McGraw-Hill series was being added to as late as 1981, with Richard K. Gardner's *Library Collections, Their Origin, Selection and Development*.

The McGraw-Hill series contained relatively few titles, all them clearly focused on major areas of library education. Another series of texts, published by Libraries Unlimited, competed to a certain extent with the McGraw-Hill series, but was much broader and more varied in scope. Its origin was in a text on cataloging written by Bohdan S. Wynar. His *Introduction to Cataloging and Classification* first appeared in 1964 and predates the series in which it was later to be issued. By 1980 it had reached its fifth edition. Other important works in the series included Jesse H. Shera's *Introduction to Library Science: Basic Elements of Library Service* (1976), H. Robert Malinowsky's *Science and Engineering Reference Sources: A Guide for Students and Librarians* (1967), Joe Morehead's *Introduction to United States Public Documents* (1975), and A. Robert Rogers's *The Humanities, a Selective Guide to Information Sources* (1974). In addition to these titles, a

number of others contributed to more restricted areas of library education, such as map librarianship, micrographics, and Dewey decimal classification. The series also had at least two titles for use in library technician training programs. But, as can be clearly seen, this series attempted to respond to the same basic needs for textual materials as the McGraw-Hill series.

Two other series of textbooks, neither perhaps as important as the ones previously discussed, deserve mention, at the very least because of their innovative and individual approaches to the material they dealt with. NCR Microcard Editions took advantage of modern photo-offset procedures to produce volumes of articles assembled from other publications. Rather than have the student laboriously search the literature for items of interest, the topics were presented to him or her in one package. These "Readers in..." covered a fairly wide range of topics, including library administration, research methods, academic libraries, American library history, cataloging, and others. All of these were published during the period 1969 to 1974—the great expansion period of library education. None seems to have been published in more than one edition, however.

The second series took the case-study approach, presenting actual—or at least realistic—problems in library service. These could then be discussed by students, and appropriate solutions proposed and analyzed. This series was R.R. Bowker's entry into the library science text sweepstakes, and it was entitled "Problem-Centered Approaches to Librarianship." The series consisted of four titles—all by prominent library educators—on reference service, school media management, science and technology, and organizing library collections. All of the volumes in this series appeared in 1971 and 1972, and it is difficult to tell how successful they were. The fact that the series stops at this point suggests they were not particularly well received.

Other publishers also aimed individual titles at the library market. It is not possible to mention all of these. Many of them were responding to the general upturn in library buying, as a result of the influx of federal money. The most prominent of these was Scarecrow which had developed techniques for printing small editions profitably. Most of what they published was directed to academic library collections, but some was intended as textual material in library science. One may mention Elmer D. Johnson's *History of Libraries in the Western World*, 1965 (second edition by Michael Harris and Johnson in 1976) as an example. Other publishers—such as Greenwood Press—directed much of their list at the library market, without quite adopting Scarecrow Press' bargain basement methods.

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Information science courses first began to appear in library science catalogs in the late 1960s, and by the early 1970s at least one textbook series had come into being to serve that growing need. John Wiley & Sons had been a scientific and technical publisher for a century or more. Its subsidiary, Becker & Hayes, began the "Information Science Series" in 1970, with Gerald Jahoda's *Information Storage and Retrieval Systems for Individual Researchers*. There followed in 1971 Allen Kent's *Information Analysis and Retrieval*. Other titles included discussions of information handling, automated language processing, information retrieval systems, and further topics of concern in information science. The series occasionally ranged a bit more widely, including Jesse Shera's classic 1972 work (inexcusably out of print) *The Foundations of Education for Librarianship*.

At the present time, the use of the computer and media seems to have become ubiquitous in library education. In a recent study, sixty-three responding library schools indicated they maintained a combined total of ninety-three different laboratories devoted either to media or computers, or else both in one facility.²⁵ However, their introduction into the curriculum has been so recent that they may almost be said not to have a history, although that would of course not be quite the truth. Nonetheless, in the last ten years the computer has grown dramatically in importance, as the use of computerized reference databases and cataloging systems has increased.

Media have been present in the library school curriculum somewhat longer but involve probably more instruction in their use rather than their use in instruction. In this regard, the same study also found that, as of 1984, the mean number of years of existence for media laboratories was about eleven.²⁶ The media laboratory at the University of Illinois library school has been around a good deal longer but still may serve as an example and may also mark the earliest that this type of instruction has been offered in library education. The first course in the subject was offered in 1943; five or six years later the teaching of "audio-visual" materials was spread throughout the curriculum. The media laboratory has grown and developed in many directions and is a far cry from stereopticon slides of an earlier day. Although other schools may not be able to boast of the antiquity of such a program, it is difficult to imagine a curriculum without this aspect, whether film, videotape, slide production, or other nonprint media.²⁷

More difficult to characterize is the use of computers in library school instruction. The introduction of information science into the curriculum no doubt had a great influence, but probably more to the point was the need to teach online cataloging and database retrieval. In

1984, the mean number of years that library schools had had cataloging laboratories was a little over five.²⁸ The recent widespread availability of inexpensive microcomputers and commercial software will make changes that are probably not fully reflected in the library school curriculum or its needs for teaching material yet.

Periodicals in Library Science

It is difficult to summarize the development of library science publications during the last one hundred years. As an introduction, some statistics will help. H.G.T. Cannons's *Bibliography of Library Economy*—the first index in this country devoted solely to library science material—was published in 1927. It covered journals published between 1884 and 1920, and indexed sixty-eight titles. Its successor, the H.W. Wilson index, *Library Literature*, first appeared in 1934. The initial volume covered years 1921 to 1932 and indexed seventy-eight periodicals, about one-fifth of which were foreign. The next volume—covering 1933 to 1936—included eighty-six titles, about one-third of which were foreign. From that point on, the proportion of foreign titles indexed has remained rather steady at about one-third. In the 1941 to 1951 volume, 120 titles were indexed and in 1970 to 1971, 164 titles were indexed. Finally, in the 1983 volume, access to 218 titles was provided. This is truly a prodigious increase in the literature of the field and parallels developments in other areas of learning.

Yet the large number of publications directed at the librarian of today belies the relative simplicity of the early days. Before the turn of the century—although librarians probably read those foreign journals that their language skills permitted—very little of any importance was published in the United States. One of the first which the newly emerging field of librarianship made use of was *Publishers' Weekly*. Established in 1872, it was intended primarily as an organ for publishers and booksellers. However, the information it published was of very great import to librarians too and a perusal of its pages will make it clear that the editors were conscious of that audience as well.

In the centennial year of 1876, *Library Journal* appeared—the first periodical specifically directed to librarians in the United States. As in many other areas of librarianship, Melvil Dewey had a hand as principal founder as well as being editor for a number of years. The connection with *Publishers' Weekly* is strong. Frederick Leypoldt, its founder, was *Library Journal's* publisher as well. *Library Journal* served as the

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American Library Association's official organ until that body established a periodical of its own a number of years later. In fact, the next major library publication to appear was the *Bulletin of the American Library Association*, which first appeared in 1907 as a bimonthly of about twelve pages. Its aim was to "communicate at frequent stated periods with members...."²⁹ Early issues were rather dry, being full of committee reports and bare of any illustration. In 1926, the publication frequency changed to monthly and began to feature articles of more general interest as well as pictures. It gradually evolved into the *American Libraries* and was received, if not read, by all members of the American Library Association.

The next major development in the area of library science publications did not take place until 1931. The foundation of the Graduate Library School at the University of Chicago had many profound influences on the course of library education. None was more important than its establishment of *Library Quarterly*, whose first issue came out in January 1931 under the editorship of W.M. Randall. Much more so than any other American library periodical, it followed the format of the scholarly quarterly both in appearance and content. Its focus was on research in library science—a point made clear in the opening essay, which stressed the importance of that area. Indeed, given the thrust of the curriculum at Chicago, the appearance of such a journal may be considered more or less inevitable. Others of its ilk were to follow, but none have retained quite the prestige of *Library Quarterly*.

The communal interests of library education itself have been served since 1915 by the American Association of Library Schools. This body had published for some time several smaller publications which included a collection of meeting reports, a newsletter, and a directory. However, with the growing ferment in library education after World War II, apparently the need was felt for a journal to deal solely with the issues of library education. In this manner the quarterly, *Journal of Education for Librarianship*, first made its appearance in the summer of 1960. Recently renamed the *Journal of Education for Library and Information Science* to reflect the importance of information science and library science education, it has remained the primary publication in this area.

A departure in format was *Library Trends*, which first appeared at the University of Illinois under the general editorship of Robert B. Downs. The great departure for this journal was the fact that each quarterly issue was devoted to one theme under the editorship of a specialist in that particular area. Since the first issue in July 1952, just

about every problem in librarianship has been covered at least once, from copyright to computerization.

These are a few of the most important journals in library science; ones that have contributed to the education of the student and practitioner alike. Obviously many others could be mentioned. Today the list of library science periodicals includes not only scholarly journals but also a plethora of state and regional library association periodicals, all having a similar purpose to that of the *Bulletin*—i.e., communication with members. In addition, there has been an increasing number of journals—often published commercially—that are directed to specific areas of practice and are intended to help the practitioner in those areas. The *Journal of Academic Librarianship* is one such journal. However, the Haworth Press of Binghamton, New York, is the most prolific producer of these periodicals. During the last ten years or so it has seemingly tried to cover every possible area of library practice with such titles as *Public Library Quarterly*, *Special Collections*, *Journal of Library Administration*, *Behavioral and Social Sciences Librarian*, *Reference Librarian*, and many others. In 1952, when Robert B. Downs introduced *Library Trends*, he apologized for adding another publication when librarians were already “surfeited” and “inundated” by library periodicals.³⁰ The surfeit and inundation are even more pronounced today, yet the flow of new publications does not seem to abate.

Conclusion

This paper has been an introduction to, and an overview of, a subject which richly deserves further, much more detailed, examination. Textbooks are among the codifiers and standardizers of knowledge in a field, and in that role they may reveal a great deal about attitudes and approaches of a discipline at a particular time. Much can be learned from studying them. It might be rewarding, for example, to examine early texts on reference service to try to determine what attitudes and practices they were inculcating into beginning librarians. Similarly, approaches to the organization of material and the expectations made of catalogers have changed a great deal, in ways that deserve further exploration. The whole question of introduction of the teaching of media and automation has only received that most cursory attention here. These subjects and many more are all worthy of the attention of doctoral students and other researchers. It is indeed time that the transparency that textual materials have had in the literature of our profession be reduced or perhaps even eliminated entirely.

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